THE TRANSITION TO MULTILINGUAL EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICAN SCHOOLS

by

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I declare that **The transition to multilingual education in South African schools** 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: ------------------------------------   DATE: -------------------------

(Mrs M.M. Mabiletja)

DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to the following people:

- my daughter, the late Mahlatse Mabiletja

- my father, the late Jacob Molokomme

- my brother, the late James Molokomme

- and my two sisters, the late Phuti and the late Makolobe Molokomme.

I loved you a lot and I will always miss you. May their soul rest in peace!

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ABSTRACT

There is an abundance of multilingual education (MLE) studies internationally and locally. Studies show that MLE is a global issue. South Africa is a unique country since it has assigned eleven languages official status at the national level. The multilingual nature of this country calls for the implementation of MLE. This study seeks to argue that if mother tongue, the language of wider communication as well as other languages are important, the transition should be geared towards MLE rather than to second language (L2). The question is how the transitioning to MLE is embraced in South Africa. This study is an attempt to examine the transitioning to MLE in South Africa schools with reference to Limpopo Province. The study mainly explored the Language-in-education policy (LiEP) implementation and practices in the selected schools as well as examining schools' compliance with the pedagogical motivations and theories dealing with transition to multilingual education.

The study used both quantitative and qualitative methodologies to corroborate the data obtained by using one method to reduce the limitations of another method. In quantitative research, questionnaires and semi-structured interviews were used to gather data from principals, parents, teachers and learners. In the qualitative research methodology, observations and document analysis methods of collecting data were employed. Purposive sampling was the major sampling method to ensure that relevant data was collected. Qualitative data was analysed thematically. LiEP and the National Language Policy Framework (NLPF) formed the major analytical framework for this study.

Cummins' theories (1978), bi/multilingual education models as well as the Language management theory form the theoretical framework that guided this study. The theories emphasise the link between mother tongue and the development of L2.

The findings of this study show the misunderstandings of the LiEP, the implementation of early transitional bilingual education as well as the lack of confidence in the ability of African languages to provide quality education. The study generally suggests that language policies should be dealt with differently due to the contexts which they address. This study concludes by suggesting a working model that is suitable for the unique linguistic situations of schools.

KEY TERMS:

Multilingual education, multilingualism, mother tongue, home language, first language, second language, additive multilingualism, bilingual education models, language of learning and teaching, South Africa, Limpopo Province.

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ANA	Annual National Assessment
BICS	Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills
BLE	Bilingual education
CALP	Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency
CAPS	Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement
CLIL	Content language integrated learning
CS	Code-switching
CUP	Common Underlying Proficiency
DACST	Department of Arts, Culture, Science and Technology
DBE	Department of Basic Education
DET	Department of Education and Training
DoE	Department of Education
EPU	Education Policy Unit
FAL	First additional language
FLC	First Language Component
HL	Home language
HSRC	Human Science Research Council
L1	First language
L2	Second language
LANGTAG	Language Task Group
LiEP	Language-in-Education Policy
LMT	Language Management Theory
LOITASA	Language of Instruction in Tanzania and South Africa
LoLT	Language of learning and teaching
LOTE	Language other than English
MLE	Multilingual education
MoI	Medium of instruction
MT	Mother tongue
MTE	Mother tongue education

NCCRD	National Centre for Curriculum Research and Development
NCS	National Curriculum Statement
NEPI	National Education Policy Investigation
NGOs	Non-government organizations
NLPF	National Language Policy Framework
PanSALB	Pan South African Language Board
PIRLS	Progress in International Reading Literacy Study
RNCS	Revised National Curriculum Statement
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SALA	South African Languages Act
SASA	South African Schools Act
SASL	South African Sign Language
SGB	School Governing Body
SMT	School Management Team
StatsSA	Statistics South Africa
SUP	Separate Underlying Proficiency
TOTSA	Training of Trainers Programme for Educators in Multilingual Settings in Southern Africa
UNECSO	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation
US	United States
USA	United States of America
WCED	Western Cape Department of Education

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES

TABLES

FIGURES

CHAPTER 1

AN INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

1.1   Introduction

Most research studies focusing on language-in-education policies and the choice of language of learning and teaching (LoLT) in South African schools highlight that there is a need to focus on the issue of language in education and the problems of transition to multilingual education (Macdonald, 1990; De Klerk, 1995; Heugh, 1995b; Meyer, 1995 & 1998; NCCRD, 2000; Probyn, 2001; Webb, 2002a and 2002b; & Mabiletja, 2008). These studies reveal that many schools opt for transition to English or straight to English, which is the second language (L2), as a medium of instruction as early as possible. This may neglect the pedagogical benefits of continuing with the first language (L1) as a medium of instruction (MoI) or language of learning and teaching (LoLT). This may also pose as a problem when it comes to government's commitment to language development in South Africa.

This current study investigates how the transition to multilingual education is practiced in South African schools. The study focuses on selected primary schools in the country, with particular reference to the Pietersburg Circuit of the Capricorn District in the Limpopo Province. This province is one of the nine provinces in the Republic of South Africa. It is greatly characterized by linguistic diversity since almost all of the official languages of the Republic are spoken in this province. The province is characterized by poor socio-economic conditions compared to the neighbouring provinces such as Gauteng.

This chapter begins by identifying the research problem, discussing the context of the research problem and identifying aims as well as objectives of the study. This is followed by the discussion on the significance of this study and a brief

description of the research design and methodology. The chapter provides an outline of the thesis.

1.2 The research problem

This section focuses on the formulation of the research problem, the background to the research problem and the research questions.

1.2.1 The problem formulation

The problem that is discussed in this study is linked to the problem of language policy in South Africa. The research aims to investigate the disparity between policy and practice in South African schools. A desire to promote multilingualism in the post-apartheid South Africa has led to the formulation of the new language-in-education policy (LiEP) for the South African schools (DoE, 1997b). The new LiEP recognizes the official status of 11 languages and emphasizes the importance of multilingual education (MLE) in schools. It states that "the underlying principle is to maintain home language(s) while providing access to and the effective acquisition of additional language(s)" (DoE, 1997b:2).

The new LiEP is informed by the Constitution (Section 29, Act 108 of 1996) which states that "everyone has the right to receive education in the official language of their choice in public educational institutions where that education is reasonably practical". This means that the previously marginalised African languages should also be used officially as languages of learning and teaching (LoLTs), at least from Grades 1 to 3. After Grade 3, the LiEP suggests that there must be a transition to an additional language, English as LoLT (DoE, 1997b). This, however, is problematic when we take into consideration the fact that education in mother tongue should be preferred. This also poses problems when we have to consider the level of competence of the child before the transition to English as LoLT. It, as well, raises questions about the notion of language choice and language rights. This appears to defeat the purpose of Section 29 (2) of Chapter 2 (The Bill of Rights) in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa

(Act 108 of 1996), where the right of learners to choose a language is enshrined. Alexander et al. (2000:15), on the other hand, states that:

> "learners should be strongly encouraged to use their primary languages or mother tongues as their main LoLT at all levels of schooling and (that) they must also have the opportunity to learn additional languages (ALs) to high levels of proficiency."

This means that a type of additive multilingual education, where mother tongue (MT) is used as LoLT whereas an additional language is learnt as a subject, may be seen as relevant in the South African context.

Prior to 1994, there was linguistic disparity in South Africa, where English and Afrikaans were the only official languages in education. According to Cluver (1991), although African languages were learnt as subjects and used as LoLT in some primary schools, the development of African languages was restricted and the apartheid government never intended to develop African languages into fully standardised languages. These languages were not officially used as LoLTs since they lacked formal official status. After the democratic elections (in 1994), the new government opted for eleven official languages, and these are isiZulu, isiXhosa, isiNdebele, siSwati, Xitsonga, Tshivenda, Sesotho, Sepedi, Setswana, Afrikaans and English. The introduction of 11 official languages was aimed at, among other things, the promotion of African languages in education. The problem with this is that, in a practical sense, it is costly to produce the learning materials in all 11 official languages. It is also not always reasonably practical to use all 11 official languages as LoLTs in a single class. It is clear as well that the South African new LiEP does not prescribe any particular language(s) to be used as LoLT(s). It encourages the preference of English in education since this language also qualifies as an official language. English has an advantage because the material for content subjects is readily available for all grades.

As a way of addressing the issue of equality the government has given parents and teachers, through school governing bodies, a choice to design their own LiEPs.

According to Paterson (2004), teachers and parents usually choose either a single medium approach where content subjects are taught in the mother tongue and additional languages as subjects, or a dual medium approach where subjects are taught in both English and the home language in equal measure. This situation falls under the proximal circumstance in language planning, where language planning is done by local communities and schools. The proximal circumstance can be contrasted with the distal circumstance (planning by government) and immediate circumstance (the use of language by teachers in class) (Ngcobo, 2009). It clearly shows that the new LiEP follows a democratic approach. The only problem is that the government does not stipulate how the governing bodies must do this planning. This also encourages the choice of English as the most preferred language compared to other official languages.

In a nutshell, South Africa with regard to language in schools is facing the following challenges:

- The use of African languages as languages of learning and teaching (LoLTs) rather than the teaching of these languages as subjects of study. At present almost all, if not all, nine indigenous African Languages are taught in some schools as subjects of study.
- The use of the nine official African languages as LoLTs beyond the Foundation Phase (Grades R-3). Several studies such as Hartshorne (1995), Mutasa (1999), Verhoef (1998), Kamwangamalu (2000) and Webb (2000b), point out that the language policies adopted during the colonial period and the apartheid era affected learners, teachers and parents (including government) negatively with regard to language choice and use.
- The use of English as LoLT in schools including those where all teachers and learners speak an African language as their first language (Kamwangamalu, 2001:396). This continues to indicate the low prestige of the African languages in school education. The LiEP continues to encourage this status quo by emphasizing the use of L2, which in most

cases is English, as LoLT even though this entails subtractive multilingual education.

- The high failure rate in primary schools is measured by the performance of grades 1 to 6 learners in the Annual National Assessment (ANA) 2014 results (DBE, 2014). This high failure rate is, among other things, caused by the level of language proficiency which is used as a LoLT in these grades. The acceptable achievement in ANA results is 50%. This means that if a learner obtains a mark of less than 50%, that learner has not done well. According to DBE (2014) in 2014 the percentage of learners attaining acceptable achievement levels varied across provinces. The table below summarises the acceptable achievement of learners in the Limpopo Province.

Table 1.1 Achievement of learners in the Limpopo Province

Grade	Learning areas/subjects		
	Mathematics	Home Language (HL)	First Additional Language (FAL)
1	74, 3	69	-
2	67, 4	62, 3	-
3	48, 7	56, 7	-
4	13, 4	55, 3	26, 7
5	13, 1	59, 4	36, 8
6	21, 3	59, 7	33, 9

(Source: DBE, 2014)

These differences clearly indicate the poor performance of learners in higher grades than in lower grades. The results show that learners in the Limpopo Province fail to achieve the required level of performance in the FAL which is LoLT for the majority of learners from Grades 4 to 12. Furthermore, the mathematics achievement from Grades 4 to 6 is disastrous. This situation could be associated with the transition from one LoLT (home language) to a second language (L2) for the majority of learners.

Previous research indicates that teaching and learning which take place in a L2 create problems (Macdonald, 1990; NEPI, 1992; De Klerk, 1995a; Heugh, 1995b; NCCRD, 2000; Probyn, 2001; Bloch, 2002 & Mabiletja, 2008). In most cases,

particularly with regard to African schools, learners are not proficient in the LoLT. This situation might be caused by lack of adequate and appropriate models of language as most educators and learners are not home language speakers of the LoLT. Learners are therefore challenged by mastery of academic content and the ability to master the content through the use of the L2. There is a breakdown between language policies and classroom practice with extensive code-switching by teachers and learners, particularly in areas where there is a shared home language and consequently less exposure for learners to the target language, English, inside the classroom (Probyn, 2005b).

It seems the transition to English only as LoLT in the intermediate phase does not sufficiently equip learners with the ability to learn successfully. According to Macdonald (1990), this language problem contributes greatly to the failure rate of African primary school learners. This problem is then transferred to secondary schools. Not all learners are ready for the transition from home language to English as LoLT at this stage and educators also feel pressure because they realize that learners are not yet ready to be taught and learn in English. Teachers have realized this through learners' behaviour such as their inability to communicate effectively in class and apathetic attitudes toward their school work (Probyn, 2005b). As shown above, the language literacy was 33,9% in Grade 6 in 2014 (DBE, 2014). This study is, therefore, conducted with the assumption that there might be some problems with government's LiEP and its implementation by schools. Another issue is that there may be a lack of synergy between the LiEP text and actual practice in schools. The study is intended to propose a working model that will inform appropriate departmental authorities, parents and educators about how the transition to multilingual education (MLE) should be done in South African schools. The study thus provides a contribution to pedagogically motivated literature on language planning.

1.2.2   The context of the research problem

This section discusses briefly the context of the research problem. According to Statistics South Africa (2012:25), the majority of languages spoken as home

languages in the Limpopo Province (the province under investigation) are Northern Sotho (Sepedi), Xitsonga, and Tshivenda. Despite the three dominant African languages in this province, other African languages such as Sesotho (Southern Sotho), Setswana, SiSwati, isiNdebele, isiXhosa, isiZulu as well as South African Sign Language are also spoken, although they may constitute a very small percentage of the population. Webb (2002b) argues that the choice of LoLT in schools of this province does not coincide with learners' home languages. When comparing learners' home languages with their choice of the LoLT, the results confirm that about only 1,6% of learners speak English and 61,9% prefer English rather than their home languages in Limpopo Province. By that time, 67,8% of learners were taught in English. Owing to the multilingual situation of this province, the implication for developing a multilingual language policy is that it would be reasonably practicable for many learners to have at least a bilingual education in English and one African language such as Northern Sotho, Tshivenda or Xitsonga.

The study by Meyer (1998) shows that there is a difference between what teachers report about their language practices in class and what they actually do in Limpopo. In Meyer's study, it was established that most teachers and learners in secondary schools in the Limpopo Province rely on English for the purpose of writing, but for interaction they use a combination of languages (Meyer, 1998). The majority of teachers show a strong preference for English as LoLT. However, Meyer (1998) and Mabiletja (2008) note that in practice teachers and learners continue to use both English and their primary languages in class, especially in ex-DET schools. This practice is not only seen in the Limpopo Province. The Language of Instruction in the Tanzania and South Africa (LOITASA) project also revealed this practice in the Eastern Cape Province where teachers code-switch between English and IsiXhosa (Brock-Utne & Holmarsdottir, 2003).

Another study on language use in education was conducted by the National Centre for Curriculum Research and Development in four provinces of South Africa, including Limpopo (NCCRD, 2000). The NCCRD study clearly shows

that the problem posed by language is one of the main factors that lead to poor academic performance and high failure rate. There is a need, therefore, for schools to use a multilingual education approach that will ensure success in education, equitable access, and language rights.

1.2.3.   Research questions

This study aimed to provide an answer to the main question on how the transition to MLE is practiced in South African primary schools. In order to address the research problem, the following questions were asked:

1. What are the claims made by the government's LiEP with regard to MLE in South African schools?
2. How do selected schools conform to government's LiEP?
3. Which are the languages of choice in these schools and why?
4. What problems are encountered in this trend of language choice?
5. What is the relationship between mother tongue-based education and development in general?
6. How does this affect the implementation of multilingualism in schools?

In order to answer these questions, data were collected in the selected primary schools of Pietersburg Circuit in Capricorn District of the Limpopo Province.

1.3   Aims and objectives

From the previous sections, it appears that there is a problem regarding the transition to MLE in South African schools. Therefore, this study aims to:

- examine how the transition to multilingual education is effected in South African schools;
- analyse the situation of LiEP implementation in South African schools. (the analysis will address the issue of LiEP implementation and practice and investigate whether the schools comply with the pedagogical motivations and theories dealing with transition from L1 to L2); and

- propose contextualized practical pedagogical recommendations as solutions to a problem encountered with regard to the transition to MLE in a situation such as that of South African schools.

1.4   Multilingual education

This section focuses on the concept of multilingual education. It further provides the roles that MLE plays in society. Various scholars view MLE differently. The section also defines the concepts of multilingualism, transition to MLE as well as other relevant concepts and how they are used in this study. It also reveals that some people are of the opinion that MLE is a barrier to learning, whereas some view it as a resource for learning.

1.4.1   The concept of multilingual education

The recognition of the multilingual nature of societies, particularly the role of indigenous languages in developing countries, has led to the increased attention to multilingual education (MLE). According to Corson (1990), *multilingualism* is the recognition and the use of more than two languages in every sector of the community. Apart from Corson's definition of multilingualism, Jessner (2008:18) defines it as an acquisition of more than two languages and he indicates that it covers a wide range of meanings including the mastery of two languages. This implies that *bilingualism* may be used interchangeably with *multilingualism*. In addition to these definitions, Mateene (1999) contends that multilingualism means both the ability to speak, write and read one's languages. This implies that multilingualism does not mean only an understanding and the ability to speak more than one language, but that it must also include the ability to read and write in those languages.

MLE refers to first language first, that is, schooling which begins in the mother tongue before the transition to an additional language. According to UNESCO (2003b), MLE may involve the use of at least three languages in education, that is, the mother tongue, a regional language or national language and an international language. This includes bilingual education where two languages are

used. This further includes educational programmes that use languages other than the first languages of learners as LoLTs. MLE programmes aim at developing communicative proficiency in more than two languages. This means that the need for an individual to become more competent in other languages than one's own language will be promoted by MLE. Considering the definition of multilingualism by Mateene (1999), as cited above, MLE will enable learners to understand, speak, write and read more than two languages. In this study both bilingual education and MLE are used interchangeably.

The concept of *transition* with regard to MLE refers to a switch, shift or change from using just one language to adding another language for the purpose of learning and teaching. All languages may be used simultaneously without replacing one with the other. In South Africa it will mean an addition of first and second additional languages. This is in contrast with the transition which has been emphasized or proposed by transitional theorists where a shift is geared towards English as replacement of mother tongue instruction. In MLE one is encouraged to access education in a home language while learning a language of wider communication which is usually an ex-colonial language in most African countries. MLE entails that transition should be a two-way bridge – back and forth – and not an abandonment of mother tongue literacy. UNESCO (2003b: 32) encourages that language should be learnt through different stages, namely, (1) "the early acquisition…of a second language in addition to the mother tongue" (learning takes place entirely in the learners' mother tongue); (2) "the introduction to a second language…as a subject of instruction" (building fluency in the mother tongue with the introduction of oral L2; (3) "further education in this second language at primary-school level based on its use as a medium of instruction" (building oral fluency in L2 and introducing literacy in L2). This step is very important when we consider that transition must take place when learners are ready for it; it is also not necessary in the South African context because many learners speak other languages than English (a language of wider communication) and the research done by UNESCO (2003b) indicates that learners who learn in their mother tongue tend to do better in the latter years. The fourth stage (4) refers

to "intensive and intra-disciplinary learning of at least a third language in secondary school" (using both L1 and L2 for life-long learning). I think it is important for governments to take a look at the level of competence of learners in different languages at these different stages. They must ensure that the transition is done whenever the child achieves the level of competency that enables him/her to access the necessary curriculum needs and it must be geared towards MLE and not towards a L2.

1.4.2 The function of multilingualism in education

There is a plethora of literature about the function and advantages of multilingualism in education. From these studies, two contrary views on the function of multilingualism in education may be identified. Mabiletja (2008) showed that multilingualism is viewed either as a barrier to learning and teaching or as a resource for learning and teaching. Scholars such as Tokuhama-Espinosa (2003) regard multilingualism as a barrier to learning and teaching because it prevents learners from being proficient in the language of wider communication. Tokuhama-Espinosa (2003) further believes that by learning more than one language children can suffer "brain overload" and that multilingualism can cause language problems such as stuttering or dyslexia. It is argued that multilingualism will impede the learning process because learners get confused at the end when they fail to acquire skills in any of the languages. According to her, learning through L2 as early as possible can cause learners to master L2 and they do not need L1 LoLT (Tokuhama-Espinosa, 2003). Although Brock-Utne (2000:178) argues that multilingualism in education constitutes a barrier to learning in tertiary education, Cummins (1986) shows that such learners will not have problems because if they acquired cognitive and academic language proficiency (CALP) in their L1 and if tertiary education is in L2, the skills will automatically be transferred to L2. This means that they will make academic progress.

Contrary to the view that multilingualism creates a barrier to learning process, scholars such as Onuko (Unknown), Skutnabb-Kangas and Garcia (1995), Cummins (2000), Thomas and Collier (2002), Garcia (2009), MacKenzie (2009)

and Komorowska (2011) view multilingualism as a resource for learning and teaching. Among other things, these scholars view MLE as a means to improve learning outcomes, reduce repetition and drop-outs, provide access to the curriculum and to learning, improve critical thinking abilities, and greater cognitive flexibility. According to these scholars, multilingualism in education further provides learners with more skills to use even beyond school level such as that they will become valuable assets in their society. The scholars maintain that being able to communicate in multiple languages will help people to better understand other people from different cultural backgrounds. They will have different perspectives of the world around them, can work and study in other countries, can fit a large society and increase job opportunities (De Klerk, 1995a; Skutnabb-Kangas & Garcia, 1995 & Crawford, 1996). This implies that MLE prepares an individual to confidently participate in a multilingual world. It means that learners will become responsible adults in the workplace and will succeed and become more productive. It also implies that they will have better opportunities in an interdependent society.

1.5   Multilingual education in South Africa

In South Africa, the use of language in African schools revolves around Afrikaans, English and African languages (Macdonald, 1990 & Hartshorne, 1992). This section examines briefly the schools' language-in-education policies (LiEPs) in South Africa and a particular focus will also be placed on the Limpopo Province. In contextualizing the current situation in South Africa, a brief historical overview of the LiEPs in South Africa is very important. I will begin by discussing the sociolinguistic profile of South Africa.

1.5.1   The linguistic diversity of South Africa

South Africa is a multilingual country and it has a total population of approximately 50 million (Statistics South Africa, 2012). Eleven languages (two languages, which were official languages during the apartheid government and nine African languages, which were used informally at the regional level during

that era) are now given official status at national level (Webb & Kembo-sure, 2000). The official languages of South Africa are still regionally based. This implies that they are concentrated in certain areas. For example, isiZulu in KwaZulu-Natal, isiXhosa in the Eastern Cape, isiNdebele and siSwati in Mpumalanga, Setswana in Northwest Province and Northern Cape, Sepedi (Northern-Sotho), Tshivenda and Xitsonga in Limpopo Province, Afrikaans mainly in the Western Cape and Sesotho (Southern-Sotho) in the Free State. English is spoken across the country and mostly in urban areas (Madiba, 1999).

Almost all of South Africa's official languages are found in Gauteng Province. Moreover, some of these languages are major home languages in some neighbouring states such as Sesotho in Lesotho, siSwati in Swaziland, Setswana in Botswana, Ndebele and Venda in Zimbabwe (Madiba, 1999). Generally, Afrikaans and English perform high functions as compared to African languages. English and Afrikaans are practically and officially used in domains such as government, administration, the courts of law, education, commerce and the media, (with English gradually replacing Afrikaans), whereas African languages are used in primary domains such as interpersonal communication, and for religious and cultural purposes (Webb & Kembo-Sure, 2000:46). This situation creates a great challenge for education and language policy implementation in South Africa.

1.5.2   Language policies in South Africa

Following the election of the new democratic government in 1994, a multilingual language policy was adopted as it is enshrined in section 6 of the Constitution (Act 108 of 1996). In Section 6 (1) of the Constitution English, Afrikaans and nine African languages, namely, isiZulu, isiXhosa, isiNdebele, siSwati, Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, Tshivenda, and Xitsonga are given equitable official status. One of the main objectives of the policy is to elevate the status and advance the use of these African languages against the background of the past discriminatory language policies. This implies that the African languages will develop in terms of terminology since the material to be used in education will need to be provided.

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996) promotes the implementation of a multilingual policy in various domains including education. The multilingual policy is also emphasized in the Language Task Group (LANGTAG) report (LANGTAG 1996) which identified the language-related needs of South Africa and made recommendations about language policies across different domains including education. LANGTAG strongly supported the widespread use of African languages in all spheres including education. Among others, LANGTAG (1996) made recommendations to conduct surveys identifying home languages for the target groups, language proficiency, language attitudes, availability and provision of resources, involvement of non-government organizations (NGOs) and SADC on training facilities, language syllabuses, and classroom language practices that will show how far the MLE is practiced and also guide the government and the Department of Education (DoE), in particular, on the formulation of the new LiEP and its implementation plan. The report does not, however, address the issue of using English as LoLT. Before discussing the new LiEP in South Africa, I will briefly discuss the previous language-in-education policies and their effect on the current situation.

1.5.2.1 Historical background

Hartshorne (1992) argues that the education policies of a country reflect its political status, its tradition, values and its conceptions of the future. He further shows that such policies are also influenced by economic and social factors (Hartshorne, 1995). According to Hartshorne (1992), South Africa is not an exception to this fact because the choice of languages and their status also seem to be mainly determined by political and economic factors.

South Africa has used several language-in-education policies since the occupation by the Dutch in 1652. Dutch was used as LoLT to teach the Khoi and San children (Bekker, 1999). After the British government took over the control of the Cape colony, English replaced Dutch when a new policy of Anglicization was adopted between 1806 and 1848. The establishment of the Union Government in 1910 recognized both Dutch and English as the official languages of the Union of

South Africa. Afrikaans replaced Dutch and was used alongside English in 1925 (Bekker, 1999 & Hartshorne, 1992). In 1948, the mother-tongue education policy was introduced following the National Party ascendancy to power and the introduction of Bantu education in 1953 (Hartshorne, 1989). The mother-tongue policy was rejected by the African language speakers as it was viewed as a means of promoting ethnic divisions and imposing Afrikaans on education for the Africans. Thereafter a new language policy was passed where some subjects were taught through Afrikaans and others through English. Such a policy approach led to the resistance to Afrikaans as LoLT, which in turn led to the Soweto uprising in 1976.

These previous policies resulted in the language status inequalities, the development and domination of English, the rejection of Afrikaans by Africans, the development of Afrikaans, the marginalisation of African languages, as well as the racial and class inequalities.

1.5.2.2   The LiEP in South Africa

The formulation of the new LiEP in 1997 was informed by the previous LiEPs, the above-mentioned initiatives by the government, the other policy frameworks such as the National Education Policy Act (Act 27 of 1996) and the South African Schools Act (DoE, 1997b). The main aims of the Ministry of Education in formulating the new LiEP are outlined in the LiEP policy document and include, among other things, the promotion of the additive multilingualism approach to language in education.

The LiEP (DoE, 1997b) also makes provisions that learners should learn through the medium of any official language of their choice. It further provides that learners should learn a home language as well as at least one additional language (DoE, 1997b). The LiEP emphasises the maintenance of mother tongues while providing access to the learning of additional languages (DoE, 1997b). The language policy is, therefore, intended to encourage or promote the use of mother

tongue alongside other languages of wider communication such as English (Heugh, 2000).

The LiEP is also aimed at negating the disadvantages resulting from any kind of mismatch between home languages and LoLTs and at achieving non-linguistic goals such as building a non-racial nation in South Africa. This policy also seeks to ensure that no one is discriminated against at school by not using their languages as LoLTs or by not offering their languages as subjects. To promote additive multilingualism, the policy requires that learners must pass at least two languages in Grade 12. One of these languages to be passed in Grade 12 should be a home language. The policy provides support for single-medium schools, but it encourages schools to provide for more than one LoLT where the need arises (DoE, 1997b).

Regardless of the problems that may be related to the current LiEP, this policy shows a democratic approach to language in education planning because it is inclusive of all official languages. The main challenge is how the transition to multilingual education in provinces that have different linguistic complexities should be done. Another challenge is that there is no synergy between the current LiEP and the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) because in the NCS and CAPS the choice of three languages is never emphasized. The linguistic situation in provinces such as Limpopo seems to be more complex in view of the high number of major official languages (i.e. more than five languages are spoken). More on this will be discussed in the following chapter. Another issue is that of transition to English. This is confusing since mother tongue or a native language should ideally be used as LoLT.

1.6   Theoretical and conceptual framework

This section provides briefly the theoretical framework that forms the basis for this study. More details on this topic will be provided in Chapter 3. In conceptualizing this research, Cummins's theory on transitional bilingual education (1978) and bilingual implementation models (Skutnabb-Kangas &

Garcia, 1995) are the areas upon which the theoretical and conceptual frameworks for this research are based.

1.6.1 Cummins's theories on language in education

Transitional bilingual education theory puts emphasis on learning one's native language so that this will facilitate the learning of L2. An assumption is that children's success in L2 depends on the mastery of their native languages. According to Cummins (1978:222), some learners may benefit from bilingual education. He presents a set of hypotheses which are elements of his theory, namely, the *threshold hypothesis* and the *interdependence hypothesis* (Cummins, 1978).

The threshold hypothesis predicts the cognitive and the academic effects of bilingualism (Cummins, 1984:3). According to the *threshold hypothesis* the level of development of a children's L1 forms a strong foundation for their L2 development (Cummins, 2000). This implies that children must acquire a threshold level of competence in their L1 before they can acquire academic achievement in their L2. If this can happen then the child has achieved positive bilingualism. This implies that the child is proficient in both languages. According to this hypothesis, it is possible that the child may acquire semi-lingualism, that is, low competence in both the L1 and the L2. This means that if L1 is inadequately developed, the L2 development will deteriorate. The *interdependence hypothesis*, on the other hand, states that L2 development is greatly influenced by the extent to which L1 has developed. It means that the skills, knowledge, values and attitudes supported in the L1 enhance the development of the L2. This implies that if there is the provision of continued, sufficient support in acquiring L1 skills that will advance L2 learning. This implies that a high level of competence in L1 will lead to a high level of competence in L2 and a low level of L1 competence will then lead to a low level of L2 competence. Cummins (1978) concludes that it is necessary for a child to acquire CALP in L1 in order to transfer such skills in L2. This will in turn help a child to attain a high level of competence in both languages. The hypothesis also

states that if L1 competence cannot be well developed before introducing a child to L2 instruction, both languages may not develop to enable learners to attain high academic achievement.

Cummins's theory has received criticism from scholars such as Canale (1984), Genesee (1984), Spolsky (1984), Troike (1984) and Wald (1984). These critics state that Cummins's theory does not consider other factors that affect learner achievement such as cultural, social, political and attitudinal factors. Cummins's theory treats schools the same since it does not consider the socio-economic differences of schools which greatly influence the academic achievement of learners. It must also be added that the theory was designed for transition to learning in English (monolingual education) rather than continuing with L1. It simply suggests that a solid foundation in the L1 prepares children in learning English. An emphasis is that a child must know a mother tongue first as this makes it easier to attain a desired goal of learning and teaching in English. But the transitional bilingual theory shows practical possibilities and as a result it is worth consideration together with other factors.

1.6.2   Bilingual education models

Apart from Cummins's theory, Skutnabb-Kangas and Garcia (1995), Skutnabb-Kangas and Cummins (1988) and Macdonald (1990) describe models of bilingual education, namely, the *transitional model, plural multilingual model, two-way bilingual education immersion model, maintenance model* and the *submersion* model. These models are used by other countries as strategies for implementing bilingual or multilingual policies.

In the *plural multilingual model* learners from different language backgrounds and nationalities use several LoLTs. In this model, learners who were originally monolinguals are exposed to many languages. The main aim of this model is to assist learners to become multilingual so that they are able to participate in the different domains. This model is also referred to as the mainstream bilingual

model (Skutnabb-Kangas & Garcia, 1995). Skutnabb-Kangas and Garcia (1995) assert that this is a form of additive multilingualism.

In the *two-way bilingual education immersion model* both majority and minority groups learn together in the same class to develop bilingual fluency in both languages and encourage cultural appreciation. An example of this model is bilingual immersion schools in California in the United States of America. The main objective of this model is to make all learners bilingual and bi-literate (Skutnabb-Kangas & Garcia, 1995).

In the *maintenance or developmental model* the minority learners start by using their mother tongues as LoLT and shift to the majority language where both languages are used as LoLT. For example, some of the subjects are learnt through the learners' L1 and the remaining subjects through L2. The minority learners continue to learn their mother tongues as subjects to ensure that they receive continued support to become academically competent in their mother tongues. According to Skutnabb-Kangas and Garcia (1995:227), this model is also referred to as the additive bilingual education, language shelter or heritage language model.

In the *transitional* model, learners are first taught in their native language (L1) while they are introduced to English (L2) (Macdonald, 1990). After about three years children are transferred into English only classes. This model has been successful in countries where teachers have adequate proficiency in L2, there is a high level of parental involvement and acquisition of initial literacy in L1. The L2 is first introduced as a subject before being used as LoLT.

In the *submersion* model, children of the non-dominant languages are forced to learn through languages that they do not understand. The minority language learners use the dominant language at the expense of their minority languages (Macdonald, 1990). According to Luckette (1993), this approach promotes subtractive bilingualism.

In relation to the abovementioned bilingual models, Luckett (1993) refers to those that relate to a positive attainment of L2 competence while maintaining the L1 competence (immersion, plural multilingual, two-way dual language, maintenance model) as additive bilingualism and those that result in a negative influence on both languages (transitional and submersion models) as subtractive bilingualism. According to Luckett (1993), additive bilingualism refers to a situation where a learner gains competence in L2 while L1 is maintained. She argues that this can only be realized if both L1 and L2 are valued and reinforced. She supports the idea that this additive bilingual approach has positive effects on a child's social and cognitive development. Luckett (1993) believes that if a child maintains his/her L1, it will be easier for him/her to master content in L2. In contrast to the additive bilingual approach, there is the subtractive bilingual approach to education, which has to do with a situation where a child learns the L2 at the expense of the L1 (Luckett, 1993). Luckett (1993) further states that this situation occurs when the L1 of the child is not valued and supported by the education system. As a result, this approach has a negative impact on a child's social and cognitive development. This implies that the child's L2 will not develop and as such she/he might not be able to make sound judgments about the content in L2.

1.7.   Research design and methodology

This section outlines the research design and methodology used in this study. It describes briefly the research methods as the extended discussion on this is provided in Chapter 4. Mouton (2001) defines a research design as a plan or blueprint of how one intends to conduct the research. It provides a set of guidelines and instructions on how to reach the goals the researcher set (Mouton, 1996). Research design is, therefore, a framework on which the study is based. It explains how this study is planned to be conducted. For this study both quantitative and qualitative approaches are used to overcome the pros and cons of one approach. On the other hand, research methodology refers to the description of the research methods that are used to collect and analyse data.

The methods of data collection and instruments include interviews, observations and a questionnaire.

1.7.1 Research approach

This research uses mixed methods approach as indicated above. The quantitative research approach establishes statistically significant conclusions about a population by studying a representative sample of the population (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). It has the following general characteristics:

- data is numerical, where tables and graphs are mostly used to explain the trends of the findings;
- the questionnaire is the main instrument used for data collection (Babbie & Mouton, 2001).

In this study I used questionnaires to collect data from learners and the data is, therefore, presented in tables and graphs.

A qualitative research approach, however, relies on non-numerical data (Johnson & Christensen, 2000). This approach is explorative, descriptive and contextual (Babbie & Mouton, 2001 and Cresswell, 2007). The research explored and described the experiences of learners and educators in classes composed of learners with similar or different home languages through semi-structured interviews and observations. This approach helps to achieve better informed results because, through interviews, follow-up questions may be asked to seek clarity and the researcher may allow the respondent to reach a saturation point, unlike in quantitative approach where the respondent is not able to elaborate and the researcher cannot ask follow-up questions. The research is also contextual because it focuses on learners in primary schools, specifically the grades 3 and 4 learners who are mainly introduced to languages other than their home language and/or their educators' home languages. The two approaches used supplemented each other.

1.7.2 Research setting

Describing the experiences of learning and teaching in a certain language requires observations and interviews in the settings where they take place. The study takes place in selected South African primary schools in the Pietersburg Circuit of the Capricorn District of the Limpopo Province. These settings were selected on the basis of accessibility, mixed groups of people because of the different types of schools, namely ex-DET, ex-Model C and private schools, and the quality of data and credibility. In some schools classes comprised similar home languages and in some there were a variety of home languages.

1.7.3 Sampling and participants

Sampling refers to the use of subset of the population to represent the whole population. According to Johnson and Christensen (2000), sampling is the process of drawing a sample from a population for research purposes. They further argue that when we sample, we study the characteristics of a subset selected from a large group in order to understand the characteristics of the larger group. De Vos (2000:191) defines sampling as "a small portion of the total set of objects, events or persons which together comprise the subject of our study". In this study purposeful sampling is used to ensure the gathering of relevant data and the trustworthiness of the research. According to De Vos (2000:192), "purposive sampling bases the selection of study settings and participants on each feature and characteristics that will enable the researcher to gather in-depth information on the areas of research interest". This sampling method ensures that only the most suitable participants for the research are interviewed, for example, Grade 5 learners, their educators, principals, parents and departmental officials.

Selection Criteria

- Learners and educators were selected from primary schools in the circuit;
- Learners and educators were selected from Grade 5;
- Principals;
- School governing body (SGB) representative (parent component);

- and departmental official from the circuit office.

To ensure that the data collected was manageable, the study was conducted in six schools out of 20 primary schools in the circuit. In each school the research involved the school principal, the chairperson of the School Governing Body (SGB), 3 teachers (Grade 5), departmental official - preferably the circuit manager - and 466 learners. The reasons for selecting only 466 learners included ensuring the representativeness of the sample and also ensuring that the data were manageable.

1.7.4   Methods of data collection and instruments

Triangulation was used since both quantitative and qualitative methods of collecting data were used in this study (Hammell, 2002; Tobin & Begley, 2004). According to Mouton and Marais (1988), triangulation refers to the use of multiple methods of data collection, analysis and interpretation. Bailey (1987) defines triangulation as a means to ensure that the correct data is gathered by comparing of the results of two or more methods. This implies that triangulation methodology involves the use of both qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection (Leedy, 1993). This method was chosen in order to increase the reliability of the results and to counterbalance the limitations of each method (Mouton & Marais, 1988). Data for this study was, therefore, collected by using three instruments, namely, questionnaires, interviews and observations (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992). At a basic level document analysis was also used with regards to language policies.

Questionnaires

Bailey (1987) defines a questionnaire as a list of questions to be answered by the participants in a survey. He further states that it is a self-administered instrument where the respondent is left to complete it alone in his/her own time. But the main challenge is that participants may leave some questions unanswered and the researcher cannot seek clarity as questionnaires normally do not have space provided for names. Among other advantages, a questionnaire saves time

(Chiwome & Thondhlana, 1992) and makes it easy to compare the results (Robinson, 1996). In this study questions based on schools' language backgrounds and personal profiles were answered in the questionnaires.

Interviews

An interview is a data collection method in which the researcher puts questions to a research participant (Johnson & Christensen, 2000). During interviews an interview schedule is used to direct and guide the interviews and also to specify the kind of information needed for the research. In this study the interviews were semi-structured and flexible to cater for emerging themes. This implies that the questions were asked and used to categorise responses from interviewees. In the interviews, follow-up questions were asked to seek clarity when necessary. All interviews were audio-taped and transcribed.

Observations

In order to ensure that the data is valid and reliable, observations of the events in their natural setting in the school were used. Jonson and Christensen (2000) state that people do not always behave like they say. Notes about the use of LoLT were also taken during observations. An observation sheet was used to identify and record the actions that were important for the study.

Document analysis

Document analysis (School LiEPs) in this study refers to the analysis of South Africa's new LiEP and the schools LiEPs. These LiEPs were investigated to observe their interaction with the practical situations in the classrooms.

1.7.5 Data presentation and analysis

Data analysis is a process of organizing and interpreting the data (Cresswell, 1994). Data is examined to look for both common and distinctive ideas. Interpretation involves attaching meaning and significance to the analysis, explaining patterns and looking for relationships (Cresswell, 1994). For the purpose of this study, it means that digital recorded interviews were transcribed

and read several times, highlighting significant statements that provided an understanding of the participants to create themes and categories (Cresswell 2007). I then reflected on the context and situations that might have influenced the results.

Data from learners was categorised and displayed in tables as well as graphs where a simple statistical method was used to analyse the data. Questions in the questionnaire were used to categorise the results when analysing the results.

A literature control was used to compare and contrast the results of this study with other findings (Cresswell, 2007). This means that literature from other scholars was used to show the trends discovered in other research findings as compared to the findings of this study. Data gathered for the purpose of this study was approached and analysed in the light of Cummins's theory on transitional bilingual education (1978) and bilingual implementation models (Skutnabb-Kangas & Garcia, 1995) in order to suggest a model relevant to language use in South Africa. Cummins's theory and bilingual models are discussed in detail in Chapter 3 dealing with the theoretical and conceptual framework.

1.7.6 Procedures and ethical considerations

Research studies are required to follow procedures and ethical considerations to ensure the participants' confidentiality and to show respect for their rights. The purpose of the research is communicated to the participants before continuing with the survey. In this study I made sure that all participants signed consent forms before participating in the study. Parents were requested to sign consent forms on behalf of their children to indicate that they allowed them to take part. Learners were also given the choice to withdraw from taking part even if their parents had signed on their behalf. Questionnaires were administered with all learners in the presence of the researcher to clarify where there was a misunderstanding of the language used and for selected participants open-ended interviews were conducted. Indicating the names on the questionnaires or in the

interviews was optional in order to ensure anonymity. This means that it is not possible to identify the source of data.

1.7.7   Reliability and validity

When investigating a certain phenomenon it is important to ensure that the method one uses for data collection and analysis will ensure valid and reliable outcomes. For this study reliability and validity were checked by using strategies for trustworthiness which include strategies such as credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Credibility (Truth value) ensures the identification of whether the explanation fits the description correctly. For this study credibility was ensured by using the triangulation method when collecting data through questionnaires, interviews and observations.

Transferability (Applicability) refers to the generalizability of inquiry. This checks whether or not the results are applicable in another context of the same kind. In this study literature control was used to compare the findings of this study with that of other scholars. The results from learners, educators, principals and SGB chairpersons from different schools were compared.

Confirmability (Neutrality) captures the traditional concept of objectivity. It focuses on whether the results of the research could be confirmed by another. This was also checked through the triangulation method.

Dependability (Consistency) refers to the sustainability of the research results. This is to check if the results of the research would be the same if another sample from a similar setting is used. In this study the results from learners, teachers, principal and SGB Chairperson from each school were compared for this purpose.

1.8   An outline of the structure of the thesis

The thesis is divided into the following chapters:

Chapter 1 is an introduction to this research. It provides a bird's eye view of what this study is all about. It consists of the formulation of the research problem, the background of the research, the research questions, the aims and objectives of the study, a discussion of multilingual education including the sociolinguistic profile in South Africa, the research design and methodology, validity and reliability, and an outline of the structure of the thesis.

Chapter 2 provides a detailed literature review that forms the background of this study. The following aspects are discussed in this chapter: multilingual education in the world, multilingual education in Africa, multilingual education in South Africa, as well as the linguistic situation in the Limpopo Province.

Chapter 3 presents in detail the theoretical and conceptual framework that is used in this study. Cummins's theory on transitional multilingual education and models of bilingual education are discussed. These are compared with other theories relating to multilingual education.

Chapter 4 provides detailed discussion of the research design and methodology. This includes research approach, sampling, data collection methods, presentation and analysis as well as reliability and validity. The research approaches that were followed in this study include quantitative and qualitative approaches. Purposive sampling was applied for all learners, teachers, principals and SGB chairpersons of the schools. Three tools for collecting data are discussed in detail, namely, questionnaire, interviews and observation.

Chapter 5 is data presentation. Data from the questionnaires was put into tables, question by question, and where the questions were mutually related then the data were put in the same table. Data from the interviews is also shown in separate tables.

Chapter 6 is the analysis of the research findings and the findings were compared and contrasted with the related literature and research. The findings were codified and discussed under the themes such as home languages, LoLT, language subject, language proficiency and learning problems, and language policy awareness.

Chapter 7 provides the summary of the research report as well as the conclusions and recommendations. This chapter also provides the proposed model that might be useful for multilingual education in South African school situations.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1   Introduction

The issue of language in education and multilingual education (MLE) in particular has not been discussed adequately in South Africa. Generally, literature on language in education shows that there is a strong link between language, academic achievement at school, economic competitiveness as well as social development (Cummins, 1978; Heugh, 2002c & UNESCO, 2010). As such the choice of language of learning and teaching (LoLT) as well as language policy in schools is very crucial since language and communication are critical factors in the learning process (UNESCO, 2010). Language in education can be viewed on two levels: (i) language as medium of instruction (MoI) or LoLT, as well as (ii) language as a subject of learning.

South Africa is facing a challenge on the basis that transition to multilingualism should not be merely a replacement of one language with another, but an addition of such a language so that both or more languages are used as LoLTs in a MLE perspective. This is called additive multilingualism as the focus is on maintaining mother tongue (MT) as MoI and adding L2 in order to achieve dual medium of instruction later. The idea would be that two or more languages are used in parallel or alternatively as LoLTs while they are also studied as subjects. This study focuses on how the transition to MLE is done in South Africa while taking into consideration LiEP constraints and other socio-economic as well as regional factors. The study also takes into consideration the constitutional provisions with regard to LiEP, more specifically the equitable use of all languages and the right to choose the LoLT(s) (Section 29 (2) of the Constitution, Act 108 of 1996).

The main focus of this chapter is to review literature on language in education in general, and more particular, MLE in the world including South Africa.

The chapter begins by discussing the concept of multilingualism, followed by a discussion on MLE programmes, mother tongue based MLE, MLE in the world, MLE in Africa, MLE in South Africa and MLE in the Limpopo Province as presented in literature. The chapter concludes by bringing into perspective the major findings of the reviewed literature.

2.2   The concept of multilingualism

Multilingualism is a common phenomenon which is found in most parts of the world including South Africa. Different scholars define multilingualism in various ways. For example, Skutnabb-Kangas (1988) defines multilingualism as the mastery of more than one language. It is noticeable that Skutnabb-Kangas' definition has to do with competence rather than language usage. This study will focus only on language as it is used in class communication since language proficiency is out of the scope of the present study. According to Webb (1998), multilingualism can be defined quantitatively as well as qualitatively. A quantitative definition embraces knowing three or more languages by an individual and the presence of three or more languages in a community referring to societal multilingualism. This deals with the number of languages an individual is able to use and the number of languages spoken by members of a community. On the other hand, Webb (1998) states that the qualitative definition of multilingualism is determined by peoples' language attitude. In this case it depends on how people rate the value of languages according to what they are used for in the community. Different languages might be used for different purposes. For example, one language may be used in formal domains such as in government, education, and media, whereas others are used for non-formal situations like at home. This concurs with Corson (1990) who defines multilingualism as the recognition and the use of more than two languages in every sector of the community. Skutnabb-Kangas (1988) asserts that the qualitative definition has to do with identification where one identifies himself/herself or where a community is identified with more than one language. Heugh (1993) states that being multilingual means being able to communicate in

at least two languages. In South Africa the knowledge and the use of both English and Afrikaans were regarded as being multilingual. This was due to the fact that these were the only official languages that were recognised by the apartheid government.

The concept of multilingualism also embraces the concept of bilingualism as the latter means the knowledge and the use of at least more than one language (UNESCO, 2010). In this study the concept of multilingualism is viewed as including all forms of multilingualism together with bilingualism, trilingualism, etc.

In the democratic era now it is officially acknowledged that South Africa is characterised by linguistic diversity. According to Wurm (1999), multilingualism is therefore regarded as a norm in South Africa. This country consists of many languages and even the Constitution of this country declares eleven languages official at national level to show this linguistic diversity. Curriculum 2005 (DoE, 1997a), the new Revised National Curriculum Statement (DoE, 2002a), and the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (DBE, 2011b) encourage the learning of at least two languages at Grade 12 whereas the new curriculum, CAPS, encourages the learning of two languages from Grade 1. This linguistic situation necessitates the need for an education system which includes everyone in the country and that is MLE.

2.3 Multilingual education

Language use in education is a crucial issue that needs special attention. According to Bloch (2002), for successful and competitive national development of multilingual states in Africa there must be recognition of MLE among other factors. UNESCO (2011) prefers multilingual education to refer to at least three languages in education. According to UNESCO (2003b & 2011), MLE may involve the use of at least three languages in education, that is, the mother tongue, a regional language or national language and an international language. In MLE one is encouraged to access education in both home language and a language of

wider communication, which is usually an ex-colonial language in most African countries such as Nigeria (Simire, 2003), Tanzania (Brock-Utne, 2005) and South Africa (Heugh, 1999).

MLE can be organised in the form of models such as immersion, transitional, maintenance and submersion programmes that are discussed briefly in Section 2.3.1 below. Various models and theories in multilingual environments have proposed that transitional arrangements should be made with regard to LoLT. According to UNESCO (2010), most of the models prefer that such transition should be geared towards using an official second or additional language (L2) after the first three years of formal schooling. One may argue that such models were designed for environments where monolingualism is a norm and where one official language is preferred in schools' system. It is usually an attempt to address the problem of immigration where an immediate transition to a national official language of the country is required for easy communication with the citizens of that particular country.

According to Cenoz and Genesee (1998a), MLE refers to a situation where more than two languages are used as LoLTs. This includes bilingual education where two languages are used simultaneously. This also includes educational programmes that use languages other than the first languages of learners as LoLTs. MLE programmes aim at developing communicative proficiency in more than one language. This means that the need for an individual to become more competent in other languages than one's own may be promoted through MLE.

Heugh (2002c) asserts that MLE does not mean choosing between English or African languages, but it means developing the L1 with an addition of a L2 in a manner such that L1 is used side by side with L2 for successful learning of the latter. It may be argued, however, that the transition to the use of more than one language as LoLT should be substantive rather than be cosmetic. Certain factors should be taken into consideration, including the development of indigenous languages and the need to learn a language of wider or global communication. With regard to LoLT, UNESCO (2011) argues that the language of instruction at

the beginning of one's education at such a crucial moment for future learning should be the mother tongue. This may also suggest the importance of maintaining mother tongue education throughout the period of learning.

2.3.1 Multilingual education programmes

Multilingual education programmes are types of language education programmes that focus either on learners' cognitive development or on making learners fit into the mainstream by using MTs together with other languages or by going straight to a L2. Many of the MLE programmes have been developed from the point of view that learners from the programmes will be bilingual or multilingual and also attain scholastic achievement, whereas some programmes are aimed at making learners monolingual and making one language dominate over another.

In her study of the Afrikaans-English teaching programme and the Xhosa teaching programme, De Klerk (1995) suggests that there must be support from the authorities because any new change makes teachers to feel uncomfortable. De Klerk (1995) further suggests that any multilingual programme needs to be linked to, among other things, a general in-service training on the teaching methodology, especially where there is not enough material and also a link to a language across-the-curriculum approach. The language across the curriculum means that there must be more co-operations between subject and language teachers. All models have been considered in order to bridge the gap.

Immersion programme

According to Skutnabb-Kangas (1988), in an *immersion programme* linguistic majority children with a high status MT choose to be instructed through the medium of a foreign language. Genesee and Cloud (1998) distinguish between L2 immersion programmes for Language-Majority Students, Developmental Bilingual Immersion Programmes for Language-Minority Students and Two-Way Bilingual Immersion Programmes. In L2 immersion programmes, 50% of the curriculum is taught in MT and 50% is taught in L2. In Developmental Bilingual Immersion Programme learners initially receive education in MT while studying

English until they are more proficient in English before it is used as LoLT. In Two-Way Bilingual Immersion programmes both majority and minority students are found in the same class. Learners are able to learn from each other. This implies that this programme is also transitional because in some cases L1 is replaced by L2.

According to Phillipson et al. (1986), Canadian immersion programmes in which the majority children are educated in L2, achieve high levels of bilingualism and success in schools. The goals of these programmes include linguistic and cultural enrichment and an increased employment for elite (Phillipson et al., 1986).

In their review of multilingual education programmes in Canada, Swain and Barik (1978) indicate that this model has been successful in Canada where English-speaking parents have been encouraging their children to learn through French. Children developed high-level of competence in L2 (French) without replacing their L1 (English). This programme is normally successful where learners are well exposed to a foreign language such as in urban areas.

MT-maintenance programme

Skutnabb-Kangas (1988) contends that in *MT-maintenance programme*, MT is used as LoLT. This programme shows high levels of success because a goal of making learners bilingual is achieved and that of equity and integration is also achieved, for example, the Finnish-Medium classes for the Finnish migrant population in Sweden as well as the Spanish-Medium classes for the Chicana population in the USA. This programme is also successful in the majority of schools because the main groups are all in the same position educationally where the MT education is given to the seven main language groups in the Soviet republic of Uzbekistan. Skutnabb-Kangas (1988) asserts that all groups fall under the majority because they have the right to education in their own languages. This programme is also successful where learners respect and have a positive attitude towards their languages.

Submersion programme

As discussed in Skutnabb-Kangas (1988) in *submersion programmes* for a majority, education is through the medium of a former colonial language as is the case with many African countries. Skutnabb-Kangas (1988) argues that for many learners these programmes lead to poor results both academically and linguistically, whereas for minorities it is a common way of educating both indigenous and immigrant minorities in most countries in the world. This programme results in dominance in the majority language at the expense of the MT and this in turn leads to poor school achievement. In this programme some learners are assimilated whereas many are marginalised (Skutnabb-Kangas, 1988). According to Macdonald (1990), transitional programmes are examples of submersion programmes. In a transitional model, learners move from the use of L1 to L2 over a period of time.

UNESCO (2010) distinguishes between the very late-exit transition to the L2, late exit transition and the early-exit transitional educational model. According to UNESCO (2010), a very late or late-exit model refers to when a shift to L2 takes place after six to eight years of schooling whereas the early-exit educational model refers to a shift from the use of L1 to L2 as early as first year (a straight to English) or third year of schooling. This programme is used where other languages are considered to be inferior as compared to other languages in terms of their functions.

Discussing these programmes, Skutnabb-Kangas (1988) has given an example of a submersion bilingual programme in Sweden where learners are taught through the medium of Swedish regardless of where they come from and which languages they are familiar with. This programme results in the dominance of the L2 at the expense of that of the minority and also leads to poor achievement.

According to Heugh (1995b), another example of a transitional or subtractive programme is the transition to English programme that is used in South Africa. As stated in Heugh (1995b), in South Africa African language speakers are

assimilated in English-medium classes. So the performance of these learners is shocking compared with that of Afrikaans and English learners who learn through the medium of both languages throughout all levels of education. This indicates the failure of such programmes in South Africa.

According to Skutnabb-Kangas (1988), another type of submersion programme is in the form of a segregation programme. They assert that in a *segregation programme* the powerless majority are overpowered and segregated from the minority. Different policies are implemented for different groups. The aim of this programme is for the minority to dominate the majority, for example, the Bantu education in Namibia through the medium of L1s. This leads to poor results where the majority attain low levels of cognitive and academic proficiency in both languages (Skutnabb-Kangas, 1988). This programme is implemented where one group is more politically powerful than other groups. For example, Phillipson et al (1986) states that former South Africa under colonial government invaded a very large part of Namibia where South Africans became the majority. As a result Namibia became colonised by South Africa, which introduced Afrikaans as MoI in Namibian schools. Phillipson et al. (1986) maintain that after independence in 1990, Namibia used L2 (English) as a major language of instruction in schools. The powerless minority people of Namibia became segregated and assimilated into the mainstream.

In conclusion, the literature shows that the successful bi-/multilingual programmes are MTE programmes which use MT throughout schooling, additive BLE or very late-exit transition to L2 all with a good provision of an additional language (Heugh, 2011). Heugh (2011) further maintains that the additional language should be taught by expert teachers.

2.3.1.1 Conditions favouring the success or failure of MLE programmes

The implementation of a programme can measure its success or failure. Skutnabb-Kangas (1988) propounds that there are conditions that lead to the success and failure of MLE programmes. These programmes can be implemented successfully if the following factors are ensured:

Bilingual educators

For the education system to succeed in achieving bilingualism and academic achievement, educators should be both bilingual and well trained. There will be no quality learning and teaching if educators are monolingual and not well trained in multilingualism. Although the need for both bilingual and well trained educators is highly appreciated, according to Skutnabb-Kangas (1988), it is better if an educator is bilingual and not well trained than being well trained and monolingual. This implies that it is better if the teacher knows the language of learners because s/he will be sure that the message is delivered to the learners. Heugh (1995a) show that in South Africa the situation is difficult because teachers are not trained to offer MLE. They indicate that for MLE to succeed in South Africa, teachers must be trained accordingly.

Bilingual material

The materials used in these programmes must be available at least in two languages in order to help learners understand easily. One of the languages should be MT.

Appropriate content

The content of the materials should be appropriate for learners in that it must impose the cultural values of the target group. This implies that the learners must be more familiar with the content of the subject.

Learners' self-motivation

Learners in the schools must be self-motivated. This high self-motivation could be achieved if the learning environment is supportive and non-authoritarian. This situation reduces anxiety and leads to effective learning and teaching because learners feel that they are not forced to learn in L2. The learning activities in the classroom must attract learners and must be non-discriminatory and/or inclusive.

Exposure to MT

Learners must be exposed to MT at home, in formal situations and even at school. This will ensure that MTs develop and that they are not viewed as inferior.

Exposure to L2

Learners must be exposed to L2 outside the school. They should be able to practice the L2 with their peers and other people to make development quicker.

L1/L2 interdependence

How L2 is taught should not harm but support L1 development. L2 should not replace L1 in any way.

2.3.1.2 Myths about MLE

According to Cummins (1981), there is a myth that being bilingual causes confusion among bilinguals. He states that some think that bilingualism prevents some people from being good bilinguals. As a result learners are punished for speaking their L1 in school.

Heugh (2002c: 171-196) identifies the following myths of MLE in South Africa:

There is no or not enough indigenous South African research

There is a claim by South African educationists that research about the issue of language and education is not enough (Heugh 2002c). According to Heugh (2002c), this indicates that policy makers just want to ignore the research done internationally such as Malherbe (1978), Cummins (1984), Macdonald (1990), NEPI (1992), DACST (LANGTAG, 1996), NCCRD (2000), PanSALB (2001),

Thomas and Collier (2002), Brock-Utne and Holmarsdottir (2003), UNESCO (2010), and Heugh (1999, 2002b & 2011), These are local and international research projects that deal with language in education. The only problem is that people do not want to use these studies because some claim that they are not applicable to the South African multilingual situation.

Parents want a straight for English

According to the findings of the survey done by PanSALB (2001), it is clear that it is not true that parents opt for straight for English. The following PanSALB's (2001) findings rectified the belief of other researchers who claim that parents take their children to schools because they want them to learn English.

Heugh (1999 & 2002c) shows that only 22% of parents opt for the straight for English policy. According to Heugh (2002c) the majority (67%) of the participants in the 1992 PanSALB survey voted for a transfer to English. In addition, UNESCO (2010) and Alidou et al (2006) evidenced in their studies that parents are not against using African languages for education in favour of English; instead they support the use of African languages.

English is the only language which has the capacity to deliver quality education to the majority; African languages do not and cannot do so

Heugh (2002c) points out that the problem with Bantu education between 1953 and 1976 was that with its Mother-Tongue Education (MTE) policy it was ensuring segregation between whites and blacks and the type of education was aimed at making blacks inferior and whites superior. But learners were able to progress because they used MT for the first eight years of schooling before introducing L2 as LoLT. Again, textbooks were written in African languages for that period. The political situation influenced the banning of Bantu education. The research by Macdonald (1990) and Malherbe (1978) informs the international research and shows that there was a higher pass rate during the apartheid era than today.

Many South African children do not have a mother tongue and therefore do not need mother tongue education (MTE)

According to UNESCO (2011), MTE refers to the use of MT as medium of instruction. This concept is discussed in detail in section 2.2.2 below. Heugh (2002c) observes that many people say that many children do not have a MT because they grow up in families or communities identified with more than one language. According to Heugh (2002c) this is a clear indication that these learners are multilingual and they have one language that they are more familiar with. They can understand one language more than another. This should be the language regarded as MT because MLE entails MT first. MLE means that learners should learn through a language that they know well.

Bilingual or multilingual education is too expensive and thus we have only one option - English only (or mainly)

Heugh (2002c) shows that there is a high failure rate and drop-out rate in South African schools because teachers are not well trained in English and they use code-mixing when they try to make learners understand the subject matter. Textbooks are also written in English. Heugh (2002c) further asserts that language planners or anybody who says MLE is expensive have never calculated the expense needed for implementing single-medium schools. In this assertion, Heugh (2002c) is trying to show that using a single or L2 medium is too expensive because the government will have to train teachers to be able to teach in the target language and also provide the material in that language. Heugh (2002c) states that the Department of Education can deploy teachers who speak learners' languages to teach in those languages and English in a MLE programme because teachers already use code-switching as a strategy. The government will also save money because many learners will pass and this will also reduce the high rate of drop-outs.

2.3.2   Mother tongue based multilingual education

It has been noticed in the previous sections of this study that certain programmes emphasize transition to or submersion in L2 in education whereas MT should be viewed as preferable. It is important to point out that UNESCO is a very crucial organisation that focuses on ensuring peace in education. Among other things, it aims at attaining quality education for all. One of its ways to attain quality education is by mother tongue based multilingual education. According to UNESCO (2011:12), mother tongue instruction refers to the use of learners' mother tongue as the medium of instruction. UNESCO (2011) further states that it can also refer to L1 as a subject of instruction. This may also refer to MTE where learners use their MT as LoLT with the worthy provision of an additional language (Heugh, 2011). UNESCO (2011) also defines bilingual and multilingual education as the use of two or more languages as media of instruction. Mother tongue based multilingual education is therefore a type of education in which the child learns primarily through mother tongue or L1. According to UNESCO (2011: 12), mother tongue based bilingual education is the use of L1 "as the primary medium of instruction for the whole of primary school while L2 is introduced as a subject of study in itself to prepare students for eventual transition to some academic subject in L2". Scholars in mother tongue based multilingual education such as Pinnock (2008) and UNESCO (2011) conclude that children's L1 is important for their overall language and cognitive development and their academic achievement. If children are growing up with one language, educational provisions need to support them in becoming highly proficient in that language before engaging in academic work in L2. Becoming highly proficient appears to take six to eight years of schooling (UNESCO, 2011). This implies that for children to succeed in multilingual education programmes they must learn through their L1 during their primary education.

To support what is discussed in UNESCO (2011), Llaneta and Quijano (2010) in their study on mother tongue based multilingual education in the Philippines indicate that the Lubuagan First Language Component (FLC) multilingual

education pilot project has shown the success of this programme. They state that the programme promotes the use of the children's L1 in their basic education, complementing the on-going education taking place in Filipino and English. In this project, children in grades 1 to 3 are taught in their L1 (Lilubuagan) and are also taught to handle the same subject matter in Filipino and English. According to Llaneta and Quijano (2010), the results of this project are successful because children are able to participate actively and they outperform other children in other programmes. Again many teachers and parents are motivated to include many children in this project.

This is a clear indication that offering the curriculum in the language that learners understand well is more advantageous. I therefore agree with Malone (2008) when he states that "MLE makes quality education possible because it encourages that people learn best when they learn in a language that they understand well and are able to cross over the bridge to one or more additional languages successfully".

2.3.3 MLE in the world

Multilingualism is a global phenomenon since most countries are characterised by diverse populations. Torres-Guzmán and Gómez (2009:1) argue that multilingualism is a world phenomenon because many people interact with each other due to globalisation and economic relationships. UNESCO (1996:3) points out that the situation of each language in the world is a result of factors such as that there is a "trend towards a worldwide economy and consequently toward worldwide market of information, communication and culture, which disrupts the sphere of interrelation and the form of interaction that guarantee the internal cohesion of language communities". UNESCO (1996:3) further states that for the world to realise sustainable development, there must be a balance between societies and "equitable relationships between all languages and culture".

According to UNESCO (2010:4), good quality learning does not only refer to being competent and productive, but also to being able to maintain one's culture,

adapt to the unknown and live with others. This is not only learnt through a foreign language. MLE is the best type of education that will enable learners to experience this kind of learning. The issue of language-in-education has been the most significant one for most of the countries in the world (UNESCO, 2010:4). Some countries have started programmes that are geared towards bilingual or multilingual education. The examples of these countries are the US, Germany, Canada, Australia, New Zealand and various countries within the European Union. The goals of these bilingual programmes vary depending on the following: sophistication, transition to another language, maintenance, revitalisation, prestige, proximity and influence as well as promoting the growth of intellect and mind. These countries are selected based on their linguistic diversity; the nature of their language policies and the problematic choice of the medium of instruction. The main aim of selecting these countries is to identify trends regarding mother tongue instruction, multilingual education and its use to develop skills for educational success.

2.3.3.1. *United States (US)*

According to Fishman (1982), in the US MLE is introduced through a transitional bilingual education programme. In this transitional bilingual education programme children are expected to learn through the medium of English to function within the English-speaking society. According to Fishman (1982), learners in this programme performed poorly in comparison with their Canadian counterparts who were included in the French-immersion bilingual education programme. As stated in Fishman (1982), the native languages of the learners did not have any function in other domains. This implies that Hispanics (black Spanish speakers in the US) are receiving inferior bilingual education and the circumstances are less supportive than in Canada (Fishman, 1982). So, in summary, the transitional bilingual programme in the US did not succeed because:

- The learners' home language was not used broadly in official domains other than at school;

- The children were more discriminated against regardless of how many there were;
- The Hispanics themselves were less supportive of the programme because the programme did not attempt to provide equality; and
- As long as children received higher scores in English than in Spanish, they were then transferred to English education, no matter how poor their English might be.

In addition to Fishman, Brice (1996:5) states that in the US the transition is not done when learners are able to maintain mother tongue, but it is done as early as possible. Brice (1996) states that this model has been successful in Europe because of the high level of proficiency of teachers in L2, parental involvement and the acquisition of initial literacy in L1.

2.3.3.2 Germany

Germany developed into a multilingual country due to immigration of workers and refugees (Neumann & Roth, 2009:85). According to Neumann and Roth (2009), there was a significant migration of people from Turkey, Spain, Italy, Greece and Portugal who moved to Germany after World War II. They assert that the majority of children in Germany grow up in families which use languages other than German (Neumann & Roth, 2009). Furthermore, they socialise in more than one language.

Neumann and Roth (2009) argue further that children of the migrants and refugees of Germany are exposed to monolingual classes that use German as the LoLT except in secondary schools where classes are bilingual. They continue to show that languages spoken by the majority of immigrants are not found in the curriculum but only high prestige languages such as English and French are taught as L2. These scholars also point out that in bilingual schools, fifty percent of the children in class are proficient in one language and classes are held in both German and either English or French (Neumann & Roth, 2009).

According to Neumann and Roth (2009), as a result of the high rate of migration in the 1970s, preparatory classes were introduced in which learners of immigrants were taught in German as L2. The teaching of German L2 to speakers of other languages was not aimed at making them multilingual. The then government did not want to entertain the issue of MLE. As such, the issue of MLE was confined to private institutions.

Neumann and Roth (2009) observe that six out of 16 states offer classes in primary schools where children are able to learn how to read and write in two languages from the outset. This assertion indicates that state schools have taken up bilingual programmes. The scholars contend that the founding of these schools was determined by factors such as to promote a German idea because the schools are situated in the capital city of Germany.

In addition to Neumann and Roth (2009), Budach (2009) argues that the sociolinguistic situation of Germany necessitates the multilingual programmes to be implemented in its schools. Programmes such as *early foreign language teaching* starting from Grade 3 and *content language integrated learning (CLIL) programmes,* also referred to as *L2 enrichment* that teach L2 or L3 starting at Grade 7 were introduced (Budach, 2009). Budach (2009) further indicates that by 1990 *two-way bilingual* programmes such as *dual language programmes* were also introduced. The programmes focused on developing biliteracy and teaching literacy through L1 before introducing L2 (Budach, 2009).

According to Skutnabb-Kangas (1988), some of the educational programmes in different countries achieve success and some do not. She states that those programmes that achieve a high degree of success are those that aim at bilingualism and are optional, whereas those that fail aim at dominance and are compulsory. This implies that learners in maintenance and immersion programmes achieve a high degree of bilingualism, whereas those in segregation and submersion programmes experience what is referred to as 'semilingualism' as they end up not competent in any of the languages they are using.

2.3.3.3   Canada

Looking at the incidence of multilingualism in Canada, Starets (1995) states that the French Canadians live in a trilingual sociolinguistic situation because with their friends they speak English, they watch American and English TV and they listen to American and English Canadian radio. Startes (1995) further states that Canadians do most of their subjects in French. This implies that they are exposed to various languages. This indicates that Canada is a multilingual country and people in that country uses different languages for different purposes.

Swain and Barik (1978) reviewed the multilingual education programmes in Canada. The three programmes they reviewed were the full immersion, partial immersion and the later grade partial immersion programmes. Swain and Barik (1978) state that the programmes focus on the use of French and English as languages of instruction. Both English and French are Canada's official languages. The findings of the review show that all of the programmes reviewed offer a viable approach to bilingual education in Canada. Different multilingual programmes were introduced in different provinces in Canada. In each province multilingual education programmes have to ensure that children have the right to be taught partially in their L1. For example, in Quebec, where most of the learners speak English, a French immersion programme is introduced and fifty percent of the subjects are taught in English and another fifty percent are taught in French. According to Swain and Barik (1978), the study was aimed at investigating the language competence of learners in French immersion schools in Canada. The study discovered that multilingual education is very important for the success of learners in schools because children in these schools performed better than their counterparts. The programmes in Canada have succeeded in making learners multilingual.

2.3.3.4 Australia

Australia is chosen in this study because it is a multilingual country in which the Aboriginal languages are used by very few people while they are the native languages of most people of the country. According to Clyne (1998), English is the language that is mostly used in Australia. In his examination of the position of community languages in Australia, Clyne (1998) contends that a narrow range of languages other than English (LOTE) are taught in schools in Australia because parents came to Australia committed to assimilation. Among others, French and Latin and in some schools German, are the main languages taught in Australia. Clyne (1998) indicates that the community languages are not widely taught in Australia. He asserts that some students could come to school on Saturdays to learn and write other languages privately. He further states that to some students speaking a community language was regarded as deterrent rather than incentive to the teaching of that language at school. Clyne (1998) continues to show that some students were discriminated against for using languages such as German, Italian and Russian in examinations and that those students who were not competent in English were penalised in translations. All students are forced to learn through the medium of English. Many students dropped their languages in favour of English to avoid discrimination.

According to Clyne (1998), the influence of the Multicultural Policy in 1973 led to the introduction of many languages including Australian indigenous languages as subjects of learning. As stated in Clyne (1998), the National Policy on Languages of 1987 emphasises competence in English and the maintenance, the development and the use of LOTE and the opportunities for L2 learning. This implies that before 1973 the education programmes in Australia were assimilating. The education programmes between 1973 and 1987 were aimed at language maintenance and in the 1990s the programmes aimed at bilingualism.

2.3.3.5 *New Zealand*

Benton (1986) states that the majority of people in New Zealand come from the European countries and Polynesia. Only 12% come from New Zealand and can speak Maori. According to Benton (1986), the English speaking population outnumbered the Maori-speaking population at a very high rate in New Zealand as a result of invaders from European countries. New Zealand used schools as agents for language revival. All schools were asked to include Maori in their curriculum. Benton (1986) further states that even though Maori is spoken by very few people an attempt was made to make it compulsory or available as a right for Maori speaking children in the education system of New Zealand. As stated by Benton (1986) the Maori/English bilingual programme was introduced between 1976 and 1980.

According to Benton (1986), Maori was given the official status in the Maori Affairs Amendment Act of 1974, Section 51, but still it was not practically used as an official language in many domains. Many attempts have been made to use Maori in primary schools and it was later used as a LoLT in secondary schools by non-speakers of Maori. Maori became a national symbol in New Zealand (Benton, 1986).

In addition to Benton, Rau (2008) show that bilingual education exists because of historical and socio-political experiences of the communities of the world. Rau (2008) states that the major goals of bilingual education where education is provided mostly in children's native, home or heritage language are bilingualism, biculturalism and biliteracy. This implies that learners from these programmes must be able to participate in at least two languages, know other cultures than their own and be able to read and write in L2.

Rau (2008) asserts that language maintenance bilingual education programme takes place in New Zealand where Maori language is struggling for survival. She argues that in countries such as New Zealand, the use of indigenous languages in schools and communities hinders progress. According to Rau (2008), in countries

such as New Zealand, educational policies and practices that promote subtractive bilingualism are encouraged. She continues to say that Maori medium education is used to describe various schooling options in the compulsory education where Maori is used to offer education at national level. The Maori immersion programme offers education by instruction in Maori and introduces English language instruction later. Most of the programmes make provision for explicit instruction in the English language. The two languages, Maori and English, develop parallel to one another.

2.3.4   MLE in African context

UNESCO (2010) argues that the only means for upward economic mobility in Africa is through the international language of wider communication. As a result many African countries adopt policies that use the colonial languages in government and in other important domains including education. UNESCO (2010) believes that there are many reasons for this state of affairs such as political, historical and socio-economic, not excluding the challenges of the colonial legacy and globalisation.

Heugh (2008) asserts that in the majority of countries that experienced British colonial rule English is the most significant LoLT. For example, in African countries such as Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe, Malawi, Botswana, Swaziland, Lesotho, South Africa, Mauritius and the Seychelles English is the most important language in education and even in Namibia which has never been under British rule (Heugh, 2008). According to Heugh (2008), the use of MT in primary education has been replaced by English only or early transition to English in several countries. This action has led to the marginalisation of African languages. Heugh (2008) further acknowledges that in Africa early transition does not facilitate competence in the L2 which is necessary for meaningful access to the curriculum. This cannot produce the required quality education. The linguistic situation in African countries warrants the MLE, where the transition is from MT to the use of two or more languages as media of instruction. The necessity for MLE in African countries due to the realisation that these countries are

characterised by diversity triggered the research in MLE. The following sections reflect the experience that most of the African countries share. The following selected countries were chosen as examples in order to highlight the factors which seem to account for the success or failure of multilingualism in education policy. These countries include Tanzania, Nigeria, Ghana and Namibia.

2.3.4.1 Tanzania

Writing about language in education policy in Tanzania, Malekela (2003) shows that Tanzania comprises about 120 ethnic groups speaking different home languages. According to Malekela (2003), more than 90% of the population in Tanzania is fluent in Kiswahili and the latter is the language of learning and teaching throughout all primary schooling since 1967. This indicates that most of the Tanzanians are bilingual because they can speak their home languages and Kiswahili as a second language (Malekela, 2003). Less than 10% of the educated population in Tanzania is trilingual because it can speak three languages, namely the mother tongue/home language, Kiswahili (national language) and English (colonial language) (Malekela, 2003). The situation discussed above is an indication that Tanzania is a multilingual country. Kiswahili is also "spoken by about 60 million Africans in East, Central and the Northern part of Southern Africa" (Prah, 2003:23). This indicates that Kiswahili can be used for communication with other countries.

Rubagumya (2003), however, states that 85 English medium primary schools in Tanzania were registered by the year 2000. Rubagumya (2003) argues that this decision to register so many English medium schools is a sign of dissatisfaction on the side of parents regarding the education system in Tanzania. According to Rubagumya (2003), this indicates that parents believe that the use of Kiswahili as LoLT causes a decline in the quality of education given to their children. The parents believe that their children can learn English through using it as LoLT (Rubagumya, 2003).

In their study, Brock-Utne and Holmarsdottir (2003) summarise the language in education policy of Tanzania as follows:

- The medium of instruction in pre-primary schools shall be Kiswahili, and English shall be a compulsory subject (Brock-Utne & Holmarsdottir, 2003).
- The medium of instruction in primary schools shall be Kiswahili, and English shall be a compulsory subject (Brock-Utne & Holmarsdottir, 2003).
- The medium of instruction for secondary education shall continue to be English, except for the teaching of other approved languages and Kiswahili shall be a compulsory subject up to ordinary level. (Brock-Utne & Holmarsdottir, 2003).

The policy shows clearly that there is a belief that at the end of primary school learners will have attained the expected level of proficiency in the second language, English. As such they will be able to understand the content through it. Previously, Tanzania aimed at extending the use of Kiswahili as LoLT gradually to secondary schools, but it was not successful because of implementation problems.

2.3.4.2 *Nigeria*

According to Oladejo (1993), Nigeria is a multilingual country with approximately 400 languages. Its policy allows for bilingual education in the MT, and the national language, namely English. But in practice, the three major languages, namely Hausa, Igbo, and Yoruba, are used at the primary level alongside English. Oladejo (1993:94) states that "English is, for all practical purposes, the national language of the country". English is the language of the formal education as it is used from primary education right through to tertiary education; even though according to Oladejo (1993) the National Policy on Education of 1977 states that the language of the immediate community should be used in primary education.

Bamgbose (1984) argues that in any multilingual country the most important decision to be made is the choice of medium of instruction. Whatever the choice is made, it should consider the child's L1. His paper argues whether L1 should be used in the early years of school, in primary education or in all levels of education.

Simire (2003) examines, instead, the linguistic and sociolinguistic importance of adopting a multilingual approach in solving Nigeria's complex linguistic problems in public and social life at various levels of government as well as in academic and specialised institutions. The main points of the language policy as it exists include:

1. The Federal Government considers it to be in the interest of national unity that each child should be encouraged to learn one of the three major languages other than his own MT.
2. MoI at the pre-primary level will be the MT or the language of the immediate community.
3. MoI in primary education is initially MT or the language of the immediate community and at a later stage it changes to English.

According to Simire (2003), this policy entails that a transitional bilingual education programme will be applied in schools in Nigeria where a MT or language of the immediate community will be replaced by English in higher primary school and secondary education. This policy would not succeed in yielding the positive results because it is aimed at subtractive bilingualism. The policy is also characterised by what Bamgbose (1991) refers to as escape clauses. No one will be held liable for not implementing such a policy because they would have reasons for not implementing it even though they are not valid.

2.3.4.3   Ghana

According to Opoku-Amankwa (2009:122), Ghana is a multilingual country which consists of at least "44 indigenous languages and a number of cross-border languages". Opoku-Amankwa (2009) states that, as from 1957, nine of the 44 indigenous languages are official languages which can be used in education and also in media. Notwithstanding their status as official languages to be used in education, these nine languages were never used as LoLTs. Opoku-Amankwa (2009) further states that as from 1971 until 2002 the LiEP provided that the indigenous languages in Ghana should be used in the first three years of primary schooling. Like in other African countries, this policy was never implemented as intended (Opoku-Amankwa, 2009). In the upper primary classes English is the sole MoI.

Yates (1995) also observes that it is not unusual to find individuals who can speak three or four vernacular languages as well as English as there is a high degree of contacts between groups through increasing intermarriage and geographical mobility. According to Yates (1995), the 1927 Report of the Advisory Committee on Native Education recommends that English as well as vernacular languages should be taught in primary schools. The report highlighted that parents send their children to school because they want them to be able to speak English (Yates, 1995).

Yates (1995) maintains that English became the language of social advancement without which individuals would not be able to access service in government and in business. English could be understood by only between five and twenty percent of the population but it was the main language used in domains such as "government, business, the judiciary, constituent assemblies, formal education and printed media" (Yates, 1995:440).

According to Yates (1995), the suggestion to use vernacular languages as languages of instruction was opposed as it would assumingly lead to disintegration and the segregation of the population into the old ethnic groups.

Yates (1995) further indicates that Ghana introduced a delayed programme where vernacular languages are used up to grade 4 in primary schools with English taught as L2. According to Yates (1995) the programme has been delayed because the vernacular language is used for at least six years of schooling. From grade 5 onwards there is a change to the use of English as language of instruction with local languages being maintained as subjects.

Yates (1995) further contends that in 1989 a Ghana's Functional Literacy Programme was initiated as part of the Wider Programme of Action. In this programme Yates contends that the emphasis was on the use of MT as the language of instruction. During this time fifteen Ghanaian languages were used. As indicated by Yates (1995), there was a problem of producing learning materials in fifteen languages. As a result, the programme was unsuccessful because many learners had to dropout. This shows that the requirement is a very serious commitment to the production of learning material for MLE to succeed.

2.3.4.4   Namibia

In their article about the choice of English as MoI and its effect on the African languages in Namibia, Brock-Utne and Holmarsdottir (2001) realise that African languages are losing the battle against English. They discovered that the number of students registering for African languages at Namibian universities is decreasing. They state that Namibia is a country with a population of only approximately 1.5 million and it has got about thirteen languages as LoLTs in the first three lower grades of schooling (Brock-Utne & Holmarsdottir, 2001). They assert that the thirteen languages include three European languages and ten African languages. They further observe that Namibia was once colonised by Germany and during that time German was the language of business. It was later colonised by South Africa until 1990 and during that time Afrikaans was the official language and LoLT from Grade 4 upwards. After independence English became the official language. Nine of the ten Namibian languages are also taught as subjects at the higher education level. Brock-Utne and Holmarsdottir (2001)

also note that the San language, Ju'hoana, has never been used in public schools, but only in private schools.

Phillipson et al. (1986:78) state that over-use of the former colonial language and the under-use of MTs as LoLTs "reproduce inequality, favour the creation of elites, promote dependency on the Culture of Wider Communication and prevent the attainment of high levels of multilingualism". After analysing the successes and failures of MLE programmes and their aims in other countries, Phillipson et al. (1986) suggest that immersion and MT-maintenance programmes are two alternatives for Namibia. In their assertion, Phillipson et al. (1986) state that urban and rural areas should use different programmes because their linguistic situations are also different. They assert that in rural areas one language, being MT, may be used as LoLT whereas in urban areas a L2 not known by anybody may be used because learners do have different MTs. Phillipson et al. (1986) also argue that because preconditions for an immersion programme for L2 medium teaching from early on do not exist in Namibia, and because English is the LoLT from the beginning or from early on, the situation becomes submersion.

Brock-Utne and Holmarsdottir (2001) argue that the multilingual education programme used in Namibia is a submersion programme because it emphasises learning through English at the expense of the Namibian languages. They further argue that this over-emphasis on English leads to "displacement, stigmatisation and underdevelopment" of MTs (Brock-Utne and Holmarsdottir, 2001:316).

They maintain that in Namibia parents and students developed a negative attitude and lack of interest and support for African languages. On the one hand, the policy of making English the LoLT was successful because it achieved its aim of making Namibians forget their culture and be assimilated. On the other hand, the policy was unsuitable because it makes a multilingual Namibia to become monolingual and it basis its choice of LoLT on the financial argument rather than on pedagogical ones (Brock-Utne and Holmarsdottir, 2001).

2.3.5   MLE in the South African context

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996) recognizes multilingualism with emphasis on the role and importance of indigenous languages. This has led to the formulation of the new language-in-education policy (LiEP) which recognizes the status of all eleven official languages and promotes cultural diversity and multilingualism in education. The previously marginalized African languages are now accorded national official status, which implies that they may also be used as languages of learning and teaching (LoLTs) in schools. This section sets to evaluate critically how multilingual education is conceptualized in the policy and practiced in South African schools. As indicated in Chapter 1 of this thesis, the use of language in African schools in South Africa revolves around Afrikaans, English and African languages (Macdonald, 1990 and Hartshorne, 1992). This section examines briefly the development of the schools' language-in-education policies (LiEPs) in South Africa. The section also assesses the LiEP and its practice in South Africa. In contextualizing the current situation in South Africa, a brief historical overview of the LiEPs in South Africa is very important. This section begins by discussing the sociolinguistic profile of South Africa.

2.3.5.1   The sociolinguistic profile of South Africa

According to Statistics South Africa (2012), South Africa covers an area of 1 220 813 square kilometres, although it has an estimated population of only 51 770 560. The population of South Africa is divided into four racial groups: Africans (41 000 938), Whites (4 586 838), Coloureds (4 615 401), Indians or Asians (1 286 930) and other groups (280 454). The country is administratively divided into nine provinces. The provinces are differentiated linguistically and culturally. The table below shows the estimated population and the major languages spoken in each province.

Table 2.1:   Population and Languages by Province

Provinces	Estimated population (in millions)/2011	Percentage of the total population/2011 (added)	Major languages/ 2011
Western Cape	5 675 604	11,1	Afrikaans (49, 7%), English (20, 2%), IsiXhosa (24, 7%)
Eastern Cape	6 458 325	12,7	IsiXhosa (78, 8%) Afrikaans (10, 6%)
Northern Cape	1 127 683	2,2	Afrikaans (53, 8%), Setswana (33, 1%)
Free State	2 675 777	5,3	Sesotho (64, 2%) Afrikaans (12, 9%)
KwaZulu-Natal	10 153 789	19,9	IsiZulu (77, 8%), English (13, 2%)
North West	3 457 004	6,8	Setswana (63, 4%), Afrikaans (9, 0 %)
Gauteng	12 075 861	23,7	IsiZulu (19, 8%), Afrikaans (12, 4 %), Sesotho (11, 6%), English (13, 3 %) Sepedi (10, 6%) Setswana (9, 1%)
Mpumalanga	3 998 726	7,8	SiSwati (27, 7%), IsiZulu (24, 1 %), Xitsonga (10, 4%) IsiNdebele (10, 1%)
Limpopo	5 338 675	10,5	Sepedi (52, 9%), Xitsonga (17, 0%) Tshivenda (16, 7%)
Total	**50 961 443**	**100,0**	

(StatsSA, 2012:23 & 25)

According to Heugh (2007), South Africa has several major language families, namely Khoesan, Indo-European, Niger-Congo and South African Sign language. Khoesan refers to Khoe and San Languages. Niger-Congo refers to the Nguni group (isiZulu, isiXhosa, isiNdebele and siSwati), the Sotho group (Sepedi, Sesotho and Setswana), Tsonga and Venda. Some of these languages are spoken by the majority of the population as shown in Table 2.1 above (Heugh, 2007). When the country became democratic in 1994, 11 languages were declared official. Table 2.2 below shows these official languages in hierarchical order from the one which has the most number of speakers to the one with the least number of speakers.

Table 2.2:   Languages of South Africa

Languages	No. of Home Language Speakers	% of total
IsiZulu	11 587 374	22,7
IsiXhosa	8 154 258	16,0
Afrikaans	6 855 082	13,5
English	4 892 623	9,6
Sepedi	4 618 576	9,1
Setswana	4 067 248	8,0
Sesotho	3 849 563	7,6
Xitsonga	2 277 148	4,5
SiSwati	1 297 046	2,5
Tshivenda	1 209 388	2,4
IsiNdebele	1 090 223	2,1
Other languages	828 258	1,6
Total	**50 961 443**	**100,0**

Adapted: *Census in brief, 2011* (StatsSA, 2012:23 & 25)

According to Webb and Kembo-Sure (2000), among these languages, nine African languages were officially used at the regional level and the other two ex-colonial languages at the national level and in schools as LoLTs. Webb and Kembo-Sure (2000) further argue that the two ex-colonial languages, English and Afrikaans, have been identified as languages of power because they are dominant in government communication, administration, education, media and business with English gradually replacing Afrikaans. The above profile is evidence that South Africa is a multilingual country. Madiba (1999) asserts that some of these languages are major home languages in neighbouring states such as South Sotho (Sesotho) in Lesotho, siSwati in Swaziland, Setswana in Botswana, and isiNdebele and Tshivenda in Zimbabwe.

2.3.5.2 The Language-in-Education Policies (LiEPs) in South Africa

Historical context

South Africa developed several language policies before the adoption of the new LiEP in 1997. The following language policies have been adopted in South Africa over the past years:

- In 1652, after the early settlement of the white people in South Africa, Dutch was adopted as a language of education used to teach the Khoi and San children in the Cape area (Bekker, 1999);

- Between 1806 and 1848 the Cape became a British colony and a policy of Anglicisation was adopted with a view to replacing Dutch with English (Hartshorne, 1992; & Bekker, 1999);

- During the union government in 1910 both Dutch and English were used as official languages (Hartshorne, 1989 & 1992);

- In 1925 Afrikaans replaced Dutch, where both English and Afrikaans became the official languages of the country (Hartshorne, 1989 & 1992);

- In 1948 the government that was led by the National Party followed a mother tongue education policy of separate English and Afrikaans-medium schools. This was followed by the Bantu Education Act of 1953 which was implemented in 1955 (Hartshorne, 1989 & 1992). In primary schools mother tongue instruction was used up to the age of six years followed by the use of English. Afrikaans was introduced as compulsory MoI alongside English in secondary schools. Learners in secondary schools were forced to write some subjects in English and some in Afrikaans during examinations. The resistance to this enforcement led to the Soweto uprising in 1976 where students were protesting against the policy (Hartshorne 1989). They wanted an English only policy in secondary schools. At the end of the 1980s English was the only medium from Grade 5 upwards in the African schools' system (Hartshorne, 1995). In 1990, after the release of Nelson Mandela from prison, a workshop on

language matters was held in Harare where the status of English was discussed (Bekker, 1999). The National Education Policy Investigation (NEPI) was established in 1990 to provide policy options in all levels of education (Bekker, 1999:10). In addition, the Education and Training Act of 1979 was also amended in 1991 to allow parents to decide on which LoLT they wanted for their children (Bekker, 1999). In 1995, "the Department of Arts, Culture, Science and Technology (DACST) established the Language Plan Task Group (LANGTAG)" to conduct research and advise the minister about issues surrounding language use in the country (Bekker, 1999:109). The LANGTAG report was announced in 1996. The goal for this report was to facilitate meaningful education by promoting multilingualism, and the elaboration and modernisation of African languages (LANGTAG, 1996).

- Following the inception of democracy the new LiEP was adopted in 1997.

After the adoption of the LiEP in 1997, other documents were also provided tackling the issue of language policies in South Africa and in education such as the National Language Policy Framework (DAC, 2003), the South African Languages Act (2012) (PanSALB, 2014), and the Use of Official Language Act (DAC, 2014) as well as the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) (DBE, 2011b).

The current LiEP in South Africa

The democratic government adopted the current LiEP in 1997. The LiEP is informed by the Constitution (Act 108 of 1996), the National Education Policy (Act 27 of 1996), the South African Schools Act (Act of 1996) as well as the previous language policies. The LiEP is "meant to facilitate communication across the barriers of colour, language and religion, while at the same time creating an environment in which respect for languages other than one's own would be encouraged" (DoE, 1997b:2). The main aims of the LiEP are outlined in the policy as follows:

1. to promote full participation in society and the economy through equitable and meaningful access to education;

2. to pursue the language policy most supportive of general conceptual growth amongst learners, and hence to establish additive multilingualism as an approach to language in education;

3. to promote and develop all official languages;

4. to support the teaching and learning of all other languages required by learners or used by communities in South Africa, including languages used for religious purposes, languages which are important for international trade and communication, and South African Sign Language, as well as Alternative and Augmentative Communication;

5. to counter disadvantages resulting from different kinds of mismatches between home languages and languages of learning and teaching;

6. to develop programmes for the redress of previously disadvantaged languages.

The new LiEP addresses two important language issues, namely, language as a subject of study and language as language of learning and teaching (LoLT).

Languages as subjects

The LiEP (DoE, 1997b) makes the following provisions with regard to languages as subjects:

- All learners shall learn at least one approved language as a subject in Grade 1 and Grade 2.
- From Grade 3 onwards, all learners shall learn their language of learning and teaching and at least one additional approved language as subjects.
- All language subjects shall receive equitable time and resource allocation.

The following promotion requirements apply to language subjects:

1. From Grade 1 to Grade 4 promotion is based on performance in one language and Mathematics.

2. From Grade 5 onwards one language must be passed.

3. From Grade 10 to 12 two languages must be passed, one on the first level, and the other on at least the second language level. At least one of these languages must be an official language.

4. Subject to national norms and standards as determined by the Minister of Education, the level of achievement required for promotion shall be determined by the provincial education departments.

According to Heugh (2000), the policy is intended to develop the mother tongue of learners but at the same time to make adequate provision for effective learning of other languages. This implies that the learners must be bilingual with their home language and English at the end.

The challenge faced with implementing this policy is the use of several languages as LoLTs rather than the teaching of these languages as subjects of study. In fact, at present, all nine indigenous African languages are offered in most schools as subjects of study, especially where they are regionally based. It is particularly the use of nine African languages as LoLTs beyond foundation phase that remains a challenge although the LiEP does not emphasise it.

Language of learning and teaching (LoLT)

Furthermore, the LiEP (DoE, 1997b) makes a provision regarding the language of learning and teaching that:

- The language(s) of learning and teaching in a public school must be (an) official language(s).

Learners have the right to apply for the provision of the LoLT, taking into consideration issues of practicability.

According to UNESCO (2003b), language of instruction is the language used for teaching the basic curriculum of the educational system. This implies that the LoLT refers to the language of instruction as described by UNESCO.

From these provisions, it is not clear how the new LiEP will promote multilingualism, and develop and respect all official languages in South Africa. It is possible that any official language may be used as LoLT. The policy encourages flexibility, equity, freedom of choice and practicability. The issue of the specific languages to be used in education is not discussed anywhere in the policy document. It only states in its preliminary statement that L1 may be used with an addition of an additional language as a subject of study and it further encourages a structured bilingual approach whereby a two-way immersion programme may be introduced by stating that "… most learners benefit cognitively and emotionally from the type of structured bilingual education found in dual-medium (also known as two-way immersion) programmes" (DoE, 1997b:2). But Bamgbose (2004:640) writes that "it is unrealistic to expect all languages to be used at all levels of education".

According to Heugh (2000), the language policy is intended to enforce the use of mother tongue alongside other languages of wider communication such as English. This is what has become commonly known as additive multilingualism in South Africa.

This view of using both mother tongue and English simultaneously is argued by the Human Sciences Research Council's Threshold Project (Macdonald, 1990). The study was conducted among Tswanas in Botswana and the former Bophuthatswana in South Africa. It recommends a gradual transition to English over a number of years and that children should become effectively literate in their MT before introducing English literacy (Macdonald, 1990). Macdonald (1990) discovered that African language speaking learners have learnt only 800 English words at the time of transition instead of 5000. This is a clear indication that learners were not yet ready for the transition. But the model of gradual transition to English is in a way similar to what has been practiced in ex-DET schools.

The role of School Governing Bodies (SGBs)

According to the LiEP (DoE, 1997b), each school governing body is supposed to design its own language policy. It obligates schools to promote multilingualism by encouraging the governing bodies to stipulate how they will promote multilingualism through using more than one LoLT, and/or by offering additional languages as fully-fledged subjects, and/or apply special immersion or language maintenance programmes (DoE, 1997b:4).

In the study of the four South African provinces by the NCCRD (2000), it is stated that the need for SGBs to draw up their own school language policies responding to the new LiEP is not functioning effectively since most of the SGB members are illiterate. As a result, what has happened so far is that in most schools the status quo remains.

Probyn (2005a) shows that a lack of resources contributes to the lack of implementation of the language policies by the SGBs. This factor was also noted by Professor Mary Metcalfe of Wits University and the previous Minister of Education in South Africa, Naledi Pandor, during their interviews that there is a crisis of attracting young teachers to teach in African languages (City Press, 8 October 2006). It was stated in City Press (8 October 2006) that out of the 6 000 students who were expected to graduate at the end of that year, less than 500 would be able to teach in African languages.

The policy and practice

The research done in the field of language-in-education policy, shows that there is a mismatch between policy and practice (Meyer, 1995 & 1998; NCCRD, 2000; Webb, 2002b; & Probyn, 2005a). According to Kamwangamalu (2000), most African learners and parents do not support the current LiEP because they go for Straight for English classes in order to avoid learning in African languages. For these people mother tongue education (MTE) is inferior.

Although the policy states that every learner must choose the language of learning, this is generally not practiced in schools because some learners in South African schools are not given the opportunity to choose. Some schools do this because they know that they will not have learning material in any other language except English and Afrikaans. As evidenced by the previous studies including the studies in the above paragraph, most schools do not have formal language policies. Mabiletja (2008) found that teachers and learners in schools claim that their LoLT is English but it is observed that teachers rely on code-switching. It is only in ex-Model C schools that teachers use only English and/or Afrikaans because they are not proficient in learners' home languages. Mabiletja (2008) has shown that most learners and teachers prefer English as the most crucial language to use in education in order for learners to be able to fit into the global society. This shows that, although MLE is an ideal situation, attitudes with regard to MT are still different.

In addition, previous research including Probyn et al (2002) and NCCRD (2000) shows that the current LiEP has not been implemented as required due to the following reasons:

- the lack of an implementation plan;
- the fact that the current LiEP is overshadowed by the Curriculum 2005 because the LiEP and Curriculum 2005 were nearly introduced at the same time and Curriculum 2005 does not emphasise language learning;
- the perceived need to access English and the assumption that time is a necessary condition for acquisition;
- the perception that African languages have not developed the necessary corpus for academic use;
- a lack of available textbooks to support the extended use of African languages as LoLT;
- a lack of capacity for policy formulation by the School Governing Bodies in townships and rural areas; and
- a lack of political will.

In his examination of the language planning situation in South Africa, Kamwangamalu (2001) shows that many secondary schools use English and Afrikaans as LoLT rather than African languages. In these English-medium and Afrikaans-medium schools African languages speakers are required to learn through the above-mentioned media of instruction. As Kamwangamalu (2001) states, in primary schools learners' African languages continue to be used as media of instruction until the fourth year whereas in secondary schools in African rural areas they attend English-medium schools.

In 1992, the Project for the Study of Alternative Education in South Africa (PRAESA) was established. This is an independent programme which was aimed at dealing with issues around the apartheid education. After 1994 the project started working on language policy in education. Today it focuses on issues around the implementation of the LiEP. It works on areas of language planning and policy, in-service teacher education, developmental research into multilingual classrooms, early literacy, dual-medium primary schooling, and language surveys, as well as generating publications and learning support material. Hence, many research projects are undertaken in the fields mentioned above and pilot studies are also introduced in the schools of the Eastern Cape and Western Cape provinces.

According to Bloch (2002), PRAESA is a programme which emphasises learning through the medium of isiXhosa and English. It focuses on learning how to read and write in both languages in early education (Bloch, 2002). Bloch (2002) further states that this programme developed the love of reading and story demonstrating by children and also developed fluency in both languages. This achievement illustrates how successful the programme is in the Western Cape Province.

Due to the need for the implementation of MLE in South Africa, PRAESA decided also to create the course known as the Training of Trainers Programme for Educators in Multilingual Settings in Southern Africa (TOTSA) which was piloted in 2002 and ran between 2003 and 2005 (Benson & Pluddemann, 2010).

The purpose of this pilot project was to promote the fundamental education principle that people learn best in their mother tongue and the idea that language is transferable if well understood. This is one way of ensuring that the LiEP is implemented because the programme targeted the government implementers or non-governmental organisations (NGOs).

According to Benson and Pluddemann (2010), there are four modules that are studied in this programme. Among the four modules, there is a module on implementing MLE. This module emphasises concrete models and strategies for organising mother tongue based instruction. This course was also open for many people from Southern Africa. The goal of academic achievement and personal empowerment was achieved as evidenced by overwhelmingly positive evaluations of this programme over all (Benson & Pluddemann, 2010).

It is stated in the report of DoE (2002b) that special studies are to be commissioned to investigate the practice of multilingualism at school and the role that SGBs play in the development of LoLTs. This is a means of monitoring the incidents of racism and exclusion at school level experienced by learners (DoE, 2002b). The report states that it started by printing the Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS) in eleven official languages to make it easy for the parents to understand the skills their children will possess when the children complete their basic education.

Concerning the LiEP, the report (DoE, 2002b) only states the principles and aims of the 1997 LiEP because it indicates that LiEP only recognises cultural diversity and promotes multilingualism in education with respect to South African Sign Language (SASL) and the eleven official languages. The report further states that the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) for basic education provides for all learners from Grade R to Grade 9 to offer at least two languages, one of which must be the LoLT. This encourages multilingualism, diversity and respect for all languages at both national and provincial levels. The provincial departments are therefore obliged to arrange for the strategies to meet the language requirements

at the local level. The provincial departments must also make sure that the SGBs determine concrete language policies.

The report (DoE, 2002b) is silent about strategies for implementing the LiEP and the extent to which it is already implemented. It still lacks a monitoring tool to check with the provincial departments and SGBs how far they have gone with policy implementation. Furthermore, the DoE (2003) states that an interdepartmental committee has been established to manage the implementation of the LiEP. The report further states that the Department took steps to implement the LiEP by conducting research in KwaZulu-Natal on improving maths and science educators' language skills.

As a strategy for implementing the LiEP, the Department of Basic Education (DBE, 2010b) appointed the Wits Education Policy Unit (EPU) to undertake an investigation on its behalf. The investigation focused on the status of the LoLT in South African public schools. The purpose of this study was to assess the effectiveness of the policy implementation by providing an analysis of trends of language data between 1997 and 2007.

According to the DBE (2010b), it is important to encourage the use of home languages as LoLTs. It is found by World Bank (2005) that it is an advantage if a child learns in his/her own language. Some of these advantages include having "increased access, improved learning outcomes, reduced chances of repetition and drop-out rates, and cultural benefits" (DBE, 2010b:29). The findings of this project include the following:

- The majority of learners do not learn in their home language from Grade 4 onwards. English and Afrikaans are the dominant LoLTs after Grade 3;
- Although the number of Afrikaans single medium schools declined over the past decade, there was a corresponding increase in the number of parallel medium schools over this period;
- The number of African single medium schools also has increased. (DBE, 2010b:29)

68

This investigation led to the colloquium on language in the schooling system that was held in November 2010 to evaluate the extent to which the policy is implemented in South African schools and also to come up with recommendations to strengthen the LiEP implementation (DBE, 2011e). From the colloquium, Moyane (DBE, 2011e), who was looking at the implementation of the LiEP, recommends that there must be "the development of a long-term advocacy strategy; development of materials in the indigenous language; a strategy for teacher development and support; development of relevant structures for each language; and provincial level intervention to bring effect on Section 6 (2) of SASA" (DBE, 2011e).

Green (DBE, 2011e) noted that learning in the Foundation Phase continued to fail even if learners use their home languages. He argued that the reason for this performance is that there are no corresponding numbers of teachers who are competent to teach in learners' home languages. Green therefore recommends that the system should produce quality teachers. Moloi (DBE, 2011e) also recommends that simultaneous use of home language and first additional language from first year up to six years should be considered.

In this colloquium, Pluddemann (DBE, 2011e) stated that the use of African languages to promote additive multilingualism has never been there. It is only realised in pilot projects like PRAESA. He further indicated that early transition to English contributes to low level of literacy performance in Grade 6. He therefore recommends that language units should be established at the national, provincial, and district levels to support schools in the implementation of additive multilingual policies.

Lastly, Murray (DBE, 2011e) confirmed that learners from the middle class do better in English than those from rural areas and townships. As a result she recommends that an approach to school language policy should be contextually sensitive.

According to the 2010/2011 Annual Report (DBE, 2011a), there are some achievements regarding the issue of languages. Achievements include the development of the curriculum for the South African Sign Language (SASL) and the appointment of writers. But the implementation in schools has not yet started. On the issue of improving the quality of learning and teaching, a training module for languages across the curriculum was developed; and a language seminar was held and a report was produced. But the document is not yet approved and provinces still have to give inputs. The last thing on this issue is the issuing of workbooks in all official languages and English First Additional Language (FAL) for Grade R to 6 in all public schools. The project of issuing workbooks has stopped until the finalisation of the subject statements for the new curriculum, namely, Curriculum and Policy Statement (CAPS).

To sum up, it is clear from the reports that the issue of implementing the LiEP is still debatable. There is no strategy yet to implement this additive multilingualism policy. Reports also show that the DBE lacks a framework that will guide it through the implementation process.

2.3.6   MLE in Limpopo Province

Limpopo Province came into being in 1994 after the national democratic elections of South Africa. Under this new government, it was firstly named Northern Province. It includes the former homelands of the then Northern Transvaal, namely, Lebowa, Venda and Gazankulu. It is situated in the north eastern corner of South Africa. It shares borders with North West, Gauteng and Mpumalanga Provinces. It also shares borders with the countries of Botswana, Zimbabwe and Mozambique. It covers an area of 125 754 square kilometres (Statistics South Africa, 2012).

The population of this province is estimated at 5 404 868, which is approximately 10,4% of the country's total population in 2011 (Statistics South Africa, 2012). According to Statistics South Africa (2012), the racial distribution of the

population in this province consists of Africans (96,7%), Whites (2,6%), Coloureds (0,3%), Indians or Asians (0,3%) and other groups (0,2%).

The home languages distribution in alphabetical order in Limpopo Province is as follows:

Table 2.3:   The home language distribution in Limpopo Province

Home language	Numbers	Percentage
Afrikaans	140 185	2, 6
English	78 692	1, 5
IsiNdebele	104 283	2, 0
IsiXhosa	20 275	0, 4
IsiZulu	62 424	1, 2
Sepedi	2 826 464	52, 9
Sesotho	80 299	1, 5
Setswana	107 021	2, 0
Sign language	8 230	0, 2
SiSwati	25 346	0, 5
Tshivenda	892 809	16, 7
Xitsonga	906 325	17, 0
Others	86 322	1, 6
Total	5 338 675	100, 0

Source: StatsSA (2012: 23 & 25)

According to Statistics South Africa (2012), the major languages that are spoken in this province have changed drastically as follows: Sepedi (Northern Sotho) 52,9%, Xitsonga 17,0% and Tshivenda 16,7%. Afrikaans speakers make up 2,6% and there are only 1,5% English speakers in the total population in this province. These statistics show an increase in the number of people speaking Sepedi in 2011.

According to Krige et al. (1994:139), the home languages are concentrated in certain geographical areas. For example, Northern-Sotho (or Sepedi) is concentrated in the former Lebowa homeland, Tshivenda around and in the former Venda Home land and Xitsonga is concentrated in the former Gazankulu homeland. These languages were official regional languages in these areas respectively during the apartheid era.

Statistics South Africa (2012) shows that over and above the three dominant African languages in this province, other African languages such as Setswana,

Sesotho, isiNdebele, isiXhosa, siSwati, and isiZulu, as well as Sign language and other languages are also spoken, but they may constitute a small percentage of the population. In addition, Krige et al. (1994) state that Setswana speakers are concentrated in the area around Thabazimbi, that is, north-west of the Limpopo Province. IsiZulu and siSwati are spoken around the Sekhukhune area and Mapulaneng area in the former Lebowa Homeland. IsiNdebele, which includes both Northern and Southern Ndebele, is spoken around Potgietersrus (now called Mokopane).

Webb (2002b) shows that the use of Afrikaans as LoLT has always been a serious concern among black learners. The 16th of June 1976 represents the end of the use of Afrikaans as LoLT while English became the sole LoLT for the learners in South African black schools as it was believed to be the international language or the language of economic value. But Afrikaans is still used as LoLT until today in some public schools. Webb (2002b) argues that the choice of LoLT in schools of Limpopo Province does not coincide with learners' home languages. When comparing learners' home languages with their choice of the LoLT, he confirms that about 50 (8%) of learners prefer English rather than their home languages in Limpopo Province. The relationship between home language and LoLT in this province shows a positive attitude of pupils and parents towards English and their home language.

The study by Meyer (1998) on the language-in-education policy in Limpopo shows that there is a difference between what teachers report about their language practices in class and what they actually do. In Meyer's (1998) study it was established that most teachers and learners in secondary schools in the Limpopo Province rely on English for the purpose of writing, but for interaction they use a combination of languages (Meyer, 1998). The majority of teachers show a strong preference for English as LoLT.

However, Mabiletja (2008) notes that in practice teachers and learners continue to use both English and their primary languages in class, especially in ex-DET schools. According to Mabiletja (2008), over and above this, there is no

comprehensive language-in-education policy in the province and in schools. The schools rely on the national new LiEP that they do not implement fully because of different language situations that they experience.

Another study on language use in education was conducted in four provinces of South Africa, including Limpopo, by the National Centre for Curriculum Research and Development (NCCRD, 2000). This study shows that language is one of the main factors that lead to poor academic performance and high failure rate because the language that teachers use is not well understood by learners and this is the reason teachers sometimes code switch. Therefore, schools in the rural provinces such as Limpopo Province may benefit from using a multilingual education approach to ensure equitable access, language rights and success in education.

2.4   Conclusion

This literature review highlighted several problems relating to language use in education experienced in multilingual countries of the world, Africa, South Africa and the Limpopo Province. The international and local literature illustrates that the issue of MLE is a global one. The literature reviewed shows how MLE is applied internationally and locally. The literature also reveals that the focus has been mostly on bilingualism as well as bilingual education and less on multilingualism as well as MLE. It further indicates that MLE internationally and locally is implemented by using bilingual or multilingual programmes such as immersion, MT-maintenance, submersion and segregation programmes.

Researchers indicate that it depends on the multilingual nature of the country and the aim of the government as to which programme particular countries choose to implement in their education systems. The researchers point out that the major aims of MLE programmes in some countries are either positive or negative. For example, positive aims include making learners bilingual, aiming at academic achievement and cognitive development, and achieving equity and integrity, whereas negative aims include assimilation and monolingualism.

Similarly, countries that have succeeded in the implementation of MLE show a commitment to their success and some countries have failed because of lack of motivation and political will. The literature revealed that we need only a clear approach for language policies to be implemented as intended. Language planners must cater for all people and the only approach is through MLE.

In Africa, literature revealed that most countries adopt policies that use the languages of the colonial countries. Most African countries use English as LoLT. These countries follow a transitional bilingual education programme which emphasises the use of mother tongue only in the first three years of schooling. The literature revealed that the education in the African countries is therefore inferior because most of the learners attain poor academic development.

South Africa, like other African countries, adopted a policy of colonial languages before the inception of democracy in 1994. The literature showed that after the democratic elections of 1994 the South African government adopted a policy of eleven languages which is also used by the Department of Education. In 1997 the DoE announced a LiEP in which a provision to use a language of learners' choice and the learning of another language as a subject is made. Practically, in South African schools English is a major LoLT, and Afrikaans as well as African languages are learnt as subjects. This clearly implies that South Africa uses a transitional bilingual education programme in which mother tongue is used only up to Grade 3 and thereafter learners switch to English. But in some schools a Straight to English policy is used. It is also observed from this literature that a bilingual policy that uses English as well as Afrikaans as LoLTs is also followed in ex-Model C schools.

The reviewed literature also confirmed that Limpopo Province is characterised by linguistic diversity and it also follows a transitional bilingual education programme of using MT in the early years and then shifting to English from Grade 4 onwards. It is only in a few primary schools where mother tongue is used alongside English as LoLT. The literature reveals that officially schools use the provision made in the LiEP that mother tongue should be used until Grade 3 after

which learners shift to the use of English. The DBE (2011a) reported the high failure rate and poor performance in academic achievement might be related to language problems.

In Chapter 3 the theoretical and conceptual framework of this study will be discussed.

CHAPTER 3

THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

3.1   Introduction

According to Maxwell (2005:42) a theory refers to "a set of concepts and the proposed relationships among these, a structure that is intended to represent or model something about the world". Maxwell (2005:42) further states that a theory provides a model of why things are the way they are and it explains how some aspects work. Regoniel (2010), on the other hand, asserts that "a conceptual framework occurs when a researcher links concepts from literature to establish evidence to support the need for the research question". As already discussed in Chapter 2, MLE is defined differently by different researchers. This chapter explores the conceptual framework and theories on MLE.

In order to understand the importance of multilingual education (MLE) in South Africa it is essential that we first show our understanding of the previous multilingual and/or bilingual education theories and their relevance to the South African school context. Multilingual education (MLE) is essential for academic performance of learners. This chapter discusses four ideas that form the conceptual framework for this study, namely, Cummins' threshold and interdependence theories (1978), bilingual education models by Skuttnab-Kangas and Garcia (1995), additive and subtractive bilingualism (Skuttnabb-Kangas, 1988 & Luckett, 1993), and Language Management Theory (Neustupný & Jernudd, 1987).

3.2   The complexity of MLE

MLE refers to the use of at least three languages in education. This includes the mother tongue, a regional or national language and an international language (UNESCO, 2003b). In South Africa MLE would mean MT maintenance and good

provision of English; or the use of English for half of the subjects and MT for the other half (Heugh, 2002c). This includes bilingual education (BLE) which means the use of two languages as LoLTs as well as the learning of two languages (UNESCO, 2010). Other researchers define MLE as a situation where more than two languages are used as LoLTs (Cenoz and Genesee, 1998b). This again includes bilingual education where two languages are used side by side. This also includes educational programmes that use languages other than the first languages of learners as LoLTs. MLE programmes aim at developing communicative proficiency in more than two languages.

MacKenzie (2009) further defines MLE as education which is aimed at developing the skills of communication, cognition, and reasoning first in the language learners understand well and later introducing other languages necessary for successful access to life in a multilingual society. In these programmes, education should start with learners' MT. MLE is, therefore, used as a bridge to the introduction of a more permanent medium of learning and teaching. It can take many forms considering the sociolinguistic context in which it occurs. Some people use the forms such as BLE, MLE and MTE to refer to education that begins with learners' MT and the teaching of at least one additional language.

It is more important to differentiate MLE with MTE. Mother tongue education (MTE) refers to the use of MT as a language of learning and teaching, whereas in MLE learners learn through the use of MT first and then learn additional languages.

Heugh (2002c) argues that in South Africa it is difficult to apply MLE because, among other things, there is a belief that many languages of this country make it difficult to implement MLE because it will not be feasible to teach through all of them. Another myth is that parents in South Africa want a Straight for English policy so they do not encourage their children to attend black schools which start with learners' MTs (Heugh, 2002c). In addition to the above beliefs it is conceived that it is too expensive to produce learning and teaching material in all African languages. Lastly, it is believed that the country does not have well

trained teachers to teach in African languages (Heugh, 2002c). Most of the learners in South Africa stay in remote rural areas and they are not exposed to English, so it is very difficult for them to learn this language. Generally, the linguistic situation and lack of political will in South Africa limit the implementation of MLE.

3.3 Theories and models of multilingual education

Most theories and models used in MLE are developed from the bilingualism point of view. They focus on the learning of the content through two languages: L1 (MT) and L2. Since the main aim of this study is to focus on the transition to MLE and to propose a working model for the South African situation, most significant theories and models developed by the previous scholars have been considered. The discussion is informed by Cummins's Threshold and Interdependence theories (1978), Language Management theory as well as models of bilingual/multilingual education. The study will engage critically with these theories and models with the view of leading to the context of South Africa. The ultimate goal is to propose a model that will be suitable for the people's aspirations as far as language in education is concerned in South Africa.

3.3.1 Cummins's theories

Cummins provides various theories on bilingual education as discussed below. The theories relate language proficiency in either L1 or L2 to academic achievement. They account for the successes and failures of the majority and minority language learners in various educational programmes. The threshold and interdependence hypotheses form the basis of Cummins's theoretical framework.

Threshold Hypothesis

The *threshold hypothesis* deals with the cognitive and academic outcomes of various programmes relating to bilingual skills (Baker, 1988). According to the *threshold hypothesis* there is a minimum level of competence required for a child to develop in the L1 in order to gain cognitive development when exposed to L2

learning or instruction (Cummins, 1978). This implies that a high level of competence in L1 will lead to a high level of competence in L2. A low level of L1 competence will then lead to a low level of L2 competence. This indicates that if a child achieves a high level of bilingualism in both L1 and L2, greater cognitive development will also be reached.

According to Cummins (1978), there are two thresholds of bilingual competence, namely the higher level and the lower level of bilingual competence as shown in figure 3.1 below.

First Language Proficiency	Upper level (Additive bilingualism/Proficiency bilingualism) Age-appropriate competence in two or more languages: Positive Cognitive Effects	Second Language Proficiency
	Second Threshold Level/Higher Threshold	
	Middle level A. (Dominant bilingualism/Partial bilingualism) Age-appropriate competence in one but not two languages: No Positive nor Negative Cognitive Effects	
	First Threshold Level/Lower Threshold	
	Lower level (Semilingualism/Limited bilingualism) Low level of competence in both languages: Negative Cognitive Effects	

Figure 3.1:   Cognitive effect of different types of bilingual education (Cummins, 1978:403)

The hypothesis suggests that the degree to which a learner develops bilingualism will have either positive or negative consequences for a child. He asserts that those children who score the lower level of bilingual competence are semilingual

because they fail to achieve competence in both languages and therefore they experience negative cognitive consequences, whereas those who achieve the higher level are regarded as achieved additive bilingualism because they are competent in both languages and they experience positive cognitive effects. There are learners who are competent in only one language. Cummins (1978) classifies this situation as partial bilingualism and they experience neither positive nor negative cognitive effects. This hypothesis deals with the outcomes of transitional bilingual education in that it looks into the level of competence learners achieve in bilingual education programmes.

Cummins (1979) maintains that learners who achieve the higher level of bilingual competence have acquired relevant cognitive skills that will help them in academic performance. On the other hand, learners who reach the lower level will not be able to achieve academic success. Cummins (1979) also states that the threshold varies according to the type of bilingual situation and the level of cognitive development of an individual. Cummins developed this hypothesis in order to explain the situation and the reasons why some learners achieve cognitive academic growth and some not.

The Developmental Interdependence Hypothesis

The interdependence hypothesis deals with the functional interdependence between L2 and L1. The theory describes the relationship between language proficiency and academic achievement. The *interdependence hypothesis* states that the level of competence of L2 of a child depends on or is related to the level of competence in L1 before exposure to L2 for cognitive and academic language proficiency achievement, whereas both languages are independent for surface fluency (Cummins, 1978). It means that the skills, knowledge, values and attitudes developed in the L1 are transferred to the L2. This implies that if a child develops sufficient L1 skills, the skills will be transferred to L2 when the child is exposed to L2 instruction. Cummins (1978) concludes that it is necessary for a child to acquire academic language proficiency in L1 in order to transfer such skills to L2. This will in turn help a child to attain a high level of competence in

both languages. The hypothesis also states that if L1 competence cannot be well developed before introducing a child to L2 instruction, both languages may not develop to enable a learner to attain high academic achievement. This also implies that the inability of the learner to acquire cognitive language development in the L1 in a situation where a child has intense exposure to a L2 may hinder development in the L1, which will in turn lead to poor development of L2 and poor academic performance (Cummins, 1978). According to Cummins (2008), academic language proficiency develops from communicative or surface fluency, which is referred to as Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS) after the early stages of schooling (the concept of BICS is discussed in detail below). This implies that surface fluency or conversational fluency is acquired through social interaction whereas academic language proficiency is attained through formal education. The immersion programme of Canada evidenced that the level of exposure to L2 determines the level of development of the same at school. Therefore the mastery of L2 depends on the extent to which learners are exposed to the language out of a school situation.

The threshold and developmental interdependence hypotheses thus suggest that linguistic factors are very important in understanding the learners' language behaviour in educational contexts. The two hypotheses influenced the distinction between Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) as discussed below.

BICS and CALP Distinction

Cummins (2008) distinguishes between Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Linguistics Proficiency (CALP). According to Cummins, BICS has to do with the ability to speak and understand a language or conversational language skills, in contrast with CALP which has to do with the ability to use a language in order to attain academic success or cognitive and academic language skills. As stated by Cummins (2008), it is easier for children to acquire BICS than CALP. Cummins argues that the learners' conversational fluency may hide the learners' failure to acquire academic

language skills. Most of the learners and their parents are not aware that they have not yet acquired the required language skills to make academic success. He stresses that it takes a very long time for learners to attain CALP.

According to Cummins (1984), the theoretical framework above only applies to bilingual education programmes. This implies that it may not be useful in other contexts. As a result, Cummins refined the terms 'BICS' and 'CALP' by developing the continuum model described below:

Cognitively Undemanding

1   2

Context-embedded   Context-reduced

3   4

Cognitively Demanding
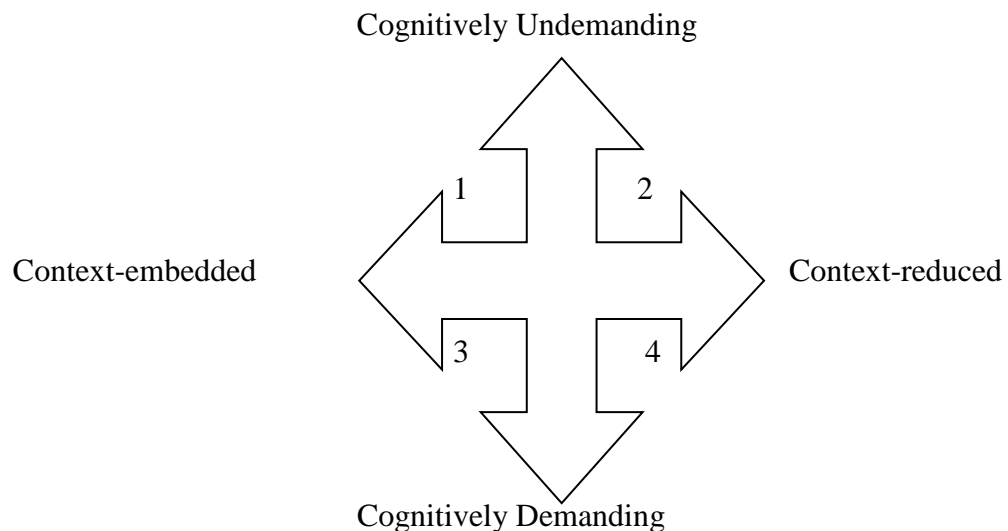
Figure 3.2:   Range of contextual support and degree of cognitive involvement in communicative activities (Cummins, 1984:12).

Cummins (1981) uses this continuum model to explain the situation in a L2 learning classroom. He maintains that the theory proposes two dimensions that concern the communicative proficiency of learners in a L2 learning classroom. The two dimensions include context-embedded versus context-reduced communication, and cognitively undemanding versus cognitively demanding communication as illustrated in the above diagram (Figure 3.2).

According to Cummins (1981), a situation where learners indicate their lack of understanding of the content and cannot communicate well with teachers is said to be context-embedded because there are few if any cues to support the interaction. The child can, however, reflect more understanding as he/she participates

effectively with his/her teachers. This situation, according to Cummins (1981), is context-reduced because communication supports are available for learners' interaction. In context-embedded communication only BICS is achieved and in context-reduced communication CALP is achieved.

Furthermore, Cummins (1981) contends that in a situation where the language is underdeveloped and only surface fluency is reached, the situation is cognitively undemanding. Such knowledge may be necessary for interacting with family and friends, but for academic success the situation is cognitively demanding. In cognitively demanding communication, learners are required to analyse and synthesize information. This means that CALP is achieved.

The distinction between the two dimensions highlights to language practitioners and language policy makers a need to differentiate between conversational language skills and academic language skills so that they can make valuable decisions.

Cummins (1981) uses "iceberg" representation of language proficiency theory to distinguish between BICS and CALP. According to the "iceberg" representation the "'visible' language proficiencies of pronunciation, basic vocabulary and grammar, which are manifested in everyday interpersonal communicative situations, are above the surface, but the cognitive/academic language proficiency (CALP) required to manipulate or reflect upon these surface features outside of immediate interpersonal contexts is below the surface" (Cummins, 1981:21). The theory shows that learners acquire conversational skills (BICS) first and CALP later. It also indicates that it takes longer for learners to acquire academic language proficiency (CALP). Cummins (1981) further acknowledges that some academic language skills require social communication skills in order to develop. This implies that CALP may develop in non-academic highly contextualized conversation. This means that CALP requires cognitively demanding communicative skills whereas BICS requires cognitively undemanding communication. This theory maintains that children may take two to three years to learn a new language but for the purpose of academic use, they will need five

or more years. Within this theory, the interdependence hypothesis is refined to "Common Underlying Proficiency," which is discussed below.

Separate Underlying Proficiency (SUP) and Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP)

Cummins (1981) states that later in this framework the two concepts, BICS and CALP, were also explained by using the Separate Underlying Proficiency (SUP) model and the Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP) model. According to Cummins (1981), SUP assumes that the proficiency in L1 is separate from that of L2. Cummins (1981) further indicates that each language occupies a certain amount of space in a brain and this makes it difficult for both languages to develop. This implies that there is no direct link between proficiency in L1 and proficiency in L2.

CUP assumes that development in one language can promote the development of both languages. According to Cummins (1981), L1 and L2 are processed in the same operating system of the brain. As a result, a learner can develop the reading, writing, listening and speaking proficiencies through both L1 and L2 at the same time. This implies that cognitive and academic literacy skills are transferrable between L1 and L2.

Dual-Iceberg Representation of Language Proficiency

Cummins' Language Interdependence Model is also described by Dual-Iceberg language representation. The figure below illustrates the CUP by using the Dual-Iceberg theory. Dual-Iceberg representation indicates that features of L1 and L2 appear separate above the surface level. However, L1 and L2 may share a common operating system below the surface level. The representation illustrates that the dimension that is used for more cognitively demanding tasks that involve more complex language is CALP, which is transferrable across languages. This implies that proficiencies involving more cognitively demanding tasks such as literacy, content learning, abstract thinking and problem solving are common across languages.

CUMMINS'
ICEBERG MODEL OF
LANGUAGE
INTERDEPENDENCE

SURFACE FEATURES
OF L1

SURFACE FEATURES
OF L2

COMMON
UNDERLYING
PROFICIENCY
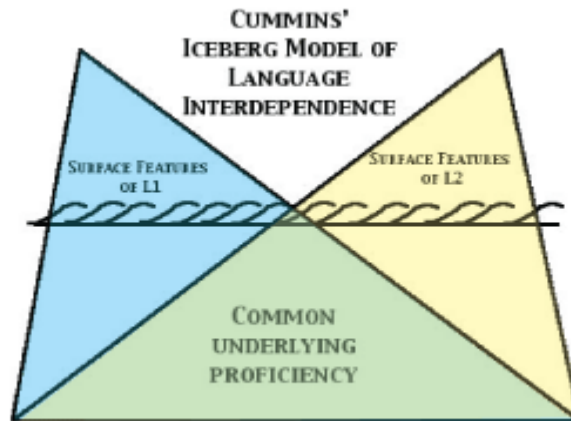
Figure 3.3:   Dual-Iceberg Theory: Common Underlying Proficiency (Cummins, 1980)

There are critiques of this theoretical framework by some scholars. Romaine (1989) for instance states that the situation of transferring language skills between L1 and L2 is not as easy as Cummins show. Romaine (1989) indicates that it is not easy to measure whether the learner has reached CALP or not and when L1 skills are transferred to L2. She bases her argument on the research conducted in Canada which concluded that children who have been exposed to French for a long time still performed poorly in English in the French-immersion programme.

The interdependence theory also has received criticism from scholars such as Canale (1984), Genesee (1984), Spolsky (1984), Troike (1984) and Wald (1984). According to Genesee (1984), social factors are also important in the school context. Genesee argues that in Cummins's theoretical framework linguistic factors are more stressed than social factors. This implies that, according to Cummins, language use in the schools has nothing to do with how language is used at home or in the community.

According to Spolsky (1984), the problem with Cummins's use of the terms 'BICS' and 'CALP' is that he uses acronyms which are not easy to understand. Spolsky (1984) suggests that Cummins should use full concepts that will also be

explained. The main problem is how Cummins uses the language. It becomes difficult to interpret.

Troike (1984) argues that the concept 'CALP' as explained in Cummins seems to be very attractive and it is supported by the findings from the Finnish immigrants in Sweden and the Mexican immigrants in the US. According to Troike (1984), the hypothesis is not valid. Troike (1984) suggests that not only linguistic factors affect academic language achievement, but also cultural and social factors. As stated, Troike shows that it is unfair to ignore other factors that affect academic achievement over others such as overlooking the effect of home cultural background.

Generally, critics state that the theory does not consider other factors that affect learner achievement such as cultural, social, political and attitudinal factors. It also does not separate schools according to socio-economic factors, which have a great influence on academic achievement. One may also add that this particular theory was designed for transition to learning in English rather than continuing with a native language. It simply suggests that a solid foundation in the first language prepares children for learning English. An emphasis is that a child must know a native language first as this makes it easier to attain a desired goal of learning and teaching in English. But this theory shows practical possibilities for MLE and as a result it is worth consideration together with other factors. Notwithstanding the fact that the theory of Cummins deals with issues relating to language competency, it is also relevant for the choice of which language to use in education in order to reach cognitive development as well as academic achievement.

Blaming the Victim

There are assumptions of North American school systems about the minority children in schools of many countries. Children are blamed for their poor performance in school systems. In this assumption, Cummins (1981) explores that most teachers of minority children consider bilingualism to be a problem that

causes confusion in children's thinking and needs to be eradicated. American children were often punished for speaking their home languages. This is a strategy used to make learners feel that their language is inferior. As a result of this kind of treatment, children in bilingual education programmes performed poorly and many of them experienced emotional conflicts (Cummins, 1981). Despite the bad treatment of minority children that might have caused their failure, blame is put on their bilingualism. According to Cummins (1981), the research findings were interpreted to mean that the brain is capable of taking only one language, which means that in the case of bilingualism no language will develop well because both languages share the brain space for only one language, which Cummins does not believe in. Cummins (1981) further explains that the poor performance is not caused by bilingualism, but is caused by an attempt by schools to eradicate bilingualism.

Cummins (1981) asserts that it may take two to three years to acquire conversational skills, but at least five or more years to acquire academic language proficiency. This assertion was evidenced in the research by Heugh (2002c) that took place in South Africa. The findings of these researches clearly indicate that learners who perform better in African countries, particularly in South Africa, take a long time to exit in transitional bilingual education. According to Heugh (2002c:174), many researchers in South Africa reveal that the high failure rate of most of the children is a result of the fact that children "plunge too quickly in English without strong support in the school for their home languages". Research findings such as this influence the decision to be taken by language planners and language policy makers concerning LoLT in schools.

Zone of Proximal Development

Cummins theory concerns the minority learners' school failure and the relative failure of previous education programmes such as compensatory education and bilingual education. There are three most important statements about Cummins's theory. The first statement states that "language minority students instructed in the minority language for all or part of the school day perform as well in English

academic skills as comparable students instructed totally through English" (Cummins 1986:22) . The second statement proposes that "to the extent that instruction through a minority language is effective in developing academic proficiency in the minority language, transfer of this proficiency to the majority language will occur given adequate exposure and motivation to learn the language" (Cummins 1986:22). The third statement concerns the context of the learner. Community and schools, power and status relationships should be considered. This implies that the home-school exposure to language plays a very important role in children's academic performance. This means that children need to be exposed to language used at schools to make academic progress. It also implies that there are languages for minority learners which are regarded as inferior. Speakers of these languages are regarded as failures even before they can go to school because their languages are inferior to the languages of the majority learners.

According to Cummins (1986), the theory maintains that there are four major characteristics of schools which determine the successes or failure of minority language learners. They include:

- The extent to which the school incorporates home language and culture into the school curriculum. It implies that if the language and culture of the minority learners are taken care of, the same learners will perform better than if their languages are ignored.
- The extent to which participation of parents in their children's education is collaborated. This means that in programmes that do not allow parents to participate in the learners' schooling the learners are likely to underperform than in schools which allow parents to partake.
- The extent to which education promotes inner desire to learn and not just passive receptacles. This implies that learners must show that they are knowledge seekers by being actively involved. Cummins (1986) uses transmission and reciprocal models to explain the theory. According to Cummins (1986), the reciprocal has to do with the active participation of

learners in their education whereas in the transmission model learners are expected to recall what they are taught by the teacher.

- The extent to which assessment of minority language learners avoids locating problems in the pupil and seeks to find the root of the problem in the social and educational system or curriculum wherever possible.

The following is a graphical representation of the explanation above.

<u>SOCIETAL CONTEXT</u>

Dominant Group

↓

Dominated Group

<u>SCHOOL CONTEXT</u>

Educator Role Definitions

Cultural/Linguistic Incorporation	Additive	- Subtractive
Community Participation	Collaborative	- Exclusionary
	Reciprocal	
	Interaction-	Transmission-
Pedagogy	Orientated	- Oriented
	Advocacy-	Legitimization-
Assessment	Oriented	- Oriented
	↓	↓
	EMPOWERED	DISABLED
	STUDENTS	STUDENTS

Figure 3.4: Empowerment of minority students: A theoretical framework (Adapted from Cummins, 1986:24)

In conclusion, Cummins's (1978) theories of the threshold hypothesis and the interdependence hypothesis are used in order to account for the outcomes of the bilingual programmes.

3.3.2 Bilingual education (BLE) models

There are also models of bilingual education that are vital in understanding a study on MLE and these are the: *transitional model, plural multilingual model, two-way bilingual education immersion model, maintenance model* and *submersion mode*l that are summarized below (Skutnabb-Kangas & Cummins, 1988; Skutnabb-Kangas & Garcia, 1995). In order to get a sense of how these models work, each of them will be discussed here.

In an *immersion model* the target language is used both for language subject and as LoLT. The language involved is usually a L2 (Baker, 2006). Skutnabb-Kangas and Cummins (1988) define an immersion bilingual model as a programme in which linguistic majority children with a high status mother tongue and who are highly motivated choose to be instructed through the medium of a foreign language. The main purpose of this programme is to make children "bilingual and bicultural without loss of achievement" (Baker, 2006:245). Immersion could be done in many ways. Hence, there are types of this kind of programme such as a total immersion (all subjects at all levels are done in L2), partial immersion (50% of the curriculum in MT and 50% in L2), two-way immersion (where both minority and majority learners are found in the same classroom), and early immersion and late immersion or middle immersion (depends on the age of the learner) (Baker, 2006). This model has been successful in Canada where English-speaking parents were encouraging their children to learn through French. Children developed high-level competence in L2 (French) without replacing their L1 (English). According to Macdonald (1990:93), this model has been a failure in Anglophone countries because children do not have a sufficiently literate background or parental and cultural-environmental support for learning through the L2.

In the *two-way bilingual education immersion models* both majority and minority groups learn together in the same class to develop bilingual fluency in both languages and encourage cultural appreciation. An example of this model is bilingual immersion schools in California in the United States of America. The

main objective of this model is to make all learners equally bilingual and bi-literate (Skutnabb-Kangas & Garcia, 1995). Such programmes also lead to high levels of proficiency in both L1 and L2, positive intercultural attitudes and behaviour, and in academic achievement in all grades (Baker, 2006). According to Baker (2006), this model includes two-way immersion, developmental bilingual programme, dual language education, bilingual immersion, double immersion, and interlocking education. This is another model of achieving additive multilingualism.

In the *plural multilingual model* learners from different language backgrounds and nationalities use several LoLTs. A typical example of this model is the situation where learners who were originally monolinguals are exposed to many languages. The main aim is to help them to become multilingual so that they are able to participate in the different domains. This model is also referred to as the mainstream bilingual or multilingual model (Skutnabb-Kangas & Garcia, 1995). Skutnabb-Kangas and Garcia (1995) assert that this is a form of additive multilingualism.

In the *maintenance* or *developmental model* the minority learners use their languages initially as LoLTs and move to the majority languages at a later stage, but learners continue to receive instruction in their L1 as well (Skutnabb-Kangas & Garcia, 1995). For example, some of the subjects are learnt through their L1 and the remaining subjects through L2. According to Skutnabb-Kangas & Garcia (1995) as well as Baker (2006), this model is also referred to as the language shelter or heritage language model. The outcomes of this model are additive bilingualism and maintenance. Learners in this programme become bilingual and bi-literate. According to Cummins (1981), learners reach positive cognitive effects.

In the *transitional* model, learners are first taught in their L1 while they are introduced to English (L2) as a subject (Macdonald, 1990). After about three years children are transferred into English only classes. The main aim of this model is to use a foreign language in the classroom rather than the home

language. It is a way of assimilating the minority learners (Baker, 2006). This model includes both early-exit bilingual education where children are taught in their home language for the first two to three years only and later shift to the use of a foreign language, and the late-exit model in which learners are taught in their home language for at least six to eight years before they can switch to a foreign language. In both cases, it is believed that learners shift from the use of a home language in the classroom when they are ready to use a L2 because, when they use their home language in class, at the same time they will be learning a L2 as a subject (Baker, 2006). But in the early-exit model learners do not wait until they are ready for the transition (UNESCO, 2010). The model leads to a subtractive bilingualism because learners become proficient in neither of the languages. This means learners reach negative bilingual effects (Cummins, 1981). Whereas in the late-exit model, if the learning of MT was effective during this period, this model may lead to additive bilingualism (UNESCO, 2010)

In the *submersion* model, the non-native speakers of a language have to learn in that language so that they become assimilated in the society of that language. Children with a low status L1 are forced to learn through a L2. For example, non-native speakers of English in the US have to learn in English even though they have not reached high or sufficient proficiency in this language (Macdonald, 1990). This language of instruction is in most cases a L1 of a small percentage of learners or none and it occurs where the teacher does not understand the L1 of learners. At the same time, teachers in this programme are not as well proficient in the language of instruction and they are not MT speakers of it either. In US, this model is also called a 'structure immersion' or a 'mainstream program' (Baker, 2006). This model also leads to subtractive bilingualism (Cummins, 1981).

Baker (2006) argues that some of the models of bilingual education are strong whereas some are weak. Weak forms of bilingual education models are transitional and submersion programmes because they are aimed at assimilation and are subtractive. On the other hand, strong forms of bilingual education are

aimed at bilingualism, bi-literacy and biculturalism. As a result these programmes are additive and they include immersion programmes, two-way or dual programmes, and maintenance or developmental programmes.

3.3.3 Additive and subtractive bilingualism

This section focuses on the typical outcomes of the above-mentioned bilingual models, namely additive and subtractive bilingualism. These two paradigms of bilingual education adopted from Skutnabb-Kangas (1988) and Cummins (1981) are also used by Luckett (1993). Luckett (1993) refers to those models that relate to a positive attainment of L2 competence and maintaining the L1 competence (immersion, plural multilingual, two-way dual language, maintenance model) as additive bilingualism and those that result in negative influence on both languages as subtractive bilingualism (transitional and submersion models).

According to Luckett (1993:75), additive bilingualism refers to a situation where a learner gains competence in L2 while L1 is maintained. She argues that this can only be realized if both L1 and L2 are valued and reinforced. In addition to this, Cummins (1979) asserts that additive bilingualism is achieved when children attain a higher threshold level in both L1 and L2. Luckett (1993) and Skutnabb-Kangas (1988) believe that proponents of additive bilingualism claim instruction in L1 to be a human right, a resource and an enrichment of education. Scholars such as Cummins (1981) and Luckett (1993) support the idea that in the additive bilingual approach children are guaranteed of positive effects on their social and cognitive development. Luckett (1993:75) believes that if a child maintains his/her L1, it will be easier for him/her to master content in L2. Baker (2006), therefore, refers to additive bilingualism as the addition of L2 and culture is unlikely to replace the L1. In immersion, plural multilingual, two-way/dual language and maintenance models learners are able to attain bilingualism, bi-literacy and biculturalism.

Contrary to the additive bilingual approach, there is the subtractive bilingual approach to education, which has to do with moving learners from the use of MT

to the additional language as LoLT in the early years of schooling (Heugh, 2011). This implies the learning of L2 with a pressure to replace a L1. In this paradigm L2 is added to replace L1. In some schools this includes a situation where MT is removed both as LoLT and as a subject of learning. Luckett (1993) further states that this situation occurs when the L1 of the child is not valued and supported by the education system. L1 is therefore regarded as a barrier, compensatory and deficit to be used in education. As a result, this approach has a negative impact on a child's social and cognitive development. This implies that the child's L2 will not develop and as such she/he might not be able to make sound judgments about the content in L2. This includes programmes such as the early-exit transitional programme and the submersion programme which result in failure to achieve academic success, bilingualism and bi-literacy. In these programmes neither of the languages is mastered. This situation is evidenced by the failure of the transitional bilingual education in US which ended up replacing the Spanish language with English.

3.3.4 The language management theory (LMT)

According to Nekvapil (2006), the term 'language management' was introduced by J.V. Neustupný and B.H. Jernudd in 1987. Nekvapil (2006) states that Neustupný and Jernudd introduced the term 'language management' to replace 'language planning' which they associate with a particular period of deliberate regulation of language and linguistic behaviour.

According to Cooper (1989:45), "Language planning refers to deliberate efforts to influence the behaviour of others with respect to the acquisition, structure, or functional allocation of their language codes". This definition of language planning includes the three types of language planning, namely, acquisition planning, corpus planning and status planning respectively. Language planning is aimed mainly at solving language problems. Status planning deals with giving a language position in relation to other languages. For example, assigning a language official status, national language or medium of instruction (Cooper, 1989). Corpus language planning focuses mainly on the structure of the language

as it deals primarily with spelling rules or vocabulary items. Lastly, acquisition language planning has to do with increasing the number of language speakers of a language. This implies that people are given an opportunity to learn and use a language. Language planning occurs at the level of the state or government institution. This is referred to as macro planning (Nekvapil & Nekula, 2006) and it includes mainly status planning. The other type of language planning is done in non-governmental institutions and other governmental institutions such as schools, companies, shops, hospitals, and others. This is termed 'micro planning' (Nekvapil & Nekula, 2006).

When developing a theory of language policy, Spolsky (2004) distinguished between three components, namely language practices, language beliefs or ideology and language intervention. Spolsky (2004) refers to this theory as 'language management'. According to Spolsky (2004), any language treatment such as language cultivation is referred to as language management. Spolsky therefore uses the term 'language management' to gradually replace the term 'language planning'.

Nekvapil and Nekula (2006) also states that the theory of language management originated alongside the classical theory of language planning. According to Neustupný and Nekvapil (2003:184), the "Language Management Theory (LMT)" was developed as an extension and adjustment of language planning theory. The term 'management' in this theory is used to highlight the fact that attention is given to a wide range of problems related to language use (Neustupný & Nekvapil, 2003). LMT therefore deals with a wide range of problems in addition to linguistic problems such as communication problems, literacy, as well as socio-cultural and socioeconomic problems.

LMT distinguishes between 'simple language management' and 'organized language management'. According to Neustupný and Nekvapil (2003:185), simple management refers to the management of language problems as they occur in individual communication acts. At this level, the speaker identifies language errors of his own and fixes them immediately. If an individual is unable to solve

the problems, they refer to linguistic and other professionals in other social institutions, hence organized management (Nekvapil, 2006:5).

Neustupný and Nekvapil (2003:185) further state that organized management of language is the management of problems in which "more than one speaker participates in the management process; discourse about management takes place; and thought and ideology intervene". This implies that organized management is done by specialists and institutions at a public level. Organized management deals precisely with language planning (Nekvapil, 2010). This entails that language planning theory only dealt with organized language management. The scholars clearly indicate that the two types of language management are related to one another because organized management depends on simple management. An individual must first identify a problem and fail to repair it before it is brought to the attention of experts.

Neustupný and Nekvapil (2003) also maintain that language management is done through the management process. The scholars state that language management involves various stages. They argue that in a conversation error may occur, which they refer to as a deviation from the norm. An individual *notes* the deviation and then *evaluates* the noted deviation. Subsequently, an *adjustment plan* is selected and later *implemented*. According to Nekvapil (2006), in organized management *noting* is based on the research done where simple management is thoroughly researched concerning the language situation.

Nekvapil (2010:3) uses the following diagram representation to summarize the language management processes:

```
                        Communication Act


          No deviation              deviation


                Unnoted                   noted


                        Not evaluated          evaluated


                        Adjustment not designed        adjustment designed


                                        Not implemented        implemented
```
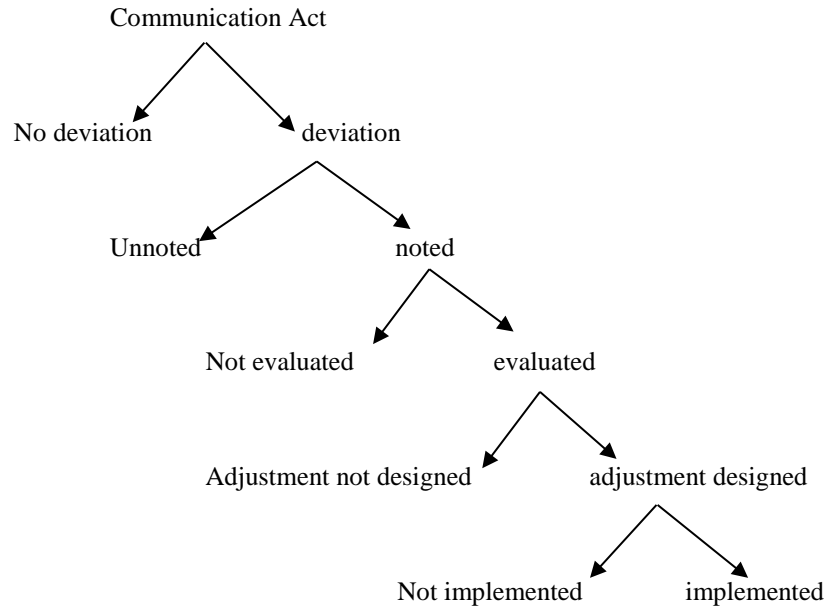
Figure 3.5:   The simple management process scheme (Nekvapil, 2010:3)

This includes the language policy formulation and implementation processes. This
implies that the formulation of language in education policies also falls within this
framework. First, research is done about how the languages used in education
such as mother tongue and language of wider communication affect teaching and
learning in the classroom. Secondly, the effect is evaluated and necessary
adjustment is planned. Lastly, the relevant implementation is effected in the
classroom. Individual schools also may realize the deviation from the norm and
evaluate it. Thereafter, the schools make an adjustment plan and come up with the
policy which is meant for the language problems at their particular schools and
further ensure that implementation occurs. This means that schools formulate
their own policies to cater for their individual language problems.

According to Nekvapil (2010), language management is a cycle which is shown
below:

Micro ⟶ macro ⟶ micro
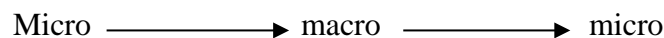
The representation shows that individual speakers encounter problems; bring
them to the attention of linguists and other professionals; the problems are
discussed and adjustment is designed; and the adjustment plan is accepted and

implemented. Nekvapil (2010) further asserts that the language management cycle may be partial or fragmented. This implies that some of the processes may not occur at some stages. What is being discussed above is only the required process that must occur. Sometimes partial language management is done, where planning starts at micro to macro. This is when language users experience problems and bring them to the attention of professionals but they remain unsolved. Sometimes the professionals plan to solve problems without the concern of language users. That is macro to micro planning. Sometimes, only micro or macro planning is done.

3.4   Conclusion

This chapter focused on the conceptual and theoretical frameworks of this study based on Cummins's theory of transitional bilingual, bi or multilingual education models as well as the language management theory. The chapter has examined both threshold and interdependence hypotheses as presented by Cummins as well as the concepts used in describing his theories. Cummins's theories are generally about the acquisition of language proficiency and the importance of maintaining the L1 in order to be able to transfer language skills to L2. Cummins's theories and LMT both influence decisions taken by language policy planners as well as planning processes that take place in various departments. In this chapter bilingual education models were also discussed. These models deal with the implementation of bi- or multilingual education in different countries. The most important thing is that one model may be more relevant in one country than in another. It is determined by the linguistic situation of a country and other factors. These theories and accompanying models will, therefore, help us to analyse and understand the findings of this study as well as inform the proposed working model for a country such as South Africa.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1   Introduction

This chapter presents the description of the research process and procedures for this study. An overview of the research design in this study is presented. The research was conducted in two ways. In the first place, a qualitative approach was followed when data were collected from educators, principals and departmental officials and, secondly, the quantitative approach was also used to collect data from learners and principals. Therefore, mixed methods of collecting data or triangulation were used to ensure validity and reliability of the research findings. The research site, target population, sampling method, sampling size, method and instruments of data collection, and data analysis are discussed in this chapter. Lastly, aspects that concern trustworthiness and ethical considerations are explained.

4.2   Research setting

Research takes place in a specific site required for making observations. The following criteria for choosing a research site are given by Marshall and Rossman (1995:51):

> "… entry is possible; there is a high probability that a rich mix of
> the processes, people, programmes, interactions, and structures of
> interest are present; the researcher is likely to be able to build
> trusting relations with participants in the study; and data quality
> and credibility of the study are reasonably assured."

In this study investigations were done in schools except for the circuit manager who was interviewed in his office and the SGB members who were allowed to

choose their convenient venue. This implies that a school is a natural setting in which events occur and are observed.

The study took place in selected primary schools in the Pietersburg Circuit of the Capricorn District of the Limpopo Province. The schools are rich in diversity in the sense that they comprise of a variety of races, cultures and languages that may affect their use of multilingual education in any way. There are also different types of schools in this circuit such as ex-Model C schools, ex-DET schools, new schools and independent schools. New schools are those schools that opened after the election of the new democratic government in 1994.

4.3 Research methodology

This section describes exactly how the design was applied in this research. According to Leedy (1997:104), methodology refers to "an operational framework within which the data are placed so that their meaning may be seen more clearly". This means that research methodology describes the types of data that the research project needs and how that data were collected, organized and analysed. Research methodology is an umbrella term used to refer to the research methods, techniques, and procedures that are employed in the process of implementing a research design or plan, as well as underlying principles and assumptions that underlie their use. Research methodology includes the description of the research instruments, data collection and data analysis methods that are applied in the study.

Hammell (2002) defines research methodology as the philosophical and theoretical aspects of how the research should proceed considering the nature of the problem to be addressed.

4.3.1 Research methods

According to Hofstee (2006:108), a research method has two meanings, namely, the researcher's

> "… way of considering one's (added) thesis statement, or the general technique/s that one (added) employs to examine his (added) statement, for example interviews, a case-study, content analysis or an experiment, etc."

In addition to Hofstee (2006), Hammell (2002:177) defines research methods as the actual techniques and strategies used to acquire knowledge and manipulate data. Research methods therefore refer to an overall research design and strategy. Research methods include things such as experimental research, qualitative research or quantitative research (Johnson & Christensen, 2004:162). There are, however, methods of collecting data which must not be confused with research methods. These include methods used to collect data such as interviews, observations and questionnaires; data collection procedures and data analysis. Methods used for collecting data are mainly known as data collection instruments or techniques.

4.3.2. Research design

This section gives an overview of a research design in general. According to Mouton (2001), a research design is a guideline to make choices about the research methods that are to be applied in order to achieve the intended goal. This implies that research design has to do with planning and implanting the study in the correct way (Rasinger, 2008). According to Leedy (1997), a research design is an imaginary planning for conducting a research project. Leedy (1997) further states that a research design is an overall framework for collecting data and that it provides a format for the steps in the study. Babbie and Mouton (2001) concur with Leedy (1997) by stating that research design is a plan or structured framework of how researchers intend conducting a research process in order to solve a research problem.

Different research designs are suggested when following either the qualitative or the quantitative approaches. Research designs for qualitative approach are ethnographic, phenomenological, narrative, case study and grounded theory research (Cresswell, 2007) while research designs for the quantitative approach can be classified according to whether they are experimental or non-experimental (Leedy, 1997).

This research project is ethnographic because it focused on describing and interpreting the cultural-sharing group. The study is non-experimental because data were collected in the natural setting where events occur. This implies that in non-experimental research the researcher cannot manipulate independent variables. This means that the researcher studies things as they naturally occur rather than studying them in the laboratory (Johnson & Christensen, 2004). A descriptive survey method was used as well because the data collection methods include observations, interviews and questionnaires. This, however, implies that the mixed methods design was applied because both ethnographic (qualitative) design and non-experimental (quantitative) designs were used. The three research approaches are discussed below.

4.3.3   Research paradigm

There are various definitions of a paradigm. The following definitions are found. According to Leedy (1997), the term 'paradigm' is used to refer to a set or cluster of commonly-held beliefs or values within the research or scientific community about a field of study. The beliefs shape or dictate how the researcher should go about carrying out a scientific study. This includes what they should focus on, what methods to use and how the researcher should interpret the results.

Denzin and Lincoln (2011:91) define a paradigm as "a set of beliefs that guide action." According to Denzin and Lincoln (2011) a paradigm includes four major beliefs that will guide a research action. These are *axiology* (ethics) which is about the role of values in the research process; *epistemology* which states that there is a relationship between the researcher and what is learnt in a research

process; *ontology* which asks about the nature of reality; and *methodology* which focuses on the procedures the researcher will follow to answer research questions.

According to Neuman (2006), a paradigm refers to a general organizing framework for theory and research that includes basic assumptions, key issues, models of quality research, and methods for seeking answers.

Paradigms that are commonly used include the analytical-empirical paradigm, interpretive-hermeneutic paradigm and the critical theory paradigm. The three paradigms are summarised in the table below:

Table 4.1: Summary of research paradigms (Guba & Lincoln, 1994)

Characteristic	Analytical-empirical paradigm	Interpretive-hermeneutic paradigm	Critical theory paradigm
Ontology	One truth exists	Specific, Constructed reality; many truths and realities	Historical reality, reality shaped by social, political, cultural, economic and other factors
Epistemology	Objectivist; findings are true; findings are generalised	Subjectivist; created findings; No generalisations	Subjectivist; value mediated findings; No generalisations
Methodology	Quantitative; deductive; Experimental; verification of hypothesis; surveys; questionnaires	Qualitative; Inductive; interviews; observations; documents	Qualitative Inductive; interviews; observations; documents

Analytic-empirical paradigm arose from positivism and it is based on the belief that there are rigid, logical rules, and measurement of the truth. The main idea of this paradigm is that the cause and effect of the phenomenon is real and can explain the world; research is context free; there is no relationship between the participants and the researcher; uses statistical analysis; and generalises from the specific data.

Interpretive-hermeneutic paradigm is associated more with constructivism. This paradigm seeks to understand the phenomenon, rather than generalise; believes the world is contextual; participants are observed in their natural settings; realities

are many and embedded as social phenomena; theory and practice are interactive; no generalisations.

Critical theory paradigm aims to reveal the truth which underlies the enterprise or the hidden agenda. The world is therefore contextual and influenced by social, political, cultural, economic and other factors.

Due to the complex nature of the study, the mixed methods paradigm is used. There was no single paradigm that could satisfy all the required aspects of this study. The rationale for using this mixed methods paradigm is to collect deep, rich data that will enable us to solve the problem. It relates to the recognition of multiple perspectives that help in triangulating information and conclusions about the complex phenomenon under study.

4.3.4   Research approach

The research approach informs the reader how data were collected and explains the method that was used to process it (Leedy, 2001). In other words, the research approach and methodology are likely to be the same. There are two research approaches that determine the direction followed by the research study. These approaches include qualitative and quantitative research approaches. Because there is a paradigm war that exists in scientific research, there is a third approach, the mixed methods approach, which developed to close the gap between qualitative and quantitative research approaches. The three research approaches are discussed in details below.

4.3.4.1 Qualitative approach

Qualitative research is a primary research in which the researcher collects first-hand information directly from the participants (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Cresswell (1994) states that qualitative research deals with how people make sense of their experiences and how they view the world. In a qualitative study, research design includes all the processes of the research from the first stage until the last one (Cresswell, 1994). According to Cresswell (1994), the qualitative

research design is flexible, unique and evolves throughout the research process. As a result there are no fixed steps that should be followed since qualitative research relies on the collection of non-numerical data, such as words and pictures (Johnson & Christensen, 2000). This methodology relates to methods of research that seek to describe and analyse the culture and behaviour of groups of people (Saville-Troike, 1989).

According to Dörnyei (2007:24), "qualitative research involves data collection procedures that result primarily in open-ended, non-numerical data which is then analysed primarily by non-statistical methods". Dörnyei (2007) further states that qualitative research takes place in a natural setting where events occur practically. It also focuses the perspectives of individuals in a situation being studied; as a result it involves interviews where participants share their experiences of the situation. Another characteristic of qualitative research is that it uses a very small sample size for the data to be manageable and it also focuses on the in-depth cases.

Authors such as Cresswell (2007) as well as Babbie and Mouton (2001:272) summarise the characteristics of the qualitative research approach as explorative, descriptive and contextual. These characteristics are discussed briefly below.

Explorative

One of the characteristics of qualitative research design is that it is explorative. The main aim of explorative study is to gain new insight about what is being studied (Cresswell, 2007). According to Cresswell (2007), qualitative research is done when a researcher wants to examine the problem carefully rather than using predetermined information from the literature or from other scholars. The problem needs to be understood in detail and that is the reason why this research is done in a natural setting where events take place. This study investigated how multilingual education is implemented in the different schools studied and proposes a suitable model for the South African schools' context.

The study engaged in a semi-structured interview and observations to elicit information about the experiences of educators and learners in the selected schools.

Descriptive

According to Babbie and Mouton (2001), descriptive research describes situations and events. It implies that the representing reality of participants should be clearly described. This focuses on a description of participants' experiences and perspectives of the research phenomenon. This should be backed up by evidence in the gathered data. It is also important in this study to describe the experiences of learners and educators in classes composing of learners with similar or different home languages. Based on the experiences, a model to implement MLE in South African primary schools under investigation will be proposed. The type of research questions asked in Chapter 1 indicates that the study describes, defines, measures and clarifies the phenomenon under investigation.

Contextual

According to Babbie and Mouton (2001), the contextual nature of qualitative research is based on the preference of qualitative researchers because they want to understand the events, actions and processes in their context instead of generalizing. The research is also contextual because it is important to contextualise the findings. In this study the findings are understood within the context of learners in primary schools, more especially the grade 4 learners of the Limpopo Province who are mainly introduced to languages other than their home language and/or their educators' home languages.

Qualitative methodology has both advantages and disadvantages. The advantages of this methodology include that the presence of the researcher in the field makes the findings valid because the researcher understands some behaviour by being there. The researcher is able to get more detailed information because follow-ups may be done where a response is not clear. Dörnyei (2007) states the following as advantages of qualitative research: the exploratory nature of this approach; the

ability to make sense of highly complex situations; the ability to answer 'why' questions; the ability to broaden understanding because it is descriptive; longitudinal examination of a dynamic phenomenon; flexibility when things go wrong and rich material for the research report. Qualitative methodology also uses a wide range of data collection instruments such as interviews, observations as well as document analysis, and the analysis is simple because the data are descriptive.

This methodology also has disadvantages in that the presence of the researcher in the field may influence the results because the participants may change their behaviour if they are aware of what the researcher actually needs. Another disadvantage is that this methodology is time consuming and expensive because the researcher has to spend some time in the field (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992). Another disadvantage is that if the researcher is careless one can collect data that are more than one can manage. If data are more, it may be difficult to codify and analyse. Dörnyei (2007) mentions the following disadvantages: the small sample size makes it difficult to apply the findings to another situation; the ability of the researcher to analyse data and ability to avoid biases; lack of methodological rigour; too complex or too narrow theories; and time consuming and labour-intensive. To overcome this difficulty more structured questions are asked.

Notwithstanding the aforementioned limitations, the qualitative research approach was suitable in this study because:

- It aimed to explore phenomena within a specific context or in its natural setting, which was a school in this case. It is not easy, if not impossible, to separate an event from the context in which it happens.
- It helps to understand the setting in which events occur. This was accomplished through observations and interviews that take place in schools.
- It uses an inductive form of reasoning by originating concepts, insights and understanding within patterns in the study.
- It derives interpretation from the participants' perspectives.

- It seeks a complex understanding of a phenomenon, which was established by interviewing participants and relating their stories with what had been read in the literature.

- Observations are determined by data, richness of settings and are used to accelerate insight.

- Data are to be collected through interviews, questionnaires, document analysis and observations to ensure validity of the research findings.

- Data is displayed in the form of quotes from documents, observation notes and interview transcripts.

- It does not allow fixed steps to be adhered to and cannot be precisely replicated.

- It ensures internal validity.

- The researcher is the key instrument of data collection (Johnstone, 2000).

- It helps to limit the effects of the shortcomings of quantitative research.

(De Vos, 2000& Cresswell, 1994).

4.3.4.2 Quantitative approach

Quantitative research establishes statistically significant conclusions about a population by studying a representative sample of the population. According to Dörnyei (2007:24), "quantitative research involves data collection procedures that result primarily in numerical data which is then analysed primarily by statistical methods".

The quantitative approach has the following general characteristics: data are numerical, where tables and graphs are mostly used to explain the trends of the findings because of prior categorisation; the questionnaire is the main instrument used for data collection (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). A quantitative study is centred on the study of variables rather than cases or individuals. This implies that the main aim of the quantitative approach is to identify the relationship between variables (Dörnyei, 2007). Dörnyei (2007) states that quantitative data are analysed statistically which range from calculating averages and using

standardized procedures to assess objective reality. This implies that there are procedures followed to ensure reliability and validity of the data collected. All of the above mentioned characteristics of quantitative study such as numerical data, variables, standardized procedures, and statistical analysis make the study generalizable.

Quantitative research has advantages and disadvantages. According to Dörnyei (2007), quantitative research is more systematic, rigorous, focused and involves precise measurement and produces reliable data. Dörnyei (2007) further states that it saves time and money because data can be collected without physically going to the site. Many participants can be reached within a short period of time, and there is less chance for researchers to influence the behaviour of the participants. Data can also be analysed by using statistical computer software which saves time.

The disadvantages of quantitative research are that working with averages and generalizing the results does not do justice to the individuals. This study employed a mixed methods approach to overcome the shortcomings of both qualitative and quantitative research approaches.

4.3.4.3 Mixed methods approach and triangulation

This section focuses on explaining the mixed methods approach and how it relates to triangulation. Various scholars define the mixed methods approach differently. Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2006) describe mixed methods research as an approach that involves collecting, analysing, and interpreting quantitative and qualitative data in a single study or in a series of studies that investigate the same underlying phenomenon. According to Dörnyei (2007:24), "Mixed methods research involves different combinations of qualitative and quantitative research either at the data collection or at the analysis level".

Dörnyei (2007) concurs with Cresswell (2003) by defining mixed methods research as an approach which collects both quantitative data and qualitative data and which is geared towards answering "pragmatic knowledge claims".

According to Cresswell (2003), the need to use mixed methods is influenced by the relationships between the data sets needed. Cresswell and Clark (2007) further state that there are several reasons for using mixed methods research such as (a) triangulation - quantitative and qualitative data are collected simultaneously to complement each other and emphasis is given to a particular approach. Cresswell (2003:218) refers to this approach as "concurrent nested strategy". According to Cresswell (2003), this approach helps in that qualitative data provide meaning to quantitative data and that participants receive complete attention. This approach also ensures that the research data are compatible. (b) Embedded - the need for qualitative data to refine quantitative data or vice-versa. In this case a sequential explanatory strategy is used. This implies that qualitative data may be collected first and quantitative data later to refine qualitative data, or vice-versa. (c) Explanatory – secondary data investigate elements of the primary data. The main purpose of this type of study is to explain previously identified phenomenon. (d) Exploratory – the study is derived from the primary study and it is sequential. Data are collected by using one method and analysed separately and from that some question may emerge and be addressed by using another set of data.

In addition to Cresswell (2003), Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2006) as well as Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) identify five general purposes of using mixed-methods research, namely, (a) Triangulation (i.e., seeking convergence and corroboration of findings from different methods that study the same phenomenon); (b) complementary (i.e., seeking elaboration, illustration, enhancement, and clarification of the results from one method with the results from the other method); (c) initiation (i.e., discovering paradoxes and contradictions that lead to a re-framing of the research question/questions); (d) development (i.e., using the results from one method to help inform the other method); (e) expansion (i.e., seeking to expand the breadth and range of the investigation by using different methods for different inquiry components).

As discussed above, one major reason for using mixing methods is triangulation. Mouton and Marais (1988) argue that the term 'triangulation' refers mainly to the use of multiple methods of data collection with a view to increasing reliability of data and not necessarily a combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches. Triangulation is not simply the ad hoc combination of qualitative and quantitative methods; it is the planned mixing of methods at a pre-determined stage of the research (Andrew & Halcomb , 2009). It is often presented as a means of addressing the differences of the qualitative and quantitative approaches.

Hammell (2002) distinguishes between four ways in which triangulation can be undertaken:

- It includes data triangulation. (i.e., using a variety of sources in a study). This involves collecting different types of data from different people about a phenomenon.
- Another way is methodological triangulation. This involves triangulation by using multiple methods of collecting data, for example, using interviews, observations, document analysis and others in the same study. This method will encourage more reflexive analysis of data.
- Theory triangulation (i.e., the use of multiple perspectives and theories to interpret the results of a study). This implies that triangulation may also be undertaken by using various theories or by employing different perspectives to discover different ways of thinking.
- Investigator triangulation. Triangulation may be undertaken by using many researchers or peer review in order to produce different perspectives.

Babbie and Mouton (2001:275) explain the advantages of triangulation methods as a way to overcome deficiencies that may flow from one method and one investigator. Secondly, multiple types of data enhance the validity of the findings. In addition to the above-mentioned advantages of triangulation, Jonson et al. (2007) state the following advantages: (a) it allows a researcher to be more confident of her/his results; (b) it stimulates the development of creative ways of

collecting data; (c) it can lead to thicker, richer data; (d) it can lead to synthesis or integration of theories; (e) it can uncover contradictions, and (f) by virtue of its comprehensiveness, it may serve as a litmus test for competing theories. It is used to test the consistency of findings through different approaches. When using this approach it is necessary to balance the strengths and limitations of each approach.

Notwithstanding the advantages of the mixed methods approach, it also has disadvantages. The main disadvantage of the mixed methods approach is the lack of training and the limited skills of the researchers to use this approach (Dörnyei, 2007). As a result it may increase problems rather than eliminating them.

In this study the mixed methods approach was used because different types of data were collected by using a variety of data collection instruments such as observation of a phenomenon in a natural setting, interviews, questionnaires and document analysis. Qualitative and quantitative data collection methods were used concurrently for corroboration and validation of findings. Data integration was done at the interpretation stage. This implies that data collected from questionnaires, interviews, observations and documents were analysed separately and integrated at the interpretation stage. The main purpose of using this methodology was to validate the findings and also to enhance and strengthen the results.

4.4   Sampling and participants

De Vos (2000:191) asserts that a sample is "a small portion of the total set of objects, events or persons which together comprise the subject of our study". According to Rasinger (2008), a sample is a subset of the population from which the researcher selects to be participants in one's study. Sampling is very important because it is not often practical to study an entire population.

Rasinger (2008:112) further defines sampling as a process of selecting a portion of the population in the research area, "which will be a representation of the whole population". If the sample is not representative no general observations about the population can be made from studying the sample.

This implies that the sample should be representative of the population and should allow for generalisation.

4.4.1   Sampling techniques

Leedy (1997) argues that the sample should be selected carefully in such a way that the researcher is able to identify the characteristics of the represented population from the sample. There are different sampling techniques that one may use in the study. The selection of sampling method is determined by the types and the depth of data that the researcher needs. According to Teddlie and Yu (2007), there are probability techniques which are normally used in a quantitative study and non-probability sampling techniques which are usually used in a qualitative study. There are also random and non-random sampling techniques.

Probability sampling

In a probability sampling the researcher can identify and specify the sample that will represent the population (Blaxter et al, 2001).   The segments of the population are selected randomly. This is the best method used to try to avoid bias in a sample. The sampling method ensures that each member in a population has as much chance as any other person of being selected to take part in the study. Blaxter et al (2001) further argue that the probability sampling technique is suitable when the researcher knows the population in question. According to Blaxter et al (2001), probability sampling includes simple random sampling (selection of participants is done at random), systematic sampling (selection is done for every number of cases), stratified sampling (sampling is done within groups of the population), cluster sampling (involves surveying the whole cluster of the population that is in turn sampled at random), and stage sampling (sampling clusters that are sampled at random).

Non-probability sampling

Non-probability sampling is used when the researcher lacks a sampling framework for the population in question and when probability is not taken to be essential (Blaxter et al., 2001). According to Blaxter et al. (2001:163), non-probability sampling techniques include convenience sampling (sampling only the most convenient participants; no attempts to control bias because the researcher takes participants as they enter the scene), voluntary sampling (self-selected sample), quota sampling (convenience sample within groups of the population; participants are selected in the same ratio as they are found in the general population), purposive sampling (selecting interesting units or cases based on a specific purpose), dimensional sampling (multidimensional quota sampling), and snowball sampling (building up a sample through informants).

In this study non-probability sampling techniques were used. The sample of this study comprises of Grade 5 learners, teachers, principals, parents and departmental officials of selected primary schools of Pietersburg Circuit in Capricorn District of the Limpopo Province. All Grade 5 learners of the involved school were selected. Even though the grade was chosen purposefully, the learners who participate in class were selected on a voluntary basis. Parents of learners and learners had to consent to participate or withdraw whenever they felt like withdrawing. By using this technique we ensured that every Grade 5 learner had an equal chance of being selected to participate in the research.

Furthermore, the purposive sampling technique was used to select teachers, principals, parents and departmental officials. This study used purposive sampling to ensure the gathering of relevant data and for the trustworthiness of the research. Purposive sampling ensures that only the most suitable participants for the research are interviewed. The reason for using this technique is that the researcher was interested only in teachers who teach Grade 5 because they were exposed to the situation involving learners in the grade in question. Principals were required to supply information about their schools in general.

- Schools were selected according to the category in which they fall, e.g. ex-Model C, ex-DET, and new schools (those which existed only after the 1994 elections);

- Learners and educators were selected from primary schools in the circuit;

- School governing body (SGB) member who represents parents of learners at school; and

- The Departmental official (circuit manager) from the circuit under investigation was also interviewed.

4.4.2 Sample size

According to Patton (1990), the sample should be large enough to accommodate credibility, given the purpose of evaluation, but small enough to allow for adequate depth and detail for each case in the study. This point is further illustrated by Rasinger (2008) who points out that the sample has to be large enough to correctly represent the population. To avoid bias the sample should represent all groups. In this study the population includes principals, teachers, learners, School Governing Bodies (SGBs), and departmental officials in the Pietersburg Circuit.

The sample was drawn from the selected primary schools in six out of 20 primary schools in the circuit. In each school the research involved the school principal, the chairperson of the School Governing Body (SGB), at least three teachers of Grade 5, one departmental official; preferably the circuit manager and all Grade 5 learners where possible. 466 Grade 5 learners participated in the study. The reasons for having this number of learners include ensuring the representativeness of the sample and also ensuring that the data were manageable (Babbie, 1990). The participants were selected irrespective of gender and age. Each learner had a chance of participating in the study (if the parent agreed) to avoid bias (Blaxter et al., 2001).

4.5   Data gathering instruments

This section focuses on the selection of tools that were used to collect the required type of data according to the research methodology followed. As discussed in the earlier section, this study followed both qualitative and quantitative approaches. Several instruments were used to collect data in order to make sure that almost all issues were covered in this study. Data were, therefore, collected by using various instruments, namely questionnaires, interviews, observations and document analysis.

4.5.1   Interviews

According to Burns and Grove (1997), an interview involves verbal communication between the researcher and the respondent during which information is provided to the researcher. This implies that in interviews the interviewer asks questions and the interviewee responds to the questions either telephonically or face-to-face. Interviews can be unstructured, semi-structured or structured. According to Nunan (1992), in unstructured interviews, questions are based on the response of an interviewee. In other words, there is no predetermined set of questions or agenda. Nunan (1992) argues that in semi-structured interviews, on the other hand, the interviewer has a general idea of what s/he wants to get at the end of an interview, but does not use any agenda. In structured interviews the researcher brings in a list of questions to the interview which will be asked in that order.

Bailey (1994:174) identifies the following as advantages of interviews:

- Flexibility – where the interviewer can probe for more answers instead of just asking what was originally intended to.
- Control over the environment – the interviewer can assure the participants of privacy. In other words, the researcher can always adjust the interview environment.
- The response rate is always high because the researcher is instantaneously recording responses with an audio-recorder.

- Researchers can use more complex questions, which would otherwise not be used in administered questionnaires.
- Completeness of questions is guaranteed. The research can always make sure that all the questions are answered.
- Interviewing provides the researcher with the chance to find out from the people those things that cannot be directly observed.

Despite the advantages mentioned above, there are also disadvantages of this data collection procedure, such as that interviews are time consuming, costly and difficult to administer, more especially for those who did not receive any training (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989). In addition to these disadvantages there might be personal biases and questions may be directed to a different way of responding to a question. To overcome the weaknesses of this instrument, I selected the district and circuit that were more convenient to save travelling costs and time. The duration for the interviews was also minimised to avoid embarrassing interviewees because of their schedule. The number of interviewees per school was also minimised. To avoid the impact of untrained interviewers, I managed to discuss the interview schedule and the techniques that are necessary in interviews with my supervisor. The interview schedule was also piloted before it was used in this study.

In this study a set of questions was asked in the interviews with respective participants. Some face-to-face interviews were held with teachers, parents and principals. Individual face-to-face interviews were held with the above-mentioned participants to get their opinions about the implementation of MLE in primary schools and their experiences of how this policy is implemented in their schools. These individual face-to-face interviews also strengthened the issue of confidentiality.

The interviews were semi-structured and flexible to cater for the emerging themes. This implies that not only lists of predetermined questions were used because other questions were added as new themes emerged. This means that an interview schedule was used to keep track of the important topics in the research.

The interviewees were also given a one-page bio-demographic profile to complete. The interviews were also interactive and sensitive to language concepts used by participants. As a result questions were rephrased and expanded. Some of the questions in this study were open-ended and allowed the participants an opportunity to structure the answer in any of several dimensions (as suggested by Kruger, 1994).

The interviews were held with respective interviewees in the following manner:

Teachers

Grade 5 teachers were interviewed at their respective schools. Interviews were conducted in English. Individual face-to-face interviews were used with three teachers in each school except in schools where there were fewer than three teachers. Teachers were also given a one-page bio-demographic profile form to complete. Interviews took 30 to 45 minutes. The interview questions focused on the use of language in school and the problems that both learners as well as educators experience in schools. The interviews were conducted also to find out if there were some programmes used by the schools to implement language policies in order to boost the learner performance at schools.

Parents (members of the School Governing Body)

Parents were also involved in face-to-face interviews as interviews were conducted with at least one member of the School Governing Body in each school who was also allowed to choose a venue for the interviews. The interviews were conducted in areas which were quiet. The interviews lasted for 30 to 45 minutes and they were conducted in either English or Sepedi where necessary. Home language was used to clarify the questions for parents where they needed clarity. This encouraged the answering of questions as parents' representatives were able to answer all questions. Questions were based on the issue of formulating school language policy which was aligned with LiEP and the implementation of the resultant policy.

Principals

Principals were interviewed at their schools. English was used as the medium of communication in the interviews where the home language of the interviewee was different from that of an interviewer. English was also chosen for transcription ease and saving money for translation. Interviews with each principal took approximately 60 minutes. Principals were requested to provide the interviewer with a snap survey to check the numbers of home language speakers and the number of learners enrolled for the different languages at the school. Questions generally revolved around the issue of the language used as LoLT, language as a subject, as well as language policy availability and its awareness.

Departmental official

The departmental official in this study refers to a circuit manager. The circuit manager for the circuit under investigation was interviewed. The interview took place at the circuit manager's office where the interview took approximately 20 minutes. The questions for the circuit manager were based on the issue of language use, language subjects, and schools' language policy awareness. This was to check if circuit managers were aware of the school language policies that are at schools; whether the language policies are in line with the Language-in-Education policy which was pronounced in July 1997 and whether the school language policies are effective or not.

Before engaging in any interviews, the purpose and the nature of the interviews were explained to the interviewees. The interviewees were also allowed to ask questions for clarity. In each interview session it was explained how the data were going to be used. The interviewees were also told that all interviews were audio-taped, transcribed and stored in a locked locker of the researcher for safety purposes. The interviewees were further informed that they had permission to access the data after the completion of the study. At the end the interviewees were assured that the data were going to be treated with confidentiality. Details are discussed in the section on ethical considerations.

4.5.2. Observations

Observation is one of the procedures normally used to collect data in a qualitative study (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989). Seliger and Shohamy (1989) state that this is a measuring instrument used to measure truthfulness and honesty. The researcher usually observes a number of behaviours taking place in interviews and in the classroom or even outside the classroom. The main use of observation in the study is to examine a phenomenon while it is occurring. In this study, aspects that need to be observed were pre-determined in order to avoid collecting data that is not useful for the study (see Appendix A). But the emerging aspects were also allowed for inclusion in the study.

According to Seliger and Shohamy (1989), the researcher may observe events as a participant observer, who becomes part of the observed situation, or a non-participant observer, who records all behaviours taking place as an outsider. During participant observation an observer becomes part of the participants while observing the situation. In non-participant observation the researcher sits back as an outsider and records what he or she is observing. In this study the researcher is non-participant because this investigation is done only for study purposes and the researcher is an outsider.

During the observation process, the observer recorded by writing field notes as well as audio recording lesson presentations. According to Bogdan and Biklen (1992), field notes are notations generally made to document observations during an interview. Bogdan and Biklen (1992) further state that field notes should indicate or express what researchers see, think or experience. Observational notes or field notes entail description of events experienced through watching and listening during interviews and lesson offerings. They answer questions such as who, what, where and how of a situation (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992).

Observations have advantages because they allow the study of behaviour at close range which may help in realising contextual variables that are present in a situation. According to Seliger and Shohamy (1989), this may also become a

disadvantage if the closeness leads to biases which may affect the results. Another disadvantage of this data collection instrument is that the presence of the observer may change the behaviour of the observed subjects. Observations took place before any questionnaire or interview was conducted to avoid the influence that interview questions or questionnaires may have on participants. Both outside and inside the classroom learners' and teachers' behaviour was observed. Teachers were observed as they were teaching in class. An observation sheet was used to control the data needed and to guard against collecting unnecessary data.

4.5.3   Questionnaires

Bailey (1987) defines a questionnaire as a list of questions to be answered by the survey participants. Bailey (1987) further states that a questionnaire is a self-administered instrument where a respondent is left to fill it in alone as opposed to an interview where the researcher talks to the participants. In addition to Bailey, Johnson and Christensen (2004:164) define a questionnaire as "a self-report data-collection instrument that each research participant fills out as part of a research study". This implies that the participants respond to the questionnaire in their own time without being helped by the researcher.

This approach had the advantage that most learners could be reached within a very short period of time (Chiwome & Thondhlana, 1992). Questionnaires are advantageous because they are able to reveal beyond the physical reach of the researcher. By completing the questionnaire, the participants may tell what the researcher is unable to note (Leedy, 1993). This implies that the participants may reveal what the researcher did not expect, more especially if the questions are open-ended.

Another advantage is that it is easy to fill in answers because in most cases more options are given, and that the data are easier to compare as they are more uniform (Robinson, 1996). Robinson (1996) states that questionnaires are less expensive to administer because they can be given to a large number of participants at a time. This implies that questionnaires save time and money for

transport to the venue as in the case of interviews, and then the researcher may either send questionnaires to the participants by post or email. Lastly, the data are more reliable because questionnaires are given to the participants at the same time. This ensures that participants do not discuss and influence each other's responses. In this study some questions had alternatives to choose from, whereas some have spaces to fill in answers.

The disadvantage of this method is that not all questionnaires may be returned to the researcher (Chiwome & Thondhlana, 1992) more especially with mailed questionnaires. This may affect the validity of the results. Another problem with questionnaires is that they are not appropriate for a respondent who cannot read and write because they may not understand and respond to the questions correctly (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989). In this study it was realised that due to learners' age, it would be inappropriate to let the learners respond to the questionnaires on their own without being monitored to return all questionnaires and assist them with answering or understanding some difficult questions.

Structuring of a questionnaire is also a relevant issue. As Bailey (1994) points out, some of the pitfalls in constructing a questionnaire include:

- Using double-barrelled questions. Bailey (1994) and Jonhson and Christensen (2004) double-barrelled questions combine two or more issues in a single question. Double-barrelled questions lead to participants misunderstanding the questions or answering only one of the two questions.
- Ambiguous questions lead to misunderstanding and therefore erroneous answers, for example using different words for the same meaning. Consistence in using a term/word is important for eliciting the same kind of response.
- Using abstract questions rather than factual questions. The questions in the questionnaire should refer to concrete and specific matters rather than being abstract.

- Biasing the question by using leading words. A leading question is the "one that is phrased in such a way that it suggests a certain answer". (Jonhson & Christensen, 2004:167).

- Questions dealing with sensitive issues should be worded correctly to avoid challenging the participant's immediate feelings.

It is important, therefore, that questionnaires are well formulated. Questionnaires may be formulated in two ways, namely open-ended questions where participants decide what to say, how to say it and also give reasons for their choice, and closed questions where participants choose from a list of options determined by the researcher to avoid the pitfalls such as that of dealing with unnecessary information and ambiguous questions (Nunan, 1992). For the two types of questioning see the attached questionnaires (Annexure B). According to Nunan (1992), it is easier to respond to and analyse closed questions than open-ended questions, but one usually gets useful information from open-ended questions. An advantage of closed questions is that the responses can easily be quantified and analysed whereas open questions are difficult to quantify. To avoid any biases and pitfalls that may arise from questionnaires, in this study, questionnaires were formulated and piloted before using them in an actual study.

4.5.3.1 Learners' questionnaires

The learners' questionnaires were divided into two sections. The first section is about the personal details of the learners and the second section deals with language usage. Many questions had predetermined answers where learners chose the relevant answer. But some of the questions were open-ended. In this survey the questionnaires for learners were returned on the same day that they were distributed in different schools. Learners were not allowed to take the questionnaires home to ensure that all questionnaires were returned. Language problems were addressed immediately and all questionnaires were filled in by learners themselves. These aspects helped to guard the validity of the findings.

4.5.3.2 Teachers' questionnaires

Teachers were interviewed. An interview schedule was used. The first section (Section A) of the interview schedule was about the teachers' profile. The second section (Section B) was about language usage by both teachers and learners at school. This implies that teachers started by filling in a questionnaire and later responded to interview questions.

4.5.3.3 Principals' questionnaires

Principals were also given questionnaires. The questionnaires were designed to solicit statistical information about the schools. The information requested was also related to language usage.

4.5.4 Document analysis

This involves collecting data from documents and other related materials, the content of which may not have been acquired through other data collection techniques. The contents are, therefore, reviewed and analysed by using content analysis. Analysis of school language policy documents was used to get the information that might not be accessible during interviews (Denzin & Lincoln 1998). In this study each school was requested to provide the school language policy to check if it was available and whether it was formulated according to the Language-in-Education policy of 1997. The information from school language policies was compared with the outcomes of the interviews, observations and questionnaires. The information checked included the LoLT, language subjects and language policy developers who signed the policy documents and if policies accommodate all learners at school.

4.6 Data presentation

This section deals with the organisation or arrangement of data sets in an interpretable form. This is sometimes referred to as a graphic representation of data. Data is therefore displayed in tables to make it simple to interpret. The method used to display or present data also depends on the type of data collected.

Data collected by questionnaires, interviews, observations and documents were displayed accordingly.

Quotations were used to display data from documents such as school language policies and interview transcriptions whereas tables were used for displaying data from the questionnaires.

4.7   Data analysis and interpretation

This section focuses on the methods or strategies used to analyse the type of data gathered. According to Cresswell (1994), data analysis is a process of organising and interpreting the data. In other words, data analysis involves manipulating data in order to generate information from it. This implies that data analysis means making sense of text or image data. Data interpretation refers to a stage in a research process where the researcher makes sense of the data collected. The researcher attempts to bring it all together by relating data to other variables and to the theory or hypothesis he/she wants to prove. This implies that in a research process data are collected, manipulated and interpreted to answer the questions that the researcher asked.

Seliger and Shohamy (1989:201) define data analysis as a process of "sifting, organizing, summarizing, and synthesizing the data so as to arrive at the results and conclusions of the research". Seliger and Shohamy (1989) further argue that, like data collection, there are various techniques that are used for analysing data. According to Seliger and Shohamy (1989), the selection of the specific data analysis technique depends on the nature of the research problem, the research design chosen and the nature of the data collected. Considering the above argument made by Seliger and Shohamy (1989), techniques for analysing qualitative data and those utilized for analysing quantitative data differ. The main reason for this difference is that quantitative data is basically numerical and this leads to the use of statistics. Qualitative data is mainly non-numerical and can be analysed using qualitative data analysis techniques.

According to Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2006), data analysis in mixed methods research can either be parallel, concurrent or sequential. This is because in mixed methods research we have two types of data, namely, qualitative and quantitative data.

4.7.1 Parallel mixed analysis

Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2006) state that in parallel mixed analysis the following conditions apply: (a) both qualitative and quantitative data analysis are done separately, (b) neither type of analysis builds on the other during analysis stage, and (c) the results from the two types of data are neither compared nor consolidated. This implies that qualitative data are analysed qualitatively and quantitative data are analysed quantitatively. The two data sets are integrated in the interpretation stage of the research (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2006).

4.7.2 Concurrent mixed analysis

According to Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2006), in concurrent mixed analysis integration is done in the data analysis stage. The two data sets, namely qualitative and quantitative data, are collected at the same time and analysis is done after all data have been collected. This type of data analysis can be used when analysing quantitative data qualitatively or analysing qualitative data quantitatively.

4.7.3 Sequential mixed analysis

Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2006) state that in sequential mixed analysis data analysis is done in phases. They further state that one type of data is collected and analysed and then followed by another type of data collection and data analysis. Quantitative data analysis can be done first and qualitative data analysis later on the same type of data or vice-versa. Qualitative data analysis can be done first and inform the subsequent quantitative analysis, or quantitative data analysis can be done to inform subsequent qualitative data analysis.

In this study parallel mixed analysis was used because both qualitative and quantitative data were analysed separately. Questionnaire data, interviews data, observation data and document analysis were analysed separately. The data analysis findings were integrated at the interpretation stage. Data analysis commenced as soon as the data collection had been completed.

Analysing documents

Documents (schools' language policies) were read in conjunction with the Language-in-Education policy (1997) to relate their contents. When reading the documents issues that can be dealt with in comparison analysis were identified. Comparative analysis involves comparing incidents as they emerge from the documents under study (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). The school language policy documents were compared with the Language-in-Education policy of the Department of Education. In these documents the following things were noted: LoLTs, language subjects, people who signed those documents, contents of the documents, the underlying assumptions, the target audience for each document, the date on which each document was signed, and the intertextuality of documents.

Analysing questionnaires

A quantitative data analysis technique was used to analyse the specific data from the questionnaires. Analysis made use of simple descriptive statistics such as proportions or numerical counts (frequencies where possible), and percentages since not too many figures were used in this study (Johnson, 2013). Learners' and principals' questionnaires were analysed by using the quantitative data analysis techniques. This enabled an environment to make comparisons between different types of schools represented in this research.

Analysing interviews

In this study thematic data analysis was applied. Interview responses were transcribed and then read repeatedly (three to four times) to get the sense of the

whole data and come up with themes that emerged from the data. Following the argument made by Johnson and Christensen (2000) that qualitative data analysis involves segmenting, coding, compiling a list and enumerations, interview transcriptions were read and the data were divided into themes (segmenting). This means that segments were grouped together. This also means that a list of all topics deriving from transcriptions was compiled. Similar topics were grouped together and arranged into major topics. The segmented data were then classified under the category names or symbols (coding). All categories that were developed were listed and enumerated (frequency noting) in order to make a decision.

Analysing observation data

Data from observations were compared by using Miles and Huherman's (1994) suggestions for coding qualitative data. I identified and categorised all the observations as per the observation sheet. Data were also quantified. This means that questions such as how often a case happens in all schools or how many schools use English most often were asked during the analysis.

All data gathered for the purpose of this study were approached and analysed in light of Cummins's theory on transitional bilingual education (1978), bilingual implementation models (Skutnabb-Kangas & Garcia, 1995) and language management theory in order to propose a model that may be relevant for the South African or any other multilingual situation.

4.8   Ethical considerations

Collecting data from people raises ethical concerns. Ethical consideration is a way to guide a researcher to be able to decide on a method of reconciling conflicting values in a research process (Johnson and Christensen, 2000). Ethical consideration is the most important and crucial part more especially when the research is done in a formal institution such as a school. Ethical measures ensure that data is collected without infringing on the rights of the participants. In the preliminary stage, I got permission to conduct research in the sampled schools from the Limpopo Province Department of Education. This was followed by a

request to the circuit manager of the sampled circuit which was then followed by a request to the principals of the sampled schools. The need to seek permission before entering a site (a school) was never ignored. In the letter to ask permission, the purpose of the study was highlighted.

The participation in the study depended on the willingness of the participants. This implies that the participant chose either to participate or not. The following rights were considered in this study when dealing with the participants (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989):

- The right of participants to privacy;
- The right of participants to remain anonymous;
- The right of participants to confidentiality; and
- The right of participants to expect the researcher to be responsible.

These rights were respected throughout the study by letting the participants and parents or guardians of minors to sign consent forms before taking part in the research. It was ensured that the participants were protected from any harm, discomfort, or danger that might arise as a result of participating in this study to eliminate embarrassment. Accordingly, participants were allowed to withdraw at any stage from taking part in this research. All participants were furnished with the aims as well as the objectives of the study and also their rights to participate in the study, such as the right to privacy, to withdraw from the study and to remain anonymous before part-taking. The privacy of the investigation was not compromised in any way. Participants were also assured that the information obtained during interviews would be treated with confidentiality. All participants were informed of the use of a voice recorder. Average results were used to ensure anonymity instead of displaying findings for individuals. All participants were treated with respect irrespective of their age and gender.

4.9   Reliability and validity

Reliability and validity are criteria used to evaluate the quality of the research study. Reliability is the ability of separate researchers to come up with similar

conclusions using the same design or participants in a study whereas validity refers to the ability of an instrument to measure what it is supposed to measure (Leedy, 1993). This implies that if an instrument is used repeatedly on the same object, it would always produce the same results. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), there can be no validity without reliability. As a result, a demonstration of validity is sufficient to establish reliability. To ensure reliability, questionnaires were administered and face-to-face interviews were conducted to assist participants where they needed clarity.

Lincoln and Guba (1985) further argue that validity is ensured by using strategies for trustworthiness which include strategies such as credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability to ensure the trustworthiness of the research.

Credibility (Truth value)

Credibility informs a reader about the extent to which a researcher has a basis for confidence in presented findings. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), the study is credible when it presents accurate descriptions and interpretations of human experiences that can also be recognised by others. Lincoln and Guba (1985) recommend the following set of activities to improve credibility of the results in a research project: prolonged engagement in the field, persistent observation, triangulation (the use of several data collection techniques), negative case analysis, checking interpretations against the raw data, peer debriefing, and member checking. In this study, credibility or truth value was ensured by conducting a pilot study that equipped me as a researcher with the necessary information about fieldwork. I also designed the data collection and data analysis procedures to ensure credibility of the results. Furthermore, a peer debriefing process was involved by the usage of experienced researchers such as my supervisor to reduce the impact of using a single researcher. Furthermore, I used a voice recorder to capture interviews and the literature review was also conducted to link the findings with the previous research.

Confirmability (neutrality)

Confirmability (neutrality) refers to the extent to which the findings are shaped by the participants rather than the researcher who may be biased or interested (Kairuz et al, 2007). Furthermore, Lincoln and Guba (1985) state that the way the researcher describes the characteristics should be confirmed by other people who review the results. Neutrality was ensured by selecting an expert, including my promoter, to look into all instruments such as the questionnaires, the interview schedule, and the observation sheet, the recordings before implementing them and the standard of the research in general. I have also kept safe the voice recordings, transcriptions and field notes taken during the observations for future reference. Confirmability is, therefore, determined by checking whether there is coherence within the research products, such as the data, findings, interpretations and recommendations.

Dependability (Consistency)

According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), consistency refers to whether the findings would be consistent if the study were replicated in the same context. I used triangulation to check consistency. I have also kept safe the detailed documentation of the data processing procedures to enable future researchers to make their own judgements on the results of this study. After the identification of criteria and coding, my supervisor also verified the results.

Transferability (Applicability)

Transferability (Applicability) refers to the degree to which the findings of the study can be applied to other contexts and settings or even with other groups (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). This implies that the research findings were used to check if they can have implications for other settings beyond the one included in this research or not. Transferability was made possible in this study by a detailed documentation of data collected in schools. The documents such as questionnaires, observation notes, interview transcripts and audio-records are safely locked away in the institution to allow other users to make judgements of

whether this can be transferred to the whole population or other situational contexts. The results from the learners, teachers, principals and the SGB chairpersons from different settings (schools) in this study were integrated. This integration helped in identifying common things that may be also found in other settings or in the whole population from which the sample was drawn.

4.10   Conclusion

This chapter focused on the research design that guided the choice of the data collection methods and the research methodology for the study. The chapter started with the description of the research setting in which investigations were done. The differences between research methodology, research methods, research design, paradigm and research approach were given. All qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches were explained in detail.

The use of various data gathering instruments such as observations, interviews and questionnaires was presented in this chapter. Procedures on how the use of observations, interviews and questionnaires would ensure reliability and validity of the research findings were also presented. Procedures of data collection were justified by the detailed description of the sampling techniques and the sample size of the participants in this study.

Different data analysis strategies were discussed. These include parallel mixed analysis, concurrent mixed analysis and sequential mixed analysis. In this study, parallel mixed analysis was chosen and the analysis of documents, questionnaires, interviews and observation data were discussed.

The chapter also highlighted issues of reliability and validity. Guba's model of trustworthiness was discussed. This includes credibility, dependability, confirmability and transferability. Finally, ethical concerns used when collecting data were also discussed.

The next chapter focuses on data analysis and presentation.

CHAPTER 5

DATA PRESENTATION

5.1   Introduction

This chapter presents empirical data collected in six primary schools in the Pietersburg Circuit of the Capricorn District in the Limpopo Province. The schools were selected according to types for comparison and each two represent a particular type, namely, ex-Model C, ex-DET and new schools. Independent schools were not included in this research as the study focuses on public schools only. These types of schools are explained in the sections below. The data were gathered from documents such as schools' language policies and by using instruments such as questionnaires, interviews and observations. The data were gathered from the departmental official, principals, parents, teachers and learners. The data is presented according to the type of school. Schools A and B represent ex-Model C schools, C and D represent ex-DET schools and E and F represent new schools. The use of letters A to F ensures anonymity.

Results from questionnaires and interviews are presented in table format where possible to allow comparison. The interviews and questionnaires data are presented as raw as possible with no corrections to errors made by the participants. The reason for not correcting mistakes made by participants is to ensure that the meanings of the responses do not change.

Although this study is mainly qualitative, some quantifiable aspects were included to allow semi-triangulation.

The chapter begins by providing the data from the circuit manager and later provides the data from schools.

The following concepts are important for understanding the data:

Mother tongue: the language that the learner has acquired in his early ages and becomes his natural instrument of thought and communication (DBE, 2010).

Home language: the language that is spoken most frequently at home by a leaner (DBE, 2010).

Language level: the level of proficiency at which the language subject is offered at school (e.g. home language, first additional language, etc.) (DBE, 2010).

5.2   Data from departmental official (circuit manager)

This section deals with the questionnaire data and interview response from the departmental official at the circuit office. The questions asked are based on the information related to all primary schools in the circuit to get a general picture of the primary schools in this circuit.

SECTION A: CIRCUIT PROFILE

The departmental official provided the following profile:

The circuit had 20 public primary schools. Schools include seven (7) ex-Model C, ten (8) ex-DET, five (5) new schools and two other schools. Table 5.1 below shows the types of public primary schools that are found in the Pietersburg circuit.

Table 5.1:   Number of primary schools in the Pietersburg circuit

Types	Number
Ex-DET	8
Ex-Model C	7
Other	2
New schools	3
TOTAL	**20**

Table 5.2 below aims to establish the number of schools dominated by certain languages to investigate the linguistic diversity of the circuit.

Table 5.2:   Schools per dominant languages

Language	Number	Type of schools
Afrikaans	2	Ex-Model C
English	3	Ex-Model C
Sepedi	12	Ex-DET & new schools
Other (both Afrikaans and English)	3	Ex-Model C

Table 5.3 below indicates the number of schools according to the languages they teach as subjects. The numbers of schools are repeated if they offer many languages.

Table 5.3:   Schools per languages as subjects

Language	Number	Type of school
Afrikaans	4	Ex-Model C, Ex- DET
English	20	Ex-Model C, Ex-DET, & new schools
Sepedi	11	Ex-Model C, Ex-DET & new schools
Tshivenda	2	Ex-Model C & new school
Xitsonga	2	Ex-Model C & new school

SECTION B: INTERVIEW

This section displays the circuit manager's responses to questions revolving around the implementation of the language policies by schools as well as the personal perception about the issue of LoLT.

Table 5.4:   Interview responses from the departmental official

Interview questions	Response
Do the schools have language policies?	So far, as I know, they all have language policies. Schools have just congested their policies as one document which is a school policy, but they all have language policies.
Who formulated language policies at schools?	Language policies have been formulated by the SGBs, parents included, and educators included with the guidance of the principals.
What LoLT(s) do parents prefer?	In the city so far parents prefer English as language of learning and teaching. Majority of the parents prefer English and we see this through applications to a number of schools. We never questioned why do parents prefer English to be the language of learning and teaching
What is their view about the current language situation?	We never interviewed them about this but we have seen their preference.
How do you ensure that parents know about the new LiEP and their rights?	This has been cascaded to schools through the principals. And principals communicate the information to the SGBs and the SGBs pass it to the parents in the parents meetings.
What is your view concerning the new language policy?	The new language policy is a policy which is good, but the unfortunate part of it is that somewhere is difficult to implement it fully due to the fact that we sometimes do not have educators in other languages. Second one is that sometimes the staff establishment determines the number of educators at school, now would find that we have a staff establishment which would refer to have 20 educators and amongst the educators which this prefer are already accommodated. They cannot exceed the number to accommodate other languages. So that is where we have a technicality which is a challenge in almost all schools. So that is why in some instances they will cut the number of languages based on the available number of posts.
So the language policy is based on multilingual education. They want the schools to implement multilingual education. What do you see happening in schools? Do they really implement multilingual education or what is happening?	In schools where parents preferred English only, they go for English and you would find other languages as subjects. But now there are instances where parents would prefer the school with dual or more than one or two languages. Now that is where they are accommodating it. Currently we have school where learners are being taught in Afrikaans as well as in English and Sepedi. Unfortunately we still have a situation where some principals would not prefer to accommodate all of the three languages which is a challenge that we are busy addressing.

From the above interview the departmental official agrees that all schools have language policies and that the policies are formulated by SGBs. He acknowledges that many parents prefer English medium whereas some prefer dual medium

schools although they do not usually ask them why they like it. The departmental official further indicated the challenge that the schools sometimes have about implementing LiEP because of lack of teachers in the languages in question as well as the principals who are not willing to accommodate other languages. According to him, there are some schools that have already introduced three languages.

5.3   Data from schools

This section deals with the presentation of data from all three types of schools.

5.3.1   Data from ex-Model C schools

This section focuses on the presentation of data from ex-Model C schools. Ex-Model C schools in this study refer to schools which were previously known to be Model C during the apartheid government. They were dominated by white people and most of them were found in towns or cities. Most of these schools are now mixed as a number of black learners as well other racial groups have joined these schools in a new democratic South Africa.

5.3.1.1   Data from School A

This section aims to present data from School A. The data from documents, parents, the principal, teachers and learners are presented separately. Tables are used to present different types of data where possible.

School A profile

This section provides the data from the principal's questionnaire. This questionnaire was divided into two sections, the first section being the school's profile and the second section was about language usage at the school. HL in this study represents Home language, whereas FAL represents First Additional Language and SGB stands for the School Governing Body. Table 5.5 below presents principal's response to the questionnaire,

Table 5.5:   Principal's response to the questionnaire in School A

Schools' profile									
Type of school			Ex-Model C						
Quintile			5						
Enrolment			1129						
Number of educators			41						
Number of classes per grade									
	R	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	2	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	
Grade enrolment per home language									
Language	R	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**Total**
Afrikaans	-	21	33	37	38	29	33	27	**218**
English	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	**5**
Sepedi	48	104	101	88	102	97	97	98	**735**
Setswana	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	**1**
Tshivenda	6	11	10	17	7	12	9	10	**82**
Xitsonga	6	17	13	7	6	12	12	15	**88**
Total	66	153	157	149	153	150	151	150	**1129**
Language of learning and teaching per grade									
Language	R	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
English	66	153	157	149	153	150	151	150	**1129**
Preferred language of learning and teaching per grade									
Language	R	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
English	66	153	157	149	153	150	151	150	**1129**
Number of teaching staff per home language									
Afrikaans	English	IsiNdebele	Sepedi		Tshivenda		Xitsonga		
16	5	2	15		1		1		**41**
Language subject and level per grade									
Language	R	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Afrikaans	-	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL	
English	HL	HL	HL	HL	HL	HL	HL	HL	
Sepedi	-	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL	
Tshivenda	-	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL	
Xitsonga	-	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL	

In this school, in all grades learners take English Home Language and all other languages as First or Second Additional Languages. Home language in this school refers to the language of the school. This does not necessarily refer to mother tongue or first language (L1) of learners. In Grade 1 they all do three languages, namely English Home Language, Afrikaans First Additional Language and one of Sepedi, Tshivenda or Xitsonga Second Additional Language. The principal indicated that there are 500 schools in South Africa that were piloting the teaching of three languages in Grade 1 in 2014. This school is one of them. From Grade 2 to 7 they all do English Home Language and one between Afrikaans, Sepedi,

Tshivenda or Xitsonga at First Additional Language level. It means that they choose one and English Home Language is compulsory. During periods for choice languages every learner will go to the relevant class.

Data from document of School A

This section displays data from the school language policy. The school has a language subject policy. It is titled: *Subject Policy for Languages*. This is the only document that was found tackling the language issue at the school. The policy starts by stating the aims of teaching language as subject. In its introduction it states that:

The teaching of a language presents a greater challenge to a teacher than any other subject of the curriculum. "To speak of children's language is to speak of their lives at home and at school, at once mirrored in language and in no small way managed and shaped by it."

As stated in the policy document, the main aims of the policy are detailed as follows:

- *To encourage fluent and confident self-expression in speech and writing;*
- *To develop the child's power to express himself in an intelligible form, suited to the requirements of a particular situation;*
- *To cultivate the habitat of intelligent listening;*
- *To acquire the ability to read with understanding, to read thoughtfully and critically,*
- *To form lasting reading habits and enable the child to understand literature and interpret the experience and ideas of others through his exploration of factual and imaginative literature.*

According to this policy the aims mentioned above apply to all languages taught at school. There is a specific section in the policy which explains the teaching of English in Senior Primary classes. It states that the teaching of English is divided into the following:

- *Listening and speaking activities,*
- *Reading activities,*
- *Supportive skills,*
- *Written skills.*

Data from learners in School A

This section focuses on how participating Grade 5 learners use language at this school. It includes the learners' mother tongue or first language, the language teachers use to teach in the classroom as well as the languages that learners use outside the classroom.

Table 5.6 below illustrates the language usage by learners who took part in the study from School A. Learners were given questionnaires to complete. Learners were not involved in interviews. Learners were asked to tick the most appropriate language that they use in different domains. The eleven official languages of South Africa were listed in the questionnaire. Learners were also given the option 'other', to write the language of their choice if it was not included in the list. Questions are changed to statements for the purpose of presenting all the information in the same table. Not all languages that were included in the questionnaire are included in the table. Only languages that were selected by learners are included.

Table 5.6:   Learners' response in School A

Statements	Afrikaans	English	IsiZulu	Sepedi	Sesotho	Setswana	Tshivenda	Xitsonga	Other	Total
Language spoken at home	5	16	3	69	2	2	6	7	1	111
Language used to teach	-	111	-	-	-	-	--	-	-	111
Language that learners want teachers to use	3	94	-	7	1	-	2	2	2	111
Language used by teachers when speaking to learners outside the classroom	-	108	-	2	-	1	-	-	-	111
Language used when writing tasks	-	111	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	111

According to the data provided in Table 5.6 above, learners in Grade 5 use English in the majority of functions rather than other languages such as in class with the teacher, when writing and outside the classroom with teachers or fellow learners. But only 16 learners use English at home.

Table 5.7 below illustrates reasons given by learners for preferring some languages over others.

Table 5.7:   Reasons for language preferences in School A

Reasons	Languages					
	English	Afrikaans	Sepedi	Tshivenda	Xitsonga	Total
I understand or I want to understand	68	2	7	-	2	79
I like the language	11	-	-	1	1	13
It is my home language	2	-	6	1	1	10
It is spoken by many people	7	-	-	-	-	7
No reason	1	1	-	-	-	2
Total	89	3	13	2	4	111

Data from teachers' interviews of School A

The purpose of this section is to present data from teachers' interviews. In this school three Grade 5 teachers were interviewed individually and their responses are as follows:

Table 5.8:   School A teachers' interviews

Interview question	Teacher 1	Teacher 2	Teacher 3
Do you have a school language policy at your school?	Yes	Yes	Yes
What does your school language policy say concerning LoLT?	English	English	Home language which for our school is English
Is LoLT a home language of learners?	For some yes, but for some no.	Not all of them because with some of them you might find that they are Afrikaans speaking child, so that child	No, our learners have different home languages. We have got Portuguese speaking children, we have got Zulu speaking

		will be able to have an Afrikaans as a First Additional Language but English is compulsory.	*children, we have Tsonga speaking, Venda, Sepedi and also sometimes Afrikaans speaking learners. So English is not a home language for most of the learners.*
Are learners experiencing problems with regard to LoLT? If yes, what kinds of problems?	*When coming to teaching they can understand but when they have to write that is where they have barriers, but I don't think it can be because of English because they understand. It becomes a difficult thing when you give a learner a question paper to work on it becomes a problem.*	*I can yes. Our African children, they use to speak Sepedi a whole time but when they go to classes; when we give them something like group work it's difficult for them to conduct the group work thing or the discussion group in English, they will even mix some of the words, the Sepedi words, the Venda words or even Tsonga words.*	*Yes. I am the English teacher, I have found that they have problems with pronunciation, intonation, emphasis of words, spelling, reading, listening, those are the things they have trouble with*
Do you have any programme to help learners with difficulties in LoLT? If yes, what kind of programmes do you have?	*Yes, we do have Maxima, and teachers who do remedial classes. We have extra classes to help those with barriers*	*we have a lot of practice; lots of extra reading, extra listening and so forth, and of course a lot of remedial when it comes to grammar, especially spelling.*	*Yes we do, we are trying to give them easy books to read we give them some vocabulary words. We are trying to assist them with English and Afrikaans meanings they can pick up.*
Is there enough learning material in the LoLT?	*I try to resource as much learning material from the internet, from magazines, from other books, from various textbooks.*	*We do have learning material.*	*With material I can say they are enough because we have story books, and enough textbooks.*
How do you experience teaching and learning in the LoLT?	*For me is good, I enjoy it because the children mostly who are enrolled from Grade R are introduced to this language at an early age. When they come to Grade 1 it continues until the Grade 5. Like I said spoken language I can give them an A*	*I don't think it's a problem, to them I think, it might be a challenge but they are forced to learn in English because our school is an English medium. There is nothing we can change and say they can start learning in Sepedi or Venda, it won't work.*	*Many, many learners here are used to speak English talking around the school yard they understand English very well and they communicate clearly.*

	class but when it comes to writing that is where they experience a barrier.		

The teachers in the table above acknowledged that the school has a language policy which states that English is the LoLT and that English is not the home language or mother tongue for the majority of learners in the school. Teachers further showed that the majority of learners in this school are experiencing problems because they can understand the language but when it comes to using it for various activities it becomes a problem. The only programme that is common among all teachers to address learners' difficulties is remedial classes. Otherwise an individual teacher comes up with his/her own strategy for surviving in his or her difficult situation.

Data from parents' representative (SGB member)

This section presents data from an SGB member, a parent component in School A. The interview schedule contained seven questions which were open-ended. The questions allowed the participants to elaborate. Table 5.9 below shows how the SGB member responded to the interview questions.

Table 5.9:   Interview's responses from parents' representative in School A

Interview questions	*Parent*
Do you have a language policy at your school?	*I am sure there is. The fact that I know that inside the school the kids will speak English, but inside the Sepedi class my daughter said they are speaking Sepedi. So medium of instruction is definitely English but in terms of there are different vernacular classes, for instance there is Sepedi class, Xitsonga class, Tshivenda and Afrikaans class. So inside those classes I know that they are supposed to speak the language of the period.*
What is your language of learning and teaching according to your school language policy?	*English. The school is originally an English medium school. I think the school was historically an English medium school. It is an old school that has always been an English Medium school.*
What language of learning and teaching do you prefer?	*I still prefer English. There must be vernacular still for our small children, especially in terms of foundation we need to instil the vernacular. I think small children must still learn the home language; the vernacular first for understanding their "vocal" first. Then afterwards they can progress into the*

	second language which is English and/or Afrikaans.
How is that policy formulated?	*I don't have an idea, how they came about it because we have just joined the school about 3 years ago.*
Are there any problems concerning LoLT?	*I don't see it. I am referring to my children; I am also referring to like my colleagues' children, my friends' children in the school. I don't think so. I think we just have to encourage our kids to learn other languages except their mother tongue as well, they must also learn other languages as well like if you were born moPedi try learn other languages like Tshivenda and/or Xitsonga because may be this is the only time that you can ever have the opportunity to learn those languages; For me is about that, that if you wants to grow your language library at least learn other languages except your home language and English. May be the opportunity is that when they are at school when they are with their friends can try speak those languages. But I don't see any other problem, I mean some peoples' kids like as home language they speak Xitsonga, they still speak Sepedi as well and then they speak English as well, my youngest she speak Afrikaans, Sepedi and English, so it just depends how do we receive the language and how do we think the language can help the kids. I really think it is dependent on how as a person, individual parent feels about it.*
At what level are they doing English at school?	*At our school, because my little one started up at grade R class, and she went to grade 1 at the school and she started doing English as first language because our school is an English medium school. So she started doing English at grade 1 then obviously and which was in the form of literacy and the then she did numeracy obviously which was also done in English. Then in grade 2 she did English, but she had interest of with Afrikaans, then you can't choose more than two languages, then she was doing Sepedi in grade 1 and in grade 2 she did Sepedi, then she said she wants to do Afrikaans in Grade 3 so we moved her to the Afrikaans class because we only have one like English is a first language and the other languages is classified as a second language. So your Sepedi is still classified as your second language and your Afrikaans is a second language and Xitsonga everything. Unlike the schools that we used to go to. I mean I went to school first language was Setswana cause I grew up in Bophuthatswana then I will do English and Afrikaans as a second language and third language. I wish kids could still do three languages for me even if is not Afrikaans it could be like the third language because I really think it will help and build a lot of creativity in their minds. Language will keep them a bit enticed. Some subjects are a bit boring especially if the child cannot grasp easily. So but if there is like if they can do at least this 3 languages and in your matric level and you need another two courses for you get your pass in terms of your matric, your university entrance, because that is how easy it was for us then.*
What is your general experience about the language situation at school?	*I think the kids are comfortable with the English language, because of different cultures. Some kids they only speak like for instance my kids we only speak Sepedi as home. So we don't ... my husband and I do not know any other language except Sepedi, so you found that the other kids they are coming from Venda family, so they can only speak Tshivenda, so their common language which is common among them as friends is*

	English. Then it's easy, the instruction when they issue one instruction everyone understands it. I mean you see it in sport, you see it everywhere. One instruction you talk to 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 kids from five different families with five different languages and the instruction is taken in. But if you are going to start, otherwise you must start by remembering gore I must speak Sepedi to Thato, to Xihlenge I will speak in Tsonga and to Godani I will speak in Venda. Then is a bit mh... then you have been unfair if you speak Sepedi fela, because that child might not understand you and sometime especially us in Polokwane we tend to speak Sepedi before any other language and other kids are not included.

The parent in Table 5.9 above supports the promotion of multilingualism by emphasising the inclusion of at least three languages in the curriculum. However, the parent still prefers English to be LoLT and also claimed that learners work well with English. About how the SGB chose English as LoLT, the parent indicated that they never discussed that because it was a historical issue and that they joined the SGB only three years back.

Observation data of School A

An observation sheet was used as a guide to ensure that only relevant data were collected. Notes were taken in the classroom as educators were teaching and also outside the classroom. The researcher was able to identify the following:

Table 5.10:   Observation results from School A

Criteria	*Findings*
School environment	*The school is located in Polokwane City.*
Subjects observed	*Natural Sciences and Mathematics*
Language(s) used by the teacher to teach	*English*
Learners' understanding of the lesson	*Yes, learners understood the lesson.*
Indicators of learners' understanding	*Learners were able to follow instructions and respond to questions in the same language.*
Language(s) spoken by learners outside the classroom	*They mix languages. They speak Sepedi with some learners and English with others.*
Language(s) spoken by learners and teachers in the classroom	*English*
Language(s) spoken by teachers and other staff members around the school	*Africans speak Sepedi when speaking to other African teachers but English with white teachers*

In the observation it was noticed that teachers teach in English and learners seem to understand the lesson because they were able to answer questions and follow the teacher's instructions. Outside the classroom teachers and learners change languages when they talk to each other.

Data from the principal of School A

This part focuses on the presentation of data from the principal of School A's interview. The presentation is done by using a table.

Table 5.11 below displays the results from principal's interview.

Table 5.11:   Principal's interview from School A

Interview response from the principal	
Do you have a school language policy?	Yes
What is LoLT according to your school language policy?	We are an English medium school.
Who formulated the school language policy?	SGB, when a new SGB comes in it reviews the policies and then give inputs about it.
Do learners experience any learning problems? If yes, what kind of problems do they experience?	Yes. Because they are taught in a language that is not their mother tongue, so the vocabulary is not very good. They have a problem with understanding, sometimes when you ask a question.
Do you have any programme to help those with difficulties? If yes, what kind of programmes do you have?	Yes. We have remedial classes two days a week for two hours a day for Foundation Phase. We have two remedial teachers.
Do you have enough learning material in LoLT?	Yes. Enough for English.
Do you have enough teachers to teach in the LoLT?	Yes
How do you experience learning and teaching in LoLT?	Learning and teaching is happening at school, it is just that with any organization you find that there are people who are hard workers and want to achieve and those who doesn't want to achieve. It is not so important with them and that is the same with us too. We really have those who work hard and those who don't have passion for it.
How do you experience learning and teaching in the LoLT?	I know that the child has the right to choose the language he wants to be taught and I still think mother tongue will be the best to teach in. In our school we have a disadvantage; teachers and children can't express themselves properly in those languages.

The principal's interview was used as a follow-up on the data collected from learners, teachers and parents. The principal indicated that the LoLT for the school is English and that the SGB was responsible for formulating the policy. She further indicated that teachers encounter problems in the classroom because the LoLT is not a mother tongue for the majority of learners. According to the principal, the problem with mother tongue is that learners and teachers cannot express themselves well in that language.

5.3.1.2 Data from School B

This section aims to present data from School B, a former Model C type of school. The data from observations, documents, parents, principal, teachers and learners are presented separately. Tables are also used to present some of the data.

School B profile

Table 5.12 illustrates the principal's response from School B. This presentation displays responses for the questionnaire.

Table 5.12:   Principal's response to questionnaire in School B

Schools' profile									
Type			Ex-Model C						
Quintile			5						
Enrolment			444						
Number of educators			13						
Number of Classes per grade									
	R	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	2	2	3	3	2	2	2	2	
Number of learners per grade per language									
Language	R	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**Total**
Afrikaans	-	3	11	10	8	9	11	23	**75**
English	4	8	5	9	2	5	5	7	**45**
IsiNdebele	1	-	-	1	-	-	1	-	**3**
IsiXhosa	2	-	1	1	2	-	1	1	**8**
IsiZulu	-	-	3	-	-	-	1	-	**4**
Sepedi	27	38	50	32	18	29	27	25	**246**
Sesotho	-	3	-	1	2	-	-	-	**6**
Setswana	2	-	2	-	1	1	-	1	**8**
SiSwati	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	**2**
Tshivenda	2	4	3	2	-	1	1	-	**13**
Xitsonga	7	5	3	5	7	2	-	5	**34**
Total	46	61	78	62	40	48	47	62	**444**
Language of learning and teaching per grade									

Language	R	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Afrikaans	13	13	20	20	15	22	11	23	**137**
English	33	48	58	42	25	26	36	39	**307**
Total	46	61	78	62	40	48	47	62	**444**
Preferred language of learning and teaching per grade									
Language	R	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Afrikaans	13	13	20	20	15	22	11	23	**137**
English	33	48	58	42	25	26	36	39	**307**
Total	46	61	78	62	40	48	47	62	**444**
Number of teaching staff per home language									
Afrikaans			13						
Language subject and level per grade									
Language	R	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Afrikaans	HL	HL	HL	HL	HL	HL	HL	HL	
	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL			
English	HL	HL	HL	HL	HL	HL	HL	HL	
	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL		

Learners from Grade R to 3 learn English as a Home Language, but in Grades 4 to 7 there are those who study English as Home Language and Afrikaans as First Additional Language. Again, there are also Afrikaans Home Language and English First Additional Language for Afrikaans speaking learners. There are learners who are taught through Afrikaans and some in English. The school is a parallel medium school.

Data from documents for School B

The school had policy document which was written in Afrikaans and then translated into English. The policy quoted the South African Schools Act of 1996 and the Language-in-Education policy which was announced on 14 July 1997. The following objectives of the language policy were mentioned in the document:

- *Promoting multilingualism, which includes the development of all languages and thereby promoting the full participation of every individual in the society and the promotion of communication across all borders.*

- *Keeping the home language(s), while at the same time access to and use of other languages is made possible.*

- *To fulfil the right of the learner to choose the language in which he/she wants to be taught.*

- *To support the notion that teaching and learning of all languages is made possible.*
- *To counter the approach of the different forms of inequality that existed between home languages and languages of teaching and learning.*

The policy document also outlined the right and the position of learners with regard to the language policy. The responsibility of both the governing body and the Department of Education was outlined. Section 2.5 of the policy illustrates how languages as subjects in the school are accommodated. The following guidelines apply:

- *In all grades, all learners will have their language of learning and teaching, plus at least one additional approved language as a subject.*
- *The presentations of languages will receive the equal allocation of time and resources.*
- *The level of knowledge and ability in a language for promotion is determined by the Provincial Education Department.*
- *Grades 1 to 4 promotion is based on performance in one language and mathematics.*
- *Grades 5 to 7 must pass one language.*

The policy document concludes by identifying the following important aspects of the policy but to ensure anonymity the name of the school is changed to School B.

- *School B recognizes the right of access of learners to basic education and access to the school.*
- *School B recognizes the right of access of the individual and that discrimination regarding language is not allowed.*
- *The Governing Body of School B, in accordance with the legal provisions, decided that English would be the language of teaching and Afrikaans the First Additional Language for Grade R to 7. Afrikaans would also be the language of learning and teaching and English the First Additional*

Language for Grade 4 to 7 – Afrikaans learners (Home Language) as agreed upon by the governing body.

There are learners who will learn all subjects in English and those who will learn in Afrikaans.

Data from learners in School B

Learners' responses from questionnaire are displayed in the tables below. Findings are displayed per question. Twenty-one Grade 5 learners from School B agreed to participate in the research. All of them returned questionnaires.

Table 5.13:   Learners' responses in School B

Statements	English	isiZulu	SiSwati	Sepedi	Sesotho	Setswana	Tshivenda	Xitsonga	Total
Language spoken at home	3	1	1	7	3	1	1	4	**21**
Language used to teach	21	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	**21**
Language that learners want teachers to use	19	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	**21**
Language used by teachers when speaking to learners outside the classroom	21	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	**21**
Language used when writing tasks	21	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	**21**

The data presented in Table 5.13 above show that learners in this grade speak different languages but they use English in the classroom and when they speak to their teachers.

The following table presents data about reasons why learners want their teachers to use a certain language when they teach them.

Table 5.14:   Reasons for language preferences in School B

Reasons	Language		
	English	Sepedi	Total
I understand or I want to understand.	16	1	**17**
I like the language.	3	-	**3**
It is my home language	-	1	**1**
No reason	-	-	**0**
Total	19	2	**21**

The data in this table (5.14) indicates that 19 learners prefer English as they claim that they understand the language.

Data from teachers in School B

Table 5.15 below illustrates responses from teachers' interviews in School B.

Table 5.15:   Teachers' interview responses in School B

Interview questions	Teacher 1	Teacher 2	Teacher 3
Do you have a school language policy at your school?	*Yes, we do have school language policy*	*Yes*	*Yes*
What does your school language policy say concerning LoLT?	*It says that the learner must be enrolled in a class that fits his home language. So student is not allowed to be in Afrikaans class if he speaks English at home.*	*If they speak Afrikaans at home then the first language at school is Afrikaans, if they speak English then the first language will be English. And they will be taught in those languages.*	*The medium is Afrikaans and English*
Who formulated your school language policy?	*SGB*	*The SGB with the department*	*The School Governing Body and the principal.*
Is/are the LoLT(s) the home language(s) of learners?	*Yes. No, we have children with lots of languages, but here we only have English and Afrikaans available. So even if they speak Sepedi they only take English as a home language and Afrikaans as first additional language.*	*Yes*	*My Afrikaans is a home language and second Afrikaans First additional language*

Are learners experiencing problems regarding LoLT? If yes, what kind of problems?	*No, not at all.*	*Some do. Sometimes they struggle with spelling and with basic rules of the language.*	*No they are learning, they are learning a lot*
Do you have any programme to help learners with difficulties in LoLT? If yes, what kind of programmes do you have?	*We have programmes to help sometimes they struggle a little bit. But it is not a big problem, but we have extra classes on Mondays for the children in the subject that they are struggling with.*	*Yes we have on Mondays, remedial teaching where we help learners with their problems.*	*Yes Mondays afternoon we have classes for them, after school*
Is there enough learning material in the LoLT?	*Yes we have all material and remedial classes*	*Yes*	*I didn't receive any books; I have to make copies, textbooks.*
How do you experience learning and teaching in the LoLT?	*You see I'm Afrikaans speaking, but when I started teaching I started in English. So I like …, I prefer my English instead of my Afrikaans. But I did both at school here at school, I do Afrikaans and English. It's nice because you get to know different concepts and terms because I teach Mathematics in both languages. So I like it. I have got no problem with English and Afrikaans.*	*It is good, we just experience problems with learners that only come to school in grade 4 or to grade 5 because the background is not so good in certain languages areas.*	*We didn't get any textbooks or teachers' guides, nothing. So I have to make copies.*

Teachers from School B agreed that the school has a language policy and the LoLT is Afrikaans for some learners and English for others. Teachers acknowledged that the LoLTs are home languages for Afrikaans and English speaking learners and African languages speakers are marginalised. Some teachers did not agree that learners experience some learning difficulties but one teacher agreed to that. According to these teachers the school has a remedial class once a week to help learners with learning problems.

Data from the parents' representative in School B

Table 5.16 below shows the responses of the SGB member from School B.

Table 5.16:   Interview responses from parents' representative in School B

Interview questions	Parent
Do you have a language policy at your school?	Yes.
What is your language of learning and teaching according to your school language policy?	English and Afrikaans. We are bilingual.
What language of learning and teaching do you prefer?	I prefer English. The education system in this country is very bad if you can compare it with that of Zimbabwe. I love Robert Mugabe because he made it a point that every citizen in his country able to communicate in English. Most of the people of Zimbabwe may not be professionals but they can express themselves well in English which we need for our children.
How is that policy formulated?	The policy is based on the South Africa's Constitution and is drawn by the SGB together with the principal.
Are there any problems concerning LoLT?	Some of the children are coming from Seshego to our school. There are many schools at their area but they come to our school because their parents want them to learn English.
At what level are they doing English at school?	There are some learners who are doing English as a home language and those who learn it as an additional language.
What is your general experience about the language situation at school?	Learners at this school are generally doing well, it is only in lower grades where most of the learners struggle but they pick up when they proceed to higher classes.

The parent agreed that the school has a language policy and that the LoLTs are both Afrikaans and English. He showed that the SGB was responsible for drafting the school language policy, but personally he prefers English to be LoLT because each child should be able to speak English. Another reason for preferring English is to accommodate learners from different language backgrounds. The parent does not support the children who come from nearby townships to their school because he believes that they do not cope well with LoLTs at this school.

Observation data from School B

As indicated above, the researcher observed two lessons to see how language is used in the classroom and also outside the classroom. The following were found:

Table 5.17:   Observation results from School B

Criteria	*Findings*
School environment	The school is located just outside Polokwane City, on the south western side
Subjects observed	Natural Sciences and Mathematics
Language(s) used by the teacher to teach	English
Learners' understanding of the lesson	Yes, learners understood the lesson
Indicators of learners' understanding	Learners were able to respond to questions in the same language and they were able to follow instructions.
Language(s) spoken by learners outside the classroom	They mix languages: Sepedi speaking learners speak Sepedi with some children and English with others. Other learners speak Afrikaans and sometimes English with fellow learners.
Language(s) spoken by learners and teachers in the classroom	English
Language(s) spoken by teachers and other staff members around the school	Some speak in English and others in Afrikaans.

Afrikaans and English are the most used languages compared to African languages.

Data from the principal in School B

Table 5.18:   Principal's interview in School B

Interview response from the principal	
Do you have a school language policy?	Yes, we do.
What is LoLT according to your school language policy?	It is both Afrikaans and English because we are a parallel medium school.
Who formulated the school language policy?	SGB
Is/are the LoLT(s) the home language(s) of learners?	Some of them are Sepedi and some of them are cultures and languages, but the parents prefer at this stage English as learning and teaching language.
Do learners experience any learning problems?	Not, they come into our school from grade R they normally don't struggle. But we have some previously we tend in 2009 January we tend from grade R up to grade 4 in once to English medium we took in parallel medium and some of learners are coming from the rural areas and some of the schools I think they are not up to

	the standard with the language part they did at the schools there. But they picked up.
Do you have any programme to help those with difficulties?	*We have extra classes, everything, the computer you see in one of the questions, the computer program that assist them to update the reading skills in Afrikaans and English, for Afrikaans learners and for English learners. They go for subject of learning and teaching.*
Do you have enough learning material in LoLT?	*Somewhere yes, other way no, some we do improve like the computers, etc. but there is a lack of support material or textbooks from grade R to Grade 6 with the new CAPS*
Do you have enough teachers to teach in the LoLT?	*Yes, we have enough teachers at school.*
How do you experience learning and teaching in the LoLT?	*It is on a very, very high standard really, my educators both Afrikaans and English and according to the learners are really, they are assisted in that languages especially. They tend out in a high standard when they go to grade 7 or high schools.*

The principal of School B indicated that the school has a language policy which states that the school is parallel medium with some learners learning through Afrikaans and others learning through English. He admitted that some learners are not learning through their mother tongue but indicated further that it is by their parents' choice. The principal acknowledged that learners encounter some problem with the LoLT but he blamed parents who bring their children from nearby townships to their school. According to the principal, they offer extra lessons to learners who experience learning problems. Generally, the principal was happy about the quality of teaching and learning at the school.

5.3.2   Data from ex-DET Schools

This section focuses on the presentation of data from ex-DET schools, namely School C and School D. Ex-DET schools in this study refer to schools which were previously marginalized under the apartheid government. They were dominated by Africans and most of them were found in townships and in rural areas but in the new dispensation these schools are now classified as public schools.

5.3.2.1 Data from School C

This section aims to present data from School C. The data from documents, parents, the principal, teachers and learners are presented separately. Tables are used to present different types of data.

School C profile

This section deals with the presentation of data from the principal of School C. Table 5.19 below displays data from principal's questionnaire.

Table 5.19:   Principal's responses to the questionnaire in School C

School's profile									
Type			Ex-DET						
Quintile			3						
Enrolment			1033						
Number of educators			35						
Number of Classes per grade									
	R	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	
Number of learners per grade per language									
Language	R	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**Total**
Afrikaans	37	39	40	38	33	25	30	44	**286**
English	9	11	7	8	4	14	10	3	**66**
IsiNdebele	-	1	2	-	1	-	1	-	**5**
IsiZulu	2	2	2	1	1	-	1	-	**9**
Sepedi	70	79	76	80	74	77	68	72	**596**
Setswana		2	1	-	-	-	1	-	**4**
Sesotho	1	2	1	3	1	1	4	2	**15**
SiSwati	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	**1**
Tshivenda	1	1	5	1	3	-	-	3	**14**
Xitsonga	3	3	1	1		3	1	3	**15**
Other languages	9	2	1	3	4	1		2	**22**
Total	132	142	137	135	121	121	116	129	**1033**
Language of learning and teaching per grade									
Language	R	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**Total**
Afrikaans	28	26	28	32	27	22	21	27	**211**
English	104	116	109	103	94	99	95	102	**822**
Total	132	142	137	135	121	121	116	129	**1033**
Preferred language of learning and teaching per grade									
Language	R	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**Total**
Afrikaans	28	26	15	11	16	17	3	14	**130**
English	104	116	122	124	105	104	113	115	**903**
Total	132	142	137	135	121	121	116	129	**1033**
Number of teaching staff per home language									
Afrikaans	English		Sepedi		Tshivenda		Xitsonga		**Total**
9	4		20		1		1		**35**

Language subject and level per grade									
Language	R	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Afrikaans	HL	HL	HL	HL	HL	HL	HL	HL	
	-	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL	
English	HL	HL	HL	HL	HL	HL	HL	HL	
	-	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL	
Sepedi	HL	HL	HL	HL	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL	

The school offers three languages. In Grade R and Grade 1 there are three classes for the respective languages. For example, there is a class for those who learn in Afrikaans and for those who learn in English as well as for those who learn in Sepedi. They do all three languages at Home Language level in the two grades. From Grade 2 to 7 there are those who do Afrikaans Home Language and English First Additional Language or vice versa. From Grade 2 to 3 some learners learn Sepedi Home Language and English First Additional Language and from Grade 4 to 7 Sepedi speaking learners learn English Home Language and Sepedi First Additional Language.

Document data for School C

The school language policy contains the following:

- *Our Constitution states that all eleven official languages are equal, and they are treated equally at this institution.*
- *The predominant languages spoken by the majority of learners in the school are English, Afrikaans and Sepedi.*
- *The languages used for learning and teaching (medium of instruction) are English and Afrikaans in all learning Areas. N.B The school is a parallel medium institution. Sepedi is taught as a subject.*
- *English is chosen as our communication medium and must therefore be used during all official contacts i.e. staff-meetings, circulars, etc.*
- *The parent/guardian must choose the language of learning and teaching upon application for admission.*

Data from learners in School C

This section shows the profile of learners who took part in the research study and also their responses to language usage at school. A total of 110 learners from Grade 5 at School C participated in the study.

Table 5.20 shows how learners responded to questions on language use at School C.

Table 5.20:   Learners' responses in School C

Statements	Afrikaans	English	isiNdebele	isiZulu	Sepedi	Sesotho	Setswana	Xitsonga	Other	Total
Language spoken at home	20	23	1	2	55	6	-	-	3	**110**
Language used to teach	15	87	-	-	2	1	1	-	4	**110**
Language that learners want teachers to use	17	78	-	-	6	1	1	-	7	**110**
Language used by teachers when speaking to learners outside the classroom	13	32	1	-	46	12	1	1	4	**110**
Language used when writing tasks	14	90	-	-	4	-	-	-	2	**110**

According to the data provided by learners, English is used by many learners in class or for formal education. Sepedi is used at home and when learners interact with other learners.

Table 5.21 shows reasons that are given by learners for preferring teachers to use certain languages when they teach them.

Table 5.21:   Reasons for language preferences

Reasons	Language				
	English	Afrikaans	Sepedi	Other	Total
I understand or I want to understand	39	6	4	-	**49**
I like the language	17	4	1	-	**22**
It is my home language	8	6	1	3	**18**
Language used by many people	10	-	-	-	**10**
No reason	4	1	-	6	**11**
Total	78	17	6	9	**110**

The table shows that 78 out of 110 prefer to be taught in English and 39 out of this 78 claim that they understand the language or they want to understand it. Only eight learners chose English because it is their home language.

Data from teachers of School C

The purpose of this section is to present data from teachers' interviews. Three teachers from School C were interviewed. The data from all three educators are displayed in one table to make comparison simple. All teachers were asked nine questions about language usage at school. Teachers were also requested to provide their profile and language background in the form of a questionnaire. Table 5.22 below shows how teachers at School C responded to the interviews.

Table 5.22:   Teachers' interview responses in School C

	Teacher 1	*Teacher 2*	*Teacher 3*
Do you have a school language policy at your school?	*Yes, I believe so.*	*Yes, we do.*	*Ja, I think mm, just because ' nna' I am not teaching languages, I' am teaching science, but as I see they do have a language policy.*
What does your school language policy say concerning LoLT?	*The language of learning and teaching is basically Afrikaans and English. We have a third language, is an additional language which is Sepedi.*	*We are using two medium of instruction which is English and Afrikaans.*	*We are using English, but in the case of Afrikaans speaking people they are using Afrikaans. There are different classes here, class*

159

			for English learners and class for Afrikaans learners.
Who formulated your school language policy?	*I think it comes from the government.*	*I think is the SGB, together with the SMT*	*I think is the SGB, it was already there when I join to this school.*
Is/are LoLT(s) home language(s) of learners?	*Ja is the home language of some learners not all of learners because we have learners from different cultures and different language at school.*	*Yes we are treating them as home languages because there are those who are doing Afrikaans and they use it as their medium of instruction for the other learning area. And there are those who are doing English and they are using it as their medium of instruction for the other learning areas.*	*Ja some of them is not their home language.*
Are learners experiencing problems regarding LoLT? If yes, what kind of problems?	*Yes, some learners because some of them are from Venda. Some of them are from other language background and then when they come to our school they are only allowed to speak English and Afrikaans or Sepedi.*	*Well, I think the main problem is in writing. When you speak it's much easier than you write. And those who can't write you find that they are the one who are having the problem.*	*No, they are not experiencing any problem. As I see they understand the language.*
Do you have any programme to help learners with difficulties in LoLT? If yes, what kind of programmes do you have?	*We have remedial classes to help them where are taught the basics of language, the phonics, the sounds and everything.*	*ja we are trying a lot, we are having a teacher who have went for those training for those learners who are having problems.*	*Ja, the programme is there. For those who don't understand usually they remain to get more explanation about the language that they don't understand usually after school.*
Is there enough learning material in the LoLT?	*No, the ones that we have can be improved. Some of them we just initiate, but if we can get any other help we will appreciate that.*	*I for now I can't say it is enough.*	*Aa, learning materials are not so enough. That is a problem. That the school is having. There is a shortage of learning material. Sometimes we bring outside, we bring the learning*

			material from outside may be the things that they can read, the newspapers and the magazines.
How do you experience learning and teaching in the LoLT?	*The experience that I have is that the language that the teacher, the learner speaks at home is not necessarily the language that the learner speaks at school. And it is sometimes difficult for parents to help them with home works because of the language barrier. Sometimes it is difficult for the teacher to get to the answer because the child starts in grade 1. Venda child for instance, the child must be trained to speak Afrikaans or English. Then the teacher doesn't know that other language that the child comes with, and then it makes it difficult. There is a miscommunication.*	*No, to me it's fine. The problematic area is when we are having learners who are not coping and our feeling is that they must all cope because if you send your child to school you want her or him to be the better citizen in the future. But if you find that you have send him or her to the best school, but your learner is not grasping anything that is really disappointing.*	*My general experience is that as I see it, many, many learners here are used to speak English talking around the school yard they understand English very well and they communicate clearly.*

Teachers agreed that the school has a language policy and the LoLT is both English and Afrikaans. The school is a parallel medium school. Some learners learn through Afrikaans and some through English. The teachers further indicated that Afrikaans and English are not home languages for the majority of learners. These teachers acknowledged that learners experience problems with LoLTs. The school has a remedial programme to support learners who have learning difficulties.

Data from the parents' representative in School C

Table 5.23 illustrates the parent's response from School C. This presentation displays responses from the interview questions.

Table 5.23:   Parent interview's responses in School C

Interview questions	Parent
Do you have a language policy at your school?	Yes
What is your language of learning and teaching according to your school language policy?	Our school is bilingual. In other words we cater for both Afrikaans speaking learners and English speaking learners, so because of the nature of the environment in which we are placed we are dealing with Afrikaans and English.
What language of learning and teaching do you prefer?	With me I will prefer to communicate in English. But I am not sure if I understand your question in terms of, later you asked me earlier as to what language policy is at our school then I said it is bilingual and we cater for both English and Afrikaans.
How was that policy formulated?	It was a combination of various stakeholders; parents were involved in the whole process. Parents, teachers we came together and formulate the language policy based on the environment in which the school is situated. Remember this area is a formerly coloured township.
Are there any problems concerning LoLT?	Not necessarily because Afrikaans speaking learners they find it natural for them to be able to learn in their own language. So with English speaking learners we haven't experience any problem what so ever especially, perhaps the problem that we might have experienced is for the learners who come from different schools all together and we found from their previous school the language was Sepedi for instance and when they come here they are confronted with another language which is English that also puts a problem. But all in all the majority of our learners do very well in both languages.
At what level are they doing English at school?	There are learners who do English as home language and as First additional language and there are those who do Afrikaans home language and Afrikaans first additional language. Some learners are doing Sepedi as first additional language.
What is your general experience about the language situation at school?	They are copying, they really are. That's why I am saying learners who experience problems mostly are those that come from other areas, especially rural areas schools. They really find it a challenge. Remember as the SGB we are representing the parents so we agreed that the medium of instruction should be English and Afrikaans depending on the background which the child come from.

The parent agreed that the school has a bilingual language policy which accommodates only English and Afrikaans. The parent indicated that they don't have any problem with LoLT because it is a home language for Afrikaans and English learners. The implication is that learners are learning through their home languages even though African language speakers are excluded in such a policy.

Observations for School C

The following were found during observation in School C:

Table 5.24: Observation for School C

Criteria	Findings
School environment	The school is located in area just west of the City of Polokwane. The area is dominated by coloured people.
Subjects observed	Mathematics and Natural Sciences
Language(s) used by the teachers to teach	They both used English to teach.
Learners understanding of the lesson	Learners have understood lessons.
Indicators of learners' understanding	They were able to follow instructions and to answer questions asked by teachers in the same languages.
Language(s) spoken by learners outside the classroom	Learners speak different languages such as Afrikaans, Sepedi and English.
Language(s) spoken by learners and teachers in the classroom	In a Mathematics class the teacher used Afrikaans most of the time when speaking to learners, but teaches in English. In a Natural Science class they were speaking in Sepedi but also taught in English.
Language(s) spoken by teachers and other staff members around the school	Teachers used English, Sepedi and Afrikaans.

Teachers use Afrikaans, Sepedi and English when they speak outside the classroom with each other and with learners, but in class they use English mostly in teaching various subjects.

Data from the principal of School C's interview

Table 5.25:   Principal's interview of School C

Interview response from the principal	
Do you have a school language policy?	Yes, we do.
What is LoLT according to your school language policy?	We are parallel medium, it's English and Afrikaans. And the Sepedi is only conducted as FAL. But in the foundation phase is part of the home language, but in the intermediate, senior phase then is First Additional Language.
Who formulated the school language policy?	It is the SMT (School Management Team), teachers together with the SGB.
Do learners experience any learning problems?	Not that we have picked up, but because when parents bring their learners at the beginning of the year, they bring learners knowing our policy. Isn't it that when they come for admission, our admission starts in August. When they come for admission, when we give them the admission form, remember they are just collecting admission forms and, then we explain to them the language policy. We can't give them the language policy we are only giving the learners that are already admitted, but those that are coming to seek admission we explain the language policy because we are having the classes that are strictly doing Afrikaans in all their learning areas and is their home language then they do English as FAL, the First additional language. Then we have other classes that are doing English as home language and all the subjects they are doing in English then they do other classes they do Afrikaans as FAL then the other groups they do Sepedi as FAL.
Do you have any programme to help those with difficulties?	Yes we gave them, I will give you evidence of that, we gave parents at the beginning of the year our dates for activities and one of the activities on that calendar is remedial is extra classes. So learners experiencing problems they are identified and they remain for extra classes on certain days and also for remedial. We have in grade 3 the teacher in grade 3 completed now the masters in child I think is early childhood development and also psychology so she is able to do the remedial making use of the grade 3. I think you must also interview her. To say how is she conducting the remedial and extra class. I have got an experience where I am recording their children that you find they had problem with the languages. The child was in grade 4 and grade 5. I took them back to grade 3 just to grasp the language they are now good.
Do you have enough learning material in LoLT?	It's not enough, we do provide. The parents do assist also. We just have to purchase some of the learning material and also improvise because the very same teacher improvises the library. So learners go to the mobile class to go and develop themselves in the

	library. It is not fancy, but you know we improvise, we making use the old books, but we encourage our learners, all of them to register with the local library, it is just a stone throw away from here. So most of them are going to the library nearly every day.
Do you have enough teachers to teach in the LoLT?	*Yes, teachers are enough.*
How do you experience learning and teaching in the LoLT?	*The challenge that we face is that you will find the Sepedi speaking parents bringing learners you know wanting them to speak English and Afrikaans, because they don't want them to speak Sepedi, and it becomes a challenge you know, you tell a parent that this child must speak Sepedi because the home language, you see when the child get home it's all Sepedi but you know the parents want learners to can be able to communicate in English and any other language. So those are the mostly the ones that we are doing the remedial because we first start them with the sounds in English, to grasp the sounds. They are having sounds in Sepedi then it makes it difficult now if you want to start that in a new language. But most of them are coping; almost 80% are coping from those.*

The principal of School C indicated that they have a language policy which states that the school is a parallel medium school with Afrikaans and English as the LoLTs. The school offers Sepedi as FAL from Grade 4 to 7. According to the principal some learners have problems with the LoLT but the SGB has discussed the language policy with the parents when they apply for admission at school. This implies that the parents bring their children to this school by their choice. The principal indicated that the school has remedial classes to help learners who encounter learning difficulties.

5.3.2.2   Data from School D

This section aims to present data from School D. The data from observations, documents, parents, the principal, teachers and learners are presented separately. Tables and paragraphs are used to present some of the data.

School D profile

This section deals with the presentation of data from the principal's questionnaire mainly about School D's profile. Table 5.26 illustrates the principal's response from School D.

Table 5.26:   Principal's responses to the questionnaire in School D

Schools' profile									
Type				Ex-DET					
Quintile				1					
Enrolment				123					
Number of educators				3					
Number of Classes per grade									
	R	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
Number of learners per grade per home language									
Language	R	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**Total**
Sepedi	23	19	12	10	9	4	6	3	**86**
Tshivenda	2	2	2	3	2	1		3	**15**
Xitsonga	4	7	4	5		2			**22**
Total	29	28	18	18	11	7	6	6	**123**
Language of learning and teaching per grade									
Language	R	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**Total**
English	-	-	-	-	11	7	6	6	**30**
Sepedi	29	28	18	18	-	-	-	-	**93**
Total	29	28	18	18	11	7	6	6	**123**
Preferred language of learning and teaching per grade									
Language	R	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**Total**
English	-	-	-	-	11	7	6	6	**30**
Sepedi	29	28	18	18	-	-	-	-	**93**
Total	29	28	18	18	11	7	7	6	**123**
Number of teaching staff per home language									
Afrikaans	English	IsiNdebele		Sepedi		Tshivenda		Xitsonga	**Total**
-	-	-		3		-		-	**3**
Language subject and level per grade									
Language	R	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
English	-	-	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL	
Sepedi	HL	HL	HL	HL	HL	HL	HL	HL	

69,9% of learners in this school speak Sepedi, 17,9% speak Xitsonga whereas 12,2% speak Tshivenda. This implies that 100% of learners in this school speak African languages. Learners in this school start by learning through Sepedi from Grade R to 3 and then change to English LoLT in Grade 4 to 7. From Grade 2 to 7

learners learn two languages, Sepedi Home Language and English First Additional Language.

Document data from School D

The school did not have a language policy document.

Data from learners in School D

A total of seven Grade 5 learners at School D participated in the study. The school had only seven Grade 5 learners in 2014. Table 5.27 below shows the results about language use from learners at School D.

Table 5.27:   Learners' responses from School D

Statements	English	Sepedi	Total
Language spoken at home	-	7	**7**
Language used to teach	7	-	**7**
Language that learners want teachers to use	5	2	**7**
Language used by teachers when speaking to learners outside the classroom	-	7	**7**
Language used when writing tasks	7	-	**7**

Grade 5 learners in this school indicated that they use English in class and Sepedi outside the classroom.

Table 5.28 below shows the reasons given by learners at School D for choosing certain languages that they want their teachers to use when they teach them.

Table 5.28:   Reasons for language preferences by learners in School D

Reasons	Language		
	English	**Sepedi**	**Total**
I understand or I want to understand.	3	1	**4**
I like the language.	2	-	**2**
It is my home language	-	1	**1**
Total	**5**	**2**	**7**

The majority of the learners prefer to be taught in English because they understand the language and some because they like it.

Data from teachers in School D

The purpose of this section is to present data from teachers' interviews. One teacher from School D was interviewed. Only one teacher was interviewed because the school has got one teacher in the Intermediate Phase. The teacher was asked questions about language usage at school. Table 5.29 below shows how the teacher at School D responded to the interview questions.

Table 5.29:   Teacher's interview responses in School D

Interview questions	*Teacher*
Do you have a school language policy at your school?	*Yes*
What does your school language policy say concerning LoLT?	*It's supposed to be used for every learner because it is the medium of instruction. (What is the medium of instruction at your school?) First additional language. (What is the first additional language?) Its home language. This medium of instruction being English is the second language to a child.*
Who formulated your school language policy?	*Department of Education*
Is/are LoLT(s) home language of learners?	*No, our home language is…, they are all doing Sepedi as home language.*
Are learners experiencing problems regarding LoLT? If yes, what kind of problems?	*Ja, umm, they are not having much time to learn this English because it's a multi-grade class, so there is a lot challenge regarding this language.*
Do you have any programme to help learners with difficulties in LoLT? If yes, what kind of programmes do you have?	*Yes we work with them after hours, after teaching hours. We do it twice a month.*
Is there enough learning material in the LoLT?	*Ya, textbooks we do have but are not enough. Like for intermediate they are more than their textbooks. That's why I say they are not enough. In grade four they are enough*

	because they ten, ten. I can say that in intermediate phase they are better that way.
How do you experience learning and teaching in the LoLT?	*We are trying and they also trying, but because we don't have teachers it won't be simple. We are willing to help, we do help but with serious problem.*

The school has only one teacher in the Intermediate Phase. The teacher did not understand some questions well, for example, the way she answered the question about the LoLT of the school clearly indicated that she has a problem. Even follow up questions were not answered well. The teacher did not have an idea of whether the school has a language policy and who might have drafted it. She seemed to have heard about the LiEP which is provided by the Department of Education. This teacher further showed that learners experience problems more especially because learners of different grades are combined in one class because of lack of teachers. The school introduced extra lessons in the afternoon to eliminate learning difficulties.

Data from parents' representative in School D

This section presents data from an SGB member of School D.

Table 5.30:   Parent interview's response in School D

Interview questions	*Parent*
Do you have a language policy at your school?	*Yes*
What is you language of learning and teaching according to you school language policy?	*English*
What language of learning and teaching do you prefer?	*English because it is a universal language. Every learner must learn in English.*
How is that policy formulated?	*The policy is formulated by the parents and the SGB.*
Are there any problems concerning LoLT?	*Yes, learners have a very serious challenge. They come from an informal settlement near town. Originally they come from various places and some are coming from Zimbabwe, so it is very difficult for them to get used to the language used for teaching at school. Teachers have to mix languages when teaching them.*
At what level are they doing English at school?	*They are doing English as a second language.*
What is your general experience about the language situation at school?	*The language would take time to improve because children are not exposed to English at home. They can hardly hear English.*

The parent in this school stated that the school has a language policy which declares English to be the LoLT. According to the parent, the policy was formulated by the SGB. He prefers English because it is a universal language. The parent further showed that learners have difficulties learning in English. The major problem is their language background and most of them are originally from Zimbabwe.

Data from observations in School D

The following were found during the observations in School D:

Table 5.31:   Observation for School D

Criteria	*Findings*
School environment	*The school is situated on a farm outside the city. Learners in this school are coming from an informal settlement near the city. They are transported by the department every day to school.*
Subjects observed	*Mathematics and Natural Sciences*
Language(s) used by the teacher to teach	*The teacher used English, but sometimes switched to Sepedi.*
Learners understanding of the lesson	*They seem to understand more when a teacher explained in Sepedi.*
Indicators of learners' understanding	*They were able to respond to instructions or questions if explained in Sepedi.*
Language(s) spoken by learners outside the classroom	*Sepedi*
Language(s) spoken by learners and teachers in the classroom	*Sepedi*
Language(s) spoken by teachers and other staff members around the school	*Sepedi*

The observations show that Sepedi is used in many areas at the school. For almost everything learners do they use Sepedi except for writing formal documents. The following extract is an example of how teachers use code switching in this school.

(The teacher was explaining the concept of probability in Mathematics)

When we talk of probability we talk about a chance. Chance of something to happen. (…) Something may be likely to happen. Likely have 50% of happening. The second word that is used in probability is certain. (…) Certain ke gore ga go na gore e se ke ya direga ntouwe. That one we are 100% sure that it is going to happen. The opposite of certain is impossible. Impossible means that there is no way, it can't happen. So it is 0%. (…) Really this thing is not happening. E ka se tsoge e diregile, le ge go ka direga eng e ka se direge. Impossible means it won't happen. E ka se ke. (…) Unlikely ke gore selo sa gona, chances for it to happen are very slim. Ke go ra gore ke tše di nnyane nnyane kudu. For example, may be we say it will rain in June. It is unlikely. It is not impossible. (…) Mo ga borena mo re expecta gore pula e ka se ne ka June. The rain is unlikely to rain in June. Le a kwešiša? You must notice the difference between unlikely and impossible. Don't mix unlikely with impossible. Impossible means really does not, but unlikely go ra gore chances tša gona ga se gore di ka se direge. Mara that one chances tša gona they are not there. Are we together?

TR: [When we talk of probability we talk about a chance. Chance of something to happen. (…) Something may be likely to happen. Likely have 50% of happening. The second word that is used in probability is certain. (…) Certain means that there is no way, that thing will happen. That one we are 100% sure that it is going to happen. The opposite of certain is impossible. Impossible means that there is no way, it can't happen. So it is 0%. (…) Really this thing is not happening. It will never happen, no matter what. It will never. Impossible means it won't happen. Never. (…) Unlikely means that thing; chances for it to happen are very slim. It means they are very very limited. For example, may be we say it will rain in June. It is unlikely. It is not impossible. (…) In our area we expect that it won't rain in June. The rain is unlikely to rain in June. Do you understand? You must notice the difference between unlikely and impossible. Don't mix unlikely with impossible. Impossible means really does not, but unlikely means these chances will never happen. But, that one, chances are not there. Are we together?]

Data from the principal of School D

Table 5.32:   Principal's interview from School D

Interview response from the principal	
Do you have a school language policy?	Yes
What is LoLT according to your school language policy?	Sepedi
Who formulated the school language policy?	The SGB
Do learners experience any learning problems?	Yes, we sometimes experience problems. Since well this is a farm school we are catering learners of various cultures. Yes, we have the Venda, the Shangaan and they encounter problems when learning this Sepedi. That is the problem that we encounter.
5. Do you have any programme to help those with difficulties?	Yes, I have drawn a timetable for extra lessons for those learners who are encountering problems. After school some of them they remain, we have got a timetable.
Do you have enough learning material in LoLT?	No we are running short of textbooks. Other learning material we are having sufficient.
How do you experience learning and teaching in LoLT?	The general problem is that one that I initially mentioned that we are teaching learners from different cultures. That is the general problem. Because we are teaching learners from different cultures. That's the problem.

The principal of School D agreed that the school has a language policy but he did not produce a printed copy or any other document. He indicated that the LoLT in this school is Sepedi. The principal further acknowledged that learners experience problems because the majority of them come from Zimbabwe.

5.3.3   Data from new schools

This section focuses on the presentation of data from new schools. New schools in this study refer to schools which were established by the democratic government after 1994. Schools E and F are classified under 'new schools' in this research.

5.3.3.1 Data from School E

This section aims to present data from School E. The data from observations, documents, parents, the principal, teachers and learners are presented separately. Tables are used to present some data.

School E profile

Table 5.33 illustrates the principal's questionnaire responses for School E.

Table 5.33:   Principal's responses to the questionnaire in School E

Schools' profile									
Type			New school						
Quintile			4						
Enrolment			999						
Number of educators			22						
Number of Classes per grade									
	R	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	
Number of learners per grade per home language									
Language	R	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**Total**
Afrikaans	2	3	12	2	1	1	4	2	**27**
English	1	2	2	27	30	27	25	14	**128**
IsiNdebele	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	**1**
IsiXhosa	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	**1**
IsiZulu	-	1	-	1	-	-	3	-	**5**
Sepedi	60	98	78	93	85	90	80	80	**664**
Sesotho	1	4	1	-	2	2	-	1	**11**
Setswana	-	-	1	1	3	-	2	-	**7**
SiSwati	-	1	2	-	-	-	-	-	**3**
Tshivenda	3	-	8	2	1	6	2	1	**23**
Xitsonga	7	3	4	1	6	3	8	4	**36**
Other languages	15	25	24	5	6	5	8	5	**93**
Total	89	138	132	132	134	134	133	107	**999**
Language of learning and teaching per grade									
Language	R	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**Total**
English	89	138	132	132	134	134	133	107	**999**
Total	89	138	132	132	134	134	133	107	**999**
Preferred language of learning and teaching per grade									
Language	R	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**Total**
English	89	138	132	132	134	134	133	107	**999**
Number of teaching staff per home language									
English		Sepedi			Xitsonga				**Total**
2		19			1				**22**
Language subject and level per grade									
Language	R	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Afrikaans	-	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL	

English	HL	HL	HL	HL	HL	HL	HL	HL	
	-	-	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL	
Sepedi	HL	SAL	HL	HL	HL	HL	HL	HL	
Tshivenda	-	SAL	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Xitsonga	-	SAL	-	-	-	-	-	-	

This school also forms part of the pilot study that is taking place in the Pietersburg Circuit. In Grade 1, learners study at least three languages including their Home Language. So in this school in Grade 1 all learners do English Home Language, Afrikaans First Additional Language and they choose one between Sepedi, Tshivenda and Xitsonga as a Second Additional Language. In this school from Grade 2 to 7 there are learners who do a combination of English Home Language and Afrikaans First Additional Language and some do Sepedi Home Language and English first Additional Language.

Document data from School E

The school has a language policy. The language policy indicates that the school is aware of the policy as stipulated in the SA Constitution. The language policy states the following:

- *The medium of instruction for the learners in our school is predominantly English; however Section 29 of SA Constitution covers other languages.*
- *Medium of instruction is English for Grade 3 to 7.*
- *Grade R – 2 who are speaking Sepedi (Home Language) their language of instruction is Sepedi and for those who are speaking English (Home Language) and other languages their language of teaching is English.*
- *Grade R – 2 FAL for learners speaking Sepedi is English and learners' speaking English or other languages is Afrikaans.*
- *Other indigenous language can only be introduced if we meet the minimum requirements of 1:20 in a class.*

Learners in this school speak different languages such as Sepedi, English, Xitsonga and Arabic languages. Languages of learning and teaching are Sepedi in lower grades and English in higher grades.

Data from learners in School E

This section shows the profile of learners who took part in the research study. A total of 58 learners of Grade 5 at School E participated in the study.

Table 5.34: Learners' response in School E

Statements	Afrikaans	English	isiXhosa	SiSwati	Sepedi	Sesotho	Setswana	Other	Total
Language spoken at home	2	13	1	1	37	1	1	2	**58**
Language used to teach	1	56	-	-	1	-	-	-	**58**
Language that learners want teachers to use	4	49	-	-	5	-	-	-	**58**
Language used by teachers when speaking to learners outside the classroom	1	22	-	-	34	1	-	-	**58**
Language used when writing tasks	-	57	-	-	1	-	-	-	**58**

This data from Grade 5 learners in School E indicates that English is the most used language in different areas. But more than 50% of learners use Sepedi at home and when they are outside the classroom. Those learners who use English at home are English speaking learners.

Table 5.35: Reasons for language preferences in School E

Reasons	Language				
	English	Afrikaans	Sepedi	Other	Total
I understand or I want to understand.	40	-	2	-	**42**
I like the language.	9	1	1	-	**11**
It is my home language	-	-	2	-	**2**
No reason	-	3	-	-	**3**
Total	**49**	**4**	**5**	**0**	**58**

The majority of learners who prefer English think that they understand the language or they want to understand it.

Data from teachers in School E

The purpose of this section is to present data from teachers' interviews. Three teachers from School E were interviewed. The data from all three educators are displayed in one table to make comparison simple. All teachers were asked nine questions about language usage at school. Teachers were also requested to provide their profile and language background in the form of a questionnaire. Table 5.36 below shows how teachers at School E responded to the interviews.

Table 5.36: Teachers' interview responses in School E

	Teacher 1	Teacher 2	Teacher 3
Do you have a school language policy at your school?	Yes	Yes	Ja, I think it must be there.
What does your school language policy say concerning LoLT?	The medium of instruction is English.	You know what they need more practice and especially if we can have a library or some of the programmes concerning language I think it will be of help to them. Home language in the Foundation phase. Grade 4 to 7 it's English.	It says we have, here at school because we have, we use 3 languages, we have Sepedi, we have English, and we have Afrikaans, but for the language for teaching and learning is English.
Who formulated your school language policy?	SGB and the educators and the principal.	All educators and the SGB	SGB
Is/are LoLT(s) home language(s) of learners?	Yes	Yes	No, is not the home language to learners because we have the Indians they are using English and also they are using Afrikaans but not for teaching and learning. Like Afrikaans is just a subject.
Are learners experiencing problems regarding LoLT? If yes, what kind of problems?	Yes. They have the problem of spelling and sometimes they can't express themselves, especially	Those who are from home language is Sepedi, they do have a language barrier in the intermediate phase.	Yes, yes, they have a lot of problems, we have got the Somalians, we have got the

176

	when answering the questions they are unable to interpret the instructions		*Afrikaners, we have the Sepedi, and we also have the Indians. And then that LOLT which is not their home language, they have to learn the language and also learn the content.*
Do you have any programme to help learners with difficulties in LoLT? If yes, what kind of programmes do you have?	*We tried to implement afternoon lessons like having the remedial teacher, but it was not a success. It was not successful because we have got only two remedial teachers and then the classes are overcrowded. So she was unable to continue the remedial classes.*	*Those who are having difficulties? We are having remedial classes and also we have introduced the phonics because that's the basics of language. Not alphabetical sounds, phonics sounds. Because if you say 'c' you cannot get c when you write and when you pronounce it*	*Not yet.*
Is there enough learning material in the LoLT?	*No, textbooks are delivered late sometimes they are not delivered, we have to photocopy.*	*In Foundation Phase they are, but in Intermediate Phase we don't have enough resources. But I think there is …, I don't know what we call them. There are some exercises intended which have been inserted in the computer for English and also the dictionaries are there inserted in the computer.*	*Yes learning materials are enough but for Afrikaans we have a shortage. They don't, have strictly prescribed the textbooks, especially for CAPS. They are using the RNCS books.*
How do you experience learning and teaching in the LoLT?	*You know what they need more practice and especially if we can have a library or some of the programmes concerning language I think it will be of help to them.*	*No our learners they do speak English, but then the problem is in writing because we have got the Indians here communication wise is fine, but come to writing is where you will realize that they can't write.*	*I wish these learners can use their home language so that they can be able to understand when they teach them and also those kinds of questions we give then, you find that sometimes they know the answer but they don't understand the question due to language, cannot understand the language. And*

			sometimes you find that for those Sepedi speaking if you read a question to them then they say you explain a question to them by their mother tongue they are able to understand.

Teachers in this school indicated that the school has a language policy which identifies English as LoLT and that the SGB was responsible for drafting that policy. These teachers further acknowledged that learners experience learning difficulties when learning through the medium of English so some teachers have introduced remedial classes that they hold in the afternoon during week days.

Data from parents' representative in School E

This section displays data from parent's interview.

Table 5.37:   Parent's interview responses in School E

Interview questions	**Parent**
Do you have a language policy at your school?	*Yes*
What is your language of learning and teaching according to your school language policy?	*English and Sepedi. At the moment we are following the home language of learners because the teachers also have the Sepedi language to explain the children. So majority is Sepedi, so in the policy we are just going with what is more convenient.*
What language of learning and teaching do you prefer?	*English. It is general language all throughout SA and a universal language as well, so I prefer English. Because students will learn. Because university get into English.*
How was that policy formulated?	*With the School's Act and with school policy from government. So we just agree on certain issues on the policy. We second what comes from the department of education.*
Are there any problems concerning LoLT?	*No, not really. They are learning. They understand. But the problem only occurs when they are going to high school, because we must prepare them for the next school. It's just a primary school so in future they go to a high school. Maybe it's different policy. So that's why English is preferable.*
At what level are they doing English at school?	*English is both home language for some learners and first additional for other learners like Afrikaans. But Sepedi is only done as a home language.*
What is your general experience about the language situation at school?	*We are weak at the moment that's my experience that if the children are more positive on what they are learning and how they are learning they will produce better results.*

	In general we should stick to the old system, where you have three subjects, but English is compulsory and the other two are subject, Afrikaans or Sepedi.

The parent agreed that the school has a language policy which spells out English and Sepedi as LoLTs. According to the parent, English is preferable because the school prepares learners to cope at the secondary and tertiary levels. The parent acknowledged that learners experience some problems learning in English.

Observations from School E

The following were found from observations in School E:

Table 5.38:   Observations for School E

Criteria	*Findings*
School environment	*The school is located outside the city of Polokwane in the area dominated by Indians.*
Subjects observed	*Technology and Mathematics (Division)*
Language(s) used by the teacher to teach	*English*
Learners' understanding of the lesson	*Learners have understood lessons.*
Indicators of learners' understanding	*Learners were able to follow instructions and answer questions asked by teachers very well.*
Language(s) spoken by learners outside the classroom	*Most learners speak Sepedi with each other and some, like Indians, speak in English.*
Language(s) spoken by learners and teachers in the classroom	*They use English most of the times but sometimes they mix.*
Language(s) spoken by teachers and other staff members around the school	*Sepedi*

The school has African and Indian learners. The majority of African learners use Sepedi at home and when they speak to fellow African learners, but they use English with Indian learners. Indian learners use English in all their communication inside and outside the classroom.

Data from the principal in School E

Table 5. 39 displays the responses from the interview with the principal of School E.

Table 5.39:   Principal's interview in School E

Interview response from the principal	
Do you have a school language policy?	Yes
What is the LoLT according to your school language policy?	The medium of instruction is English from grade 3 to 7 and grade R to 2 they use home languages.
Who formulated the school language policy?	The parents
Do learners experience any learning problems?	Yes. Those who are doing Sepedi, it's a little bit difficult for them for the FAL which is the FAL, the first additional language. But not that much.
Do you have any programme to help those with difficulties?	Yes, in the morning the teachers are helping them.
Do you have enough learning material in LoLT?	Yes, the learning materials we have.
How do you experience learning and teaching in LoLT?	It's one thing that is giving us a challenge because we have a separate class, just one class which is English speaking learners and the other classes the Sepedis if may be they were doing the same because of the intercultural which we have Indians, coloureds and Pedis. So if we are having the same I don't think we will be having a challenge concerning the educators. Because you find that one educator is looking at one class and many parents like the English classes they are full to the bream. One class is having 55 learners. So that one is very, very challenging.

The principal of School E showed that the school has a language policy and that English and Sepedi are LoLTs. The principal further indicated that the parents were responsible for drafting the policy. She agreed that some learners experience problems but she further indicated that teachers are helping such learners every morning. The biggest challenge that the principal raised was that of shortage of teachers because they have big and many classes.

5.3.3.2 Data from School F

This section focuses on the presentation of data from School F.

School F's profile

Table 5.40 illustrates principal's responses from School F.

Table 5.40: Principal's responses to the questionnaire in School F

School's profile									
Type				New school					
Quintile				2					
Enrolment				1675					
Number of educators				41					
Number of Classes per grade									
	R	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	3	5	4	3	3	3	3	3	
Number of learners per grade per home language									
Language	R	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**Total**
Afrikaans	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	**1**
English	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	**1**
IsiZulu	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	**1**
Sepedi	178	267	227	196	194	187	186	167	**1602**
Setswana	-	-	1	-	-	1	-	1	**3**
Xitsonga	2	9	2	2	2	4	6	7	**34**
Tshivenda	6	3	3	1	3	3	1	8	**28**
Other languages	1	2	-	-	-	1	1	-	**5**
Total	181	283	233	199	199	196	194	184	**1675**
Language of learning and teaching per grade									
Language	R	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**Total**
English	-	-	-	-	199	196	194	184	**773**
Sepedi	187	283	233	199	-	-	-	-	**902**
Total	187	283	233	199	199	196	194	184	**1675**
Preferred language of learning and teaching per grade									
Language	R	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**Total**
English	-	-	-	-	199	196	194	184	**773**
Sepedi	187	283	233	199	-	-	-	-	**902**
Total	187	283	233	199	199	196	194	184	**1675**
Number of teaching staff per home language									
Setswana		Sepedi			Xitsonga				**Total**
1		39			1				**41**
Language subject and level per grade									
Language	R	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
English	-	-	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL	FAL	
Sepedi	HL	HL	HL	HL	HL	HL	HL	HL	

95,6 % of learners in this school speak Sepedi as their home language, and the remaining percentage speak other African languages as well as English. The principal showed that learners from Grade R to Grade 3 learn through the medium of Sepedi and English from Grade 4 to Grade 7. The use of these LoLTs in this school indicates the preference of parents. All learners from Grade 2 to Grade 7 learn Sepedi Home Language and English First Additional Language whereas those learners in Grade R and Grade 1 learn only Sepedi Home Language.

Document data from School F

The school language policy states the purpose of having it at school and who it applies to. It covers aspects of official languages of learning and teaching of the school, spoken and written communication and the roles and responsibilities of all stakeholders.

According to the policy the purpose is:

- *To ensure that learners are not disadvantaged by being forced to learn in a language not spoken and understood by the majority.*
- *To ensure that the school makes the right choices to ensure the best possible development of learners in the school.*
- *To recognize language and cultural diversity.*
- *To promote multi-lingualism.*
- *To promote non-racialism and facilitate communication across communities irrespective of their colour, language and religion.*
- *To raise dignity and status of previously disadvantaged languages.*
- *To minimize the gap between Home language and the Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT).*

The language policy further states the following as official languages:

- *The Language of Learning and Teaching in our school will be English from Grade 4 to Grade 7.*

- *Sepedi will be the Language of Learning and Teaching in the Foundation Phase.*
- *English will be offered in the Foundation Phase as an Additional Language.*
- *Sepedi will be provided as the school's Home Language.*
- *English is the choice in terms of the First Additional Language.*

All other spoken communication will be in the LoLT which is English and the Home Language of the school which is Sepedi. Learners are always encouraged to use their LoLT. Written communication is in English.

Section 5.3 of the policy also stipulates that if more than 50 learners in a grade require to be taught in a different language than the one currently used, an application will be made for that.

Data from learners in School F

This section shows the profile of learners who took part in the research study. A total of 159 learners of Grade 5 at School F participated in the study. Table 5.41 below illustrates how learners in School F use language at school.

Table 5.41:   Learners' response in School F

| Statements | Languages | | | | | | | | | |
	Afrikaans	English	IsiNdebele	IsiZulu	Sepedi	Sesotho	Setswana	Tshivenda	Xitsonga	Total
Language spoken at home	-	2	-	2	138	2	3	5	7	**159**
Language used to teach	-	154	1	-	3	1	-	-	-	**159**
Language that learners want teachers to use	3	137	1	2	14	1	1	-	-	**159**
Language used by teachers when speaking to learners outside the classroom	-	57	-	1	99	2	-	-	-	**159**
Language used when writing tasks	-	130	-	-	29	-	-	-	-	**159**

Grade 5 learners who participated in this study indicated that they use English mostly in class and Sepedi at home as well as outside the classroom.

Table 5.42 below illustrates reasons why learners prefer the languages they want their teachers to use when they teach them.

Table 5.42:   Reasons for language preferences in School F

	Languages				
Reasons	English	Afrikaans	isiZulu	Sepedi	Total
I understand or I want to understand.	60	2	-	5	67
I like the language.	35	-	2	2	39
It is my home language	-	-	-	3	3
I can speak with other people	7	-	-	-	7
No reason or non-understandable	34	-	-	9	43
Total	136	2	2	19	159

Only 44,1% of the learners prefer English because they understand it. 25,7% of the learners just like the language, 25% do not have reasons why there is a preference, whereas only 0,1% want to be able to speak with other people

Data from teachers in School F

The purpose of this section is to present data from the teachers' interviews. Three Grade 5 teachers from School F were interviewed. The data from all three educators are displayed in one table to make comparison simple. All teachers were asked the same questions about language usage at school. Table 5.43 below shows how teachers at School F responded to the interviews.

Table 5.43:   Teachers' interview responses in School F

	Teacher 1	*Teacher 2*	*Teacher 3*
Do you have a school language policy at your school?	*Yes*	*Yes, we do have.*	*Language policy, yes.*
What does your school language policy say concerning LoLT?	*Language and teaching, it must be first additional language, learners must be taught in first additional language. The first additional language is English.*	*We just use it when we are teaching in the classroom, but if the learners do not understand we switch off to their mother tongue so that they can understand. In my case, I am teaching Maths in English.*	*English*
Who formulated your school language policy?	*The SGB, school governing body.*	*The principal and staff.*	*SGB*
Is/are the LoLT(s) the home language(s) of the learners?	*No, No. we usually, sometimes we use the home language in case whereby learners are struggling with understanding what you will be teaching them, so sometimes you turn to their mother tongue so that they can be able to understand what you are saying.*	*No, it is not a home language.*	*No*
Are learners experiencing problems regarding the LoLT? If yes, what kind of problems?	*Yes, yes, they sometimes experience problems in understanding the first language.*	*Some of them are experiencing problems since well we admit learners from Zimbabwe sometimes the Shangaans and the Vendas. They cannot express themselves clearly.*	*Yes sometimes. Sometimes there are terms that they didn't know then we try to explain may be put their mother tongues so that they understand.*
Do you have any programme to help learners with difficulties in LoLT? If yes, what kind of programmes do you have?	*Yes, yes, we sometimes do a little bit of remedial according to their levels.*	*We sometimes encounter the problems in helping them and by encountering those problems we try to call the people who know their language but they don't respond well.*	*No.*
Is there enough learning material in the LoLT?	*For the school no, but sometimes we are asking from our neighbouring schools to assist us but we*	*Yes we do have and we are getting donations from things like expedico people are giving us the teaching*	*No, I prepare teaching aids myself. May be the chart, if I want to teach them about*

	usually don't have enough.	*aids for Mathematics.*	*a map, I sometimes try to draw the map, even though I cannot indicate all the things on the map.*
How do you experience learning and teaching in the LoLT?	*I think when learners are in grade 4, my understanding is they must be taught in their mother tongue because according to my experience when I look at them they understand more when you speak their mother tongue than the first language. So sometimes they are happy and they participate more when you talk to them about their mother tongue. Most of the children here they are speaking Sepedi, even though we have the Shinas, we have the Tsongas, and the Vendas. But they are not so many. But the majority we are dominated by the Sepedi speaking learners.*	*The general experience of language usage at school is something which gives us a difficult, gives us a serious problem, since well the learners here comes from outside places, like Zimbabwe, we have those learners Free State we have some of them, Venda, Gazankulu some of them we do have here. So like when may be the child is starting Grade R here she struggles a lot as far as language is concerned.*	*They are trying.*

Teachers interviewed agreed that the school has a language policy and the LoLT, according to the policy, is English. Teachers further indicated that the LoLT is not a home language of the learners. As a result learners encounter learning difficulties. Another problem that teachers raised was lack of learning material. The school does not have any programme to address the situation because of overcrowded classes. Teachers feel that even learners in Grade 4 must be taught in their mother tongue because they do not understand English well.

Data from parents' representative in School F

Table 5.44 below illustrates the response of the parent interview.

Table 5.44:   Parent's interviews responses in School F

Interview questions	Parent
Do you have a language policy at your school?	Yes
What is your language of learning and teaching according to your school language policy?	English
What language of learning and teaching do you prefer?	English because it is a common language. We want our children to learn in English so that they can communicate well with others in their community.
How is that policy formulated?	The policy is formulated by the principal, teachers and the SGB.
Are there any problems concerning LoLT?	Yes. They come from different areas, so they are mixed here. Some are coming from Zimbabwe. They speak different languages. So it is very difficult for them understand the language used for teaching at school.
At what level are they doing English at school?	They are doing English as first additional language and Sepedi as home language.
What is your general experience about the language situation at school?	The learners find it very difficult to cope in this situation. This also makes it difficult for teachers to achieve their outcomes. If it was possible I could say they must learn in Sepedi throughout, but because at secondary school and tertiary they are using English, they must also learn English.

The parent in this school agreed that the school has a language policy and that, according to the language policy, English is the major LoLT. The parent further agreed that the SGB took part in the drafting of the policy. He further indicated that the school experiences problems with LoLT because learners in this school come from different places and some from Zimbabwe.

Observations from School F

The following were found during observations in School F:

Table 5.45:   Observation for School F

Criteria	*Findings*
School environment	*This school is located in an area outside the city Polokwane, which is poverty-stricken as indicated by the type of housing that surrounds the school. The school is located close to the informal settlement. The school is attended by black children only.*
Subjects observed	*Natural Sciences and Life Orientation*
Language(s) used by the teacher to teach	*Teachers use both Sepedi and English.*
Learners' understanding of the lesson	*It was difficult for learners to understand instructions when the teacher used English only.*
Indicators of learners' understanding	*Teachers had to explain in Sepedi what they said in English before they could answer the question.*
Language(s) spoken by learners outside the classroom	*Most of the time learners speak with other learners and their teachers in Sepedi both inside and outside the classroom. The majority of learners and teachers at this school speak Sepedi.*
Language(s) spoken by learners and teachers in the classroom	*Learners and teachers speak in both English and Sepedi.*
Language(s) spoken by teachers and other staff members around the school	*Teachers speak with each other in Sepedi*

The teachers observed in the school mix language when they teach because learners seem not to understand English very well. Most of the time teachers and learners speak in Sepedi. Practically the medium of communication is Sepedi even though on paper it is English. The following example shows how teachers code switch in the classroom:

> *You must run in your own track because <u>ge o ka tšwa ka mo trekeng ya gago</u> you are going to be disqualified. <u>Le ge o ka tšea number one ba tlilo re o tseneletše. O kreya motho wa gona a thoma a kitima a le ka mo, a feleletše a le ka mola.</u> When you run <u>tša di</u> track events <u>bana ba ka,</u> you must run straight in your own track.*

TR: [You must run in your own track because if you can get out of your track you will be disqualified. Even if you can obtain first position they will say you went into someone's track. You find that you are in this track, but you end up being in that track. When you run track events my learners, you must run straight in your own track.]

Data from the principal in School F

Table 5.46:   Principal's interview in School F

Interview responses from the principal	
Do you have a school language policy?	*Yes*
What is LoLT according to your school language policy?	*English from grade 4 to 7 and the LOLT in grade R to 3 is Sepedi.*
Who formulated the school language policy?	*It was agreed upon by the parents in a parents meeting.*
Do learners experience any learning problems?	*Yes, especially after passing the Foundation Phase to the Intermediate Phase, they have got a language barrier. So we have to go back and start teaching them basics of English, the clever dynamics of it.*
Do you have any programme to help those with difficulties?	*No because of the large numbers we don't have, we just try and help them after school, but it's very, very minimal*
Do you have enough learning material in LoLT?	*LTSM supplied by the department yes. But we don't have enough readers to teach the children reading. We don't have any other programmes to help them with the reading. And may be with also the handwriting.*
How do you experience learning and teaching in LoLT?	*They struggle in fact, that's why I'm saying from grade 4 may be half ways in grade 5 they struggle with English, but in the Foundation Phase there are no problems because they study in the language that they understand. But that transition from grades 3 to 4 that's where we have problems. Others carry it through to grade 7*

According to the principal, the school has a language policy which states that the LoLTs are Sepedi from Grade R to Grade 3 and English from Grade 4 to Grade 7. The principal further indicated that the parents were responsible for drafting the policy. He agreed that learners in this school experience problems of learning in English but there is no programme to help them because of large classes.

5.4 Summary of the results

This section focuses on the summary of the results presented above.

5.4.1 Learner enrolment according to home language

The overall results indicate that the majority of learners in the investigated schools speak Sepedi as home language or mother tongue. The results clearly show that out of 5403 learners in these six schools 3929 speak Sepedi, 607 speak Afrikaans, 245 speak English, 229 speak Xitsonga, 75 speak Tshivenda and 120 speak other languages. This translates into more than 71% of learners in these schools who speak Sepedi and more than 84% who speak one of the African languages. This indicatesindicates a viable reason why multilingual education is essential for these schools.

5.4.2 Learner enrolment according to LoLT and preference

The results clearly show that the majority (75,1%) of learners in these schools use English as LoLT and that is what they seem to prefer, whereas only 18,4% use and prefer Sepedi and only 6,4% Afrikaans. Those learners who learn through Sepedi are from ex-DET schools and new schools. Moreover, they only use Sepedi as the LoLT in the Foundation Phase, thus Grade R to Grade 3.

All parents' representatives prefer English as the LoLT. Parents indicated that a knowledge of English is essential because:

- Everyone must be able to communicate in English;
- It is a universal language;
- It is a general language or common language in South Africa; and
- Language of the university.

The reasons for the need to use English as the LoLT given by parents clearly indicate that parents think that for learners to master a language they need to use it as the LoLT. This assumption is invalid because learners can still acquire a language through learning it as a subject.

5.4.3   Language subjects

The overall results indicate that almost all learners in these six schools learn English either at a home language level or at an additional language level. All Grade R learners do not have a language subject.

In one ex-Model C school all learners learn English as a home language and Afrikaans. In addition, African languages such as Sepedi, Tshivenda and Xitsonga are learnt as additional languages. In contradiction another ex-Model C school offers English Home Language to some learners and English Additional Language to another group of learners. In this school those learners who have English as their home language learn Afrikaans First Additional Language and those who have Afrikaans home language learn English Additional Language. Not all learners who learn English at a home language level are mother tongue speakers of English. All African language speakers learn English as a home language and a small group of English speaking learners.

The majority of learners in ex-DET and new schools learn English as an additional language and either Afrikaans, Sepedi, Tshivenda or Xitsonga as a home language. It is only in one ex-DET and one new school where a few learners learn English home language and Afrikaans additional language.

5.4.4   Language policy awareness

The results indicate that the majority of teachers were only assuming that language policies are available at their respective schools because they indicated that they had never seen any language policies but they knew which languages they used in teaching at the schools.

The majority of teachers, principals and parents clearly acknowledged that the languages that are used as LoLTs at their schools are not the home languages or mother tongues for the majority of their learners. Most of these participants do not know why home languages are not used.

Principals indicated that they have knowledge of the procedures to be followed when drafting a language policy at schools and who should be involved in that process. But the majority of teachers and parents were not aware of such procedures; they even did not know who formulated the language policies that they were using at schools at present.

5.4.5   Language of learning and teaching problems and measures

The results indicate that all principals and teachers agree on the fact that their learners are experiencing a language barrier, especially because the LoLT is not their mother tongue. This implies that the majority of learners learn through a language with which they are not familiar. Even if teachers and principals have realised that their learners have problems, parents are denying that fact. Very few parents accept that their children have language difficulties, but the fact of the matter is that they want their children to learn through the English language because they believe that this is the only way they can get to master the language.

According to teachers and principals, the extent of the problem differs according to the school language context. The linguistic backgrounds of schools differ. As mentioned by teachers, some learners have problems such as:

- lack of understanding;
- lack of self-expression;
- pronunciation;
- intonation;
- spelling;
- lack of writing, reading and listening skills;
- lack of knowledge of basic grammatical rules; and
- lack of vocabulary.

Interviewees indicated that these problems might result from a multiple of factors including lack of human resources such as teachers, and combining grades into one classroom due to lack of infrastructure and shortage of staff. Teachers end up

focusing on one grade over another. They have also highlighted that learners have to learn the language and the content at the same time because they learn through a language with which they are unfamiliar. As a result they struggle to learn the content of the subject.

The results further indicate that the majority of schools do not implement any programme to deal with language barriers at their respective schools. Most of the schools failed to implement remedial lessons. The results clearly indicate a dilemma on the issue of bringing a solution to the problem of LoLT. Some teachers suggested that learners must do a lot of extra reading, listening and writing exercises for practice. Only one teacher mentioned that they use a computer programme named MAXIMA to help those learners who have a learning difficulty.

Despite the problems that teachers and principals have identified, principals in ex-Model C schools showed confidence that learning and teaching are effective at their schools because learners can understand well and communicate clearly. In contrast teachers and principals in ex-DET as well as new schools do not have hope that learning is taking place because learners have a language barrier. Furthermore, parents may not be able to help them as many of them have difficulty also in the LoLT as it is not a mother tongue or a home language. In addition, the majority of parents claim that their children learn effectively. This implies that their children are comfortable with the English language as the LoLT. Only a few parents are aware that their children are experiencing problems regarding learning in the language that they do not know.

5.5 Conclusion

This chapter presented data collected from six selected primary schools in the Pietersburg Circuit of the Limpopo Province. The data were presented according to the type of school, namely, ex-Model C schools, ex-DET schools and new schools. The key subjects for this study were the departmental official, principals, parents, teachers and learners. In each set of data, the presentation followed each method of data collection used in the research, i.e. document analysis, questionnaires, observations, and interviews.

The purpose of this study was to explore the transition to MLE in the selected primary schools of South Africa. So, questions on the research instruments were based on the use of language in the classroom and outside the classroom. The major themes which were derived from the presented data are:

- Learner enrolment according to home language;
- Learner enrolment according to LoLT and LoLT preference;
- Language subjects;
- Language policy awareness; and
- LoLT problems and measures.

In the next chapter data analysis and interpretations will be done to find out what is the meaning of the data that was presented in this chapter.

CHAPTER 6

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

6.1   Introduction

This chapter focuses on the analysis and interpretation of data. According to Marshall and Rossman (1995:111), "Data analysis is the process of bringing order, structure and meaning to the mass of collected data". In addition to the above definition, Seliger and Shohamy (2003) as well as Owino (2002) define data analysis as the sifting, organising, summarising and synthesizing of the data so as to arrive at the results and conclusions of the research. The analytical-empirical framework is used to analyse quantitative data from questionnaires whereas interpretive-hermeneutic framework is used to analyse qualitative data from interviews, observations and documents (Andrew & Halcomb, 2009). This data analysis is informed by the research questions, the aims of the study and the theoretical framework underlying the study. The chapter will make sense of the data by drawing from Cummins's theory, bi/multilingual education models as well as Language Management Theory (LMT).

In Chapter 5 data from questionnaires, interviews and observations were presented. In this chapter these data will be analysed and interpreted to determine how far they support the aims outlined in Chapter 1 such as to examine how the transition to multilingual education is effected in South African schools and to analyse the situation of LiEP implementation in South African schools. As indicated in Chapter 1, the analysis addresses the issue of LiEP implementation and practice. The analysis also attempts to discover whether schools comply with the pedagogical motivations and theories dealing with transition from L1 to multilingual education. Both quantitative and qualitative data are analysed in this chapter.

6.2   Analysis of data

The data analysed below is presented in the previous chapter. The data is from six schools. The first set of analysed data is from the principals' questionnaires, the second set will be from the language policy documents and the information from the interviews that were done with teachers, principals and parents.

6.2.1   The government's LiEP and MLE in South African schools

For a better understanding of the analysis of language policies in this section, one needs to be reminded about what a language policy entails. According to Orman (2008:39):

> Language policy refers to the formulation of laws, regulations and official positions regarding language usage and the allocation of linguistic resources by some government and other political organisations.

Ho (2001:1) argues that "policies are designed and implemented for specific purposes …" This implies that language-in-education policies are formulated at a school level to address language usage issues. These proximal language policies are essential to avoid taking unnecessary decisions which are often used when there is a dispute or a case of unfair treatment when it comes to language. Educational and general or national language policy principles (distal policy) need to be considered when formulating language-in-education policies.

Documents like the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996), the Language in Education Policy (LiEP) (DoE, 1997b), the South African Schools Act (84 of 1996) (DBE, 2012), the National Language Policy Framework (NLPF) (DAC, 2003), the South African Languages Act (Act 12 of 2012) (PanSALB, 2014) and Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) (DBE, 2011b) influenced the direction taken in interviews and suggested what should be observed in the setting. Furthermore, these official documents together with theories form an analytic framework through which the school language policies

in this research were analysed. An intertextuality of these documents served as instruments for framing a model of implementing language policies in the South African schools, taking into consideration the complexity of the South African schools environment. These documents were discussed in detail in Chapter 2 of this study.

It is deduced from the above documents and discussion that school language policies should deal with matters such as:

- Language of learning and teaching (LoLT);
- School curricular which include language subjects; and
- Language related duties of the school governing bodies

(DAC, 2003).

When dealing with these matters LiEPs should mainly address the following principles:

- Retention of home language for learners and encouragement of addition of another language (DoE, 1997b); and
- Promotion of language equity, language rights and multilingualism (DoE, 1997b).

For schools to implement language policies well, they must first assess their language skills and needs, and know the current changes as well as proposals of their government. In all official documents mentioned above, languages to be used as LoLTs as well as languages to be learnt as subjects were not articulated. The LiEP (DoE, 1997b) encourages an approach to multilingual education by providing two ways. Section 5 subsection 2 (5) of this policy suggests that MLE can be approached in different ways: the one medium approach, preferably home language and the learning of additional languages as subjects, or the dual-medium approach, where both home language and another language are used as LoLTs in the same classroom. In this way the policy encourages an additive bilingualism approach, which is the use or the knowledge of at least two languages, one of

which should be the mother tongue. In addition to this, the policy encourages that all learners in primary schools from Grade 3 should learn at least two languages as subjects, the LoLT and an additional language, believing that the LoLT will be a mother tongue. But it continues to say that at least one of the two additional languages should be passed. Chapter 3 Section 6 subsection 2 (a and b) of the *National policy pertaining to the programme and promotion requirements of the National Curriculum Statements Grades R to 12* states that learners should learn at least two languages as subjects from Grade 1 (DBE, 2011e). The Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) and the Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS) encourage the teaching of languages in isolation (DBE, 2002a) by having separate policies for languages, unlike the old National Curriculum Statement (NCS) or Curriculum 2005 (C2005) which had only one policy document for Language, Literacy and Communication (LLC) (DoE, 1997a).

Section 5 subsection 2 (6) of the LiEP further commits that learners or parents have the right to choose the LoLT but it should be an official language (DoE, 1997b). This translates into any official language may be chosen to be the LoLT or to be learnt as a subject. This implies that schools may choose different languages because of their different language contexts and language needs. But schools must remember that in the process of choosing LoLTs and language subjects they ensure "equity, practicability and the need to redress the results of past racially discriminatory laws and practices" (the Constitution of RSA, 1996).

6.2.2   How do the selected schools conform to government's LiEP?

This section deals with an analysis and interpretation of language policies of five schools.   One school was excluded because it could not produce a written document of its language policy. This data could not be obtained through other instruments. Content analysis was used to analyse data from the school language policies. Qualitative content analysis was used in order "to explore the meanings underlying physical messages" (Zhang & Wildemuth, 2005). Though other Acts or legal documents were used, the government's LiEP formed the major framework for analysing these language policies. The LiEP states that any official

language may be used as LoLT (Section 8) and it further suggests that mother tongues should be maintained with an addition of other languages (DoE, 1997b).

School language policies and data provided by principals about schools' profiles clearly indicate that three schools (D, E and F) opted for a transitional bilingual policy because they start by using mother tongue medium from Grades R to 3 and then shift to the English medium from Grades 4 to 7 which was introduced as an additional language subject from Grade 2. This implies that the English subject was taught for only two years before it was used as the LoLT. There is nothing that is stated in the policy about the transitional bilingual policy. The LiEP states under *The rights and duties of the school* that SGBs must stipulate how they will promote multilingualism in their language policies. SGBs must indicate whether they will promote multilingualism through more than one LoLT, by offering additional languages as fully-fledged subjects, applying special immersion or language maintenance programmes, or through other means provided by the head of the provincial education department (DoE, 1997b). School A chose a one-medium policy, but not a home language for the majority of learners. The school uses a Straight to English medium policy from Grade R to Grade 7. Only schools B and C have a parallel-medium policy, which includes only Afrikaans and English from Grades R to 7. No African language is used as LoLT at all. All language policies from five schools emphasize English as LoLT and as language subject. This is indicated in the following extracts from school policies:

- The document is titled: *School A* (pseudonym) English medium primary school. The first part of this document is also titled: *Subject policy for languages* (which implies that it entails issues relating to teaching a language as a subject). The second part of the same document is titled: *Specific policy for School A English medium primary school for teaching English in the senior primary classes* (No other languages are mentioned in this document).
- Section 2.6, bullet number 3 of the language policy of School B states that: English would be the language of learning and teaching and

Afrikaans the first additional language from Grades R to 7 and Afrikaans would also be the language of learning and teaching and first additional language for Grades 4 to 7 Afrikaans learners.

- Statement number 3 of the language policy of School C states that: The languages used for learning and teaching (medium of instruction) are English and Afrikaans in all learning areas. N.B. The school is a parallel medium institution.

- The first bullet in the language policy for School E states that: the medium of instruction for learners in our school is predominantly English; … The second bullet states that: The medium of instruction is English for Grade 3 to Grade 7; and bullet 3 states that: Grade R to Grade 2 who are speaking English (home language) and other languages (except Sepedi) their language of teaching is English. Bullet number 4 states that: Grade R to Grade 2 FAL for learners speaking Sepedi is English and for learners speaking Sepedi and other languages it is Afrikaans. This policy further states that other indigenous languages can be introduced only if the school meets the minimum requirements of 1:20 in a class.

- Section 4 of the language policy of School F states that:
    1. The language of learning and teaching in our school for all Learning areas will be English from Grade 4 to Grade 7. English is the choice in terms of the First Additional Language.
    2. Sepedi will be the LoLT in the Foundation Phase.
    3. English will be offered in the Foundation Phase as an additional language.
    4. Sepedi will be provided as the school's home language.
    5. English is the choice in terms of the First Additional Language.

The LiEP in Section 5 subsection 2 (6) further states that the right to choose the LoLT is vested in an individual or parent if the learner is a minor (DoE, 1997b). This clause, however, may suggest that the parents may choose any language including their non-mother tongue languages like they did in these schools. According to the principals of ex-Model C schools (A and B), parents are given

the policy when they apply for admission at their schools. So if they bring their children to these schools it means they agree to the policy and that is how they make their choices. So the finding that parents preferred English as LoLT is not surprising at all. The findings are also in compatible with the findings by Mutasa (2003) that parents appear to resist change in that they want their children to learn in English. They do not want schools in townships or rural areas which use learners' mother tongue in the Foundation Phase.

The school governing bodies (SGBs) have the responsibility of drawing up language policies for schools. The main objective of the LiEP in providing SGBs with the right to formulate their schools' language policies is to ensure that they have the responsibility and democratic right to participate in their children's education. SGBs represent parents in schools. They are the voice of parents. Some parents indicated that they did not take part in formulating the policies because by the time they became part of the SGBs policies had been already formulated. This finding vividly shows that all the interviewed SGB members did not participate in the formulation of their schools' language policies. So, they were never given an opportunity to review the policies. These findings of this study concur with Probyn's (2005a) assertion that the majority of schools' SGBs are not functioning effectively (NCCRD, 2000 & Probyn et al., 2002).

Schools offer at least two languages as subjects from Grade 1 to 7. English as subject is also offered in all schools either at a home language level or as a first additional language. A home language refers "to the language that is spoken most frequently at home by a learner". (DBE, 2010:3). According to CAPS (DBE, 2011b), a home language level refers to the proficiency level at which language is offered at school and not the native language of the learner. Furthermore, DBE (2011d) defines the home language proficiency level as a level at which a learner should reflect the mastery of BICS that is essential for social situations as well as CALP which is again essential for learning the curriculum contents. According to DBE (2011d: ix), this home language level must be able to provide "learners with literary aesthetic and imaginative ability" that will in turn ensure their ability to

"create, imagine, and empower their understandings" of their world. The implication is that a home language can also be chosen. A learner or parent may choose to learn one language at home language level, not necessarily meaning that the learner is identified or more familiar with that language. The DBE (2011b) used this definition because it realised that schools do not offer home language as mother tongue of learners. According to the DoE (1997b), one of the principles for LiEP is that of maintaining the mother tongue while providing access to an effective acquisition of additional languages. In contradiction, in the two ex-Model C schools, namely School A and School B, no provision for maintaining mother tongue is made because in School A Sepedi is only offered as an additional language to mother tongue speakers and English offered as a home language and as LoLT. In addition to this, School B does not offer any African language at all. In ex-DET and new schools learners learn home languages and English as an additional language. It is only in School E where some learners (Indians) learn English Home Language and Afrikaans Additional Language. The ex-DET and new schools comply with the principle of LiEP by maintaining learners' home languages and adding English to them. Some scholars such as Meyer (1998); NCCRD (2000); Madiba and Mabiletja (2008); and Heugh (2009) have previously shown that the majority of schools offer English and Afrikaans languages as subjects and LoLT. This shows that the majority of schools marginalise African languages in Limpopo Province.

6.2.3   Learner-language composition

The results show vividly that out of 5403 learners in these six schools respectively, 3929 speak Sepedi, 607 speak Afrikaans, 245 speak English, 229 speak Xitsonga, 75 speak Tshivenda and 120 speak other languages. This translates into more than 71% of learners in these schools who speak Sepedi and more than 84% who speak one of the African languages. Therefore, the majority of learners in the schools are Sepedi speaking, and a few are Xitsonga, Tshivenda, Afrikaans and English speaking learners. The proportion of learners according to home languages in these schools is consistent in all grades. Grade 5 language

composition in the researched schools shows the same pattern in all schools. The data provided by principals further indicate that the majority of educators (96 of 154) are also speaking Sepedi as their mother tongue. The rest speak either Afrikaans, English, Tshivenda, Xitsonga or Setswana. The findings about learner enrolment according to MT in this study are generally consistent with DBE (2010b) which shows that the majority of learners in the Limpopo Province speak Sepedi, Tshivenda and Xitsonga. This finding is further supported by Census 2011 which shows that the majority of the people of Limpopo Province speak Sepedi followed by Xitsonga and Tshivenda (Statistics SA, 2012).

6.2.4   LoLT and language subject preference

In contrast to learner composition in Limpopo Province, English is the dominant LoLT at these schools because, according to the data provided by principals, all schools have English as LoLT (Section 6.2.2 above). In some schools such as schools C, D, E and F some learners start by using their mother tongue (Sepedi) and then transit to English after Grade 3; in some schools such as School A and B they use English throughout their primary schooling; whereas in some schools (B and C) some learners use Afrikaans while others use English (parallel medium) for the rest of their primary education. These findings are consistent with the findings by Singh (2014) who shows that in all 12 schools he investigated English was used as LoLT either from Grade R to 7 or from the Intermediate Phase to Senior Phase. The finding further corresponds well with the report from the DBE (2010) which argues that the majority of learners are enrolled in English medium classes. Most of the learners are not familiar with English and it is not their mother tongue. The DBE (2010b) shows that despite the fact that the majority of learners have African languages as mother tongue, English and Afrikaans are the most favourable LoLTs. This action underestimates the principle of maintaining access to learners' mother tongue as LoLTs (DoE, 1997b) and that if transition to another language takes place it should not be at the expense of learners' mother tongue. The only problem with African languages is that their value is questioned. It is evidenced by the findings of this study and the previous research (Verhoef,

1998; Webb, 2002b & Probyn, 2005b) that the majority of the people underestimate the capability of African languages. This finding accounts for the transition from mother tongue to English.

The findings from all six schools generally indicate that parents also prefer English to be their children's LoLT. Parents believe that using English will help learners to understand the subject content. The findings compare favourably with Verhoef (1998) in that the attitude towards English is positive for different reasons. Reasons for the preference of the English language are common among many people. Parents in this study showed the preference for English for reasons such as that:

- Everyone must be able to communicate in English;
- It is a universal language;
- It is a general language or common language in South Africa; and
- It is the language of the university.

The finding that the majority of learners prefer to be taught in English is consistent with the previous research (Probyn, 2005b) which shows that English is given preference for many reasons. Probyn (2005b) and Webb (2002a) show that many people think that English is of functional value compared to other languages. Some of the reasons for favouring English medium are stated in Webb (2002a) such as that it is educationally fully developed, learning through it will improve English language proficiency, ensures access to job market, and it is an international language as well as a lingua franca.

The reasons for not favouring African languages are also given in Obanya (1999), namely, the multiplicity of languages, multi-ethnic population, the level of technical development, the negative attitude of African language speakers towards their languages, lack of personnel and appropriate learning material, the high cost of education in indigenous languages as well as the inability to wait for the long term results of mother tongue education. The gap between English and mother tongue of learners is enlarged because mother tongue or African languages

education is not supported by the majority of African learners. From the data provided by principals in all six schools, 71% of learners have Sepedi as their mother tongue but 76,6% prefer to be taught in English. One would expect the students to find their mother tongue easier to study than an additional language. The majority of parents prefer English because they believe that English is the common language in South Africa. Parents believe that every person in South Africa can understand and speak English. The reason for this finding probably has something to do with the perceptions attached to English such as that it is understandable, tertiary education is in English, it is a business language and so forth. Heugh (2002c) contrasts this belief by arguing that it is a myth that English is the only language that can deliver quality education and that African languages are incapable of doing so.

Findings indicate a significant tendency of teaching English in addition to another language at these schools. All schools offer English either as home language or additional language. Ex-model C schools offer English home language and African languages or Afrikaans as first additional languages. These results negate the LiEP by maintaining English at the expense of African languages or only adding African languages to English. The results support the findings of Kamwangamalu (1997) and Barkhuizen (2002) that more people rate English higher compared to other languages of South Africa. The overall results and the previous research (Kamwangamalu, 1997; Desai, 1999; De Wet, 2000; Barkhuizen, 2002; & Probyn, 2005a) clearly indicate that the LiEP has been ignored and the importance of English is overestimated.

The finding that English seems to be more important than African languages to Africans concurs with Desai (1999) and De Wet (2002) who propound that the predominant role that English plays in all aspects of South African public life accounts for the choice made by the majority of parents who want their children to acquire English. This finding further coincides with Setati (2002) who contends that many schools offer English in lower classes because the *de facto* policies of these schools are influenced by the perceptions that English is a language of

power and mobility. Furthermore, Desai (1999) argues that it becomes problematic when parents believe that the best way for their children to learn would be to have English as a language of instruction. The irony of this finding is that it is believed that the majority of learners are going to use the mother tongue at work if they work in their province or in South Africa because in South Africa every person has the right to use the language of one's choice.

Learners were asked to state which language they use outside the classroom to communicate with fellow learners or members of staff. The findings suggest that 51, 5% (which is more than half) of learners use their mother tongue outside the classroom. But out of that percentage 76, 2% are speakers of Afrikaans and African languages respectively. Similar findings are reported by Probyn (2005a) that even if the language of schools is English the majority of learners use their mother tongue to communicate with their fellow learners and teachers.

6.2.5   LoLT problems and strategies

Generally the findings suggest that learners in all schools experience problems of learning in English which is an additional language for the majority of learners. The extent of the problem differs from one school to another due to the linguistic diversity context of each school. Some learners make spelling errors, some cannot express themselves well in English and some do not understand the language at all. In ex-Model C schools the problems are limited as compared to ex-DET and new schools. But generally they all have problems. This finding concurs with the previous research (Cummins, 1991; De Klerk, 1995b; Myburgh et al, 2004; Probyn, 2005a; HSRC & University of Limpopo, 2008; etc.) which indicates that the majority of learners find it difficult to cope in classrooms which rely solely on an additional language rather than using learners' mother tongue. Heugh (2011) further show that early exit to a new additional language restricts the effectiveness of that language. This implies that if a language can be well mastered before introducing it as LoLT, its use will produce significant results.

The findings concur with Myburgh et al. (2004:576) who maintain that:

> "Teaching and learning in a L2 or L3 causes a breakdown in communication between the teacher and learner."

The findings further assert that:

> "…effective learning can only take place if the teacher and learners have a common understanding of the concepts of what the teacher is teaching" (Myburgh et al., 2004:576).

These findings are in line with the report of the study conducted by the Human Science Research Council (HSRC) and University of Limpopo (2008) which argues that the late introduction of additional language or home language and the early transition to English as LoLT makes learning impossible for learners. The study therefore argues that the problem is the time when to move to an additional language.

In addition to this finding, I support the view by Cummins (1991) and De Klerk (1995b) who argue that learners whose minority language is marginalized do not perform better as compared to those who speak the majority language. Minority languages in this study refer to marginalized languages or languages without power even if they are spoken by the majority (UNESCO, 2003a & 2010). According to Cummins (1991), learners must attain cognitive and academic language proficiency (CALP) in their mother tongue before they can use an additional language because language skills are transferrable.

6.3 Theoretical implications

The results summarised above highlight several issues about the possibility of the transition to multilingual education in the schools of Limpopo Province. The issues highlighted include the linguistic diversity of the Limpopo Province, the teachers' implementation of a transitional model, the use of code-switching by teachers and learners, the relationship between home language and LoLT and the problem of implementing multilingual education. These issues are examined below.

6.3.1   Linguistic complexity

The linguistic differentiation in Limpopo Province creates a very complex environment for implementing multilingual education, especially with regard to mother tongue. The results of this study show that at least five (5) languages, namely Sepedi, Tshivenda, Xitsonga, English and Afrikaans, are used widely as home languages and LoLT in these six schools. The results compare well with DBE (2010a) which reveals that the same languages were widely used in schools of the Limpopo Province in 2007 and 2008. As shown in StatsSA (2012), Limpopo Province consists of all 11 official languages with three major languages, namely Sepedi, Xitsonga and Tshivenda. Among others, Afrikaans and English are the minority. But because English and Afrikaans are widely used in official domains, they are the majority languages and the other three African languages are the minority languages in terms of functional languages. All these major languages are spoken in Capricorn District. The African languages are regionally concentrated, but they are all represented in the Pietersburg Circuit. According to principals of ex-Model C schools, this linguistic situation creates a very serious problem of choosing a LoLT and language subjects. Principals of ex-Model C schools argue that it could be simple in some regions where only one language is spoken by the majority because it will serve as home language or mother tongue at school. The language will therefore be the LoLT and the home language subject in schools in that region. Pietersburg Circuit is as multilingual as South Africa itself. UNESCO (2010) maintains that multilingualism may not cause crises. It further asserts that policy makers, referring to SGBs in this context, should know the linguistic nature of their schools. Therefore, they must research about the linguistic profile of their institutions and develop policies accordingly.

Another major problem is the choice of mother tongue which is noted in Madiba and Mabiletja (2008) that the majority of learners in Limpopo Province do not have a home language. The learners identify themselves as Northern Sotho (Sepedi), Tshivenda or Xitsonga speaking. According to Webb et al. (2004:125),

Northern Sotho comprises about 27 regional dialects of which some are not mutually intelligible. The problem is that the standardisation of these languages is usually based on one dialect. Other dialects are excluded. For example, the standard Northern Sotho language which is used in the classroom is mainly based on Pedi dialect and Tshivenda is based on Tshipani. This implies that only learners who speak Pedi, for instance, will benefit more than other learners if Northern Sotho can be used as LoLT. As a result of this problem, Webb (2004) made a call for re-standardisation of Northern Sotho to encompass the whole community. For some learners in Limpopo Province, using mother tongue as LoLT may create more problems, but for some learners it will be beneficial. Many learners in the Limpopo Province identify themselves with the Northern Sotho standard language even if they do not belong to the Pedi dialect which might mean that they can engage well with subject content if they can be taught in that language. No one might be excluded and will be covered by the process of re-standardisation of language. This is in contrast with Khuchandani (2003) who argues that invented or artificial languages do not provide benefits to learners and it is the same as if learners learn in a second language. In this study I argue that languages such as Northern Sotho, Tshivenda and Xitsonga need to be re-standardised to include all dialects and teachers need to be retrained to teach in these African languages. Afrikaans and English speaking learners in the Limpopo Province learn through their mother tongue and learn either an African language, English or Afrikaans as additional languages. This means Afrikaans speaking learners learn through their mother tongue and learn English as an additional language whereas English speaking learners learn through English and learn Afrikaans as an additional language. Only African languages speakers experience problems of not learning in their mother tongue. Resources to develop these African languages in Limpopo Province should be provided to enhance or fast-track their development.

According to Webb et al. (2004), another strategy to eradicate this problem is to address the problem of negative attitude towards the African languages. Language planning such as corpus, status and acquisition development and language

management has to be revisited. Considering the language composition of learners in Limpopo Province and the suggested strategies to deal with the implementation of MLE, it is highly possible that the transition to MLE could be realised.

6.3.2   Teachers' transitional model

The principals' questions and policies of the majority of schools confirm that teachers implement the transitional model of LoLT. The findings show that the transition occurs from mother tongue to English LoLT. All ex-DET and new schools in this study report to have mother tongue from Grade R to Grade 2 or Grade 3 and English from Grade 3 or Grade 4 to Grade 7 as LoLT. Sections 7 and 8 of the LiEP that deal with language as a subject and LoLT respectively do not specify languages. Any official language can be chosen as LoLT in any level of education, but Section 5 subsection 5(2) of the LiEP emphasises an additive approach to multilingualism (DoE, 1997b). This means that if the policy is read holistically, it suggests that learners should maintain their mother tongue with the addition of another language (English). An additional language, which is English, should not replace mother tongue as LoLT. Mother tongue should always be the preferable LoLT and English be learnt in addition to mother tongue as a subject of learning or else the transition should be considered very late in school years.

There are problems, however, relating to this trend of implementing a transitional model such that as the transition occurs early, there is no information about evaluating learners' competence before introducing the new language as LoLT, the linguistic context of schools is not considered and teachers have not received any training to handle the transition well (McCallum, 2004). According to Brock-Utne (2010), children from high and middle income classes can cope with the transition because their parents can help them through education that is offered in English. In contrast, the 2006 *Progress in International Reading Literacy Study* (PIRLS) (Mullis et al., 2007) as well as Moloi and Strauss (2005) found that the majority of South African learners at Grade 4 and 5 levels cannot read. This indicates that at these levels language proficiency is very low.

According to Heugh (2011), the implementation of CAPS is more likely to promote early exit to English. This practice leads to lack of development in academic proficiency. Heugh (2011) argues that the transitioning occurs before learners could develop adequate academic language proficiency in mother tongue. She further maintains that the new curriculum limits the transfer of cognitive language competencies across languages (Heugh, 2011). In addition, the PIRLS 2006 International Report confirms that our policies create problems because they recommend that mother tongue should be used for teaching from Grade R to Grade 3 instead of extending MTE to more years (Mullis et al, 2007). I agree that this tendency denies learners in South Africa the opportunity to develop in their mother tongues which will help them to participate actively as citizens of this country and in the world society at large.

The previous research by UNESCO (2006) suggests that the transition to English should not occur before six to eight years of schooling. UNESCO (2006), therefore, argues that learning through mother tongue for three to four years is not enough. In addition other reports (Thomas & Collier, 2002; & Alidou et al., 2006 d) conclude that learning in mother tongue for the first six to eight years of schooling creates a better opportunity for academic performance. To emphasise, these reports by various scholars argue strongly that learners should not be engaged in transitioning to English before they reach an adequate academic proficiency in mother tongue.

The studies by Benson (2002 & 2009) as well as Thomas and Collier (2002) confirm that the successful way of transitioning from mother tongue to English is to gradually introduce a language as subject of study before introducing it as LoLT. The language should never be used as LoLT before six years of formal schooling.

Cummins's (1978) theory acknowledges the importance of additive bilingualism which seems to have been designed for the transition to English. The threshold hypothesis emphasises transitional bilingual education rather than maintaining mother tongue. According to Cummins's (1978) threshold hypothesis, there is the

minimum level of competence required for a child to develop in the first language (L1) in order to achieve cognitive development when exposed to learning in a second language (L2). Cummins (1978) stresses that a high level of competence in the L1 will cause a high level of competence in the L2. This, however, addresses a problem of immigrants where they are being prepared to be incorporated into a country that is using a single dominant language such as English. One wonders whether this should be the case where local languages are different from English. Nevertheless, this study and others have now revealed that English is perceived as desirable even if it is an exogenous language.

6.3.3   The usage of code-switching

In the process of implementing transitional model, teachers use code-switching and code-mixing. Code-switching in the classroom refers to the use of two languages in a single conversation. There are instances when teaching takes place in two languages concurrently or when one language is used for teaching and another one for assessment. In this study it refers to the use of English which is the major LoLT and learners' mother tongue which is mainly an African language. The following example shows how code-switching is used in some ex-DET schools. The teacher was teaching about how learners must play athletics. The teacher taught learners about track events. She said:

> *You must run in your own track because ge o ka tšwa ka mo trekeng ya gago you are going to be disqualified. Le ge o ka tšea number one ba tlilo re o tseneletše. O kreya motho wa gona a thoma a kitima a le ka mo, a feleletše a le ka mola. When you run tša di track events bana ba ka, you must run straight in your own track.*

> TR: [You must run in your own track because if you can get out of your track you will be disqualified. Even if you can obtain first position they will say you went into someone's track. You find that you are in this track, but you end up being in that track. When you run track events, my learners, you must run straight in your own track.]

This finding corresponds with the previous research by Meyer (1998) and Madiba and Mabiletja (2008) by arguing that both teachers and learners in ex-DET and new schools use a combination of mother tongue and English. Brock-Utne and Holmarsdottir (2003) demonstrate that the problem does not exist only in the Limpopo Province because their findings also show that, even though the school policies in the Western Cape schools declared that a transition from an African language to English is taking place, the case is different. Many teachers are code-switching between African language and English. The major reason for using code-switching is found to be teachers and learners' limited proficiency in the LoLT which is mainly English (Desai, 2001; Brock-Utne & Holmarsdottir, 2003). Scholars such as Setati et al (2002), Ferguson (2003) and Brock-Utne (2004) have noted that there are curses and blessings arising from using code-switching. Madiba and Mabiletja (2008) note that code-switching is a productive strategy for teaching in a multilingual context. On the contrary, Brock-Utne (2004) sees code-switching as a danger because it is practiced illegally. The illegal practice implies that there is no means of supporting this strategy by the Department of Education. This way of using code-switching may be detrimental to learner performance. Hornberger and McKay (2010), however, maintain that code-switching is not detrimental to the acquisition of the target language.

The majority of scholars, including Creese et al. (2008) as well as Hornberger and McKay (2010), support the use of code-switching because it is used, among other things, to meet a wide range of classroom needs, to help with comprehension, to encourage learner participation, to clarify concepts and many more.

The issue of using code-switching as a strategy needs to be evaluated and researched further in order to give the necessary support and plan the way to deal with its curses. The use of code-switching also shows that in practice a dual medium instruction situation potentially exists in various ex-DET schools and this is in contrast with the widely held perception of transition to English as a medium of instruction while maintaining mother tongue only as a subject. This confirms that, however important English may be regarded; the conditions for using this

language as a medium of instruction are affected by the inadequacy of resources as teachers themselves are not proficient in this language. The question would be why should the country stress itself with the implementation of a transitional model that leads to subtractive bilingualism while it has linguistic resources that will give learners immediate access to knowledge rather than spending years trying to master an L2?

6.3.4   The relationship between home language and LoLT

Section (6.2.4) above indicates that parents prefer English as LoLT over African languages. The reasons for the preference of English are also listed in that section. Most of the time people favouring English LoLT do not consider the pedagogical motivation when choosing English. The *Language of Instruction in Tanzania and South Africa* (LOITASA) project found that most countries continue to choose English because the choice has to do more with power than with pedagogical reasons (Brock-Utne et al, 2003). In this study parents found that policies were already drawn up and they were given policies or languages to choose from when they applied for admission. These parents were not aware that learning through mother tongue does not hinder the child's ability to learn and develop skills in another language. Research (Benson, 2002; Thomas & Collier, 2002 and UNESCO, 2011) shows that academic language skills and development of literacy are learnt by maintaining mother tongue language abilities. This may in turn lead to a better second language performance (UNESCO, 2011).

The additive relationship between home language or mother tongue and the language of the majority (English) was shown by Cummins's (1986) study, which was in line with his interdependence hypothesis. The hypothesis maintains that when children are supported adequately in acquiring mother tongue to the point of attaining academic language proficiency, they can transfer these skills to the majority language. He further asserts that it needs both motivation to learn the majority language and also exposure to that language.

214

The gap between home language and English has been enlarged by the attitude of teachers, parents and the departmental officials towards both languages. All stakeholders should be made aware that they should look into the pedagogical reasons for choosing a language of education than other reasons, more especially because English can still be learnt and used effectively even if it is not the LoLT. According to Desai (2003), the most important things that learners need to acquire English language skills are quality English language lessons which are taught by more proficient, well trained and experienced teachers. It does not need to be used as LoLT to acquire knowledge in that language.

6.3.5   The relationship between MLE and development

Generally the findings of this study indicate that there is reluctance in some types of schools, and more specifically former Model-C schools, to implement multilingual education because they doubt the ability of African languages to perform the educational function adequately, particularly in higher education. Schools prepare learners for tertiary education and the work-place. The findings that the majority of learners in primary schools have difficulty coping with using English as LoLT are further indicated in Desai (1999), Heugh (2002b), Nomlomo (2008 & 2009) and Probyn (2008). This problem is further reported by Cummins (2000) who said that learners who attain the Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS) level also have difficulty using a language that is not familiar for academic purposes. Cummins (1991) further shows that learners need to acquire Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) in their first language or mother tongue before they can use a second language, English in this case, for teaching and learning. It has been already stated elsewhere in this study that previous research (Thomas & Collier, 2002; Moloi & Strauss, 2005; Mullis et al., 2006; DBE, 2010a & Pretorius, 2014) have found that there is a low level of literacy among learners in South Africa as a whole. The findings of such research clearly show that it is essential for a learner to acquire CALP in the first language (L1) or home language to transfer skills to a second language (L2) or an additional language.

Pattanayak (1981) and Prah (2005) confirm that mother tongue instruction is significant for, among other things, improving people's self-confidence, establishing group identity, self-affirmation, concept formation, creativity and imparting social values. If learners can achieve all these, it means they have developed. In addition to this, Mutasa (1999 & 2003) indicates that mother tongue instruction makes it easier for learners to grasp learning concepts because they will be able to read the learning materials by themselves. This will result in improved learning achievements, a low drop-out rate, better adjustments, cultural preservation and self-confidence in learners. He further argues that African languages development can enable speakers to participate well in economic activities and national affairs (Mutasa, 1999 & 2003). These actions are indicators of development. Several researchers (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000; Benson, 2009; Brock-Utne, 2010 as well as Heugh & Skutnabb-Kangas, 2010b) show that when a language which is not familiar to learners is used it becomes a barrier to learning. In addition King and Benson (2004) maintain that the adoption of mother tongue instruction is pedagogically more efficient. Heugh (2006) shows that unfortunately mother tongue education programmes do not last longer because schools exit too early to using a second language (English).

According to UNESCO (2010), linguistic and cultural diversity do not affect economic development negatively. Instead, they lead to economic growth because more people will be empowered and creative. UNESCO (2010) further indicates that, according to the research, many people participate in the informal sector where they use local languages most of their time. As a result, MLE will equip learners with the necessary competencies to effectively participate in this sector. It further illustrates that people from a MLE system will be able to participate actively in local institutions and organisations as well as in many community programmes at all levels.

In multilingual education the focus is not on the possibility of learning and teaching through African languages only, but African languages should be used together with an additional language (such as English) and a regional language

where possible. Thus, African languages should be maintained in addition to other languages. It has been already indicated that this may be done by introducing mother tongue instruction with the addition of other languages or by implementing parallel medium; and this may be considered as an adequate transition to multilingual education within an African context (where English exists as an exogenous language, yet is also desirable as a language of global communication and economic betterment).

6.3.6 The implementation of multilingual education in schools

Factors such as linguistic complexity of schools, the relationship between home language and LoLT, and the attitude towards the relationship between MTE and development influence the way in which multilingual education is implemented in schools of Limpopo Province. For instance, schools have to implement policies differently due to the different linguistic contexts in which they operate. Schools must look into different factors affecting teaching and learning, but in many cases they have ignored the linguistic and pedagogical factors associated with these processes. Heugh (2009) argues that people are mistaken by believing that teaching and learning is taking place if learners learn through the medium of English whereas they have African languages as mother tongues. This situation indicates that in such schools where the stakeholders hold this belief they will either opt for English only or an early-exit transitional model. It implies that implementing multilingual education will not happen if parents are still holding this view. All stakeholders must know and implement their responsibilities.

The question still remains as to how should South African schools implement MLE? The answer is that, based on the findings of this study, the results could not be generalised. The working model proposed by this study could be applicable to any school with a similar situation to the Limpopo schools. As a result, the answer will be based on the fact that South Africa has a variety of languages spoken in different regions. Furthermore, schools have different linguistic complexities as well as various factors limiting adequate transition to multilingual education.

6.3.7 Towards an MLE model in South Africa

Having said that, and assuming that all other factors are addressed in other studies or are in the process of being addressed, this study suggests the following model for South African Schools:
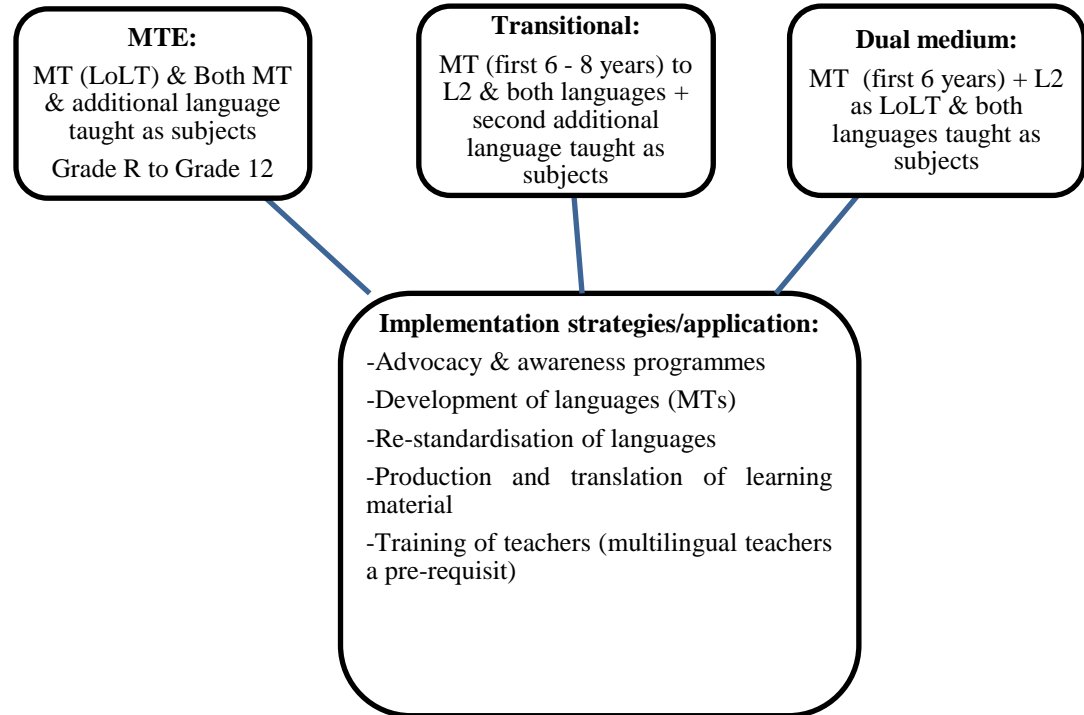
Figure 6.1:   Towards a working model for MLE in South Africa: MTE or late transition to additional languages as LoLT

The purpose of this model is to:

- Provide MTE to all schools or facilitate the smooth and gradual transition to additional languages as LoLTs which should not take place before the completion of six years of school.

- Eliminate linguistic problems resulting from learning in a language that is not the mother tongue and that is not well understood.

This model entails that every learner must learn through the mother tongue (home language or L1) from Grade R to Grade 12 with the addition of an additional

language, preferably the language of wider communication as early as from Grade 1. In this case mother tongue should mean any language that a learner speaks at home and comes to school with. This should be the language that a learner knows very well. In cases where there is a regional language which is not the mother tongue for the majority of learners, that language should be added as a second additional language again as early as from Grade 1. This implies the opportunity to introduce a third language (L3). A dual-medium might be an alternative when a learner has fully developed CALP level in the L1. Transition to an additional language should be possible but after six to eight years when learners have achieved CALP and an additional language should never be used at the expense of MT. Each school must offer an African language at home language level in all grades. African languages may differ according to regions. But where many African languages are represented all of them must be taught depending on the principle of practicability. This should be a long term model for Limpopo Province.

It should be implemented strategically in phases like when a new curriculum is implemented. The implementation processes should include the development of languages (MTs), the production of quality learning and teaching material as well as adequate and quality teacher training in the target languages. Producing teachers who are multilingual in the languages of the province should be a priority. Implementation should be done in the form of projects which are monitored by the government. Government must also consider involving the NGOs and universities in the implementation and monitoring of the process. Advocacy and awareness programmes should also be considered.

6.4   Conclusion

The findings of the research conducted in Chapter 4 and presented in Chapter 5 provided the baseline information to answer the research question and to establish the extent to which schools conform to the LiEP and transitioning to multilingual education.

It has become evident that teachers and parents are not aware of the LiEP and their own school language policies. This was clearly articulated in their responses to some of the questions and confirmed by observation of teachers' practice.

Principals' interviews confirmed what was observed in and outside the classrooms that in ex-DET and new schools the most common used languages are African languages. Code-switching is also observed and used by the majority of teachers in classes to overcome a language barrier that they experience. The results of this study are also common in other schools in the province and worldwide as this is evidence in previous research.

Learners and principals' questionnaires were used to triangulate and strengthen the validity of the findings. The questionnaires confirmed the findings from interviews and observations.

This chapter concludes by indicating that the transition to multilingual education is likely not to be realized as there is a need to work out the problem of the country's attitude and reluctance to produce material in African languages and also to extend mother tongue instruction to more years.

This study further suggests a model which derives from the data analysis in the previous sections and the model is described in section 6.3.7 above.

The next chapter deals mainly with the summary, recommendations and the general conclusions of this study.

CHAPTER 7

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to conclude the study by reviewing each chapter, which is followed by the presentation of the summary of the findings, the contribution of the study, the limitations of the study as well as suggestions for further research. The purpose of this chapter is further aligned with the last objective outlined in Chapter 1 which was *to propose contextualized practical pedagogical recommendations as a solution to a problem encountered with regard to the transition to multilingual education in a situation such as that of South African schools*.

7.2 Review of the study

Chapter 1 gave the overview of the study. The main purpose of Chapter 1 was to state the problem and give the background information to illustrate why the problem needs to be researched. The chapter also outlined the aims of the study, research questions and research design. This study attempted to answer the main question outlined in Chapter 1: *How is the transition to MLE practiced in South African primary schools?* Other subsidiary questions were also addressed.

Chapter 2 focused on an extensive literature review. The main purpose of literature review was to establish the research that has already been done in the world, in South Africa, and particularly in the Limpopo Province, and theories that are grounding the field of research. The literature review revealed that extensive research was conducted in the field of multilingual education in the world and in South Africa, but the focus and context were different from this study. Several projects focused on using a second language (L2) as LoLT and other on second language acquisition.

In Chapter 3 the focus was on theories and models that form the basis of this research. Cummins's interdependence and threshold hypothesis were discussed. Cummins's theories focused mainly on transition to a second language and the time when that transition can occur. Cummins's theories also indicate the level of proficiency required before switching to learning in a second language. Therefore, Cummins's theory helps to explain why it is necessary to implement transitional multilingual education because it emphasizes the start of schooling with mother tongue until the child achieves academic proficiency in that language before switching to a second language. The theory makes a distinction between basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS) and cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) which suggests the appropriate time to switch to the use of another language. The common underlying proficiency model (CUP) of Cummins illustrates the importance of an adequate development of proficiency in the child's mother tongue or first language on the second language. Furthermore, models of bi/multilingual education were discussed. The chapter concludes by showing that not all theories and models are relevant for this study.

In Chapter 4 the consideration was on the research design and the methodology of this study. The study selected mixed methods research which is mainly qualitative because more data is collected by interviews, observations and documents. Questionnaires were used only to get the overall idea of language usage in schools in terms of numbers for triangulation purposes. Six schools were researched and only Grade 5 classes were included. Learners, teachers, principals and SGB parents participated in the study.

In Chapter 5 the focus was on presenting data that were collected through questionnaires, interviews, observations and documents as a step towards answering a research question. Furthermore, the data presented in Chapter 5 were intended to fulfil the aim of this research. Data were displayed by the use of tables. Errors made by participants were not corrected to maintain authenticity.

Chapter 6 attempted to analyse and discuss the data that were presented in Chapter 5 as a step towards answering the research questions as well as fulfilling the aim of this study. The LiEP and other formal official documents formed the analytical frameworks for this study. The analysis of the study showed that schools did not conform to government's LiEP in that learners or their parents were not given the opportunity to choose their LoLTs and teachers implemented transition to English, not transition to a multilingual education as the policy suggested. Most of the times, teachers were code-switching between English and Sepedi instead of using English as the LoLT as per their claim.

This chapter (Chapter 7) is designed to conclude the study by giving an overview of the study, a summary of the findings discussed in Chapter 6, followed by the contribution the study has made or the relevance of the research, and then, recommendations based on the findings analysed in this study. Furthermore, the chapter highlights the limitations of the research and the suggestions for further research.

7.3 Summary of the findings

The major findings derived from the empirical data of the study discussed in Chapter 6 and the literature can be summarized as follows:

- The majority of schools in the Pietersburg Circuit are multilingual. The schools consist of learners who speak all the major languages of the Limpopo Province. The major languages of this province are African languages, namely Sepedi, Xitsonga and Tshivenda (StatsSA, 2012).
- English is the predominant LoLT in language policies of the schools. But in practice teachers and learners in most schools use code-switching in class.
- Parents show preference of English because it is the only option they are presented with at schools. These parents chose English when they apply for admission of their learners at various schools. Sometimes they take their children to the schools in town where mainly English is offered.

- African language speaking learners are forced to choose English as home language in former Model C schools, and some learners in ex-DET schools have English as first additional language. This means that all learners learn English either as a home language or as an additional language.

- Most African learners in all schools experience learning difficulties relating to LoLT.

- Only a few schools have remedial classes to deal with problems relating to LoLT.

- Teachers are experiencing problems when teaching learners who are not doing well in the LoLT. Furthermore, teachers are not able to help learners with language problems because teachers themselves use L2 in teaching which some are not proficient in.

- Some parents lack knowledge of schools' language policies. They seem to be excluded from the formulation and selection of language policies. As a result, they are not familiar with what school language policies entail. This further indicates that the majority of SGBs are not aware of their roles and responsibilities with regard to language policy formulation.

- Some parents accept that their children are experiencing problems when learning in a language that they do not understand, but they have no choice as they want their children to be in these schools.

- Learners in ex-DET schools have problems with the transition from mother tongue to English as LoLT. The teaching and learning changes from mother tongue to English before learners are ready to use English as LoLT.

7.4   Contributions of the research

The study aimed to answer the main question regarding *how the transition to MLE is effected in South African schools.* The main aim of this study was to analyse the situation of LiEP implementation in South African schools with particular reference to primary schools of the Capricorn District in the Limpopo Province. The analysis was also aimed at addressing the issue of LiEP implementation and language practice as well as investigating whether schools comply with the pedagogical motivations and theories dealing with the transition to multilingual education. The study also aimed at proposing a model that will be suitable for South African schools.

The study contributes to a growing body of literature on language in education policy implementation in several ways. The research filled the gap in the literature that deals with transition to multilingual education by providing a distinct case focused on South African schools. Various studies have focused on issues such as transition to a second language, the choice of language of instruction, and language proficiency. This study has used a case study based in Limpopo Province to demonstrate how schools implement language policies in the country taking into consideration similar characteristics also found in other provinces.

This study has also incorporated the language management theory in its theoretical framework to show how language planning can be dealt with in complex situations. Cummins's theories became critical in explaining certain aspects of transition to MLE. However, the theory has been found lacking when there is an emphasis on the L2 as the LoLT. Thus models of MLE were used to show choices that are available for sustaining additive multilingual education in a country such as South Africa. The application of various theoretical frameworks clearly illustrates a need for an integrated approach in dealing with language planning issues in multilingual schools.

7.5   Limitations of the study

This study has some limitations that require further research. Firstly, although the study can provide description and information on a situation that can also affect other contexts, the study of only six schools cannot be conclusively generalized to different contexts without a study that will also cover other provinces. The language situation differs from one country to another, from province to province as well as from one school to the next. The implication is that language education programmes might be implemented differently in different contexts. It remains a duty of future researchers to explore the ideas presented in this study within other contexts.

Another limitation of this study is that only parents in SGBs were interviewed. Future studies may include also parents who are not SGB members. The study did not include independent schools, all learners and teachers and all parents for generalisable findings.

The study showed that the research methodology and the analytical techniques need to be refined to accommodate other types of schools and all stakeholders as well as the general limitations stated above.

7.6   Implications and recommendations

The findings and recommendations of this study have implications for language practitioners and language planners. The language policies and practices at schools can be viewed as a way for English to dominate African languages because English seems to be the major LoLT in all schools' language policies despite that more code-switching take place in some schools.

Another implication is that DBE, teachers and parents are not prepared to introduce other languages than Afrikaans and English as LoLT beyond the Foundation Phase. DBE have not produced LTSM to support the principles outlined in the policy; teachers are not adequately trained for multilingual

education; and parents are not well informed about language policy issues and multilingualism approach at schools.

This section provides recommendations regarding the implementation of multilingual education in schools in South Africa. The study showed that bilingual or multilingual models that were introduced in other countries might not be applicable to the South African situation because of the country's linguistic diversity and context which is very different to other countries.

The following suggestions and recommendations based on the previous research and the present findings need to be adopted:

- There must be adequate teacher training. The present teacher training programmes should incorporate new strategies to deal with implementing multilingual education policies at schools and there must be in-service training for teachers who are already in the field. The programme should comprehend the specific requirements for multilingual education and allow teachers to use mother tongue as well as the development of African languages.
- The Department of Education must develop a programme which will be part of the curriculum for increasing language skills before the language can be used as LoLT. The programme should focus on the adequate language proficiency requirements for LoLT languages. In the case of the researched schools the programme should encompass both mother tongue, regional language (if applicable) and English.
- There should be production and provision of learning materials in indigenous languages even where the language is not used for LoLT. This will allow all African languages to develop.
- The standardisation of other languages such as Northern Sotho should be reviewed to accommodate all regional dialects.
- There should be adequate and well-trained translators to translate the learning material. The Department of Education should work closely with

universities and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) to produce skilled and knowledgeable translators who will translate and produce quality learning materials in indigenous languages. The translations should accommodate the diverse African cultural beliefs and practices.

- Departmental officials should conduct regular workshops to ensure that all stakeholders understand the MLE framework and language implementation strategies for their school situations.

- Language bodies at national and provincial level, including NGOs, may conduct language policy awareness campaigns aimed at parents and teachers. Events may focus on language policy implementation strategies and the role of parents and teachers at school level to ensure that learners benefit from their education. Schools and individuals should be rewarded in the form of incentives for implementing language policies correctly.

- The Department of Education should develop language management programmes that can be monitored at provincial and school level. The programmes should focus on both the simple and organized language management processes.

- The general model that should be adopted by the Department of Education is that: *Learners must learn through mother tongue for the 12 years of schooling and learn an additional language(s) alongside the mother tongue. English as an additional language should be taught or learnt in such a way that all learners will acquire CALP at the end of the 12th year. Mother tongue should also be taught in such a way that it allows learners to acquire CALP so that it can be adequately used as LoLT.*

7.7   Suggestions for further research

This study has primarily focused on Grade 5 learners and their teachers. Future research needs to focus on other grades in the Intermediate Phase and all parents of learners in primary schools. There should be a study focusing on the readiness of learners before switching over to another language as well as an action research which will place learners in a multilingual education programme for up to at least

eight years or the end of primary schooling to establish how effective the programme will be. Furthermore, a study is needed to incorporate schools which are in remote rural areas where one dialect of a standardized language is used. Another study is needed whereby the impact of teachers who are equipped with the necessary methodological skills to teach in learners' mother tongue and also to switch from using mother tongue to MLE is evaluated. Another future study needs to focus on the attitude of parents towards the LoLT and the awareness of the benefits of multilingual education.

7.8   Conclusion

This chapter considered the overall conclusion of this study.

The purpose of the study was to examine how the transition to multilingual education is effected in South African schools and to analyse the LiEP situation in selected schools. It set out to achieve these aims through the use of mixed methods. The research involved Grade 5 learners, teachers, parents and principals of six primary schools in the Limpopo Province. The study has highlighted the complexity of the issues revolving around multilingual education. The research indicated that context plays a crucial role when dealing with language usage and the implementation of language policies in schools. Studies of theoretical frameworks such as Cummins's theories, bi-/multilingual education models as well as language management theory were also necessary to provide insight about issues to be included in language in education policies and language programmes. The data from the Limpopo Province shows that the majority of learners in these schools speak Northern Sotho (Sepedi) as mother tongue, but use English as their LoLT. The data further shows that teachers and learners experience problems regarding the use of English as LoLT and these drive teachers to code-switch. The language policies of schools address language as LoLT and language subjects and do not draw from the national LiEP by promoting additive multilingualism.

It is acknowledged that it is not possible to make conclusive generalisations from this data because of the limitations that were already discussed above. It is

indicated that the six schools are almost the same as compared to other schools in South Africa regarding language backgrounds. Similar studies may produce similar results in other schools because schools are not totally unique from one another.

The study is concluded by giving recommendations that are driven by the findings. The recommendations endorse the research questions as well as suggesting ways to implement multilingual education strategies in schools such as those in the Limpopo Province. Suggestions for further research conclude the study.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: ETHICAL CLEARENCE AND PERMISSION LETTERS

Department of Linguistics and Modern Languages
14 May 2015

Ref: SL_MMM02_2015

Registered D Litt et Phil student: Mrs MM Mabiletja (31757227)
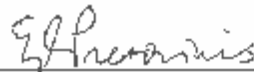
Proposed title:
The transition to multilingual education in South African schools

The Ethics subcommittee of the Department of Linguistics and Modern Languages hereby declares that it assessed the D Litt et Phil doctoral proposal of Mrs MM Mabiletja (31757227) and approved it, when the research proposal was accepted.

This assessment process included attention to the ethical dimensions of her research project. Her research entailed interviews with principals, teachers and parents at six schools in Limpopo Province and a questionnaire distributed to Grade 5 learners. She obtained permission from the relevant education authorities and parents, and no-one was hurt or disadvantaged by her research.

We confirm that her research upholds ethical standards of scholarship.

Prof EJ Pretorius
Chair: Higher Degrees Committee and Ethics subcommittee
Department of Linguistics and Modern Languages

Enquiries: Mabiletja M. M   P O Box 4662

Cell no.: 082 404 5156/ 079 896 6574   Sovenga

Email: mabiletjal@webmail.co.za   0727

                                                          27 May 2013

The Circuit Manager

Department of Education

Pietersburg Circuit

Dear Sir/Madam

A REQUEST TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH IN SELECTED PRIMARY SCHOOLS OF PIETERSBURG CIRCUIT

I am making a request to conduct a research in selected primary schools of Pietersburg Circuit for my doctoral studies with the University of South Africa (Department of Linguistics).

My research is about designing a model for implementing multilingual education in primary schools. My research topic is as follows:

THE TRANSITION TO MULTILINGUAL EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICAN SCHOOLS

Research will be done in two ex-DET schools, two ex-Model C schools and two schools established after 1994. Short interviews will be conducted with grade 5 teachers, parents (SGB members), principals and one departmental official, preferably circuit manager of the selected circuit. Learners will be expected to fill short questionnaire

The whole process will run for only two to three weeks of May/June 2013. A right to privacy, confidentiality and anonymity will be adhered to. All participants will be requested to fill in consent forms before interviews continue.

I am hoping for a better response.

Yours Faithfully

Mabiletja M. M (Mrs)

UNISA
09-04-2013

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN
RE: Request to conduct Research in a school environment

Dear Sir/Madam
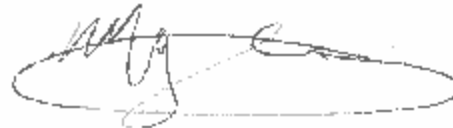
This is to certify that Mrs. M Mabiletja is conducting a doctoral study entitled *Transition to Multilingual Education in South Africa*. The data for the study will be solicited from the interviews with the teachers, learners, educational officials as well as a parents' representative. Observations will also take place in a classroom situation. In particular, the researcher is interested in finding out which languages are used in schools and the implication of such practice with regard to Language in Education Policy of 1996. The study will lead to the development of a well-informed language policy implementation model for our learners and create a better understanding of the importance of language policy implementation at a school level.

This research is expected not to take a lot of time. The participants will be interviewed and the experiences related to language needs, preferences as well as attitudes will be discussed. There are no anticipated risks or discomforts related to this research. The participation in this research is completely voluntary and the correct available procedures will be followed to claim for any occurring incidence.

Several steps will be taken to protect the participants' anonymity and identity. Where the interviews will be tape-recorded, the tapes will be stored in a safe place once they have been transcribed. They will be kept in a locked filing cabinet at the University of South Africa, and only the main researcher will have access to the transcribed interviews. The transcribed interviews will NOT contain any mention of the participant's name, and any identifying information from the interview will be removed.

The results from this study will be presented in writing in the form of a PhD thesis and in selected accredited journals. The results may also be presented in conferences and seminars. At no time, however, will the participant's name be used or any identifying information revealed. If you wish to have access to a copy of the results from this study or if you require any information about this study, or would like to speak to the promoter of this research, please call Professor MN Ngcobo at 012 429 6310.

Prof Mtholeni N. Ngcobo
Associate Professor
Department of Linguistics
+27 (0) 12 429-6310
Fax to email: 0865447173 or
+27 (0) 12 429-6622
+27 (0) 83 207 9868
ngcobmn@unisa.ac.za

263

LIMPOPO
PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

DEPARTMENT OF
EDUCATION

Enquiries: Dr. Mukula MC, Tel No: 015 290 9444. E-mail: MukulaMC@edu.limpopo.gov.za.

P O BOX 4662
SOVENGA
0727

Maoletju M.M

RE: Request for permission to Conduct Research

1.   The above bears reference.

2.   The Department wishes to inform you that your request to conduct a research has been approved: TITLE: THE TRANSITION TO MULTILINGUAL EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICAN SCHOOLS (i.e. Polokwane circuit)

3.   The following conditions should be considered

   3.1   The research should not have any financial implications for Limpopo Department of Education.

   3.2   Arrangements should be made with both the Circuit Offices and the schools concerned.

   3.3   The conduct of research should not anyhow disrupt the academic programs at the schools.

   3.4   The research should not be conducted during the time of Examinations especially the fourth term.

   3.5   During the study, the research ethics should be practiced, in particular the principle of voluntary participation (the people involved should be respected).

   3.6   Upon completion of research study, the researcher shall share the final product of the research with the Department.

Cnr. 113 Biccard & 24 Excelsior Street. POLOKWANE, 0700, Private Bag X9489, POLOKWANE, 0700
Tel: 015 290 7600, Fax: 015 297 6920/4220/4494

The heartland of southern Africa - development is about people!

Oper Rus ie

264

4. Furthermore, you are expected to produce this letter to Schools/ Offices where you intend conducting your research as an evidence that you are permitted to conduct the research

5. The department appreciates the contribution that you wish to make and wishes you success in your investigation.

Best wishes.

Thamaga MD

Head of Department

Date

Enq: Tladi NP

Tel: 015 290 8484
Cell: 082 964 3476
Email:
TladiNP@edu.limpopo.gov.za

LIMPOPO
PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

114 BICCARD STREET
- POLOKWANE
0699

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
CAPRICORN DISTRICT
PIETERSBURG CIRCUIT

Dated: 28 May 2013.

The Principal

Dear Sir/ Madam

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH: MABILETJA M.M. - UNISA.

1. The above mentioned student attached to Unisa, has been granted permission to conduct research in schools in this Circuit. Your school has been identified as one where she could conduct the research.

2. The student is encouraged to come to your school to make final arrangements with you. Ensure that this research does not disrupt teaching and learning in the school.

3. I hope and believe you will be of assistant to the researcher..

I truly remain.

MADIBA MD: CIRCUIT MANAGER

APPENDIX B1:   CONSENT FORM FOR PARENTS

Dear Parent

I am a student in the Department of Linguistics at the University of South Africa (UNISA). I am conducting a study on **The transition to multilingual education in South African schools**. The main aims of this study are to:

- Examine the South African government's policy initiatives at national, provincial, and institutional levels, particularly with regard to language education.
- Analyse the situation of language-in-education policy implementation in South African schools, particularly the previously disadvantaged black schools. The analysis will address the issue of language-in-education policy implementation and practice.

Through participation of your child, I hope to understand amongst other things the claims made by the government's language policy, problems encountered in this trend and if it affects the implementation of multilingualism in schools. I therefore request permission for your child to participate.

Your child will be asked to fill in a questionnaire and be observed in class. No other record will be required. The project will be explained in terms that your child can understand, and your child will participate only if he or she is willing to do so. Only I and my supervisor will have access to the information your child gives. At the conclusion of the study, children's responses will be reported as group results only. A summary of group results will be made available to parents on request. Please contact me (the researcher) on any of the above contact information.

Participation on this study is voluntary. Your decision on whether or not to allow your child to participate in the study will never affect the services normally provided to your child by the school. Your child will not lose any benefit as a result of participating in this study. Even if you give permission that your child will participate in this study, he or she is free to refuse to participate. If your child agrees to participate, he or she is free to end the participation at any time.

For questions and further information, please do not hesitate to contact me on the above contact information, preferably call or email.

Please indicate if you agree or do not agree to participate in the survey by a tick in the appropriate box below and return this letter to the principal. You will be given a copy after you have signed.

I agree   ☐   I do not agree   ☐

_____   _____

Signature of Parent/Guardian   Name of Parent/ Guardian (Print)

_____   _____

Name of the child (Print)   Date

(Northern Sotho version of consent form)

FOROMO YA GO LOKOLLA NGWANA

Go Motswadi

Ke moithuti wa lengwalo la bodokotere (doctoral) lefapheng la tša polelo le maleme, Unibesithing ya Afrika Borwa (UNISA). Ke dira dinyakišišo mabapi le go tsenywa tirišong ga molao wa go ithuta ka maleme a mabedi goba go feta dikolong tša Afrika Borwa. Ke kganyoga go tseba gore ke maleme afe ao a dirišwago dikolong le gore naa seo se amana bjang le tirišo ya molao wo wa maleme a thuto wa 1997 (Language in education Policy). Dinyakišišo tše di nepile go nyakeng mokgwa goba tsela yeo ka yona go ka tsenywaga tirišong molao wo ka go felelela le go hlola kwešišo ye kaone ya bohlokwa bja go latela molao wo.

Ka go tšea karolo ga ngwana wa gago, ke na le kholofelo ya gore ke tla kwešiša ditshepišo tšeo di dirwago ke molao wo wa maleme wa mmušo wa Afrika Borwa; mathata ao a hlolwago ke tirišo yeo le go bona gore naa go tsenywa tirišong ga molao wo go ama bjang thuto ya bana. Ka fao ke kgopela tumelelo ya go botšiša ngwana wa lena dipotšišo. Sephetho sa gago se ka se ame kabo ya thuto go ngwana wa gago sekolong. Ngwana wag ago a ka se lobe diputseletšo tšeo a bego a ka dihwetša ka baka la go tšea karolo. Le ge wena o dumeletše ngwana wa gago go tšea karolo dinyakišišong tše, le yena o sa na le tokelo ya go gana.

Ngwana wa gago o tla tlatša foromo ya dipotšišo; le gona go lebelelwa ka moo a dirišago polelo sekolong. Ga go na se sengwe seo se tla tšewago go ba sa nyakwa ngwaneng ntle le tshedimošo. Projeke ye e tla hlatholla ka moo ngwana wa gago a tla e kwešišago le gona ngwana wa gago o tla tšea karolo ge fele yena a rata. Ke nna monyakišiši le mohlokomedi waka fela, bao re kgonago go fihlelela ditaba tšeo ngwana wa gago a tlago go bolela goba go dingwala. Ge re fetša dikarabo di tla ngwalwa gotee le tša babangwe ba mphato wa gagwe. Motswadi a ka hwetša kakaretšo ya dipoelo ge a e kgopetše.

Ge go na le potšišo efe kapa efe mabapi le tshedimošo, ikopanye le nna donomorong tšeo di filwego ka godimo.

Laetša ge o dumela goba o sa dumele ka go thala sefapano mapokisaneng ao a latelago gomme o saene le go ngwala leina la ngwana wa gago le letšatšikgwedi.

Ke a dumela ☐   Ga ke dumele ☐

_____   _____
Mosaeno wa motswadi   Leina la Motswadi

_____   _____
Leina la ngwana   Letšatšikgwedi

Go tšwa go

_____

Moh. M. M. Mabiletja (Monyakišiši)

APPENDIX B2:   CONSENT FORM FOR TEACHERS AND PRINCIPALS

Dear Respondent

I am a student in the Department of Linguistics at the University of South Africa (UNISA). I am conducting a study on **The transition to multilingual education in South African schools**. The main aims of this study are to:

- Examine the South African government's policy initiatives at national, provincial, and institutional levels, particularly with regard to language education.
- Analyse the situation of language-in-education policy implementation in South African schools, particularly the previously disadvantaged black schools. The analysis will address the issue of language-in-education policy implementation and practice.

Through your participation, I hope to understand amongst other things the claims made by the government's language policy, problems encountered in this trend and if it affects the implementation of multilingualism in schools.

In this study you will not be asked to write or give your name or the name of your school on the questionnaire or during interviews. Your responses will not be identified with you personally, and no one will be able to determine your school. Nothing you say either on the questionnaire or in interviews will in any way influence your present or future employment with your school. Interviews will be audio-recorded and transcribed for reference. No cost for participating in this study. I hope it will take you a few minutes to complete an interview and a questionnaire. No one will be forced to participate in this study and there is no penalty for participation.

The information collected may be of great benefit to you and what I learn from this study should provide general benefit to schools, the Department of Education, myself as a researcher as well as language planners.

For principals I will request sections 2.5.1; 2.6.1; 2.7.1; 2.9, and 2.18 of the annual survey to help them fill in the questionnaire quickly. If you don't mind you may make copies of these pages.

For questions and further information, please do not hesitate to contact me on the above contact information, preferably call or email.

Please indicate if you agree or do not agree to participate in the survey by a tick in the appropriate box below:

I agree   I do not agree

Sincerely

Mabiletja M M

(The Researcher)

APPENDIX C: LANGUAGE IN EDUCATION POLICY

http://www.education.gov.za/LinkClick.aspx?fileticket=XpJ7gz4rPT0%3D.

APPENDIX D: LANGUAGE POLICIES FROM SCHOOLS

SUBJECT POLICY FOR LANGUAGES

1.   INTRODUCTION

The teaching of a language presents a greater challenge to a teacher than any other subject of the curriculum. "To speak of children's language is to speak of their lives at home and at school, at once mirrored in language and in no small way managed and shaped by it."

The over-riding aim in the teaching of languages is to achieve the personal development and social competence of the child.

This aim may be detailed as follows:

1.1   to encourage fluent and confident self-expression in speech and writing;

1.2   to develop the child's power to express himself in an intelligible form, suited to the requirements of a particular situation;

1.3   to cultivate the habit of intelligent listening;

1.4   to acquire the ability to read with understanding, to read thoughtfully and critically, to form lasting reading habits and to enable the child to understand literature and interpret the experience and ideas of others through his exploration of factual and imaginative literature.

Speaking and listening are fundamental to the development of the skills of reading and writing. In the initial stages of reading, learning to read is the more important and later reading to learn takes precedence. Writing involves the ability to factual material and the evolution of the ability to write creatively, which will flourish in an atmosphere where the exchange of ideas, discussion and reading take place.

Speech, reading and writing are often thought of as separate branches of the curriculum and are usually taught as separate timetable subjects. In point of fact these aspects are closely interwoven in the growth of the child's language and cannot be dissociated.

All language teaching should be flexible and be designed to meet the needs of the child, always bearing in mind that the background and experience of no two children are alike. "Children do not learn to speak or read and write once and for all, they are always needing help in speaking, reading and writing at ascending levels of difficulty and in widening fields of learning."

2.   THE TIMETABLE

It is not the purpose of the syllabus to prescribe a detailed timetable. Much will depend on the peculiar needs of the school and the background of the pupils. However, the following considerations should be borne in mind:

2.1   There should be due provision in the planning of each aspect of the subject, e.g. listening, speaking, reading and writing

271

2.2   The amount of time allocated to each aspect should be determined by the needs of the class, group or individual. Differences among children and the consequent need for group and individual methods will result in differences in the allocation of time to pupils. All pupils will not need to spend the same amount of time on each aspect or be engaged on the same tasks at the same time.

2.3   Simultaneous activities for the different groups can be planned, e.g. creative writing for one group, individual reading for another.

The work should be planned ahead with due care and to ensure progress. The teaching of the subject must be viewed as an integrated whole.

SPECIFIC POLICY FOR _____ PRIMARY SCHOOL FOR THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH IN THE SENIOR PRIMARY CLASSES.

1.   THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH IS DIVIDED INTO:

    1.1   Listening and speaking activities.
    1.2   Reading activities.
    1.3   Supportive skills.
    1.4   Written work.
    1.5   The scheme is divided into topics. These topics may last two weeks or three weeks, depending on the interest shown by the children. The teacher uses her discretion and never allows the interest of the pupils to flag.

2.   LISTENING AND SPEAKING

    2.1   **Oral Activities**
       First thing each morning, during the language lesson, a few minutes could be set aside to discuss current news.

    2.2   **Television Broadcasts**
       A pupil can be given a specific aspect to prepare, under the following headings:

       2.2.1   International News
       2.2.2   National News
       2.2.3   Sporting News
       2.2.4   Wining and Dining
       2.2.5   Weather Forecast

    2.3   For introducing a theme here are a few activities from which you may choose. Remember that any language, as a subject, is very flexible and these are only a few suggestions:

       2.3.1   Read a story or a poem pertaining to the topic. Discussion ensues with questions carefully drawn up by the teacher.

       2.3.2   Use a picture or an object, e.g. a rubber spider. Allow the children to describe what they are looking at. Supply words which can extend their vocabulary.

2.3.3 Use a commercial with a moral (Newspapers). A concise message must be conveyed about environmental care (littering), health hazards, social behaviour, safety precautions.

2.3.4 An article or newspaper report on a robbery could be read to the class. Provide an opening sentence, e.g. "The clock struck twelve, and silently the door leading to the back yard opened." Get the children to close their eyes and imagine what could happen next. Create an atmosphere of tension.

2.3.5 The pupils use their 5 senses. Introduce similes and in Grade 6 and 7 introduce the other figures of speech in English. e.g. Onomatopoeia – Clip – clopping of feet up the stairs. Personification – The wind stood up and gave a shout. Alliteration – I can hear the scholars singing sweetly and softly under the street lamp. Take the children outside for this lesson and as you motivate them let them write down what they hear.

2.3.6 Suitable music played can create the desired atmosphere. Organise a "Record Jury". Select a panel of four children. These are points to consider:

2.3.6.1 The singer
2.3.6.2 The orchestra
2.3.6.3 The rhythm
2.3.6.4 The time
2.3.6.5 Whether you would tire very quickly of the record.
2.3.6.6 Any feeling or thought it gave you. Sad, joyful, soothing.

2.3.7 Choose a topic which could be integrated with Book Education, e.g. Children of the world. Draw books from the Media Centre. Read extracts from different books. Set questions. Divide the class into groups and each group must report back to the class.

2.3.8 Buy a bottle of "Bubbles". Blow bubbles and while supplying vocabulary you are creating an atmosphere of fun. They watch the colours, sizes, how they drift and then burst. Read a poem on bubbles. The children can write their own poems.

2.3.9 Use characters from history, e.g. explorers.

2.4 Other Oral Activities to be considered

2.4.1 Social Courtesies
Meeting new people. Correct procedure of introducing parents, new pupils and any member of staff who visits your class.

2.4.2 Interviews
Interviewing people about their work and interests. A pupil could interview another pupil. Create a situation. The one could be an old lady from an Old Age Home who has just turned a hundred, or the one could have ridden a donkey from Johannesburg to Pretoria in record time. How did he manage that? At first help the pupils set the questions.

273

2.4.3   Telephonic Conversations
   Two toy telephones could be used. Children are taught to answer correctly.

2.4.4   Instructions
   Write down their favourite recipes. Boarders could use "My Fun Cook Book" from the Media Centre. The boys could use "My Fun to Make Book". How to make a cup of tea.

2.4.5   Demonstrations
   How an experiment is done in Science. How to use a tape recorder. They must have a tape recorder with them.

2.4.6   Complaints
   A diner in a restaurant has found an insect in his soup. Call the steward and lodge a complaint.

2.4.7   Descriptions
   Allow the class to find any objects on the playground. They must keep it a secret. Describe the object without using its name. Mention colour, size, texture and use. The class must try and guess what it is. They begin this way: "In my hand I have an object which is ..."

2.4.8   Directions
   Teach them how to direct a newcomer to the library, administration block, the High School, the different hostels, etc. No hand movements must be allowed.

2.4.9   Announcements
   Use factual announcements before a match is to be played or before an Athletics meeting is held.

2.4.10 Story Telling
   A short account of an interesting book they have read, or an interesting excerpt. This could replace the "The Reading Record" in Book Education.

2.4.11 Story Making
   A short imaginative story is told. They must get the sequence and ending correct.

2.4.12 Playing Games
   I spy a word beginning with 't'. The words must be displayed in the classroom. Write a few topics on paper, fold the paper and place in a box. The leader of the group draws one. They may look at it for a few seconds. The first pupil begins and must speak for half a minute. If there is a hesitation the next one has a turn. Carry on like this, till they have all had a turn. Mark out of 10 and subtract a mark for each hesitation.

2.4.13 Reporting
   Tell the children what a newspaper reporter does. How alert he has to be and how quickly he has to be on the scene of a happening. Cut out several

interesting reports from the newspaper. These are read to the class and later children read them. They can then work out their own reports.

2.4.14 Dramatisation and Miming
Stories or plays. Some could be made up by the pupils themselves. Must be done occasionally.

3. LISTENING ACTIVITIES

Living as we do, against a background of increasing noise, it is important to develop the habit of careful listening in order that we may concentrate on those sounds that are important to us at any particular time. Children must be taught to concentrate and listen discerningly. Games may be played at first.

3.1 One child makes six distinct sounds. The class must then answer the following questions:
3.1.1 What were the first and last sounds?
3.1.2 In what order did the sounds occur?
3.1.3 Which sounds were the loudest or softest?
3.1.4 Apart from these sounds, what else did you hear?

3.2 The teacher could read a list of ten words through twice and then set carefully thought-out questions to test their listening power.

3.3 The class could be taken outside and told to listen intently for three minutes. They are to jot down all the sounds they hear. Again questions are asked.

3.4 **Listening Comprehension**
The teacher reads a carefully chosen extract from a book, twice. Questions are then asked orally. Sometimes the questions may be given to the children on a roneod sheet before the extract is read. They read the questions and while the teacher reads they may jot down a word or two in the space left for the answer. Afterwards they may write the full answer. As an alternative use tape recordings. This is the introduction to note taking.

4. READING ACTIVITIES

The reading programme is divided into:
4.1 Learning to read
4.2 Reading to learn
4.3 Reading for enjoyment
4.4 Group reading

4.1 **Learning to Read**
In this period the skills of understanding and interpretation together with the ancillary skills of phonics, word structure, e.g. root words, prefixes and suffixes, syllabication and the use of dictionaries must be fully developed.

4.2 Reading to Learn

Once a pupil has acquired the skills of reading he will be able to do reference work and extract desired information when it is deemed necessary. The following aspects are taught in these periods:

4.2.1 Developing comprehension and interpretation.

4.2.2 Studying figurative language, e.g. metaphors, similes, personification and alliteration.

4.2.3 Extended interest in words, e.g. antonyms, synonyms, root words, rhyming words and the history of interesting words.

4.2.4 Practising the art of skimming and being able to extract the relevant facts.

4.2.5 Discovering the purpose of varying their reading rate. In order to help the pupils overcome a tendency to read all materials at the same rate, the teacher must provide opportunities for the pupils to read under pressure of time so that he can adapt his rate of reading to the type of matter used and still attain a reasonable level of comprehension. Sometimes the pupils can be asked to quickly locate a word, a date, a phrase or an answer to a question.

4.3 Reading for Enjoyment

4.3.1 The teacher must be acquainted with the literature specifically written for their pupils in order to develop progressively, the pupils' taste for better literature in its various forms namely, fiction, non-fiction, fables, legends, historical literature, Science literature and Science fiction.

4.3.2 Take time for appreciating poetry. Utilise short periods. Perhaps there are five minutes left before dismissal. Read a short poem or let one of the good readers read a poem they like.

MEMORISING POETRY

The drudgery of learning reams of poems no longer exists. After reading and rereading a poem and enjoying it, they may learn two or three verses. Certain poems are only read for enjoyment.

4.3.3 Reading of newspapers and magazines. Short periods should be set aside for the pupils to read the newspapers or a magazine.

4.4 Group Reading

In the beginning of the year the teacher may use graded reading passages to establish reading levels of the pupils.

5. SUPPORTIVE SKILLS

5.1 The following textbooks are available for English:

5.1.1 Comprehensive English Practice – books 2 – 5.

5.1.2 Brighter English – books 1 – 5.

None of these books should be used slavishly and the teaching of factual grammar through a series of different exercises is valueless.

276

Language is most effective if it stems from the needs of the pupils in the respect of their speaking, reading and writing. If, during evaluation, an error keeps recurring, plan a lesson to correct this.

Many exercises done orally will suffice and try as far as possible to have written work done independently, for example when doing subject and predicate, allow the children to supply their own subject to a given predicate or vice-versa rather than underlining one or the other.

When planning a theme, try and correlate the skills to be taught, with the vocabulary needed in the oral part of the theme. If, for example, your theme is on animals teach them collective nouns, masculine and feminine gender and diminutives.

5.2 **Word Skills**

The enrichment of vocabulary is essential to language learning and opportunities for teaching this aspect of the work will arise from their reading and oral lessons.

Word study may include the study of phonic words, structural analysis, spelling, root words, and derivations, syllabication, prefixes and suffixes, rhyming words, homophones, singular and plural nouns, verbs, adjectives, the history and origin of interesting words and the use of the dictionary.

Sometimes a word is overworked and we find a set of words which mean the same. When it is possible, allow the pupils to mime the words, e.g.

Walk: (stagger, shuffle, dawdle, totter, lurch, stride, stroll, saunter, plodding, hobbling)

5.3 **Spelling**

Learning to spell correctly must form the most important sections of word study. Pupils must realise that spelling is not a separate component of a language and therefore can be learnt and then forgotten. The words taught must be used in meaningful written work.

6. <u>WRITTEN WORK</u>

Written work can be divided into three categories, namely:

6.1 Supportive language skills. (This includes spelling and dictation.)
6.2 Practical Writing.
6.3 Creative Writing.

6.1 **Supportive Language Skills**

The teaching of supportive skills has already been discussed. This work must be meticulously controlled.

6.2 **Practical Writing**

This is a controlled, exact form of writing which conforms to specific sets of conditions and which is taught for specific purposes.

Models of written work read in the upper primary classes is often a good way of focussing their attention on the relevant format and writing style.

SOME SUGGESTED PRACTICAL WRITING ACTIVITIES

6.2.1   Letters
Friendly letters must be taught and the letters, written home during letter writing period, must be controlled. The address, salutation and ending must be taught and the addresses must be checked

6.2.2   Invitations, postcards, telegrams, thank-you notes and letters of congratulations.

6.2.3   Directions, descriptions, instructions and explanations. This written activity follows only after sound ground work, in listening and speaking situations, has been done.

6.2.4   Reports
After reading many reports from newspapers, the pupils may write imaginary reports or reports about some events which actually took place.

6.2.5   Newspaper Work
Writing suitable headlines and captions.
Writing news reports and notices.
Writing classified advertisements.
Learning to write a simple editorial.
Organising a newspaper.

6.2.6   Summaries, Note-taking and Records
The pupils could write an account of an experiment in Science, or a description of an event in History, or a description of an area in Geography.

6.2.7   Written Reviews of Books, Films or Television Features
This could be done in the form of a letter to the author in the case of a book review, telling what was liked and was disappointing.

In a television feature, a short descriptive account could be given mentioning:
6.2.7.1 Name of a programme.
6.2.7.2 Date and time seen.
6.2.7.3 Quality of acting.
6.2.7.4 If fiction, a brief outline of the plot and which part the pupil liked best and why.

6.2.8   Application Forms and Questionnaires
It is essential that pupils be taught how to fill in both real and imaginary forms and questionnaires.

When assessing this writing make sure that the pupil has:
6.2.8.1 imparted the correct information, has instructed or described correctly;
6.2.8.2 used concise, clear language;
6.2.8.3 used the correct format.

6.3   CREATIVE WRITING
There are two features of creative writing:

6.3.1   Free writing.

6.3.2   Teacher inspired writing.

6.3.1   Free Writing
This type of writing can be done occasionally as the pupil has to rely on his own store of words which may not be too great. This kind of writing is characterised by spontaneity and the free expression of ideas is more important than the mechanics of writing. The marking should be light so as to encourage spontaneous, enthusiastic and imaginative writing. Remarks must be geared towards encouragement, although at no time must a pupil feel that in this kind of writing he/she can produce unworthy work.

6.3.2   Teacher-Inspired Writing
This writing usually stems from the listening and speaking activities based on the theme. New words are introduced through word skills and the pupils are slowly taught new creative writing skills and techniques.

For further ideas on creative writing activities, refer to the syllabus.

When evaluating this writing, constructive comments concerning the written expression of ideas and language must be made. All written work must be read and assessed but actual marking need only be done in the first paragraph or first couple of sentences.

7.   CODE SYSTEM FOR MARKING

In marking composition (and language) the following symbols may be used to indicate the type of mistake:

//	:	New paragraph
^	:	Word omitted
Sp	:	Spelling
P	:	Punctuation
T	:	Tenses
SC	:	Sentence Construction

8.   SPELLING DEFINITIONS AND RULES

8.1   The vowels are a,e,i,o,u, and sometimes y and w.

8.2   The consonants are the remaining letters.

9.   SHORT VOWEL RULE

If a word (or syllable) has only one vowel and it comes at the beginning or between two consonants, the vowel is usually short: am, is, bag, fox.

10. LONG VOWEL RULE

10.1   If a one part word (or syllable) has two vowels, the first vowel is usually long and the second is silent: rain, kite, cane, jeep.

10.2   If a word (or syllable) has one vowel and it comes at the end of the word (or syllable), the vowel is usually long: we, go, cupid, pony.

11. AN IRREGULAR DOUBLE VOWEL

A double vowel that does not follow Long Vowel Rule 1: school, book, bread, yawn, eight.

12. Y AS A VOWEL RULE

12.1   If y is the only vowel at the end of a one-syllable word, y has the sound of long i: fly, try, by.

12.2   If y is the only vowel at the end of a word of more than one syllable, y has a sound almost like long e: silly, funny, baby.

13. SOFT C AND G RULE

When c and g are followed by e, i, or y, they are usually soft: ice, city, change, gym.

14. TO MAKE A WORD MEAN MORE THAN ONE

14.1   Usually add s, e.g. cats, dogs, kites.

14.2   If a word ends in x, z, ss, sh, or ch, usually add es, e.g. foxes, dresses.

14.3   If a word ends in y preceded by a consonant, change the y to i and add es, e.g. skies, fairies, babies.

15. TO ADD OTHER SUFFIXES

15.1   When a short-vowel word ends in a single consonant, usually double the consonant before adding a suffix that begins with a vowel, e.g. running, hummed, batter.

15.2   When a word ends in silent e, drop the e before adding a suffix that begins with a vowel, e.g. baking, taped, latest.

15.3   When a word ends in y preceded by a consonant, change the y to i before adding a suffix other than ing, e.g. cried, crying, happily, funnier, ponies, trying.

School E

LANGUAGE POLICY

- The medium of instruction for the learners in our school is predominantly English; however Section 29 of SA Constitution also covers other languages.
- Medium of instruction is English for Grade 3 to 7.
- Grade R-2 who are speaking Sepedi (Home language) their language of instruction is Sepedi and for those who are speaking English (Home language) and other languages their language of teaching is English.
- Grade R-2 FAL for learners' speaking Sepedi is English and learners' speaking English or other languages is Afrikaans.
- Other Indigenous language can only be introduces if we meet the minimum requirements of 1:20 in a class.

LANGUAGE POLICY

1. Purpose

1.1. To ensure that learners are not disadvantaged by being forced to learn in a language not spoken or understood by the majority.

1.2. To ensure that the school makes the right language choices to ensure the best possible development of learners in the school.

1.3. T recognize language and cultural diversity

1.4. To promote multi-lingualism.

1.5. To promote non-racialism and facilitate communication across communities irrespective of their colour, language and religion.

1.6. To raise the dignity and status of previously disadvantaged languages.

1.7. To minimize the gap between Home Language and the Language of Learning and Teaching [LOLT].

2. Application and Scope

This policy applies to the entire school; the School Governing Body, the School management, the educators, non-teaching staff and learners.

3. Principles of the Language Policy

3.1. Non-racialism

3.2. Recognition of the right to learn in a language of choice, where this is reasonably and practically possible.

3.3. Non-testing of language ability are allowed for admission

3.4. Multi-lingualism

4. Official Language

4.1. The Language of Learning and Teaching in our school for all Learning Areas will be English from Grade 4 to Grade 7.

4.2. Sepedi will be the Language of Learning and Teaching in the Foundation Phase.

4.3. English will be offered in the Foundation Phase as an Additional Language

4.4. Sepedi will be provided as the school's Home Language.

4.5. English is the choice in terms of the First Additional Language.

5. Aspects of the School's Language Policy

5.1. Spoken Communication

5.1.1. All meetings in the school will be conducted in both the LOLT and other official languages.

5.1.2. All feedback to parents shall be conducted in the LOLT, where possible the Home Language will be used.

5.1.3. Learners will be encouraged to speak in the LOLT at all times, in order to familiarize themselves with the structural aspects of the language.

5.2. Written Communication

All correspondence will be through the medium of English, namely progress reports, time tables, letters, except where it is possible to use the medium of Sepedi.

5.3. Future Plans

In the event that 50 learners within a Grade in the school require to be taught in a language other than the languages currently offered at school, an application shall be made to the Head of Department for the provision of a suitable educator.

6. **Roles and Responsibilities**

6.1. The SGB must adopt and monitor the implementation of the policy and the compliance of this policy to the provisions of the relevant legislations.

6.2. The School Management team must see to the actual implementation of the policy and report to the SGB any challenges or unforeseen events with regards to the implementation thereof.

6.3. Educators will facilitate and guide learners to discover the world of languages, apply the integrated communicative approach to assist learners to develop their communication skills and use the LOLT in class, except when the Home Language is being taught.

6.4. Learners are to commit themselves to a multilingual culture, use every opportunity to improve their proficiency in the LOLT and socialize in the LOLT, without undermining other languages.

7. **Conclusion**

7.1. The school shall, at all times, strive to provide an environment that is conducive to the implementation of the policy.

7.2. LTSM shall be budgeted for and acquired to meet the needs of the school and the implementation of this policy.

7.3. The school shall, at all material times, endevour to recommend the appointment of suitably qualified educators to implement this policy.

Thus adopted and signed at _____ on this _____ day, of the month of _____. _____ 20_____ .

_____

SGB CHAIRPERSON

SGB SECRETARY

_____

PRINCIPAL

SCHOOL STAMP

APPENDIX E: DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS

Observation sheet

Name of school	
School environment	
Grade	
Subject taught/observed	
Language used to teach	
Availability of textbooks/learning material	
Do learners understand the lesson?	
List indicators of understanding	
Language spoken outside the classroom by learners	
Language spoken by learners and teachers in the classroom.	
Language spoken by teachers and other staff outside the classroom.	

Questionnaire for learners

Fill in the spaces provided and tick in the appropriate box:

SECTION A: LEARNER'S PROFILE

Grade:

Grade 5	

Age:

11-12	
13+	

Gender:

Male		Female	

SECTION B: LANGUAGE USE

1.   Which language do you speak at home?

Afrikaans		Sepedi	
English		Sesotho	
IsiNdebele		Setswana	
IsiXhosa		Tshivenda	
IsiZulu		Xitsonga	
SiSwati		Other (specify)	
		Sign Language	

2.   What language do your teachers use when they teach you?

Afrikaans		Sesotho	
English		Setswana	
IsiNdebele		SiSwati	
IsiXhosa		Tshivenda	
IsiZulu		Xitsonga	
Sepedi		Other (specify)	
		Sign Language	

3.   Do you understand the language that the teacher uses in class?

Yes		No	

4.   What language do you want your teachers to use when they teach you?

Afrikaans		Sesotho	
English		Setswana	
IsiNdebele		SiSwati	
IsiXhosa		Tshivenda	
IsiZulu		Xitsonga	
Sepedi		Other (specify)	
		Sign Language	

5.   State why you prefer that language--
----

6.   What language do your teachers use when they speak to you outside the classroom?

Afrikaans		Sesotho	
English		Setswana	
IsiNdebele		SiSwati	
IsiXhosa		Tshivenda	
IsiZulu		Xitsonga	
Sepedi		Other (specify)	
		Sign Language	

7.   Do you understand the language that the teacher speaks with you outside the classroom?

Yes		No	

8. What language do you use to write tasks?

Afrikaans		Sesotho	
English		Setswana	
IsiNdebele		SiSwati	
IsiXhosa		Tshivenda	
IsiZulu		Xitsonga	
Sepedi		Other (specify)	
		Sign Language	

Questionnaire for the principal

Fill in the spaces provided or tick where possible

SECTION A: PRINCIPAL'S PROFILE

Type of school:

Ex-DET	
Ex-Model C	
Ex-HOD	
New school	

Enrolment:--

SECTION B: LANGUAGE USE

1.   How many learners in each grade speak the following as home language?

Language	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6	Grade 7
Afrikaans							
English							
IsiNdebele							
IsiXhosa							
IsiZulu							
Sepedi							
Sesotho							
Setswana							
SiSwati							
Tshivenda							
Xitsonga							
Sign Language							
Other							

2.   What is/are language(s) of learning and teaching (LoLT) per grade?

LoLT	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6	Grade 7
Afrikaans							
English							
Sepedi							
Sesotho							
Setswana							
Tshivenda							
Xitsonga							
IsiNdebele							
IsiXhosa							
IsiZulu							
SiSwati							
Sign Language							
Other							

3.   Indicate the preferred LoLT for learners by grade

LoLT	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6	Grade 7
Afrikaans							
English							
Sepedi							
Sesotho							
Setswana							
Tshivenda							
Xitsonga							
IsiNdebele							
IsiXhosa							
IsiZulu							

SiSwati							
Sign Language							
Other							

4. How many teaching staff has the following as home or first language?

Afrikaans		English	
IsiNdebele		Sesotho	
IsiXhosa		Setswana	
IsiZulu		Tshivenda	
SiSwati		Xitsonga	
Sepedi		Other (Specify)	
Sign Language			

5. Which languages are taught as subjects? Please specify grade and level.

Language	Grade (e.g. 5&6)	Level(e.g. HL, F AL, SAL)
Afrikaans		
English		
IsiNdebele		
IsiXhosa		
IsiZulu		
Sepedi		
Sesotho		
Setswana		
SiSwati		
Tshivenda		
Xitsonga		
Sign Language		
Other		

Questionnaire for departmental officials

Fill in the spaces provided or tick where possible

SECTION A: CIRCUIT PROFILE

1.   Name of circuit:---
2.   Types and number of primary schools in the circuit:

Ex-DET	
Ex-Model C	
Ex-HOD	
New school	

3.   How many schools teach in the following languages?

Language	Number
Afrikaans	
English	
IsiNdebele	
IsiXhosa	
IsiZulu	
Sepedi	
Sesotho	
Setswana	
SiSwati	
Tshivenda	
Xitsonga	
Sign Language	
Other	

4.   How many schools offer the following languages as subjects:

Language	Number
Afrikaans	

English	
IsiNdebele	
IsiXhosa	
IsiZulu	
Sepedi	
Sesotho	
Setswana	
SiSwati	
Tshivenda	
Xitsonga	
Sign Language	
Other	

5.　　　What LoLT do you prefer?

Language	
Afrikaans	
English	
IsiNdebele	
IsiXhosa	
IsiZulu	
Sepedi	
Sesotho	
Setswana	
SiSwati	
Tshivenda	
Xitsonga	
Sign Language	
Other	

Why? ---

QUESTIONS FOR THE DEPARTMENTAL OFFICIAL

1. How do you implement and experience multilingual teaching and the new LiEP.
2. Do the schools have language policies?
3. Who formulated language policies at schools?
4. What LoLT(s) do parents prefer?
5. What is their view about the current language situation?
6. How do you ensure that parents know about the new LiEP and their rights?
7. What is your view concerning the new language policy?

QUESTIONS FOR TEACHERS

1. Do you have a language policy at your school?
2. What does your school language policy say concerning LoLT?
3. Who formulated your school language policy?
4. Is/are LoLT(s) home language of learners?
5. Are learners experiencing problems regarding LoLT?
6. If yes, what kind of problems?
7. Do you have any programme to help learners with difficulties in LoLT?
8. If yes, what kind of programmes do you have?
9. Is there enough learning material in the LoLT?
10. Are there enough teachers to teach in the LoLT?
11. How do you experience learning and teaching in the LoLT?

QUESTIONS FOR PARENTS

1. Do you have a language policy?
2. What is your schools' LoLT? What is the language used by the teachers when teaching?
3. What LoLT do you prefer?
4. Who formulated the school language policy? How is the language policy formulated?
5. Are there any problems with LoLT? If yes, what are they?
6. What is language situation at your school? Is learning taking place?

   [Translated interview schedule for parents]

1. Ekaba go na le molawana wa tirišo ya maleme/polelo sekelong sa geno?
2. Bana ba lena ba rutwa ka leleme goba maleme afe?
3. Wena o rata ge ngwana wa gago a ka rutwa ka leleme lefe? Ke ka lebaka la eng o rata ngwana wa gago a ka rutwa ka lona leleme leo?
4. Ke bomang bao ba thadilego lenaneo goba wona molawana woo wa tirišo ya maleme sekolong sa geno?
5. A go na le bothata mabapi le tirišo ya leleme leo le dirišwago go ruta bana gabjale sekolong sa geno? Ge a le gona, ke a fe? Re tsopolele!
6. Maemo a tirišo ya maleme a bjang ka kakaretšo? A ekaba bana ba a rutega?

QUESTIONS FOR THE PRINCIPAL

1. Do you have a school language policy?
2. What is LoLT according to the school language policy?
3. Who formulated the school language policy?
4. Do learners experience learning problems?
5. If yes, what kind of problems do they experience?
6. Do you have any programme to help those with difficulties?
7. If yes, what kind of programmes do you have?
8. Do you have enough learning material in LoLT?
9. Do you have enough resources/teachers to teach in the LoLT?
10. How do you experience learning and teaching in LoLT?