CURRICULUM OUTCOMES, TEACHING PRACTICES AND LEARNER COMPETENCIES IN ISIXHOSA IN THREE GRAHAMSTOWN SCHOOLS

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By

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DECLARATION

I, the undersigned hereby declare that this thesis is my original work and has not in its entirely or in part, been submitted at any other university for a degree.

SIGNED:　　　………………………

DATE:　　　**January 2014**

ABSTRACT

This study looks at the curriculum outcomes, teaching practices and learner competencies in isiXhosa at three Eastern Cape schools and across three different grades, 7-9. It explores the link between language learning and teaching as well as the teaching strategies used within the classroom. In particular, the study seeks to analyse how isiXhosa is taught at three different levels of instruction, namely at Home Language (HL), First Additional Language (FAL) and Second Additional Language (SAL) levels. Qualitative methods were used, and the study took the form of interpretive case studies within the respective schools.

The purpose of using multiple case studies was to investigate the reality within the three sites selected. The three schools had three extreme settings, in the sense that one of the schools is a rich isiXhosa environment and the other two schools are English environments. The tools used for data gathering were interviews, classroom observations, and an analysis of documents from the Department of Basic Education. Data was then presented and analysed in Chapter 4 and 5 against the backdrop of an extensive literature review in Chapter 2 as well as a detailed methodological approach as outlined in Chapter 3.

One of the findings of this research indicates that in two of the schools the teaching culture is largely from a western perspective, whereas in one of the schools the learners are primarily isiXhosa speaking and teachers use a different linguistic approach to imparting knowledge. In the private and ex-Model C school it was found that a lack of exposure to isiXhosa is the primary cause of language problems for L2 learners. Secondly the L1 is not appropriately maintained or promoted in the school environment because it is presumed that learners are sufficiently exposed to their L1 at home. The research found therefore that in this particular schooling environment there is an inconsistency between the curricula that is taught in relation to the linguistic abilities of the learners, many of whom are mother tongue speakers of isiXhosa.

Furthermore and more generally, it was found that teachers are still not well informed concerning South Africa's Language-in-Education-Policy and there is a need for more in-service training that will focus on the nature of additional language acquisition in order to address the challenges of teaching these languages. The thesis concludes that extensive work needs to be done in order to reposition the teaching of isiXhosa at all three levels, but

particularly at FAL level. This research shows that there is a disjuncture between the proposed curriculum/learning outcomes and the standards or levels achieved by the learners, more especially at FAL and SAL where oral proficiency in isiXhosa remains a challenge. Specific recommendations are contained in the final chapter of the thesis which also makes reference to the draft policy of the Ministry of Basic Education regarding the incremental introduction of the teaching of African languages from 2014 onwards. This thesis also makes takes as a point of departure the importance of multilingualism in a multicultural society such as South Africa where language is suggested as a strong factor in the fostering of social cohesion. It is for this reason that the thesis argues that the expert teaching of African languages, in this case isiXhosa, at both mother tongue and second language levels is of fundamental importance to the future of South African society.

Acknowledgements

List of acronyms and abbreviations

BICS: Basic interpersonal communication skills

CALP: Cognitive Academic Language proficiency

CAPS: Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement

FLA: First Language Acquisition

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

LAD: Language Acquisition Device

CUP: Common Underlying   Proficiency

DET: Department of Education and Training

LiEP: Language-in-education policy

DoE: Department of Education

OBE: Outcomes Based Education

L1:   First Language

L2:   Second Language

MT: Mother Tongue

LoLT: Language of Learning and Teaching

TL: Target Language

ZPD: Zone of Proximal development

NCS: National Curriculum Statement

HL: Home Language

LO: Learning outcome

FAL: First Additional Language

SAL: Second Additional Language

LTSM: Learning teaching support materials

MTBBE: Mother tongue-based-bilingual-education

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Chapter 1
Introducing the Study

1.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the background and setting of this research. It further describes how the study arose and my personal interest in the field of teaching and learning of isiXhosa in three selected Grahamstown schools. From this point of departure, the research goals and questions emerged. The chapter goes on to introduce the reader to the context of the study areas and the background to the research is set out. The chapter briefly describes the range of research methods and approaches used in this study. An overview of the thesis is provided and a breakdown of the chapters is presented.

1.2 Motivation for the study

The original idea and hypothesis for this study developed from certain findings in my Masters dissertation, which acts as a spring-board study for this research. That study was conducted in two different Grahamstown schools and investigated language policy and practice. Initially observations were made in the classrooms concerning two languages, namely isiXhosa and Afrikaans. This Master's thesis is relevant in that there were major findings of non-adherence to the language policy by the teachers on the ground. It is this issue that this research will explore in more detail to ascertain whether the teacher practices were in line with the curriculum outcome in the senior phase of learning and teaching of isiXhosa as a subject.

The surrounding community and society profoundly influences teachers and schools and often the attitudes that a society have are reflected in the school environment. This type of research is undeniably necessary but bi/multilingualism that is being promoted by our Constitution is not entirely dependent on the individual, there are many contributing factors, one of which is the type of language education they receive, isiXhosa in this case. To a large extent this depends on the learners' and teachers. Few studies actually take the teachers vital role into account. I feel that this is a gap in the body of knowledge and ultimately, I want my research to respond to that gap.

Thus my study intends to explore the value, status and the position of isiXhosa in this new dispensation within the South African context. Lastly I have always had a passion for languages

and that has made me to study further for a PhD degree. I would like to see this passion being passed on to the future generations of this country.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

This research is predominantly located within the area of applied linguistics as it looks at issues that have an impact on how isiXhosa is acquired and taught in an educational setting. Language has always been a contentious issue in South Africa. My research is set in the context of historical, political, educational and social realities of language policy and planning in South Africa, especially the language-in-education policy. Language plays a crucial role in learning as it is through language that children develop ideas or concepts of the world around them. Language thus shapes our identity, Cummins (2005:5). Learning outcomes constitute the core of the recent curricular documents that have been developed in South Africa. A learning outcome is a description of what learners should know, and be able to do at the end of specific grade(s). Learning outcomes specify the conceptual understanding embodied in a learning area (isiXhosa in this case), and may in edition specify skills, content, and/or values. (National Curriculum Statement Grades R-9, 2001:12) For the languages learning area, six learning outcomes have been outlined. These are:

- Learning outcome 1: Listening

- Learning outcome 2: Speaking

- Learning outcome 3: Reading and viewing

- Learning outcome 4: Writing

- Learning outcome 5: Thinking and Reasoning

- Learning outcome 6: Language structure and Use

This study will be focusing on the first five learning outcomes as indicated above. These outcomes may be considered central as far as language learning is concerned and they provide the basis for evaluation of language competencies.

The South African language-in-education policy requires that the learner's home language is maintained and developed, as well as the learning of additional languages for the purposes of multilingualism. Hence a distinction is made between learning a language as a Home Language

(HL), First Additional Language (FAL), and Second Additional Language (SAL). Yet because the various official languages of South Africa have unequal functional status, the implementation of the language-in-education policy seems to fall short with regard to the teaching and learning of African languages. The competencies required from learners of African languages, HL learners, FAL learners, SAL learners are way below the ideals of promoting additive bi/multilingualism in South Africa and the language pedagogy in the schools is considered to be responsible for this. It is in the light of this hypothesis that this PhD focussed on the teaching of isiXhosa as a subject in three Grahamstown schools.

A substantial body of research exists in the area of education and language studies that inform the study. For example, Cummins (2001) and Macdonald (1996) demonstrate that children develop higher levels of proficiency in additional languages when they are literate in their home language. I explored and gained an understanding of how the chosen schools implemented the language-in-education policy with regard to learning isiXhosa at different levels. Among other aspects, my focus was on the following:

- How isiXhosa lessons were structured?
- What similarities and differences were observed between different teachers and how these were accounted for?
- What kind of books and resources were used?
- I also looked at the learners output per grade per class.

This study was conducted within the OBE framework from 2011-2013. With regard to language, there have been changes resulting from the corresponding changes in the curriculum from the previous Apartheid Bantu Education system supported by the Department of Education and Training (DET) to the Outcomes-Based-Education. From my experience there are teachers who are still finding it difficult to integrate teaching, learning and assessment within the new system. This is primarily a result of lack of clarity and confidence surrounding the curriculum and assessment policies, more specifically the alignment of assessment methods to learning activities and learners competencies. Inside the classroom the approaches to language teaching were text-based and communicative. With regard to what the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) states regarding languages and isiXhosa in particular, the language is given seven hours of teaching per week and it gives a quota of 25% of isiXhosa as

a subject of learning and teaching. The pedagogy used in the teaching of isiXhosa in schools in the senior phase (Grades 7-9) is the main point of focus in this study.

In this thesis the learner–competencies were assessed through evaluation of written and oral texts; depending on whether the outcomes were relevant for HL, FAL, and SAL classes. In the past, language was taught in isolation with different syllabuses and methodologies for first, second and third languages. (Murray and Van der Mescht, 1996) The new curriculum took account of all these concerns and there were no longer separate syllabuses with the new curriculum.

I used a language learning theory throughout this study that served as a lens. This theory was developed by Cummins (2000, 2001) and (Cummins and Swain, 1986) and it highlights two important categories of language competency for learning. Firstly, Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS), which amounts to every day learning and is context embedded. Secondly, there, is the Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP). This is defined as the basis for a child to cope with the academic demands placed upon him/her in various subjects. Without CALP teachers will not be able to explain concepts clearly and this can affect the isiXhosa acquisition and understanding. (Cummins 2000) I concentrated on BICS, as it is directly related to language acquisition. (Shrun and Glisan, 2001; Gleason, 1987:87) In support of the importance of language competence in interaction, Bohannon and Warren-Leubeker (1989:168) believe that what children know about language (competency) can be measured through what they say and understand (performance) within the context of interaction. I think the Cummins (2000, 2001) and Cummins & Swain (1986) theory links perfectly with my study as the main focus was on curriculum outcome and the learner competencies in isiXhosa as a subject of learning and teaching.

Since the conception of the 1994 democracy eleven indigenous languages including English and Afrikaans have been granted official status. Furthermore since the demise of apartheid, schools have become increasingly racially integrated and teaching staff thus linguistically and culturally more diverse. These social changes have created challenges for the teachers including the need for isiXhosa proficiency that is adequate for the teaching process. This is also a challenge to the learners as some of them do not speak isiXhosa at all. Two of the schools to be investigated, School B which was an ex-model C school and school C that was an Independent school presented a multilingual profile. One school that was an ex-DET presented a homogeneous profile. As cited by Cleghorn, Merit and Abagi (1989); Cleghorn, (1992);

Evans (2006) and Evans (2007), language is the thread that ties teacher, text, activity, use of space, and learner together in the overall process of meaning-making.

The broader social context that frames this dissertation deserves consideration when attempting to address questions that pertain to education. South African society forms the backdrop to this research and is a very multilingual and multicultural society with language being a sensitive and volatile issue which is hotly debated in numerous spheres of influence such as politics, education, and society.

1.4 Background to the research

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996) acknowledges the diversity found in this country. In line with the Constitution, the Language-in-education policy (1997), aims at uniting and building a non-racial South Africa by recognising linguistic and cultural diversity. It is disappointing to note that, despite all the efforts that have been made to accommodate linguistic diversity, some languages are still not on par with the ex-colonial languages (English and Afrikaans) particularly in education.

The problem lies with the actual implementation of the new policies on the ground (to be discussed in Chapters 5 and 6). African languages are still regarded and associated with poverty and people who are illiterate. (Dalvit 2004). This is a common fact, as the reality is that English still remains a dominant language of education. During the apartheid regime Afrikaans and English were the only languages of power and mobility. IsiXhosa mother-tongue instruction is still not perceived as a valuable asset by the African people, who still see English as the language that is appropriate for the education of their children. Kamwangamalu (2004:243-244)

There is a vital need to develop African languages, by making them languages of economic and political life. Financial constraints are always cited as being the impediment in the implementation of mother-tongue education in an African language, particularly the compilation of learner-support material and other educational facilities. The language issue has and still is a contentious issue in South Africa. Eastman (1992:96) defines language planning as "…the effort in a socio-political situation to solve language problems, preferably on a long term basis, by heeding the process of social change." Language policy has been a critical aspect of the political mosaic in South Africa. For example, the 1976 protests against the Bantu education system led to the Soweto uprising and arguably, the beginning of the demise of

apartheid. This was driven by learners rejecting the use of Afrikaans as the medium of instruction in historically black schools. Hartshorne (1995:312-316)

When our democracy came into being in 1994, all indigenous languages were recognised as equal in the new Constitution. The language clause (Section 6 of the Constitution) is also completed by the Bill of Rights, which recognises language as a basic human right and stipulates that "everyone has the right to receive education in the official language or languages of their choice." (South African Constitution Act 108 of 1996:14) This allows for the implementation of a language policy in the education system that meets the needs of the learners. The question that needs to be answered is: How effective is the implementation of the Language-Policy-in-Education at the senior phase?

The language policy in the Constitution is flexible, in that it allows for the use of all nine indigenous languages as official languages, along English and Afrikaans. As mentioned earlier on this study will focus on the teaching of isiXhosa as a subject in three Grahamstown schools. In the Former Model-C school and an Independent school that were under discussion for this study a priori observations indicated that code switching and mixing different languages, to be discussed in detail later on in the chapters to follow, was used frequently by teachers in different grades (grades 7-9) to assist learners in understanding concepts in isiXhosa while the language of assessment is English.

Research relating to the use of English in schools has been undertaken by scholars such as De Klerk (2000), who explores language shift in Grahamstown, as well as more recently by Dalvit, Murray and Terzoli (2009) who attempt to deconstruct what they term "language myths" concerning the language of learning and teaching (LoLT) in South Africa. Aziakpono (2008) explores the attitudes of isiXhosa speakers to being taught in their mother-tongue. What makes my research unique is that I observe and compare three schools with different extreme settings; where isiXhosa was taught in three different levels as already indicated earlier on. These three schools that were selected were a true reflection of the significant differences in terms of the profile and socio-economic backgrounds of the learners in contemporary South Africa.

Traditionally schools B and C were English medium schools where no isiXhosa was offered before 1994. That therefore motivated me to undertake this study as a result of experience gained as a teacher at school A. This experience has led to a realisation that there was a discrepancy between the schools education policy documentation and the actual practices at the schools in terms of teaching and learning.

Documents from the Department of Education (D0E 1997) emphasised that isiXhosa particularly in the Eastern Cape is to be taught either as mother-tongue or as an additional tongue in the senior phase. One would ask why isiXhosa; and the answer would be that isiXhosa is a widely spoken language of the Eastern Cape. Informal observations have, however shown that contrary to policy requirements, day-to-day activities were not always aligned to these requirements at the three schools that I investigated.

The learner normally brings only one language to the classroom, and it is a challenge for them to be taught in an additional language such as isiXhosa (which was the situation at schools B and C) where some were not mother-tongue speakers of the isiXhosa language. By encouraging the use of isiXhosa in the senior phase and beyond, at schools such as school A, it was intended that isiXhosa language will be enriched through terminology development and publication of teaching material, while learners are provided with a solid cognitive base.

1.5 Objectives and goals of the study

This study was based in the senior phase of learning and teaching (Grades 7-9) where isiXhosa is being offered at three different levels:

- Home Language (HL)

- First Additional Language (FAL)

- Second Additional Language (SAL)

The assessment standards are different in the home and the additional languages.

The main research question for this study was as follows: Are the classroom practices aligned to the curriculum in the teaching of isiXhosa in the senior phase within the chosen three schools? In other words, what is the relationship between curriculum outcomes and the learner competencies in the chosen schools? In order to answer these questions the study focussed on the following objectives:

- Interpreting the chosen learning outcome/ s in the language learning area

- Exploring the teaching practises in the selected schools with particular reference to isiXhosa in the senior phase

- Providing a critique of the resources for the teaching isiXhosa as HL, FAL, and SAL

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- Evaluating the learner competencies in isiXhosa in relation to the learning outcomes

1.6 Research methods

This research is qualitative in approach. This means that data was collected initially from the Department of Education documents. Three different Grahamstown schools were investigated in terms of their language policies and the impact of these policies on teaching and learning. Purposive and convenience sampling was used to draw participants into the study.

Data was collected through document analysis and interviews. Documents included government policies (as listed in the bibliography). Selected written work of learners from the isiXhosa classes was analysed, and complemented by observations which were conducted to observe language use in the classroom (isiXhosa).Three senior phase classes per school were investigated and observed over a three year period (2011-2013).

The research was conducted using semi-standardised interviews, as this structure is the most appropriate method to use, due to its flexibility (see Chapters 3 and 4).The interviews were conducted primarily with language teachers. The major focus was on the teacher's practises on how they conducted their isiXhosa lessons. The interviews underwent a thematic analysis to draw out themes and trends from the data gathered. The interviews with teachers as well as the classroom observations and the analysis of documentation (DoE documentation), form the main focus of the thesis in the chapters to follow, particularly Chapters 4 and 5.

I am aware of the ethical considerations that should support such a study, and I therefore guaranteed the confidentiality of participants and ensured them that they would remain anonymous. The reason for carrying out this research was explained to the interviewees. The potential future benefit, in terms of assisting children with conceptualisation and cognition of teaching material, was outlined. The researcher ensured that participants read and signed a consent form and made sure that they fully understood the objectives of the research (see Appendix A).

1.7 Rationale

In post-1994 South Africa, educationists, language professionals and politicians talk positively about linguistic diversity and how to accommodate it (see Lafon, 2008; Mda, 2004; Owen-Smith, 2011; Pandor, 2004; Webb, 2004). In the educational domain, linguistic diversity in the South African context can be seen from a macro perspective (that is how linguistic diversity

operates in the educational domain in South Africa as a whole) and from a macro perspective (that is how linguistic diversity manifests itself in a single class or school).

There is a world of difference between those who are learning an additional language voluntarily to expand their linguistic repertoire, and those who are learning an additional language in order to gain access to education and to participate in the wider society. One can further sub-divide the latter group into those who are learning that additional language, immersed in it (such as immigrant children in the United States of America) and those who are having to learn that language in an environment where it is not often used (such as schools B and C as already mentioned.

The Department of Education's Language-in-Education-Policy Document of July 1997 proclaims that schools, through their governing bodies, can choose any of the official languages as the language of learning and teaching (LoLT), within the bounds of practicability. A closer examination of the language policy in practice reveals that the situation in South Africa is no different from the typical post-colonial situation, whether in Africa or elsewhere. African languages continue to be used in limited domains (see Deumert et al, 2005; Mazrui and Mazrui, 1998).This is clearly visible in the education domain more than any other domain. It is disappointing to note that in our democracy Black/African children are doing isiXhosa as a second language as opposed to the home language. This puts them at a disadvantage as they speak isiXhosa at their homes, yet they cannot read and write it proficiently. This results in a frustration for both learners and parents and clearly indicates that there is a disjuncture between policy and practice. (Mbude-Shale, 2013) Children of other races are opting for Afrikaans instead of isiXhosa, even though isiXhosa is the most spoken language of the Eastern Cape. In order to improve on existing practice, this disjuncture between professed attitudes and teacher practices has to be addressed.

1.8 Research design and methodology

The schools that were investigated offered different profiles; one school was having a heterogeneous class and the other two schools offered more multiracial settings. The schools that were investigated were Schools A, B and C. They had been selected primarily as they respectively teach isiXhosa as a HL, FAL, and SAL. The schools also offered significantly diverse situations in terms of the profile and socio-economic backgrounds of learners.

This research was conducted within the interpretive paradigm and followed a qualitative mode since it was concerned with teacher practises and learner competencies. I chose to use a multiple case study approach as I wanted to conduct a comparative study. Furthermore the design was a multiple and explanatory case study. (Yin, 1994) It was multiple as it focused on multiple cases, namely three schools, and it is descriptive because it describes the classroom context in detail and it was explanatory because it does attempt to answer how and why certain language practices took place. I have chosen these three schools as they were arguably representative of the schooling system in South Africa. I used convenience sampling to select these schools. I am a teacher based in Grahamstown and gaining entry into those schools was relatively easy. The schools were also within proximity to where I live and that ensured that I interacted with the participants more frequently. I worked closely with the isiXhosa language teachers in all the three schools. I looked at one class per school per grade in each of the language levels in each school. I also liaised with the isiXhosa teachers to assist me to identify learners who were spontaneously showing an interest in isiXhosa.

Purposive sampling was used to draw participants (learners and teachers) into the study. I used grade 7 as a baseline and observed grade 8 to see what was happening at the end of the phase that was grade 9. Initially in grade 7 I assessed what the learners already know from the intermediate phase (Grades 4-6) and built towards grade 9. I then adopted a layered approach to data generation and analysis. Documents such as DoE policy documents, curriculum statements, learner's work, lesson plans and resources like learner teacher support material (LTSM) were used to collect data. I analysed the learner's written work using Cummins literacy areas of language such as spelling, accuracy complexity, and lexical use in pupil's performance. Furthermore I took a sample of their workbooks so that it was evident that the assessment was accountable. With regards to reading, learners were given a comprehension task and were asked questions based on the reading text. The lesson plans by teachers and the activities used were measured against the curriculum outcomes. These methodological underpinnings are used to support the data analysis in Chapters 4 and 5.

I conducted interviews with the isiXhosa language teachers of the three schools. The interview process was an especially effective method of collecting information for certain types of assumptions. (Berg, 1989:97) Semi-standardized interviews were used in this study as this structure was the most appropriate method, due to its flexibility. All interviews were recorded and transcribed. These underwent a thematic analysis to draw out themes and trends from the data gathered. Data was processed in order to pull together findings in my study and to link

them with my research questions, aims, objectives and relevant theory. (O'Leary, 2004) Anonymity was maintained throughout this research and at no point were the names of the participants or any of the learners divulged. Limitations of this study were discussed further in the last chapter of this study, that is in the findings and future recommendations chapter.

1.9 Organization of the study

This thesis is divided into six chapters as follows:

This section in chapter 1 of the thesis provides the reader with a broad introduction to the research as a whole and highlights some of the main threads that run through it. The first chapter sketches the background to the study, it also states what the aims and objectives have been, and it outlined the significance of the studying in terms of isiXhosa as the subject of learning and teaching in the senior phase (that is from Grades 7-9). The chapter furthermore provides a summary of the methodology used for data collection. It also outlined the goals and context of the research.

A literature review is undertaken in Chapter 2 of the thesis. The chapter begins by describing the linguistic complexity of South Africa. This chapter further discussed theories of language acquisition, language policies and OBE in general. It also sketched briefly the demographics of the languages found in South Africa.

Chapter 3 describes the research design and methodological framework employed. It describes the sampling, data collection methods and data analysis. It discusses ethical and validity issues as well as limitations of the study.

Chapter 4 presents the data that was collected using document analysis, interviews, lesson observations as well as stimulated recall discussions of the lessons observed.

Chapter 5 analyses data generated through the use of the research tools. It discusses the research findings and draws on Chapter 2 by arguing within the framework of the literature reviewed.

Chapter 6 is the concluding chapter, the reflective heart of the study. It draws the main threads together by creating an overview of the key findings of the study, making some tentative recommendations about some of the issues that need to be addressed in the light of the study, reflections on the research process, as well as listing the limitations of the study.

1.10 Conclusion

This chapter served to give an introduction to the research problem at hand. It provides the background of this study, as well as the objectives for this study. Data collection methods were outlined, and the significance of this research was commented on. With regard to the significance of the research it is also highlighted in this chapter that the three schools that are used in order to collect empirical data for this study represent a microcosm of the schooling system in present-day South Africa. Finally, the organization of this study is provided so as to offer an overview of the study. The chapter that follows presents the literature review that underpins this study.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

2. Introduction

This chapter reviews the literature that shaped and informed my research. It provides an important foundation and framework for my study. This study draws from language-in-education studies that point to teaching approaches that are suitable for groups of learners, children who have little or no contact with isiXhosa in the home community and children who have arrived as immigrants (Genessee, 1999; Bunyi, 1999; Stroud, 2002; Cleghorn, 2008; Cummins, 2003b; Benson 2004).

The chapter will begin with a historical and social overview of OBE in general as represented in Curriculum 2005 and the NCS in South Africa in particular. IsiXhosa as a subject for teaching and learning will be discussed together with its position and rationale within the National Curriculum Statement (NCS). In this statement it claimed to present an alternative educational system to redress the inequalities of the past, which seeks to promote racial equity in schools. A discussion of language policies in South Africa will follow with emphasis falling on policies affecting languages studied and used in school. Attention will also be given to theories of language learning in classrooms and their application within an OBE/NCS framework.

The role of the teacher and learner in the teaching and learning of isiXhosa as the main language and as additional language will be fully outlined. Finally the classroom as a learning environment will then be discussed. The new changes within the education system in South Africa have created new challenges for teachers, one being the need for African languages (isiXhosa) proficiency that is adequate for teaching purposes. Teachers are assumed to be able to appropriately explain, describe and discuss key concepts in the particular learning area. The study explores an understanding of how to teach in isiXhosa as Home language and as first additional language and as second language as stipulated in the OBE/NCS curriculum in the senior phase (Grades 7-9) of learning and teaching.

I examine the learners speaking, listening, reading, writing, thinking and reasoning skills or competences, these were examined as outcomes of the learning process. The teaching practices by different isiXhosa teachers were also examined. Curriculum guidelines encourage the physical and intellectual development of the child as providing opportunities for language development through the already mentioned learning outcomes. Children should also be

assisted in their emergent literacy as well as respecting the child's mother tongue, Department of Education (1996:3). For a learner to know a language he/she has to achieve a specific level within the five types of competences (outlined in the documentation) in that language (isiXhosa).

The study explores teachers understanding of how to teach isiXhosa in the senior phase (Grades 7-9). At this level the learners i.e. Home Language (HL), First Additional Language (FAL) is expected to read and write fluently. Graves, Juel and Graves (2007:172) contend that at this stage learners have already moved from decoding and they are now processing texts. In this phase (Grades 7-9) the learners are consolidating what they have learnt in the earlier grades, that is the Foundation and the Intermediate phases and preparing for further education and the world of work. They need to use language for public, formal, and educational purposes. The focus on this phase is on consolidating and extension of language and literacy by the end of Grade 9. This study seeks to investigate if the teacher practises are in line with the curriculum outcomes.

2.1 A brief linguistic demography of South Africa

According to the 2011 census South Africa has a population of 50 961 443 people within four main population groups see the table below:

Table 1: Distribution of the population by first language spoken (percentage) Census 2011
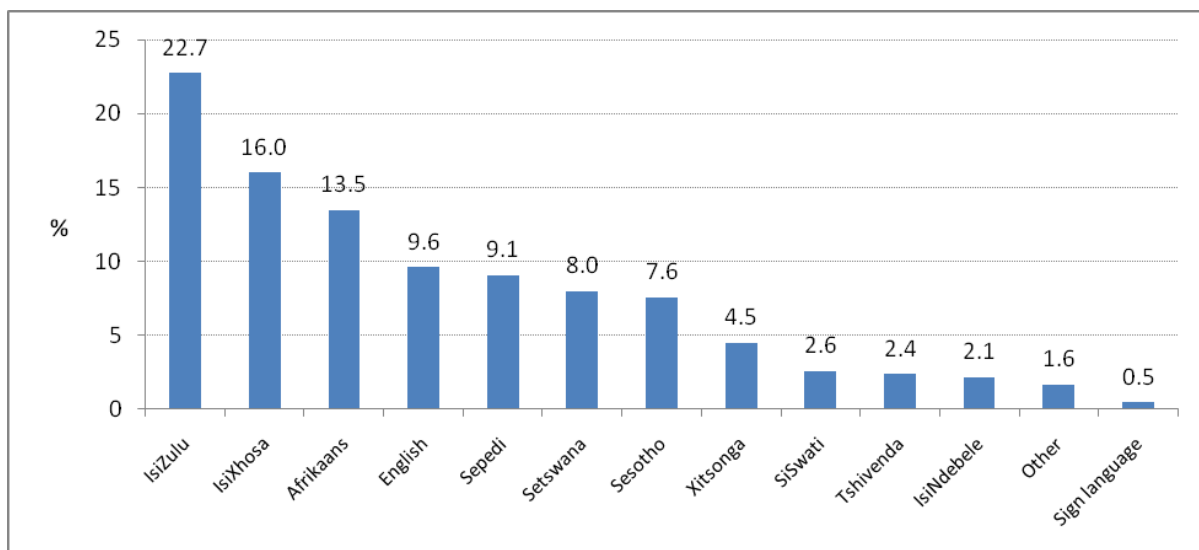
South Africa is home to a large number of languages with the highest percent being spoken by Black African people, eleven of which are official: English, IsiNdebele, IsiXhosa, Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, SiSwati, Tshivenda, and Xitsonga (Census 2011). In addition to the official languages, it is suggested that approximately seventy additional languages are used in the country, including Khoe and San languages, other Bantu languages, European, Eurasian, and Sign languages. (Webb 2002) However the speakers of the eleven official languages do account for 99% of South Africa's total population. (Webb 2002:67-68). According to the 2001 census, speaker statistics by home language for the eleven official languages are as follows:

Table 2: Speaker statistics by home language

Language	Percentage
IsiZulu	**23.8%**
IsiXhosa	**17.6%**
Afrikaans	**13.3%**
Sepedi	**9.4%**
English	**8.2%**
Setswana	**8.2%**
Sesotho	**7.9 %**
Xitsonga	**4.4 %**
SiSwati	**2.7 %**
Tshivenda	**2.3 %**
IsiNdebele	**1.6 %**

With regards to the Eastern Cape, the province in which this study was conducted, the situation is somewhat simpler with the four official languages being prominent, namely IsiXhosa, Sesotho, English, and Afrikaans. IsiXhosa accounts for more than 70% of the population of the Eastern Cape and Afrikaans and English accounts for approximately 20%. It is clear from the

above statistics that South Africa is linguistically a very complex country and it is this complexity that acts as a backdrop to my literature review.

Most of the languages in South Africa belong to the Bantu language group which can be further divided into clusters with more or less similar morphological and phonological features, and hence with varying degrees of mutual intelligibility. The isiXhosa which is the main focal point of this study falls under the Nguni sub-group.

South African history is riddled with issues of power, prejudice, discrimination, marginalization, and subordination, which are all causes of language decline and language death. (Baker 2001) While South Africa undoubtedly has an extremely enlightened and forward-looking language policy that recognises all the eleven languages, recent studies show that since the policy was announced in 1994, linguistic equity has not yet been achieved. (Boweman, 2000; de Klerk and Barkhuizen, 2000 and 2001) It is these issues that need to be considered if we are to ensure the survival of all the South African official languages, including isiXhosa. Linguistic diversity in a country like South Africa is achieved through a thorough understanding of how bilingualism and multilingualism function and can be achieved through language planning and policies, particularly in the education system. The next section will focus on multilingualism and bilingualism.

2.2 Symbolism in Multilingualism

In post-1994 South Africa, educationists, language professionals and politicians talk positively about linguistic diversity and how to accommodate it (see Lafon, 2008; Mda, 2004; Owen-Smith, 2011; Pandor, 2004; Webb 2004). In the educational domain linguistic diversity in South African context can be seen from a macro perspective as indicated in chapter 1. To me as an educator and researcher, multilingualism has two meanings:

- Where different language backgrounds are found among learners in one class.

- Where learners in a single class are taught in more than one language (Desai 2003:45).

Another definition of multilingualism is the acquisition of one or more languages subsequent to the L1 through structured instruction (at school), resulting in additive bilingualism with

reasonable competence in both languages, with the ability to function in similar spheres in both. The situation at the three schools selected refers to both definitions. In a multilingual country like South Africa it is important that learners reach high levels of proficiency in at least two languages, and that they are able to communicate in other languages (RNCS: 20). The ideal place to begin encouraging multilingualism at a practical level would be within the schooling system.

At present, learners are obliged to include at least two official languages as compulsory subjects, and further languages may be taken as core or elective subjects. One of the languages must be studied at First language level or L1 and the other one at either First Additional Language level or Second additional level. (National Curriculum Statement, 2003:9-11) The subtext of the policy framework is an encouragement of multilingualism. Therefore for obvious reasons (the intellectualisation of languages, culture, etc.), the document encourages multilingualism from the perspective of an indigenous African language as a First Language or language spoken as a mother-tongue in the home, and English as a Second Language. This bias appears a priori to have resulted in an undermining of acquisition of isiXhosa as First Additional Language, which is a critical aspect of the development of a coherent and effective multilingualism within our society. Most students study English as a first language even though they are mother tongue speakers of other languages. This is an issue that needs further attention and is included in the recommendations in chapter 6. The NCS for Languages therefore has three different levels: 1) Home Language, 2) First Additional Language 3) Second Additional Language. Each level has a different learner in mind, as described by the NCS for languages Grades R-9 (2002:4).

The NCS curriculum for language assessment assumes that the learners who are the mother tongue speakers come to school able to understand and speak the language. On the other hand the assessment for first additional language assumes that the learners do not necessarily have knowledge of the language when they arrive at school. Lastly, the second additional language is intended for learners who wish to learn three languages. The third language may be an official language or a foreign language. IsiXhosa, which is the main focus point in this study, is a language that is widely spoken in the Eastern Cape Province (as already mentioned). The languages teaching area covers all official languages as Home languages, First additional language, and as Second additional language. When learners have to make a transition from

their home language to an additional language for learning and teaching, careful planning is necessary.

South Africa is currently facing a serious problem as even though language research and the language policies reflect an appreciation of the importance of multilingual competence, classroom practices have become more monolingual, not multilingual. (Agnihotri 1995:3) We need to recognise that in a democracy people govern the choices to determine what languages their children will learn at school. This will help in the development of additive bi/multilingualism in schools.

In an additive multilingualism model, speakers of any language are introduced to additional languages in addition to the continued use of their primary languages. Additional languages are never intended to replace the primary language. Furthermore additional languages are seen as complementary to the primary language throughout the learner's education. Both primary and additional languages follow the same set of outcomes. The linguistic diversity in South Africa needs to be approached from a broader national perspective. Only about 28% of the South African classrooms and schools are actually described as multi-racial (SAIRR 2000:12). This figure is even smaller in provinces like KwaZulu-Natal and the Eastern Cape. (Heugh 2000:22)

With regards to multilingualism and pedagogy, the learning of a language other than one's mother-tongue would increase cognitive flexibility and help the learner understand the universals of language (Cummins, 1976, 1973; Cummins and Swain, 1986; Lambert 1990). The key to the preservation of multilingualism has been the recognition of the first language of the child, the language that the child brings to the classroom. Alexander sees education as an important means through which South Africa's multilingualism can be both validated and developed (1996:11). School governing bodies (SGBs) are recognised as the key partners in pursuit of the goal of multilingualism, and they are required under the South African Schools Act to announce the schools language policy, and state how it will promote multilingualism through a variety of measures. (Bengu, 1997:2) Makoni (1994) argues that in Africa multilingualism is the norm and different languages are used alongside each other to fulfil different roles. In such a situation second-language learning is seen as one of the functions of education. (Makoni, 1994:22)

When looking at South Africa and the multilingual education one can tell that there is a problem even though language research and the policies reflect an appreciation of the importance of multilingualism in the schools. It is disappointing to note that in this day and age of democracy multilingual competence and the classroom practices are still largely monolingual. (Agnihotri 1995) Without any doubts it is obvious that the African languages are still seen as an obstacle and sources of interference in the learning of the target language. Teachers seem to see the linguistic and cultural differences as deviations from the standard. (Agnihotri 1995:3)

In conclusion there is a need for the democratization of multilingual community spaces so as to enable hybridity and temporal and spatial identities to be exhibited through multiple language/dialects. The idea is to build and extend multilingual democratic spaces for speakers as a way of enhancing and taking advantage of multilingualism as a voice for experience and identity performance, and hence as a linguistic resource. In this way, multiple languages would become tools for the social, political and economic transformation of South Africa. This entails weaning African multilingualism from distortions resulting from the colonial legacy and the pervasive monolingual descriptions that underlie models of language education. (Banda 2009a)

2.2.1 Advantages of Bi/Multilingualism

There are many advantages of Bi/multilingualism. Mutiga (2010) summarises this as follows: "[m]ultilingualism is a resource and a gift if exploited appropriately. The use of one's mother-tongue in acquiring education brings about deep understanding of familiar concepts and a broadened access to knowledge within and outside one's cultural context." This is in relation to the Kenyan experience. These advantages are then based on research and experience from many different countries. Research has shown that children with two or more languages outperform monolinguals in different ways as they could think out of the box and are able to make informed decisions. Furthermore they have a greater development of abstract understanding. They make better performers and can think logically in any learning area. Also they have better problem solving skills.

When a child knows two languages, the structures and ideas are very different. This forces the child to think in more complicated ways. A wide range of vocabulary means a broader set of

associations hence they are able to cope with other learning areas other than languages. Multilingualism may be an advantage when learning another subject as it develops cognitive advantages. This cognitive flexibility allows children to establish a wider variety of mental connections and expands their vision towards comprehensive understanding. Linguistic advantages also develop as they find it easier to learn other languages because they have developed a metalinguistic consciousness. This further proves that the exposure to other languages reinforces linguistic abilities in the primary language. The academic advantage of knowing languages would be that of being able to do better academically as the child will be able to express himself/herself in any given situation. Being able to switch naturally between languages builds self-confidence to communicate with people from different walks of life as the case might be.

2.3 The Historical and Social Background of Outcomes-Based Education in South Africa

After the first democratic elections in 1994 changes with regards to education were introduced. A new curriculum was introduced to redress three basic concerns: racial inequalities in education, insufficient preparation of learners for the global workplace and a desegregated, non-racial approach to curriculum content. The new curriculum was then envisaged to eradicate the deficits of the old curriculum. The old system was condemned as being too concerned with rote-learning, passive learning and where too much emphasis was placed on content rather than on competencies.

It was against the political and social background that Curriculum 2005 was developed. In 1998, the new curriculum model was implemented in South Africa at grade 1 level and was to be progressively introduced into other grades. The opinion expressed is that the old curriculum had been based on the principles of Christian National Education and Fundamental Pedagogies (RSA undated: 8; Taylor and Vinjevold in the PEI Report 1999:132).

OBE stresses the need to teach language for communication, meaning that learners who study languages in school should be able to use these languages outside the classroom. Therefore language should be more than just a classroom subject. It means it should be a life skill that opens up opportunities for the learner. Learners should be able to use the language to also

engage in conversation and interact with other language speakers. In order to do so they must be given an opportunity in school to practice the language in situations similar to those they will meet with in real-life situations. Language learning therefore needs to take place in a meaningful context. Below is the Outcomes Table for the NCS curriculum:

Table 3: Learning Outcomes 1-5

Learning Outcomes	Assessment Standards
Listening	The learner is able to listen for information and enjoyment, and respond appropriately and critically in a wide range of situations.
Speaking	The learner is able to communicate confidently and effectively in a spoken language in a wide range of situations.
Reading and viewing	The learner is able to read and view for information and enjoyment, and respond critically to the aesthetic, cultural and emotional values in texts.
Writing	The learner is able to write different kinds of factual and imaginative texts for a wide range of purposes.
Thinking and Reasoning	The learner is able to use language to think and reason, and access, process and use information for learning.

Source: Department of Education (2003:29-30)

The outcomes although presented as separate should be integrated in teaching and assessment. There is an interdependence hypothesis around these outcomes. A distinction is made between main and additional languages, but all learners will be expected to achieve the same outcomes, albeit at different levels. Each learning outcome has a number of Assessment Standards, which show exactly what a learner should achieve by the end of each grade. Assessment standards below are to show that the learners have achieved what was required in the learning outcomes above.

Learning Outcome Number 1 (LO1) can help the learner to listen to specific information that could lead to participation in a class discussion. Listening also could enable the understanding of stages of a process of a text and to fill in gaps in a text. LO2, that is speaking, enables the learner to tell stories from his/her own language in his/her additional language. In this instance an additional language could be of an advantage to express opinions and feelings, give advice and make suggestions. LO3, reading and viewing could enhance their understanding in reading different types of texts to identify who they are written for, their style and the main points in them. Also the vocabulary is widened in their activities. Writing, LO4, could help to write friendly letters and a diary and to edit and revise their own writing. With LO5, thinking and reasoning, the learners can use language across the curriculum and for asking and answering complex questions. Current developments in curricular approaches emphasize thinking skills and learner autonomy. Mei Lin and Mackay (2004), for example, provide insights, strategies and exemplars of how teachers might use skills strategies to promote independent language learning and use. In the next section the teaching of languages using National Curriculum Statement (NCS) are outlined.

2.4 Teaching Languages Using the NCS

The teaching of the languages learning area in the new curriculum is based on certain principles. Languages should be taught in texts. The main focus is on meaning, not on form. A text then can take different forms as it can be written or can be an oral text. In each case there is a different purpose and different language features. For example, written text could be a story or a poem with a set of instructions. For an oral text there could be stories that are told like *iintsomi namabali* (traditional folktales and stories). The purpose of the story sometimes is to entertain or to convey meaning or for moral purposes. Stories tend to have a similar structure e.g. (orientation-complication-resolution). The NCS expects a teacher to bring different or sometimes a wide variety of texts to the classroom. This can enhance the learners to participate more in the classroom in terms of reading and writing.

In a text-based approach a teacher and learners explore how texts work by paying attention to their texts. (Murray 2009:19) This will help to have a better understanding of the texts and to analyse them in terms of why they are written. In this case a language feature like grammar and vocabulary gets developed as it is an opportunity for learners to talk in the class and to

write. Furthermore, opportunities are created for learners to use the knowledge they have acquired about the specific type of texts. Criteria for assessment will then be developed. Lessons should be planned so that skills are taught in an integrated way. This means that the five already mentioned learning outcomes that form the focus of this study are then combined or integrated. Integration would allow a teacher and learners to participate fully in a lesson by reading the story or the poem aloud and learners will then follow repeating what the teacher had said. A particular focus is being used as the structure and language makes use of sound and images which are attended to. This will help learners to become independent language learners and to expand their vocabulary for social purposes outside the classroom.

In the new curriculum learners are encouraged to engage critically with texts. Learners then need to be become conscious and critical of the values present in the texts they read and view, and the texts they create themselves. (Murray 2009:19) This will help the learners to also develop the critical skills to examine and express values in the texts they create themselves. Mediation will then come into play through a teacher who will share knowledge with learners to help them make sense of the type of text used in learning. In the NCS, assessment takes this into account in order to make progress in language learning. This can be viewed as some kind of feedback for them to be told if they are progressing well in the language that is being used to tell the story. Assessment strategies are to be fully outlined in Chapter 3 (methodology section) of this thesis.

2.5 Theoretical Framing

2.5.1 Language Acquisition Theories

Following McLaughlin's (1987:7) description of the function of theories namely; understanding, transformation and prediction this section intends to help with an understanding of how teacher-learner interaction occurs when there is a mismatch between the learners' home languages and vice–versa. Thus it discusses language acquisition theories on the basis of teacher-learner interaction in order to predict data-driven findings which are to be discussed later on in this study, particularly in Chapters 5 and 6.

Essentially what these theories aim to do is to indicate how learning takes place amongst learners and how to go about achieving this learning using a specific style of teaching for

isiXhosa in this case. (Dorin, Demmin and Gabel 1990) Learning theories can provide educators with verified instructional strategies and techniques for facilitating learning as well as a foundation for intelligent strategy selection. Theories are generalisations that we make about the world around us; people observe certain phenomena over time and then come up with some ideas as to why and how those phenomena occur. Theoretical structures will then be identified and discussed.

Learning and teaching sound like simple concepts and yet there is a far greater complexity involved in the transmission of knowledge and in the receiving of it. Learning does not just happen and so understanding the way in which it works will hopefully maximize the learning experience for each learner. This study emphasizes the interpretive effects of theories that could lead to interpretations or sometimes to interpretations of evidence. (Gopnick, 1999:305) It means that theories that will be discussed in this chapter will be paving a way towards the presentation of data and the analysis. Both interaction and language theories emphasize the importance of language competence in the classroom (Shrum and Glisan 2000; Gleason 1989:187). The focus of this study is on the one hand on teacher practices and on the other learner competencies in isiXhosa language. In support of the importance of language competence in interaction Bohannon and Warren-Leuber (1989:188) believe that what children know about language (competence) can be measured through what they say and understand (performance) within the context of interaction.

Krashen (1981) and Vygotsky (1962) explain how learners obtain input from the environment and how language input is processed into output. Furthermore they explain how language is used by teachers and learners to mediate learning. In other words the socio-cultural aspect of this study is to clarify how language input is processed through social interaction (between teachers and learners and between learners themselves). In a nutshell the role of a teacher is of vital importance in the classroom interaction.

The key theory which forms the backbone of this study is interactionist theory which is within the interpretive research paradigm.

2.5.2 Theories about language and learning

Vygotsky's social constructivist theory of learning links closely with the interactive model of a language acquisition and will therefore form part of the framework of this study. According to Moore (2000) Vygotsky emphasises the inseparable relationship between thought and language. He sees language as a tool for the development of thought in a sociocultural context and emphasises the importance of social processes and of language in a classroom situation. According to his theory of human mental processing, all cognitive development, including language development takes place in the interactions between a learner and a teacher.

It further claims that learning occurs as a result of interaction between the linguistic environment and the learners' internal environment. (Ellis 1997:44) Thus Freeman and Freeman (1994:103) describe interactionist theory as the theory of "nature and nurture". In terms of "nature" learners have to achieve a certain level of cognitive development in order to acquire a language, while "nurture" refers to the importance of the experience that the learner gets from the environment. (Bohannon and Warren-Leubeker 1989:187) This means that they acquire the language in the playground.

The notion of language and learning across the curriculum, which draws on Vygotsky's theory holds that there are two broad kinds of learning: those involving habit formation and exercise and the other involving the activation of large areas of consciousness. The latter means that instruction in one subject influences the development of higher functions far beyond the confines of that subject.

Language acquisition device (LAD) is a structure that is associated with assimilation and accommodation that is the learner adjusts his/her existing knowledge as they add new input. Linked to language acquisition the interactionist theory holds that learning a language is both a cognitive and a social process. Language acquisition device is acquired by means of mental structures. Cognitive learning processes imply that children select relevant information, elaborate and organize the information in a coherent manner. A language is a system of symbols of communication (spoken, written) and the rules used to manipulate them. Another property of language is that the symbols used are arbitrary in that one word can be used differently. Any symbol can be mapped onto any concept. Language plays a unique role in capturing the breath of human diversity. Language can also be used as a tool to express information and ideas in

different forms (e.g. discussions, and arguments, narrations and descriptions, natural language). The language (isiXhosa) used in the classroom by the teacher should therefore be understood by the learners for effective communication purposes. Mutual understanding between the teacher and learners has to do with the kind of (natural) language use in the classroom. Communication breakdown may result if one of the people who are involved in the communication has a low level or no proficiency in the language of interaction, isiXhosa in this case. (Kaschula and Anthonissen, 1995) Thus it is very important to understand the processes involved in effective communication in the classroom. I now move on to discuss the First and Second language acquisition (FLA and SLA).

2.5.3 Contexts for language learning and learning through language

The teacher should not be concerned with searching for the best method but, rather, should be concerned with the learners and trying to find out what works for them. The new curriculum aims to educate people to become lifelong learners. Language teachers of isiXhosa should develop strategies that will enable learners to become better isiXhosa language users without the teacher's constant support. The strategies should be carefully selected in order to develop the learner's vocabulary. This can be only done in lesson plans and guidance should also be given. Communicative language teaching is a highly recommended approach to language teaching. This approach works from a principle that language is learnt by communicating, listening, speaking, reading and writing.

It is generally in multilingual settings just like South Africa that the issues of mother tongue education, bilingual education and second language acquisition arise (see Aldou 2004; Cummins 2009; Hornberger 2008; Lo Bianco 2008; Tollefson 2004). But as societies differ widely, it is important to distinguish between their dynamics, so that a single solution is reached for very diverse and complex situations in the wider society. These can be subdivided into two; that is those learning the isiXhosa language in an immersion context and those who are learning an additional language primarily in a school context. In the former case there are those who are learning isiXhosa as an additional language, immersed in it, such as immigrant children in Norway, and in the United States of America.

According to Fillmore there are three necessary ingredients for second-language learning. These are:

- Learners who need to learn the target language (TL) and are motivated to do so;

- Speakers of the target language who know it well enough to provide the learners with access to the language and the help they need for learning it;

- A social setting which brings learners and TL speakers into frequent enough contact to make language learning possible (1991:52-53).

In Fillmore's opinion if any of these ingredients are dysfunctional, language learning would be difficult. In the case of schools B and C the first ingredient is present. In such a context where people have to learn that additional language in an environment where it is not used often learners are likely to encounter difficulties with learning isiXhosa. In such a situation code mixing and switching comes in to facilitate learning. Also encouraging classroom conversation with interaction between pupils and task based education will develop pupil interaction, increasing involvement and motivation. With regard to the third point, there are ex-model C schools and private schools which forbid the use of indigenous languages in the classrooms or school environment in order to encourage a so-called transition to an English-only approach. This is ill-informed and it is contrary to the policy outlined below. Furthermore it does not take into account the natural acquisition of language(s) as would ordinarily be experienced by learners in multicultural, multilingual environments such as these.

2.6 South African language policy

A discussion of language policy in South African schools is important for the benefit of this study. In this country there is diversity in languages and members of the nation are required to speak in certain group interactions. Theoretically this policy will influence language choices on all levels. The primary focus of this study is on the learner competencies in isiXhosa as the language that is widely spoken in the Eastern Cape where this research is carried out. This therefore means that this policy influences the available language choices in the South African education system.

2.6.1 The Language-in-Education-Policy (LiEP)

This policy was developed and produced because it was conceived as an integral and necessary aspect of the government's strategy of building a non-racial nation in South Africa (Department of Education 1997). It is meant to facilitate communication across the barriers of colour, language and region, and recognizes cultural diversity as a valuable national asset. The LiEP (RSA 1997a:4-5) incorporates the following aims:

- to promote full participation in society and the economy through equitable and meaningful access to education;
- to pursue the language policy most supportive of general conceptual growth amongst learners;
- and to establish additive multilingualism as an approach to language in education;
- to promote and develop all official languages;
- to support the teaching and learning of all other languages required by learners or used by communities in South Africa;
- to counter disadvantages resulting from different kinds of mismatches between home languages and languages of learning and teaching;
- and to redress the problems of previously disadvantaged languages.

The policy also promotes additive bilingualism in that it aims to maintain the home languages while providing access to the effective acquisition of additional languages. This is a model which has been espoused by the late Professor Neville Alexander (2002) who encouraged the use of a mother-tongue-based-bilingual education model. This would be true of all three schools (A, B and C), but particularly in the case of school A the model would be workable. Emphasis would then be on imparting knowledge in the mother tongue while transferring to English. This is supported more recently by Kaschula, in Wolff & Altmayer (2013) when exploring the Alexander model where it is stated that "[c]ognition therefore takes place most effectively in the mother tongue."

This policy document was informed by the tenets of the Constitution (RSA 1996a (see section 2.2.1); the South African Schools Act of 1996 (RSA 1996b) and the ANCs policy framework for Education and Training (1995). All three documents emphasize three basic principles: firstly, all 11 official languages have equal status and importance; secondly learners and parents

may choose the language of learning in schools where practicable and thirdly, a programme of additive multilingualism must be introduced into schools. Luckett (1995:75) defines additive bilingualism as the gaining of competence in a second language while the first is maintained. The LiEP characterises multilingualism as the promotion of two or more languages (RSA 1997a:3). The multilingualism policy also discourages languages being introduced at the expense of another. The primary language of the learner must be consciously maintained.

The LiEP discusses two approaches to multilingual education (LiEP 1997:3). Firstly; it presents the argument in favour of teaching through one medium (the home language) and learning additional language(s) as subjects to the benefit of the learner's cognitive development. Secondly, it describes the benefit of structured bilingual education (as seen in dual medium schools). However the LiEP does not take a definite stance on methodology for acquiring additive bilingualism, but states that the underlying principle of the policy is to maintain home languages while providing for the acquisition of additional languages. This in keeping with the provisions in the Constitution (RSA 1996a:29.2) which allows individuals to choose their medium of instruction and additional languages as subjects with the elected governing bodies of schools (South African Schools Act 1996b:8). The fundamental values and strategies remain the same and the curriculum continues to serve as a guide for education in South Africa (DoE 2002).

According to Balfour (2006), language policy is a necessary, but not sufficient requirement to transforming the attitudes of people and the status of languages within any society. Language policy has been an essential element in the redress of historical inequalities and in achievement of language equity, by aiming to bring indigenous African (historically disadvantaged) languages into mainstream usage. The South African Language policy is built on the foundations laid by Section 6 of the South African Constitution (Act No 108 of 1996), which states that: Recognising the historically diminished use and status of the indigenous languages of our people, the state must take practical and positive measures to elevate the status and advance the use of these languages (Paragraph 2 of section 6).

In his introduction to the Department of Arts and Culture National Language Policy Framework on 12 of February 2003, Dr BS Ngubane offered further insight into the governments language policy objectives. The Policy Framework also takes cognisance of the fact that the value of our

languages is largely determined by their economic, social and political usage. When a language loses its value in these spheres, the status of the language diminishes.

The National Language Policy Framework also takes into account that we are faced with the challenge of globalisation, and that our indigenous languages should be part of the rapidly expanding technological environment. This furthermore takes cognisance of the fact that the value of our languages is largely determined by their economic, social and political usage. Hence it intends to reaffirm the status and use of the indigenous languages of South Africa. (Introduction to Department of Arts and Culture Policy Framework, 2003) These sentiments indicate and emphasize the fact that African languages should become part of our national identity. With a focus on value and status of the target languages, the government has overtly created an environment for the nurture and development, and ultimately survival, of the indigenous African languages. Thus on paper it is a clear statement of the political will to change the historical status of marginalised African languages (isiXhosa in this case). From my Master's thesis particularly in my findings section I clearly indicated the non-adherence by the teachers to Language-in-Education-Policy and its stipulations. In addition as suggested by Probyn et al (2002), some other reasons regarding the failure of implementation of the language LiEP are:

- Schools do not have the knowledge of the Policy

- Schools do not clearly understand the extent of their powers and responsibilities

- They have a lack of experience in developing their own policies and this probably includes a lack of knowledge and understanding regarding the nature of bilingualism and second language acquisition

- They do not know what support (if any) the Department of education will provide

In the next section I discuss the theoretical construct for language learning.

2.7. Theoretical constructs in support of language learning

I have decided to use a cluster of theoretical constructs which I believe would be of benefit for this study. They include BICS, CALP, and scaffolding and interdependence hypothesis. These constructs have been used by scholars such as Cummins (1984).

2.7.1 Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP)

I will then start by analysing BICS - Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills and CALP - Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency. These terms are commonly used in discussion of bilingual education in which Cummins (1984) demonstrates his ideas about the two principal continua of second language development in a simple matrix. Day-to-day language skills are needed to interact socially with other people. Such skills are context embedded and useful for social interactions. A teacher can initiate a conversation with the learners in isiXhosa. This can only be done in a classroom context within the schooling system.

CALP - Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency refers to formal academic learning. This includes listening, reading and writing about subject area content material. This can be best achieved through formal schooling. Learners need time and support to become proficient in academic areas. These aspects are closely related to the development of literacy skills in L1 and L2. BICS in L1 such as accent, oral fluency and sociolinguistic competence may be independent of CALP for a variety of reasons. (Cummins, 1980:177) BICS is conversational ease attained by language learners who are just beginning to learn a new language and this is less challenging than CALP proficiency. Second language learners use BICS to interact with their peers in the playground. There is also what is called Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP). (Cummins, 1980) This principle implies that experience in one language can promote development of the proficiency underlying another language because both operate through the individual's central processing system. The CUP can be harnessed to progress the development of both languages through strategies such as translanguaging and transference between languages. (Antia, 2013) This means when the learner receives information (input) in one language, using passive receptive language skills (listening and reading) and then producing it (output) in another language using active language skills (talking and writing). (Williams, 2004:47) and Baker (2006:297-8)

In a school context, this would refer to a level and type of proficiency necessary for carrying out a specific academic task. According to Cummins, it took immigrant pupils who arrived in

Canada after the age of six, 5-7 years, on the average, to approach norms in academically related aspects. According to Baker (2006), BICS is said to occur when there are contextual supports and props for language delivery. CALP on the other hand is said to occur in context reduced academic situations. In a framework developed to take the BICS-CALP distinction further, Cummins proposes that in the context of bilingual education in the United States, language proficiency can be conceptualised along two continuums. Cummins further developed a model whereby the different tasks teachers set for learners to engage in can be categorised. Along one continuum tasks range from cognitively undemanding to cognitively demanding; and along the other continuum from context-embedded to context reduced. A context-embedded task is one in which the learner has excess to a range of additional visual and oral cues. A context-reduced quadrant task (as indicated below) is one where there are no other sources of help other than the language itself. A quadrant task, which is both cognitively demanding and context-reduced, is likely to be the most difficult for learners, particularly for second language speakers in their first years of learning a new language. It is essential that they develop the ability to accomplish such tasks to ensure academic success. Cummins suggests that the teacher's measure the level of the tasks they plan to set against this model. Below is a quadrant drafted by Cummins and presented diagrammatically:

COGNITIVELY UNDEMANDING

Table 4: Cummins' Framework of Language Proficiency (Cummins 1984b:12)

A CONTEXT EMBEDDED	C CONTEXT REDUCED
B	D

COGNITIVELY DEMANDING

Cummins model has proved helpful in identifying and developing appropriate tasks for bilingual children. For example, in designing lessons for newly arrived learner's and second language learners, teachers might start with contextualized tasks and practical activities. The example of the above quadrant will help a teacher to determine if the activities or tasks are in

line within the BICS and CALP. By using a matrix with two axes as shown above, context-embedded language and context–reduced language shows how certain tasks may be more or less demanding. The framework provides the basis for a task analysis of measures of language proficiency to practitioners on assessing language proficiency in both L1 and L2. In concrete terms CALP can therefore relate to the kind of proficiency needed to use a language as a medium of instruction successfully. It takes much longer for pupils who are only exposed to the (isiXhosa) in the context of schooling (2009:23). As far as language proficiency is concerned, he states:

> Numerous research studies have shown that at least five years (and often considerably longer) is required for linguistic minority students to catch up to grade expectations in the majority language … Because academic language is found primarily in books (including textbooks) and classrooms, it is important to encourage reading as a means of enabling students to gain access to this language… Encouragement of extensive writing, across multiple genres, is also a crucial element in enabling students to gain a sense of control over academic language that is active rather than just passive. (Cummins 2009:24)

That forms the basis for a child s ability to cope with the academic demands placed upon him/her in the various subjects. Cummins states that while many children develop native speaker fluency (i.e. BICS) within two years of immersion in the target language (isiXhosa), it normally takes much longer. According to Cummins a learner acquires a set of skills and metalinguistic knowledge when learning a first language that can be used when working in another language. He calls these skills and knowledge common underlying proficiency (CUP) as stated above. The CUP provides the basis for the development of both the first language and the second language. Continuing first language development should happen in such a way that the culture of the first language is valued while the second language is added. This ensures additive bilingualism as opposed to subtractive bilingualism, in which the second language is added at the expense of the first language and culture.

2.8 Scaffolding and Interdependence Hypothesis

Wood, Bruner, and Ross (1976) have developed the term 'scaffolding' and this term has come to be used for the support for learning provided by a teacher to enable a learner to perform tasks and construct understandings that they would not quite be able to manage on their own as the learner moves towards mastery and autonomy, when the scaffolding is gradually phased out. It

enables the teacher to extend the pupil's work and active participation beyond their current abilities and levels of understanding within Vygosky's Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). This means the difference between individual performance and assisted performance known as ZPD. (Seifert and Sutton, 2011)

Bruner was influenced by Piaget and later by Vygotsky. He saw learning as a process of actively acquiring knowledge in which learners construct new ideas based upon their current and past knowledge. According to Seifert and Sutton (2011) constructivism means a learner's thinking that is influenced by the relationship between that learner and a more capable and knowledgeable person. The fundamental principles of Vygotsky include how learning is mediated and controlled. Allwright and Bailey (1991:140) suggest that optimal input is just slightly more advanced than the learners' current level of development. Cazden (1988:107) relates this to the idea of scaffolding, an area central to the cognitive development theories of Bruner and Vygotsky. The process of learning is as important as the product, and social interaction by Cummins is crucial. Common elements of scaffolding include:

- Defining tasks

- Direct and indirect instructing

- Specification and sequencing of activities

- Modelling and exemplification

- Reinforcing

- Questioning

The principles of scaffolding are that when the learners are in trouble the teacher must give more help than before. That help should be offered by taking the learners from the unknown to the point of knowledge required. When the learners succeed by grasping concepts then give them less help than before (fading). As well as scaffolding provided by the teacher, learners collaborating in small groups can provide scaffolding for each other. The role of scaffolding can also be linked to assessment for learning and active learning as it is suggested in the revised curriculum.

The developmental interdependence hypothesis is espoused by Cummins (1979:233). There is a belief by linguists that development of competence in an additional language is partially a function of the type of competence already developed in the first language that is the home language of a learner at the time when intensive exposure to the L2 begins. The acquisition of an additional language is mainly influenced by the pupil's level of development in L1. Home is the first place to develop language and the parents are their first teachers. Cummins suggest that there are differences in the way in which children's L1 has been developed by their linguistic experiences prior to school. This could be a good influence accounting for the success of the Canadian immersion programmes such as the St Lambert experiment of the 1960s. (Cooper 1989) Cummins (2009:25) argues that the interdependence hypothesis involves much more than just the linguistic transfer. In this linguistic transfer he mentions that learners should know the meaning of words. This has got pedagogical implications as the teachers should focus more on knowledge transfer and skills across languages instead of forbidding them to use their L1 as is sometimes the case as indicated above.

The linguistic/cognitive constructs outlined above are supported by the elementary pedagogic principle of moving from the familiar to the unfamiliar in educational practice. (Gibbons, 2002; Pattanayak 1988) The above scaffolding and theoretical underpinnings are explicated and alluded to further in the data presentation and analysis in Chapters 4 and 5.

2.9 The Importance of Teacher Development during Curriculum Change

The introduction of the new curriculum in South Africa was a matter of urgency with regards to teacher training. This for many teachers requires changes both in the way they think about language teaching and their classroom practises. Teachers were to be equipped for changes in the South African classrooms. The introduction of OBE intended for teachers to reflect a gross simplification of the nature of teaching and the process of change, thereby also empowering learners to be moved to the centre of the process and the teacher to the periphery. The shift from the old to the new was quite complicated. The new teaching methods and attitudes were very difficult to monitor and to achieve in the classroom.

In the past during the Apartheid Bantu Education system classes were purely monolingual, in that there were no mixed races. Teachers had to deal with multiracial classes and had to inherit different sets of classroom practices from the apartheid period. The irony is that teachers had to keep on relating the new methods to the old, and that included the belief systems as well as the attitudes contained in both systems which were essentially not compatible. That was indeed a paradigm shift (RSA 1997e:1). There were workshops provided by the Provincial Education Departments and they tended to be learner centred. The workshops were conducted for a couple of days and teachers were expected to deliver back in classrooms whatever they were taught in these trainings. The assumption will be that teachers had to implement in classrooms without any mistakes and with confidence and able to answer questions. One would say this was a top-down approach to education. This was not successful as the time and resources were limited in these teacher trainings. The deficit view of teaching and teachers undermines their confidence as well as minimising their stake in any new approach being advocated. Craig (1990:52) suggests that "poorly trained and motivated teachers are not effective agents of reform… they generally lack the flexibility and self-confidence needed to master and to apply radically innovative techniques or materials." Guskey (1995:118) suggests that change should be seen as an individual and organisational process. Change should cater for the teachers concerns, needs and fears. As cited by Probyn (2001) teacher development and training provided must not be taken as an event but as a professional process. Follow-up programmes should be in place by the subject advisers to see if the implementation is in progress.

2.10 Language Input and Output

Comprehensible input means that the learners should be able to understand the essence of what is being said or presented to them (www.comprehensible input). Input, is anything verbal, or written which stimulates second language acquisition. In this case this therefore means that whatever a teacher says in class should be more comprehensible for them to get a better understanding of the subject matter. In simple terms teachers should use simple words of isiXhosa to explain concepts. Learners learn a new language best when they receive input that is just a little more difficult that they can easily understand. Learners may understand some of the words that the teacher uses especially those doing isiXhosa as an additional language.

It has been theorised by Krashen (1982:20-21); Long (1983) cited in Ellis (1992:12) that for an L2 speaker to make considerable inroads into acquiring a second language, the input that the

second language learner has to have must be comprehensible. Krashen's Input Hypothesis argues that:

> ...A necessary (but not sufficient) condition to move from stage "I" to stage: i+1" is that the acquirer understand input that contains "i+1" where understand means that the acquirer is focused on the meaning and not the form of the message… Krashen, (1982:21).

With the comprehensible output it means the contributions are made by learners in the isiXhosa activities in the classroom. Furthermore the teacher is responsible to provide tools to the learner to make them conversationally competent. (Krashen, 1985:60) Whatever they say with regards to the lesson is in fact their output. This means that learners should be given an opportunity to express themselves in isiXhosa which is a target language to them. Long (1996) developed the interaction hypothesis which focuses on the notion of interaction for effective output. This opportunity to use isiXhosa will indirectly encourage L2 acquisition. Swain (1985 cited in Ellis 1992:45) argues that producing comprehensible input gives the learners the opportunity to test their language proficiency in isiXhosa. Therefore classroom talk between teacher-learner and learner-learner could be beneficial as valuable comprehensible input.

Teachers are to provide sufficient and relevant information and to design their lesson in a way that would make learners to get more involved. This means that their information shared in the classroom must have a relevant background knowledge and content in isiXhosa. Teachers should try innovative ways in explaining ideas and concepts using variations in terminology and examples in isiXhosa lessons. In a multiracial class teachers must be sensitive to the different language and cultural backgrounds by not criticising a particular language in the classroom. This will be explored further in Chapters 4 and 5.

Teachers must be highly interactive in the classroom as this can only be done by engaging learners' through asking questions and by encouraging them to come up with ideas in the new language. In a classroom environment particularly when the emphasis is on rich input by the teacher, that is when the learners will listen. Learners get few opportunities to speak and tend to give short answers to questions. Opportunities to use isiXhosa orally will in turn increase receptive language skills. Such understanding can often be gained by listening carefully and attentively by learners. Linguistic differences between the learners L1 and English is another factor that influences second language acquisition. For example in the case of isiXhosa the

linguistic distance is wide between the two languages. As I have already mentioned that isiXhosa belongs to the Bantu group that on its own makes it not cognate with European languages. Furthermore isiXhosa is characterised by an agglutinating morphological structure. The following sketch shows how the learner receives input from the environment (external), and how the mental (internal) structures interact with the input to produce L2 utterances (output).

Input ⟹ **Intake** ⟹ **L2 knowledge** ⟹ **L2 output**

Source: Ellis (1997:35)

In relation to interactionist theory the input hypothesis requires an interaction between a more capable individual and a less capable person in the teaching-learning setting. The language is developed socially as teachers and learners interact with each other through mediation and scaffolding. Ellis (1992:28) writes that SLA literature suggests two ways in which input might influence L2 learners. Firstly the input that is the end product of a shared topic i.e. modelled syntactic forms and secondly, the development of incorporation strategy, which provides the L2 with linguistic units of different, sizes which may be used in different sentences as "building blocks" to construct new syntactic patterns. Enhancing the lesson to become more comprehensible to learners goes beyond the choice of vocabulary and involves good presentation of background and context, explanation and rewording of unclear content. Lessons should be comprehensible to give guidance of what learners should know. Comprehensible input is a reality if learners are given opportunities to use oral language and to engage in cognitively challenged language concepts. The teacher has such a huge role to play in comprehensible input. Teachers have to use as much of the target language as possible. Certain extralinguistic tools are to be used such as facial expressions, visual cues and intonation.

Comprehensible input can be reinforced by incorporating classroom language in the target language such as isiXhosa. These are a sample of examples of simple forms of comprehensible input:

- *Molweni bantwana* / Good morning children

- *Ninjani namhlanje bantwana* / How are you today?

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- *Ndicela ukuya kuhlamba izandla* / Can I get permission to wash my hands

- *Phakamisa isandla* / Raise your hand

- *Funa iqabane* / Find a partner

Because interaction is a two-way process, the classroom is influenced by the two actors, that is the learner and the educator. In addition to the importance of the reciprocal interaction in the classroom, the type of language that is used and generated between the teacher and the learners is significant. Whatever a teacher says in the classroom can be seen as an input. Edwards and Westgate (1994:40) claim that communication in the classroom is firmly centred on the teacher. This seems to contradict the OBE model as explained in this thesis.

Wong-Fillmore (1985:19-20) argues that the teacher talk is an important resource in the classroom as it serves as the linguistic input for the learners. In addition, Wong-Fillmore (1985:33-43) in a longitudinal study in American classrooms identified the following characteristics of a teacher, which she claims enhances language learning in successful language classrooms. These characteristics are to be investigated in a contextualised way later on. In addition to the level of language used by the teacher in the classroom and the way he/she unpacks the lesson, as well as tasks given to learners that influence the interaction, patterns in the classroom and whether the language in use is comprehensible need to be assessed. Teachers questions may have a huge impact in how the interaction is generated in class, this may also have an influential implication for L2 acquisition. Teachers need to be aware of the importance of their role and sources of input for the language being learnt, and therefore they need to be carefully designed and implemented. Lessons focused on giving learners ample opportunity of listening to the L2/3 and practising it in real situations are needed.

Skehan (1998:160) perceives output as a means of generating better input or efficient learning though feedback. In other words the process of communication can be modified according to the feedback one receives from the listener. The output helps to develop an individual's automaticity, discourse skills and personal voice. (Skehan, 1998:18-19) The affective Filter Hypothesis explains why everyone is not successful in learning the L2 (i.e. it accounts for individual differences in SLA). The amount of input that is changed into intake is controlled in

the learners mind depending on whether or not it is comprehensible to the learner. Gas and Selinker (1994:147) explain the filter as follows:

> If the filter is up, input is prevented from passing through, there can be no acquisition, on the other hand, if the filter is down or low, and if the input is comprehensible; the input will reach the acquisition device and acquisition will take place.

So acquisition appears to be controlled by two factors: comprehensible input that is at the right level of the learner (i+1) and the affective filter (low or high) to control the amount of input.

2.11 Wong-Fillmore on the influence of teacher's classroom practices

In her discussion of research done by her fellow-researchers, Wong-Fillmore (1985) points to the extent to which teachers can influence language learning in their classrooms. This has been indicated above. For many learners additional language learning only at school is only through contact with teachers and classmates in the South African situation. Classroom language used by the teacher has according to her, two functions: to give information and skills and to provide linguistic input to learn a language (isiXhosa in this case). She argues that the teachers can make it possible for learners to learn either in the mother- tongue or in an additional tongue.

After further research done to study the effects of practices involving matters of language choice and use followed by teachers during instructional activities, organization and structure of lessons, explicit language instruction and how the learners participated affected language learning, Wong-Fillmore identified the following crucial factors:

- In the first instance, she identified certain structural characteristics of lessons that work for language learning. These include formal lessons with clear boundaries and consistent organization and use of language (same format each day) in lessons. A further feature is time allocated for learner's participation involving a consistent set of various turn taking procedures.

- Secondly, she identified language use in lessons as a key factor that affects language learning (in the case of this thesis, isiXhosa.

The following aspects were further highlighted:

- Teacher talk as input
- Clear separation of languages
- Emphasis on communication and comprehension
- Grammaticality and appropriateness of language
- Repeated patterns and routines
- Repetitiveness
- Tailoring learners participation
- Richness of language

In the South African context much of what Wong-Fillmore is saying would apply to both first and second or additional language teaching (the latter being specific to the South African context). This will become clearer in Chapters 4 and 5.

2.12 Interactionist theory

The use of a second language as the medium of instruction in the classroom has been common place throughout history of education in South Africa. Most language teaching today aims to achieve oral communication and immersion programmes aim to achieve competence in all five language skills mentioned earlier. Teachers need strategies to teach in multilingual classrooms. If teachers are ill-prepared to teach isiXhosa as a subject in the classroom in that respect it is very difficult for the learners on the receiving end to acquire the intended language skill, both in the mother tongue as well as at second or additional language levels. The pedagogy used when teaching isiXhosa should be effective for the learners to be able to read, write and speak isiXhosa as another language of learning and teaching as well as being a language subject.

The characteristics of teacher-pupil interaction which lead to learning have been widely debated with two major schools of thought emerging: firstly, there is the naturalistic viewpoint. Krashen (1980) and Long (1983) cited in Ellis (1985:157) argue that classroom practice should initiate as widely as possible a natural language acquisition environment. Secondly there is the

viewpoint that language teaching should contain a measure of formal language teaching. Ellis argues that an:

> …acquisition rich classroom…is best characterised as one which provides both those experiences associated with communicating in natural discourse and those experiences derived from cognitive activities designed to raise the learners consciousness about the formal properties of the L2 and their function in language use. Ellis (1992:49)

Ellis (1992:2) describes classroom interaction as the fundamental act of pedagogy which provides opportunities for negotiating comprehensible input as outlined above. For effective interaction and learning in the classroom in a foreign language, Shrun and Glisan (2004:14-15) suggest that learners should be provided with the following:

- Comprehensible input in the TL

- An interactive environment that models and presents a variety of social, linguistic and cognitive tools for structuring and interpreting participation in talk

- Opportunities for learners to negotiate meaning in the TL with assistance from the teacher and one another

- Opportunities for learners to interact communicatively with one another in the TL

- Conversations and tasks that is purposeful and meaningful to the learner

- A non-threatening environment that encourages self-expression

The classroom is purely guided by goals. These goals are related to the purpose of the lesson like teaching a specific aspect of a lesson while the framework goals are intended to organise the lesson. The goals are to influence the learner to adapt to a specific learning context. In this new South African dispensation which has moved from OBE to CAPS (to be implemented in 2014 and not directly relevant to this study as it was conducted under OBE), education spheres and the educational environment has changed. Teachers are faced with new challenges one of having to teach in one of the South African indigenous languages depending on the province. This is part of the Ministries draft policy on the incremental introduction of the teaching of indigenous languages from Grade R which is to begin in 2014. A comment on this draft policy is included in Chapter 6 of this thesis.

In an L2 classroom there are many challenges that confront both teachers and learners in terms of accessing comprehensible input. Firstly if the teacher is the native speaker of the target language, she may encounter problems communicating effectively and negotiating meaning if the learners are not native speakers of the TL. The input that the learners get in the classroom is likely incomprehensible e.g. incorrect pronunciation and inadequate questions. In such a situation both the teachers and learners resort to the L1 as a communicative resort through codes-switching. Adendorff (1996:389) describes code-switching as a spontaneous and functional communicative resource that assists the teacher and students to accomplish educational objectives. This code-switching phenomenon is again researched and analysed later in this thesis in Chapters 4 and 5.

2.13 Conclusion

To summarise, this literature review has tried to provide a theoretical framework for the research undertaken in this thesis. It endeavours to situate the historical, philosophical and the pedagogy of the Outcomes Basic Education (OBE). There is a strong focus on the communicative aspect of languages in the new curriculum and the similarities to communicative language teaching (CLT) already being practised in schools. Focus is then placed on the teacher-learner interaction. The classroom goal is to prepare learners to be able to understand the language used outside the classroom. Second language acquisition as a process of achieving bilingualism is discussed and various aspects of this process were described. I then looked at the Language-in-Education-Policy and the effect it has had on multilingual education.

The complexity of the South African schooling system has required that this chapter speak to various levels of theorisation regarding the teaching of mother tongue and the second language, as well as the overlaps that may exist as explicated by scholars such as Wong-Fillmore (1985). Alexander (2002) furthermore recommends a mother-tongue-based-bilingual or multilingual educational model, though this is not the main focus of this research. It is however a recommendation to put forward within the schooling system i.e. the use of multilingual models that focus on the mother tongue rather than the additional language. This discussion will also be pursued when each of the schools (research sites) and the approaches used to language teaching within these schools is analysed later in this thesis. The next chapter analyses the research methodologies applied to collect the data for this study.

Chapter 3

Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents methodology used to conduct this study. As it has been stated in Chapter 1, the study seeks to understand the teaching of isiXhosa in nine classrooms that is three classrooms per school and one classroom per grade: grades 7-9). This case study further seeks to explore grades 7-9 teachers' understanding of how to teach learners in isiXhosa and the strategies they used. In this study, the researcher had to observe how the research participants (teachers and learners) interacted in schools and how they attached meanings or interpreted their ways of interaction.

This chapter discusses and justifies the research design, methodology and tools that were used to collect data namely: interviews, classroom observations, oral and written learner assessments, stimulated recall discussions of the lessons observed and document analysis. It also explains the sampling procedure, ethical and validity issues, data analysis techniques as well as the limitations and challenges I encountered and possible improvements. Although this is not an ethnographic study, ethnographic principles were applied and this is discussed in relation to the case study design of the research. The field work process is discussed in relation to the three sites selected as case studies.

The goal of this study is to investigate how the isiXhosa is taught in three levels of teaching: isiXhosa as Home language, second language and as additional language in the senior phase. The study is to some extent a reflection of what is going on in all the Grahamstown/Eastern Cape schools, as well as schools nationally as the selected sites are a microcosm of the national reality. However, the reality within the three selected schools namely, Schools referred to as A, B and C in this study is given particular attention.

As a point of departure, I start with the research paradigm I subscribe to, the approach used and how it relates to the methods I chose. I then discuss the choice of methods I selected in order to pave the way for data presentation and analysis in the chapters to follow. Crucial features of

research such as validity and ethics are given. I highlight my role as the researcher, and the challenges that I encountered. Finally I conclude by providing a summary of my research methodology.

3.2 Research Paradigm

A paradigm is defined as the application of an entire research framework to practice. (Willis 2007:8) Meanwhile, (Guba 1990:17) defines it as a basic set of beliefs that guide action. These beliefs define the worldview of the researcher-as-interpretive-bricoleur (Denzin and Lincoln,2005:245). In this section the research paradigm of the study is described. I provide reasons for choices made and how they facilitated the carrying out of the research.

Conducting my study within this paradigm has helped the researcher explore and uncover the participants' understandings of teaching isiXhosa and identify the strategies and activities in which learners were engaged. As an interpretive researcher, I was interested in how grades 7-9 isiXhosa teachers' interpretations and understandings influenced their intentions and actions with regard their practices in relation to their learners. (Winberg, 1997; Bassey 1995)

Interpretive research as explained by (Winberg 1997:20) as using interviews, personal documents and other hermeneutic processes to produce knowledge. The interpretive paradigm seeks the personal involvement of the researcher in trying to understand the taken-for-granted situations. (Cohen and Manion, 1994); Bassey 1995) In regards to the interpretive paradigm, the researcher is directly involved by interacting with the subjects' perceptions and meanings which they give for their actions. Furthermore it has naturalistic features such as being there, their worlds, as well as their own stories. (Willis 2007:6) All data collected in this study was based on actions, views and perceptions of the individual. This study is interpretive because it attempts to document and interpret the classroom practices by different teachers of isiXhosa in the senior phase of learning and teaching. All data collected in this study was based on actions, views and perceptions of learners and teachers. The entire interpretive paradigm will be used as a lens through which to view this study.

Conducting my research under this paradigm helped me to understand the teaching of isiXhosa in its natural setting that is the school/classroom setting. Also this paradigm has helped me to

explore and identify the teaching/learning strategies and the activities given to learners by teachers in the three levels that isiXhosa is being taught in the three selected schools.

3.3 Research Approach

In this section I discuss the research approaches I chose for this study. Firstly I discuss the qualitative research approach and explain why it was employed. Then I describe the case study research approach and justify its use in this study.

3.3.1 Qualitative approach

I chose to work within the qualitative research approach as it was in line with the interpretive paradigm described above. As Creswell (2009:176) states: "…qualitative research is a form of interpretive inquiry in which researchers make an interpretation of what they see, hear and understand". A Qualitative approach is an inquiry process directed towards understanding a social/human problem, based on building a complex picture formed in words, reporting detailed views of informants and conducted in a natural setting. (Creswell, 2002) Qualitative research therefore enables researchers to investigate the social world of the meanings that drive people.

The idea of qualitative research is to purposefully select informants (teachers and learners) that will best answer the research question. Although the study is not a comparative one, the qualitative method has contributed to collecting critical aspects of the data I needed. The study seeks to capture the lives of the participants in order to understand their contexts by analysing conversations and interactions that the researcher had with the research subjects (Henning 2004:19). Specifically, an interpretive approach framed this study. The aims of qualitative research are to gain in-depth descriptions and understanding of actions in terms of their natural contexts rather than attempting to generalize (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005).

Angen (2002) defines interpretive research as an approach that assumes knowledge to be inter-subjective and constructed through meanings and understandings developed socially and experientially. Interpretive approaches provide deep insight into the complex world of lived

experience from the position of those who live it Schwandt (2004). As cited by (Henning et al 2004:5) the qualitative approach is an inquiry that examines the qualities, characteristics or the properties of a phenomenon.

The study investigated the practices of both teachers and learners as they occur naturally within the classroom settings. Teaching and learning are broad concepts that encompass many concepts and activities like the curriculum, teaching methods, teaching and learning resources, the classroom environment, learning strategies and many other activities. The qualitative research approach allowed me to make observations at different points in order to find out the extent to which these variables affected the teaching and learning process in isiXhosa in the three different levels mentioned above, namely, HL, FAL, and SAL. In other words, the researcher wanted to see the activities occurring in the isiXhosa classrooms (from grades 7-9) holistically in order to capture the data from various perspectives.

The qualitative mode explores the individual behaviour and attitudes of teachers and learners most effectively. Qualitative research involves asking personal questions and collecting data in the places where individuals work or live (Creswell, 2007:114). Qualitative types of data collection might be categorised in terms of their sources such as: observations, videos, pictures, interviews, and documents from the DoE.

I deemed the qualitative research design suitable in this case because of its flexibility. Burgess, (1988:8) mentions flexibility as one of the features of qualitative research. Similarly, Maxwell (1996:55) maintains that there is a great deal of flexibility inherent in qualitative research. This is verifiable as I was able to modify the research along the way and the changes that I made were based on the development of the project. Flexibility becomes evident as data collection and analysis occur simultaneously in qualitative research.

Qualitative research is the type of research that presents its findings in a narrative form. I am saying this because qualitative introductions may start with a personal statement of experiences. Furthermore a researcher as a first-person with a subjective point of view positions herself/himself in the narrative. This is evident from Chapters 4 and 5 that follow.

Qualitative studies may employ more questions to guide the researcher. I chose this method because one of its chief reasons is that the study is exploratory, as I seek to listen to informants

and to build a picture, based on their ideas. This is better explained in the interview section. The most interesting part of the qualitative method is that, when collecting data from various sources, including people, the reality is constructed by the individuals involved in the research situation. This is better explained in the interview section. Also as a researcher I would want to probe more on what the policy states should be done concerning the already three levels of teaching isiXhosa. I looked at what the teachers were doing on the ground as well as the interaction between them and the learners in the classroom. The question is: are the teacher practices in line with the curriculum outcomes? Or are they acting contrary to what is supposed to be done in the classrooms. The best way to answer these in my opinion was to go to the schools and visit directly with educators and learners as part of a qualitative research approach.

As Creswell (2009:176) states: "…qualitative research is a form of interpretive inquiry in which researchers make an interpretation of what they see, hear and understand." Also the qualitative aspect of the interpretive paradigm is appropriate as it seeks to interpret social phenomena in a natural setting (classrooms in this case) in which people's experiences, views behaviours and actions are taken into account.

3.3.2 Case study approach

The approach is a case study because this method gives a researcher an aspect of a problem to be studied in some depth within a limited time scale. (Bell, 199:8) This study was conducted using a multiple-case study which was carried out on more than one site. The case study is ideally suited to the needs and resources of the large or small scale for it allows a focus on more than one site example. This might be the researchers' place of work or another institution with which the researcher has a connection, such as a school in this case. Adelman et al 1980 (as cited in Cohen and Manion, 1994) identity as one of the advantages of case study research the fact that data generated from such research is 'strong in reality'. According to them this 'strength in reality is because case studies are down-to-earth and attention holding, in harmony with the reader's own experience …' (Cohen and Manion, 1994:123). Adelman et al also argues that "…case studies are a step to action … Their insights may be directly interpreted and put to use; for staff or individual self-development, for within-institutional feedback; for formative evaluation; and in educational policy making … At its best, they allow readers to

judge the implications of a study for themselves." (1980, as cited in Cohen and Manion, 1994:123)

According to (Creswell 1998:61) a case study can be regarded as a "…exploration or in-depth analysis of a bounded system". It is "an action" (Cohen et al, 2007:253) where research provides "a unique example of real people in real situations, enabling readers to understand ideas more clearly." The nature of the classroom is that there are many activities, much movement and associated language taking place at any given time. This research aims to understand the complex social phenomena happening in the classroom, and a case study method allows this understanding to reveal itself. (Yin, 1994) Because case studies are concerned with phenomena in context, the researcher does not control any of the events as they unfold, which is an important consideration when undertaking a case study.

The case study is not a data-gathering technique, but a methodological approach that incorporates a number of data-gathering measures (Hamel, Dufour, and Fortin, 1993). This therefore means that a case study is both a process of inquiry about the case and the product of that inquiry. A case study approach is then found within the qualitative research approach. It is an in-depth exploration of a particular context, such as classroom or group of individuals that involves the collection of extensive qualitative data. The case study method allowed me to retain the holistic and meaningful characteristics of real-life events (Yin, 2003:2). As indicated above, having chosen to work with the qualitative approach, I incorporated the case study method as will be evidenced in Chapters 4 and 5.

The study takes the form of a descriptive case study with a specific focus on the learning and teaching of isiXhosa in the senior phase. Stake cited in De Vos (2005:272) argues that the sole criterion for selecting cases for a case study should be the opportunity to learn. Because it is descriptive, the teacher's explanations are important. Similarly the output by learners is also important since they provide a deeper understanding of the events as they occur. Anchored in real-life situations the case study offers insights and illuminates meanings that expand its reader's experiences. It is relevant as it falls within my research area. The purpose of this study is to probe deeply into the matter of classroom practice with the intention of analysing the phenomenon that is being observed.

Bassey (1999) provides a useful description of educational case studies in his monograph on the subject. I reproduce the description in full below. An educational case study is an empirical study which is:

- Conducted within a localized boundary of space and time (i.e. a singularity);
- Looking at interesting aspects of an educational activity, or programme, or institution, or system;
- Mainly in its natural context and within an ethic of respect for persons;
- Used in order to inform judgements and decisions of practitioners or policy-makers;
- By theoreticians who are working to these ends;
  - (a) Allows for sufficient data to be collected for the researcher to be able to explore significant features of the case,
  - (b) to create plausible interpretations of what is found,
  - (c) to test for the trustworthiness of these interpretations,
  - (d) to construct a worthwhile argument or story,
  - (e) to relate the argument or story to any relevant research in the literature,
  - (f) to convey convincingly to an audience this argument or story,
  - (g) to provide an audit trail by which other researchers may validate or challenge the findings, or construct alternative arguments (Bassey, 1999:58) (see also Hua and David, 2008 and Mwinsheke, 2008 for more information on educational case studies).

I address some of these characteristics in the analysis and discussion of the data in Chapter 5.

Nunan developed a useful typology of case studies based on Stenhouse (1983) which I further reproduce below as it too is very useful for this research:

Table 3.3.2 Typology of case studies

Type	Description
Neo-ethnographic	The in-depth investigation of a single case by a participant observer
Evaluative	An investigation carried out in order to evaluate policy or practice
Multi-site	A study carried out by several researchers on more than one site
Action	An investigation carried out by a classroom practitioner in his or her professional context

Source (Nunan: 1992:78)

See also (Cohen, Morrison and Manion, 2007) and Hua and David (2008) in this regard.

In relation to Nunan's typology described above, I would place this research study in the second block, that is as part of an evaluative study. In this case I am looking at the language-in-education in practice, in relation to the learners competencies in the isiXhosa in three particular schools. In line with the above typology, Henning et al (2004:32) indicate that some case studies may employ methods that collect data in a controlled fashion and process the data statistically; therefore they use quantitative methods of data collection and analysis. The data I elicited for this study was through observing different isiXhosa teachers in their classroom-practices and through the assessment they used for the activities given to the learners during isiXhosa lessons. This study also fell into the category of collecting data in an uncontrolled fashion as I was not responsible for the classroom activities as opposed to the controlled fashion where I would have been integrally involved in the administration of the tasks.

Henning et al (2004:33) further describe a case study as: "When you read a case study, you expect to find therein detailed data about the phenomenon that has been studied, no matter what (suitable) methods have been used and what the theoretical position of the researcher may be. Many case studies use both qualitative and quantitative methods of data gathering and analysis to present a full picture of the phenomenon." They proceed to make the telling point that there has to be a 'goodness' of fit (supra) with regard to the research question.

Case study research excels at bringing us to an understanding for a complex issue. Case studies emphasize detailed contextual analysis of a limited number of events or conditions and

relationships (Soy, 1997:1) Case studies allow for an analysis through observations in their natural context, which is necessary before understanding how practices are produced and reproduced. (Cohen et al, 2007) Adelman et al. (1980:181) state that "…a case study is the study of an instance in action." This approach is again evidenced in Chapters 4 and 5.

3.4 Sampling

Case study selection and sampling are among the most crucial considerations in case research as espoused by Gillham (2000:114). The nature and selection of the sample of this study should take into account the research method selected, the research goals as well as the demands of the choice of the research paradigm, with the aim of providing the best information from the most appropriate research sites. (Creswell and Plano-Clark, 2007:112) Sampling usually involves people and settings, as well as events and processes.

For this particular study I have decided to employ a mix of purposive and convenience sampling. Firstly the researcher used convenience sampling. Castillo (2009) defines that convenience sampling is a non-probability sampling technique, by which the researcher gathers data from the selected population because of their accessibility and proximity. All the schools for this study were easy for me to reach and this amounted to them convenience sampling in the positive sense of the word. Convenience sampling is when the sample is selected on the basis of some constraints such as location, time and cost. A convenience sample is a group of subjects selected on the basis of being accessible or expedient. (MacMillan and Schumacher, 2001:175) Patton (2006) mentions the criterion of convenience which refers to the selection of those cases which are the easiest to access under given conditions. I chose School A as my convenience sample, because I have been employed at the school since 2004 and have positive relationships with the teaching staff. This type of sample is easier to use when conducting research, though it has some limitations. One of its limitations is that the researcher cannot make generalizations from the selected sample.

The sampling was done purposefully; three schools were purposively selected for the main component of this research, with isiXhosa teachers in all the selected schools. Working with three schools and six teachers was going to give the researcher an opportunity to study their practice in depth. These two types of sampling were deliberately chosen, as each one has a

specific purpose. Also these two approaches help the researcher to bring together a worldview perspective concerning the research. The cases presented are those from which someone can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the research, thus the name purposeful sampling (Patton, 1990 as cited in Merriam, 2001:61). In order to begin with the purposeful sampling the researcher should begin by a subject selection to obtain a sample that appears to be representative of the group (Patton, 1990). Also purposive sampling refers to a method of selecting the participants (teachers/learners) and (sites). (Le Compte and Preissie, 1993) The criteria were simply the senior phase (Grades7-9) where isiXhosa is taught as a language at first and second language levels, while it is also used as a language of learning and teaching in certain instances in school A.

For further purposive sampling this type of sampling helps the researcher to establish comparisons in order to show or highlight the reasons for differences between settings and individuals. The purposeful selection of participants represents a key decision point in a qualitative study. In the case of purposive sampling, researchers purposely seek typical and divergent data (Erlandson et al. 1993:33 cited in De Vos et al. 2005:329). This helps the researcher to put the whole sample together. However, the success of the research depends on the richness as well as the relevance of the information.

3.5 Data collection methods

Data collection refers to the process of gathering information related to your research which involves identifying methods of data and selecting methods. Data collection occurs in different phases namely, planning, beginning data collection, closing data collection, and completion. (Macmillan and Schumacher, 1989:185) Data was collected through the following multi methods to enhance validity:

- Classroom observations
- Semi-structured interviews
- Stimulated recall discussions on the lessons observed
- Document analysis
- Assessments (oral and written)

3.5.1 Classroom observations

Observation is a data collection technique that can often reveal characteristics of groups or individuals which would have been impossible to discover by other means. (Bell, 1999:109) Furthermore observations are one of the research strategies in many types of research designs; experimental, descriptive and historical. (Best and Kahn, 1989:185) I was introduced to the learners upon my arrival in the classrooms and referred to them throughout my stay in the classrooms. This inspired me to sit in the classrooms of the teachers to observe how they teach isiXhosa in three different levels that is Home language, and as additional languages. To respond to the sub-research question(s) that underpin this study, as mentioned in Chapter 1, I made observations to gather information from the classroom in order to understand the realities of isiXhosa as a subject of learning and teaching in the three selected schools.

The researcher had to observe a number of things in the classrooms such as:
- How the isiXhosa lessons were structured
- What kind of activities were used
- What kind of resources used and how they were used
- Interaction between learners and teachers (Participants)
- What similarities and differences were observed between different learners and how can these are accounted for.

This helped in order to ascertain an understanding surrounding the issue of language and how it is taught in these three schools. Furthermore the classroom observations also enabled me to get a clear picture and full understanding of what is happening in the isiXhosa classrooms. This enabled me to draw comparisons and similarities in three schools from the teachers and learners perspectives, presenting a more ethnographic approach which is described below.

There are different types of observations, such as passive observation, whereby an observer simply gathers documents and observes people without doing anything to disturb the situation. In participant observation, the researcher participates in the activities of the persons being observed rather than being an observer. In active observation, the researcher could take a middle position of being an active observer; although participation is allowed it is limited. (Patton, 2010) The main focus of my observations was to note the differences or similarities in

the teaching of isiXhosa in the three levels of teaching as indicated in the NCS document. I was interested in the classroom dynamics as to how they were teaching their isiXhosa lessons and how they interacted with learners.

I carried out three lesson observations per class per grade in each of the three schools as indicated in Chapter 1. As I continued with the classroom observations in total I had 27 observation sessions. I then began to find some answers, sometimes to a limited extent, to some of the research questions posed in Chapter 1. Through close interactions between myself as a researcher and the subjects of the study (teachers and learners), I began to understand how the research subjects perceived and interpreted situations in which they lived.

As a back-up to classroom observations, I conducted video recordings. In the three years of this study (2011-2013), videos were taken in all three schools with the help of colleagues. I recorded what was happening inside the classroom, thus proving the worthiness of observations recorded in field notes alongside video-recordings. (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2007:311) That helped to keep track of situations and thoughts during the period of the study.

I audio recorded the isiXhosa lessons. The purpose of the recordings was to capture and compare how teachers and learners interacted in isiXhosa lessons with the purpose of being able to study the material later. I used the audio recording to compare the three schools' teaching and learning strategies used in isiXhosa classrooms. I also looked at the examples given by the teachers to interpret the isiXhosa concepts in the classrooms and how the learners interpreted those concepts in relation to the learning area and lesson outcomes of the Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS 2002).

Berg (1989:192) suggests that "…note-taking is a personal activity that depends upon the research context, the objectives of the research, and the relationship with the informants." Field notes were a useful tool because of their convenience. They provided continuity, as I was able to relate incidents, identification of issues and the information by the participants. Also field notes were taken to describe the physical environment of each classroom – the spatial organisation, how space was used, the resources available and how these were used. This forms part of the analysis in Chapter 5. Spontaneous written work of the participants, photographs taken and resources used by the teachers were collected. I was a non-participant observer in this study; the teachers and learners were aware of my presence and tolerated my being in the

classroom. The teachers understood my interest in their practice as someone who is also in the teaching profession and merely interested in their own practices for research purposes. Essentially, observations are about describing a setting and events that take place within that setting. Learners came to show me their work or asked me questions, but I did not make any contributions nor did I offer any advice to the learners or teachers in changing their practice. Observation was also a means of triangulating the data obtained through interviews. Altrichter et al (1993:92) contend that "descriptive reporting describes the behaviour 'as it is' (what has been seen, said and done) with as little explanation, judgement and evaluation as possible."

Due to the fact that I conducted these classroom observations in these three schools it was not possible to make daily visits due to the schools timetables that were different. My visits depended on the teacher's timetables. My observations started in 2011 and ended in 2013. The motive behind the visits was to track the learners as they were progressing from the beginning of the senior phase (Grade 7) right up to the end that is Grade 9. This phase is known as the General Education and Training (GET) band according to the NCS terminology. Also this action was in line with the aims of this study. This became an advantage of working with the same teachers in all the schools for the respective years.

3.5.2 Stimulated recall discussions

For the benefit of this study I decided to include another tool for data gathering that is the stimulated recall discussions. This was another way of allowing me as a researcher to understand all aspects of the observed lessons. During the lesson presentations, I noted questions concerning unclear/grey areas, as a result after the lessons I carried out stimulated recall discussions of the lessons with the teachers using my field notes as a back-up. The discussions gave the teachers an opportunity to explain why they prepared and taught their lessons in a certain way.

3.5.3 Interviews

This subsection discusses the use of interviews as a research method in the present study. The interview as a research method is discussed in this section. The researcher selected interviews because of their adaptability: "an interviewer can follow up ideas, probe responses and investigate motives and feelings which questionnaires can never do." (Bell, 1993:91) The researcher conducted semi-structured interviews with the six teachers. The interviews were conducted in both isiXhosa and in English (see Appendix A).

Another reason why I chose to use interviews as a tool in this study is that the method allowed for in-depth descriptions of the respondent's actions and their understanding of the importance of teaching isiXhosa as a subject. Also I was able to capture emotions as well as their cues, as I was having face-to-face interviews with them. Lastly the interviews were consistent with the interpretive paradigm. The paradigm focuses on subjectivity to understand and explain the actions of the individual. The interview provided the opportunity for the researcher to understand their subjective world.

For this study I have decided to choose the semi-structured interviews as they seemed to suit the exploratory purpose of this research. The decision to have chosen this type of interview was based on a review of the various types of interview methods available as outlined by Patton (2001), and as quoted in Cohen et al. (2007:352-356). The semi-structured interview "…combines structure and flexibility…." In that it was easy to modify questions to acquire the desired answers that were pertinent to this study. According to Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (1996:234) this form of interview allows for a deeper exploration of personal responses and emotions. An interview guide was used to help keep the interview going and to stay on track (see Appendix B). A consent form was also signed (see Appendix C).

Semi-structured interviews allowed me as a researcher to actively encourage self-reflection on language issues regarding the teaching of isiXhosa. Semi-structured interviews meant that there were set, pre-prepared questions guiding the interview, with room for asking follow-up questions. Also the semi-structured interviews and some questions were open ended to allow further probing by the interviewer. Semi-structured interviews, according to Bless and Higson-Smith (2008:108) allow the discovery of new aspects of the probe by asking for further explanation from the respondents. Comparing the other types of interviews, structured interviews would have imposed on my own patterns of thinking, particularly my ideological

stand on the teachers thus restricting their freedom. At the same time unstructured interviews would have been time consuming and leading the conversation away from topics of particular interest.

For this particular study, a focus on semi-structured interviews was chosen based on the following assumption:

1. It takes place with respondents known to have been involved in a particular experience.
2. It refers to situations that have been analysed prior to the interview.
3. It proceeds on the basis of an interview-guide, specifying topics related to the research hypothesis.
4. It is focused on the subject's experiences regarding the situations under study.
   (See Dalvit, 2004)

Interviews are an established and widely used method in the social sciences and educational research. I used interviews to complement the data obtained by informal conversations and classroom observations to obtain a picture of the language dynamics of teaching isiXhosa in a multilingual/heterogeneous classroom. I then conclude with a brief description of the development of the interview designed in two languages, English and isiXhosa.

Conversations with teachers were an important feature throughout the observation period when learners were playing outside. Before starting with the interviews, I explained to the teachers' the purpose of the interview and asked them to be free and honest about their responses. All interviews were conducted with isiXhosa teachers in all three schools. The interviews were conducted at different times as there were no specified times. According to Collins, cited in Willis (2007:137) the interviews serve to facilitate the process wherein messages are conveyed from one mind to another. For Collins the interview is not a fact finding mission but an interaction between people who are creating understanding through conversation. Interviews are required to provide oral responses to open-ended questions directed to teachers by the researcher. In order to probe for more information about a specific point the interview guide includes general suggestions such as "Can you explain in more detail"? Another general probing question would be "What do you mean by…? (Oerter et al. 1999:43-7)

The unstructured interview is also known as the informal conversational interview, where questions "…emerge from the immediate context and questions are asked in the natural course

of things and there is no predetermination of questions." (Patton 2001 Cohen et al. 2007:353-356) This type of interview was not chosen for this study, because it was not systematic and without guidelines controlling the interviews, and there are no mechanisms to ensure that relevant, consistent data can be generated from all the interviews conducted. This would be a risky way of data collection, because drawing themes and trends could be very challenging if the questions and data generated were different. The structured interview was also not used in this study. Structured interviews are usually prepared well in advance. They are normally used to count or quantify responses. I did not envisage quantifying data, but rather drawing descriptive data from respondents.

3.5.4 Development and administration of the teacher interview questions

I used the document analysis for drafting the initial questions that I used in the classroom and with the interaction with the teachers, as well as other people knowledgeable in the educational sphere. Document analysis was also central to the question of the development of interviews. Literature on language policy provided another source for the development of the interview questions. Some of the questions were derived from my own curiosity about ways in which the language (isiXhosa in this case) is implemented in each of the three sites. Other questions came from my prior knowledge as a teacher.

Classroom observations enabled me to obtain an indication of the areas that people were interested in, and wanted to know more about. I used this information to create questions for the interviews. The questions were then prepared and ordered, and given to the respondents a few days before the interview. This was an important stage, as questions had to be modified to suit some of the respondents.

I gave the respondents an opportunity to relax by asking them general questions about their work and how long they had been involved in it. All interviews began with a few background questions which served as ice-breakers. At several points in the interview, opinion seeking questions were asked.

Teachers were told at the beginning about the purpose of the interviews. They were also assured that their responses would be kept confidential. Permission was asked to record their responses.

Interviews were conducted in different venues comfortable for the respondents. This was achieved by allowing them to choose the venue themselves. All the interviews were audio-taped. I did this as I wanted to save time as I do not have skills in short-hand writing. At both schools B and C interviews were conducted after school hours, whereas at School A they were conducted during tea-time. This was an agreement between the researcher and the Head of Department of the Senior Phase. I had an opportunity to interview educators one-by-one. That created a very relaxed mood. In total, I had six extended interviews with educators in all three schools. I did translations for isiXhosa interviews into English. I was able to interact with my data, which I began to analyse while I translated.

3.5.5 Documents

Documents of all types can help the researcher uncover meaning and discover insights relevant to the research problem. (Merriam 2001:133) This refers to physical material gathered during the research for this study. (Schwartz 1997:32) I had to read extensively in order to understand the field and to be in a position to interpret my findings, as indicated in Chapter 2.

Policy documents and what is stipulated therein were looked at. The purpose of the description of schools in this thesis is to learn more about the situation within the research sites, from an ethnographic point of view, and they serve as a reminder regarding specific conditions found at the research sites. Moreover, the descriptions are taken in conjunction with participant observation. (Hymes, 1962) Document research may also be used conjunctively as a means to counter validity threats.

I was able to gain access to various documents that were used in the classrooms. Learner books were used to assess what was happening in the classroom during the period of observation. Learner books were used to gauge the stage of learning that the learners had reached during the observation period. Learner books/written work were made available and photocopied (see appendix D).

The writing and oral tasks were also administered by the teachers. This involved assessing the written and oral activities administered to pupils in grades 7-9 in the three different levels of isiXhosa that is: HL, FAL, and SAL. An analysis of various documents was used as the initial

data collection method. This enabled me to construct the criteria that I used to focus my observation and subsequent analysis for Chapters 4 and 5.

3.6 Data analysis

Data was analysed using qualitative data analysis. The interview data and observation field notes were coded into categories and then analysed. (Bell, 1999) To validate data, triangulation was used by interviewing the participants, observing their classrooms, discussing their lessons and getting information from the documents they used in their classrooms, plus samples of the learners work. During the analysis I constantly cross-checked the data obtained using these tools. The different data I used yielded different sets of data. In this sub-section I discuss how I analysed them.

Analysis of interview data was conducted by listening to the recordings and taking notes on the key issues. Document analysis also included all the curriculum documents that influence the teaching of isiXhosa in the senior phase (SP). Analysing the resources in the classroom during the observation period gave me a snapshot of what learning had taken place before and during the time of observation.

The process of data analysis was guided by the research questions I posed for this study. The research questions were two-fold: what was happening in the classroom on an observable level (interaction between learners and teachers) as well as how teachers explain the observable practices. The study aimed to look at the learner competencies, teacher practices and the curriculum outcomes in isiXhosa and analysis was conducted case by case (analysing the work of each learner in each respective school). The teacher-learner communication became central during the on-going process of analysing the data. This helped me to form an understanding of the level of communication between the teacher and the learners and to decide who was able to frame learning at any point in the lesson, the teacher or the learners. I focused on the instructions and extent of verbal interaction the teacher had with learners about the lesson. This related to the monitoring of the learners and what the content of the conversation was during these interactions with the learners.

While analysing the interviews, information collected through additional methods was considered, particularly the informal communication with the isiXhosa teachers in the three selected schools. Formal interviews as well as the informal conversations became moments of discussion and self-reflection.

3.7 Using ethnographic principles

In order to understand and explain the complexity of the classroom life, ethnographic principles have been employed in this study. However the study does not claim to be ethnographic since the scope of this study placed limitations on the period of observation. A basic inquiry about ethnographic inquiry is that it is possible to see the insider's view of reality. (Johnson, 1992:142) Furthermore I used ethnography to assist me in compiling the discussion of my findings that will be presented in Chapters 5 and 6.

The ethnographic approach involving participant observation is taken from the approach developed by Dell Hymes (1962). In terms of his ethnographic framework which involves a "speech situation", such as the schooling environment, Hymes (1962:101) states that "The ethnography of speaking is concerned with the situations and uses, the patterns and functions, of speaking as an activity in its own right." Having established that this particular research is interpretive, it is also ethnographic in that it focuses mainly on the classroom practices by both teachers and learners. I also knew that personal interpretation is in itself a very subjective way of analysing data. In other words its primary emphasis lies in the process of understanding. As stated above, this study was conducted particularly in the classroom that enabled me to use the interpretive paradigm as a lens through which to view this research. My view was that the researcher had to look at different places and at different aspects of the classroom in order to understand the phenomenon of teaching and learning. The aim is to provide a description and an interpretive-explanatory account of what people do in particular settings; the outcome of their interactions; and the way in which they understand what they are doing, as well as to compare their actions from and ethnographic perspective. (Watson-Gegeo, 1988)

3.7.1 Principles of ethnography

Ethnography is about grasping "the point of view of the participant, their view of the world and in relation to their life." (Cohen et al. 2007:167) This recognises the need to foreground the teacher and their understanding of their practise rather than a researcher's point of view being central to the research. The intention of ethnography is "to create as vivid a reconstruction as possible of the culture or groups being studied." (Cohen et al. 2007:168) The focus of this study was on teacher practices and learner competencies in isiXhosa by comparing these across schools, hence the need to bring in an ethnographic perspective. Le Compte and Preissie (1993) discuss the characteristics of ethnography at length. The following apply to my research:

- The world view/understanding of the participants is investigated and presented
- Data is collected in the natural context, in this case, a classroom setting (Cohen et al. 2007)
- The focus of the research is about uncovering meanings and understandings from the participant's point of view
- It allows for a description and interpretation of the total phenomena
- A description of the phenomena is formed in relation to its context
- Ethnography allows a description and analysis of patterns of a given social interaction; in this study the interaction is between the teachers and the learners.

The isiXhosa in these three schools was taught according to the levels in which they were offered as already mentioned above.

3.8 Ethical considerations

Ethical issues were considered in this study. As a researcher, I demonstrated professionalism at all times. The purpose of the research ethics is to protect the welfare and the rights of the research participants. (Terreblanche and Durrheim, 1999:65) According to Aubrey et al. (2000), research ethics involve the researcher having the ability to consider whether the ways in which they conduct the research is in harmony with their moral code. According to Stake (1998:18) procedures for gaining access to research subjects are based on the enduring expectations that permissions are needed. I had to consult with the Principals of three schools to access permission to conduct all interviews and classroom visits.

A meeting was arranged beforehand between the researcher and the three principals at different scheduled times. Principals were informed about the purpose of the study, as well as how the data was to be gathered. In addition I explained the purpose of conducting the research, namely to fulfill the requirements of the PhD program at Rhodes University. Thereafter I was granted verbal consent from the Principals to work with the teachers. Obtaining permission was beneficial in that I came to know people that I was going to work with. All the participants were competent to make their decision on whether to take part in the study.

Additionally all participants were asked to sign a consent form as a record of their voluntary participation and undertaking that they understood the purpose of the study (see Appendix E). I made sure that all respondents were informed of the nature and consequences of the research. (Christians, 2005)

Participants were assured of confidentiality. I further assured participants that any photographs and video clips would remain anonymous. Confidentiality and anonymity are sometimes mistakenly used as synonyms, but they have quite distinct meanings. Confidentiality is an attempt to remove from the research records any elements that might indicate the participants' identities. In a literal sense, anonymity means that the subjects remain nameless.

For ethical reasons the participant's names were not mentioned but they have been given codes such as **T1** and **T2**. This was done deliberately to conceal and to maintain anonymity so that the participants felt more comfortable being part of the research. This practice will continue in any publication of this study. As I was working with children this issue was of particular concern. However the research undertaken did not place the pupils in any danger. Furthermore information given by me to the participants was not revealed to other participants. Anonymity and confidentiality will also be considered during future publication.

3.9 Validity

In this section I discuss the several validity threats identified, and the ways I improved the validity of my research. Validity refers to the "extent to which a measure accurately reflects the concept it is intended to measure." (De Vos et al. 2005:121) As stated earlier, in dealing with validity I was aware of the effect that personal bias could have on the end-results of my

study. I made a conscious effort to minimise the influence of my personal bias on the data collection and conclusions reached by exercising mindfulness at all times. (Maxwell, 1992)

Bias in my study included my possible bias as regards interpretation of the data. As Hamersley and Atkinson (1983:191) state: "data in themselves cannot be valid or invalid; what is at issue are the inferences drawn from them." It is this statement that made me conscious of being mindful in order to minimize the influence of my personal bias. I avoided giving my personal views/opinions or interrupting the respondents and focused more on listening to them and probing what they were saying.

Validity measurement in qualitative research lies with whether the data collection method is investigating what the research is supposed to be investigating. Furthermore, validity checks for bias or lack of precision; it questions the procedures used and the decisions made. It also addresses theoretical questions, which underpin the research study. (Henning et al. 2004:148) Most data was collected by means of observations, and to make meaning of the data I interviewed teachers who voluntarily became part of the study. I had to make sure that my qualitative data was based on the respondents lived experiences. I was especially able to do this by using probing questions, where I asked my respondents to base their answers as much as possible on their teaching experiences.

To strengthen the validity of my research, I interviewed the participants in the language of their choice. That was to ensure that they were free to speak in a language that they best understand. At school A I used isiXhosa and at both schools B and C English was used. I avoided giving direct responses by voicing out personal views and opinions. While preparing questions, I had to address my personal view-points, so that they did not affect the study. I did this through engaging in lengthy discussions with people who had different points of view on language issues. I had to make sure that my qualitative data was not based purely on my opinion. As stated above, I did this by ensuring that my interview data was based on the participants lived experiences and the actuality that was recorded. (Van der Mescht, 2008)

Member checking is another way of validating findings. This also assists in making sure that the data is valid in terms of being representative of the views of the respondents. After each classroom lesson visit, all unclear issues were clarified with the teachers concerned.

3.10 Limitations of the study

Generalizability was one limitation this study faced. Marshall and Rossman (1989:146) states that in a qualitative study "…generalizability to other settings, that is its external validity, may be problematic and is seen as a weakness in the approach." The end results of this study are based on three schools only; therefore they do not represent other schools in Grahamstown and beyond, though it is suggested that to some extent these schools represent a microcosm of the South African schooling environment i.e. an ex-DET government township school, a previous Model-C government school and a private school.

No research project can be perfect. There will always be further insights that could have been gained. This research too has limitations. I was aware that being a teacher, teachers might have been constrained in what they said to me and how they behaved. To overcome this thought, I talked to them about the research and reassured them that I would maintain their anonymity and confidentiality and that I would share with them all my findings and analysis. All data collection methods employed for this study can in my view is regarded as fit for purpose in relation to the main research question and purpose of the study as outlined above and in Chapter 1 of this thesis.

The nature and duration of this study, and commitment of the participants, together with the research environment and working conditions at the three schools, as well as the fact I am a full-time teacher, can be seen as limitations in themselves within the context of this study.

3.11 Challenges faced

I experienced certain problems, the most challenging being that of time. Setting up times with colleagues was difficult, as we were faced by problems of understaffing due to the "Temporary Teacher's Issue" in the Eastern Cape Province in South Africa between the years 2011-2013. Many of these teachers were not paid and simply withdrew from the system, placing much pressure on remaining teachers. Another challenge was streamlining questions that I wanted to pose to my participants, without being biased or leading. Once the interviews were completed,

I faced the challenge of transcribing them, which was time consuming. Another hurdle to overcome was the fact that some of the participants refused to be voice-recorded.

3.12 Conclusion

This chapter begins by situating the research within a particular research paradigm. I move on to explain the various research approaches that were used. The chapter then describes the methods of data collection. It later explains issues of validity, limitations, and challenges for this research and the role that the researcher played is outlined. Given the ethnographic nature of the research it was important to specify the research methods in detail in order to contribute to the validation of my research. The qualitative nature of the research is outlined in this chapter.

In the next chapter I present the data that was collected from the respective research sites by using the various methods as discussed in this chapter.

Chapter 4

Data presentation

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents data gathered through observations, interviews, assessment of learner's work and stimulated recall of the lessons observed, as well as the classroom documents. The purpose of my study is essentially two-fold as outlined in previous chapters: to look at the curriculum outcomes set for this study, and to assess teacher practises and learner competencies in isiXhosa in the senior phase, against an ethnographic or comparative background of the three

schools and their respective environments as mentioned in Chapter 3. The previous chapter gave an account of the different techniques that were employed to collect data for this study. Therefore in this chapter the data is presented in categories that relate not only to the research question and methodology, but also to the objectives of the study which are reflected in the first chapter.

This chapter is structured in a manner that attempts to answer the research questions which are given in Chapter 1, while providing authentic data samples that were captured by means of the different data collection strategies outlined in the previous chapter. Based on the data collected, the chapter intends presenting issues that emerged by outlining the themes and trends as they were extrapolated from school to school, and also from the goals of this study. These issues have been organised into the following categories:

- National Curriculum Statement versus the school's curriculum
- Teaching materials used by teachers for isiXhosa
- The structuring of isiXhosa lessons by teachers
- How were the learners assessed?

All these categories contribute to the way isiXhosa is taught at each level in which it was offered in the three schools selected for this study.

4.1 National Curriculum Statement versus school Curricula

This section compared the curriculum used in each of the three schools with the National Curriculum Statement (NCS). The Languages Learning area under NCS is presented in three parts, each with its own volume: Home Language, First additional Language, and Second additional Language. The languages learning area statement provides a curriculum that is supportive of whatever decision a school makes. The languages learning area therefore supports learning in all of the other learning areas because a language, whether it is the home or an additional language is the medium through which all teaching, learning and assessment takes place. (Teachers resource book, 2005)

In the GET band, the phase in which this study was conducted, learners are required to learn their Home language and at least a First Additional Language, with the option of learning a Second Language. The learning outcomes for this study were LO's 1-5 as already mentioned in Chapter 2. The researcher looked at the curriculum documents to see how they guide teachers to teach isiXhosa and create classroom documents in order to see what happened in practice. I looked at the syllabus, the senior phase training manual used to train grades 7-9 teachers, the scheme of work, the teacher's lesson plans (to be presented and discussed in the next section) and samples of learners work in their exercise books.

The home language assessment standards assume that learners come to school able to understand and speak i.e. they have literacy (reading, writing, visual and critical literacies). This refers to school A where isiXhosa is taught as HL. The first additional assumes that the learners' do not necessarily have any knowledge of the language (isiXhosa) when they arrive at school. The curriculum starts by developing learner's ability to understand and speak the isiXhosa language. On this foundation it builds literacy, this refers to school B. The second additional language is intended for learners who wish to learn three languages. The assessment standards ensure that learners are able to use the language for general communicative purposes. Second additional language does not have learning outcome 5 that deals with the use of languages for reasoning and thinking. This outcome is not included in the curriculum for SAL since its aim is not to prepare learners to use isiXhosa in this way. This refers to schools B and C.

4.1.1 Home Language Curriculum at School A

As indicated above, the three schools had different curriculum according to the three levels in which isiXhosa was offered in each school. The school's curriculum served as a guide to teach isiXhosa as a subject in the different schools for this study. The focus of this phase is on consolidating what they have learnt in the earlier grades. The learners should be able to read and write for a wide range of purposes - formal and informal, public and personal. School A was a rich isiXhosa environment and the syllabus was written in isiXhosa. The curriculum for the home language level sets out the basic competencies to be achieved in each grade that is from grades 7-9. The learners had to read both in silent form and sometimes aloud, depending

on the instructions of a particular activity for language. Learners had to read prepared and unprepared paragraphs or passages from the prescribed readers. Learners had to talk about content and reading was encouraged on a daily basis and sometimes also done for enjoyment. Also at HL level the learners had to retell the stories and further discuss them. This allowed for some latitude for interpretation of the material under discussion, thereby contributing to a more critical approach for the HL learning.

The content of texts can be challenging and stimulating to develop critical understanding of values. Below are the texts for grades 7-9 in an isiXhosa home level school i.e. school A:

Grade 7	Grade 8	Grade 9
Short stories	Short stories	Short stories
Autobiographies	Poetry	A full length novel
Short novels	Plays	Poetry
Poetry	Folklore (where appropriate)	Three- to five-act-plays
One- and two-act-plays	Selection of short texts such as magazines	Folklore (where appropriate)
Myths and legends	Film study	Selection of shorter texts

From the full range of texts above, the learners should be exposed to rich and appropriate social and historical settings that develop understanding of the heritage of the isiXhosa language.

For school A learners were given complex texts that needed their critical thinking. Examples were:

Hlalutya lo mbongo uze ujonge imiqolo kuzo zonke izitanza. (Analyse this poem looking at all the stanzas line by line.)

A variety of poetic forms emerged in the poems chosen by the teachers for the learners.

4.1.2 First Additional Language Curricula at school B

The curriculum for FAL focused on a range of more complex texts with a greater degree of independence than in the earlier grades. At this level they will learn to write longer texts. Learners will understand more complicated concepts and develop more complex thinking, but this thinking is not on a par with the critical thinking required in school A.

In school B learners were given simpler texts and lexical items, for example lessons on the family structure and greetings:

umama 'mother', utata 'father', umalume 'uncle', umakhulu 'grandmother', umninawe 'younger brother', umakazi 'maternal aunt', udadobawo 'paternal aunt', utatomninci 'paternal uncle'…

Further examples regarding greetings: molo-molweni 'Hello, in both singular and plural', molo titshalakazi 'Hello teacher', molweni bafundi 'Hello learners' and so on.

The texts ranged from oral, visual and written. The following texts form part of the curriculum in school B:

Grade 7	Grade 8	Grade 9
Stories, fables, legends, songs	Jokes, songs, poems directions, instructions	Radio news
Maps, plans, diagrams, photographs	Descriptions of people, messages	Interviews cartoons
Books, poems, recipes, notices, dictionaries	Conversations, prepared talks, maps, graphs, photographs	Description of people, objects, places and processes
Charts, word puzzles, time tables, notices, dictionaries	Invitations, book and television reviews	Weather reports, jokes, multimedia, videos
Graphs , charts, reports	Dictionaries	Post cards, letters, diaries.

4.1.3 Second Additional Language Curricula at School C

In school C the curriculum was mostly on the spoken language, for example dialogue and the acquisition of vocabulary and there was little written language. Simpler texts were given to learners. The focus at this level is for the learners to feel confident about using isiXhosa especially in oral communication.

Arguably sound grammar and vocabulary are the building blocks of language. They are to be taught in texts and integrated with reading, listening and speaking. Below are examples of the texts used for the second additional language level:

Grade 7	Grade 8	Grade 9
Debates, conversations,	Stories	TV programmes
Role plays, jokes	Graded readers	TV adverts
Discussions, word games	Magazine and newspaper articles	Films
Simple radio programmes	Advertisements	Videos
Oral poems, stories	Reference books	Greeting cards
Dialogue, reports	Post cards	Computer programmes
Messages, songs	Messages	

From the above outline of the curriculum it would seem that there is some overlap between what is taught at first additional and second language levels i.e. the curricula is a more interactive one in nature, whereas at school A the HL curriculum requires greater critical thinking. Arguably the HL curriculum also needs to be more contemporary in nature as compared to the other two levels i.e. to embrace critical thinking in relation to contemporary media rather than relying on extant texts and the written word to a large degree.

4.2 Research sites

In this section I explain the historical background of the three schools chosen as research sites. I also explain their geographical position in Grahamstown. All the schools for this study operated in extreme settings which are dictated by the educational milieu which was inherited from the apartheid structures. This milieu to some extent sadly still influences the nature of

these schools, their geographical positions and how they operate as well as the nature of the learner in-take.

Township schools are generally located in the low socio-economic areas of Grahamstown. School A is situated in Joza location. It is a township school that is under-resourced but well managed. The school is a Junior Secondary school that starts from Grade R and proceeds right up to Grade 9. The school had an enrolment of 989 learners in the 2013 academic year (school statistics). The learners in this school are isiXhosa speakers. There is a staff complement of 32 teachers. Educator participation in this study was voluntary and educators that were interested in my research were targeted. The school itself is in the centre of a low cost housing project where the majority of the parents work as domestic workers and gardeners. Some parents are pensioners; some are doing-piece-jobs, and many are unemployed. This should be taken into consideration i.e. that this school accommodates learners particularly from the working class families as well as many broken homes.

The school also offers a feeding scheme to all learners. The motive behind this is that some learners come to school having not eaten, and it is hoped this feeding scheme will motivate them to come to school on a regular basis. That has attracted learners from all over Joza Township, such as the informal settlement and the squatter camps. There is overcrowding in the townships and unfavourable living conditions, such as lack of proper sanitation, poverty and high crime rates. Burglaries have occurred several times at this school and the area poses certain dangers. Given the above account of the school it is a non-fee paying school, which was is subsidized by the government.

School B, is situated in the centre of town in Grahamstown-East. This school attracted learners mainly from middle class families. The school grounds are attractive and it is an ex-Model C school, with all the facilities of a previously whites-only school. There was diversity in the staff component. The school was well resourced with numerous sporting facilities as well as a well-resourced library. The learners were from the neighbouring farms and the suburbs. The school was diverse in character as it had a mixture of languages and cultures: English, Afrikaans and isiXhosa, and ironically the latter being in the majority.

This speaks to some extent to transformation of post-apartheid South African society and should have implications for how the isiXhosa is taught. Again, one may question why

isiXhosa is not offered as a HL in such a schooling environment where it is offered as a first additional language to learners who are mother tongue speakers. This will be taken up again in Chapter 6 of this thesis under recommendations. The classes at school B were well resourced and well managed. The school is a fee-paying school.

School C, was situated in Grahamstown-West in the main town just like school B. The school draws children from wealthy families and from outside the boarders of South Africa, for example from Kenya, Uganda, Zimbabwe, the Middle East, Britain and the United States of America. Just like school B, the classes are multiracial and multicultural. The school is governed by its own laws designed for a private school. The classes have proper class infrastructure as well as a fully equipped libraries and laboratories. Also this school is a high fee-paying school, in excess of one hundred thousand rand per annum (accommodation inclusive) as opposed to school A which is fully subsidized by government, with all the concomitant challenges of resources and lack of equipment. Again this speaks to the social divide which presently exists in South Africa and which is reflected in the 'extreme' schooling system as outlined in this thesis. School C is a girl's school which is in partnership with a brother school which is an all-boys school within the same proximity. From grade 8 right up to grade 12 the classes were constituted of both boys and girls from both schools, but essentially they are from separate schools and they share certain teachers and classroom facilities.

4.3 Teacher qualifications

This section provides the background information and a profile of the research participants. I will be presenting and profiling six selected teachers in each of the three schools, though discussions and interviews were held with many teachers participated in this study. This background information is important from an ethnographic point of view and also allows for a further understanding of the teaching practices that emanate from each school. Teachers come from different eras and age groups, with different educational backgrounds, which again inform the way that they teach and the world-view to which they have been exposed and which they have imbibed.

Teachers at school A:

T1

T1 was 46 years old, teaching grade 7, with 26 years teaching experience. He did his Teachers Diploma majoring in isiXhosa at the Cape College of teachers at Fort Beaufort. He was an isiXhosa mother- tongue speaker. She had a class of 40 learners with a gender balance of 20 girls and 20 boys.

T2

T1 was 52 years of age with 28 years of teaching experience. She was also an isiXhosa first-tongue speaker. She was a graduate from Rhodes University, with a Bachelor of Arts (BA) majoring in isiXhosa in her degree and also had a post-graduate certificate in education (PGCE). She taught Grades 8-9 learners. There were 43 learners in her classroom, 30 girls and 13 boys. In grade 9 she had a classroom of 35 learners, 20 girls and 15 boys. This teacher was once a foundation phase teacher when she started her teaching career, and as the years went by she upgraded herself at Rhodes and was then promoted to teach the senior phase classes.

Teachers at school B:

T1

T1 was a grade 7 teacher with three years of teaching experience and also an isiXhosa mother-tongue speaker. He was 23 years of age, with a Bachelors degree from Rhodes University (BA), a post-graduate certificate in education (PGCE), and an Honours degree in African Languages from Rhodes University. The classroom consisted of 26 boys.

T2

T2 was 47 years old with 22 years of teaching experience. She was an Afrikaans mother-tongue speaker teaching isiXhosa. She was a qualified teacher just like the other teachers at the above mentioned school. She had a teachers Diploma at as well as an advanced certificate in education from Potchefstroom University. She taught both grade 8 and grade 9 learners. The grade 8 classroom had 28 learners and was an all-boys class. The grade 9 classroom was made up of 30 learners and it was also an all-boys class.

Teachers at school C:

T1

She was a grade 7 teacher and was 38 years old. She spoke isiXhosa as her home language. She had 18 years of teaching experience. T1 had a Bachelor of Arts majoring in isiXhosa from the university of Fort Hare, a Teachers Diploma from Cape College of Education, and an Honours and Master's degree from Rhodes University, both in African languages.

T2

She was a grade 8 as well as a grade 9 teacher and was 40 years old. She spoke isiXhosa as her first-tongue. She had a Bachelor of Arts degree from Fort Hare and majored in isiXhosa, a Higher Diploma in Education and Honours in isiXhosa. In her grade 8 classroom she had 12 learners, and in her grade 9 classroom she had 19 learners.

Table 1: A summary of the teacher's qualifications

Schools	**Qualifications**	**Experience in year**	**Mother-tongue**
		26 years	
School A T1	Teachers diploma	22 years	Xhosa
School A T2	BA, PGCE	3 years	Xhosa
School B T1	BA, PGCE, Hons	23 years	Xhosa
School B T2	Teachers Diploma, ACE	18 years	Afrikaans
School C T1	Teachers diploma, Hons, Masters	20 years	Xhosa
School C T2	BA, HDE, Hons		Xhosa

The above information described a pool of knowledge that enabled the teachers to teach isiXhosa in all the three schools for this study. It is interesting to note that teachers who are teaching isiXhosa also represent the 'certitudes' that were inherited from apartheid, but these 'certitudes' are also challenged at the same time, with the exception of school A where mother tongue teachers teach mother tongue learners. In schools B and C the teachers who teach isiXhosa are made up of mother tongue teachers as well as Afrikaans and other English mother tongue speakers who are proficient in, and able to teach isiXhosa at first additional and second language levels, though not at mother tongue level. In a sense this is the challenge that is

alluded to earlier on in this chapter. The learner make-up has for example changed dramatically in school B, yet there is no mother tongue teaching of isiXhosa taking place.

4.4 Learner Compositions

This section seeks to introduce the demographics of the learners in the classrooms as well as their background in terms of race and sex. There is also some discussion on their behaviour and attitudes during isiXhosa lessons.

Table A: Grade 7 classroom at School A

Number of learners	Boys	Girls	Total
Black Xhosa	20	20	40

Table B: Grade 8 classroom at School A

Number of learners	Boys	Girls	Total
Black Xhosa	13	30	43

Table C: Grade 9 classroom at school A

Number of learners	Boys	Girls	Total
Black Xhosa	15	20	35

Table A: Grade 7 classroom at school B

Number of Learners	Boys	Total
White English	4	
White Afrikaans	3	
Black Xhosa	15	
Coloured Afrikaans	3	
Indian English	1	26

Table B: Grade 8 classroom at school B

Number of Learners	Boys	Total
White English	4	
White Afrikaans	3	

White German	1	
Black Xhosa	18	
Indian & Pakistani	2	28

Table C: Grade 9 classroom at school B

Number of Learners	Boys	Total
White English	5	
White Afrikaans	3	
Black Xhosa	16	
Coloured Afrikaans	4	
Indian English	2	30

Table A: Grade 7 classroom at school C

Number of learners	Girls	Total
White English	8	
White Afrikaans	1	
Black Tswana	1	
Black Xhosa	7	
Coloured Afrikaans	1	18

Table B: Grade 8 classroom at school C

Number of Learner	Boys	Girls	Total
White English	3	2	
White Afrikaans	2	0	
Black Xhosa	2	1	
Black Ghanaian	1	0	
Coloured Afrikaans	1	0	12

Table C: Grade 9 classroom at school C

Number of Learner	Boys	Girls	Total
White English	2	6	
White Afrikaans	2	3	

White German	1	0	
Black Xhosa	1	3	
Black Sotho	0	1	19

As can be seen on the above given data tables learners came from a wide range of socio – economic and cultural backgrounds which I did not explore in detail. It was also clear from the table representing school A that it was an isiXhosa environment as the learners were all isiXhosa first-tongue speakers. In school C in particular there were learners from outside the boarders of South Africa. This demographic data was interesting as at school B the majority were isiXhosa L1 speakers considering that the school used to be an all-white school. Also this data highlighted the fact that the teachers at both school B and C had to interact more in English and so their understanding and methods of handling a more multiracial class became more relevant and apparent. This will be pursued further in Chapter 5.

4.5 Teaching and learning material/practices

This section seeks to explain and display the structure of lessons that were presented by the teachers and observed by the researcher in the three selected schools for this study and also to highlight the type of material that is used.

Ironically at school A it was observed that all learners had access to a reader/textbook, while at schools B and C it seemed as though the material was collated by the teacher and not fully accessible to the learners as a textbook. This could be as a result of insufficient materials development for first additional and second language learning post-1994, whereas there is a rich history of text development in the HL since the 1800s. Starting from 2011 with my observations in all the schools I noted that there was very little time given to learners to work on their own or to discover things on their own. This could have been in line with learning outcome 5 that addresses thinking and reasoning. Below is the summary of readers/texts or books in each of the schools under investigation.

At School A (HL)	At School B (FAL)	At School C (SAL)
IsiXhosa Ngumdiliya	Kumnandi ukufunda	Ingwenya
Rhabula Ungafinci	Speak isiXhosa with us	Uvimba
Simnandi isiXhosa	The Ant series in isiXhosa	Umthombo
IsiXhosa Luncuthu		

4.5.1 Home language teaching practices in School A

This refers to school A which was an isiXhosa environment. IsiXhosa was taught on a home language level. Concerning lessons observed in all the three schools under investigation, isiXhosa lessons (theme) were not presented the same as they were prepared and presented for the different levels: Home language, First additional language and Second additional language. This mostly depended on the availability of teaching resources in each school and possibly also differences in the teacher-training programs that the teachers attended.

In school A the learners responded very well to in-depth questions whereas in schools B and C they were prompted to answer short questions relating to question words such as 'ntoni? 'What', and ngubani? 'Who'. They were hesitant and very reluctant to answer explanatory questions such as"kanjani? 'How', and ngoba? 'Why'. Learner's written responses were contained in their workbooks (see Appendix D).

Time tabling at school A allowed much time for isiXhosa. There were double periods that amounted to 55 minutes which made up almost a whole hour of tuition. The school had a 10 day cycle which allowed for two hours in each week. The activities ranged from oral to written

work. Poetry was also taught. When it comes to reading the learners read silently except for when they had to present a poem.

The lessons were text-based in schools A and B with the exception of school C. A question and answer teaching strategy was a common feature in all the schools, as well as the teacher-telling method. In Schools B and C in most instances the questions were first posed in English and then reworked into isiXhosa, failure to do that would have resulted in silence non-cognition from the side of learners. Translation was the only possible way for the learners to answer questions and to move on with the lesson. It was evident that much teaching time was wasted through translation. (Fleisch, 2007)

Silent reading was encouraged as they were seated in a manner that allowed for group work (to be further discussed in Chapter 5). From time to time learners were to practice writing and spelling on the blackboard themselves. The teachers in this school used a teacher-telling method as they were dominant throughout the lessons.

After reading the comprehension for example on Indalo 'Nature' the teacher gave learners instructions that they should take out their activity books and answer questions that were based on the comprehension. The only reading that they did aloud was the activity on a poem as they had to recite it. They were given oral activities that were based on reasoning and thinking, for example: Umbhali wayecinga ntoni kulo mbongo? 'What was the author trying to convey through this poem?'

Learning outcomes:

(Speaking and Listening)

The teacher asked the learners to look at their readers for a comprehension exercise. Each learner had his/her own reader as there were plenty of them. The teacher asked them to read so as to test their reading skills. The learners took turns to read through the comprehension, they were guided by the teacher in the areas of correct pronunciation.

(Writing exercise)

Learners were very active in this lesson as some of them were amused by what was written in the comprehension. Some words seemed foreign to them though the lesson was in isiXhosa, their home language. The teacher had to simplify those difficult words by putting them in isiXhosa that was better understood by the learners.

Learners were previously taught lessons on nouns, noun classes and their classification. Also they had a lesson on plural forms of words given to them in class. It was easy for them to move forward with the lesson. It would seem that grammar/lexical based teaching is easier for these learners as they already possess a rich vocabulary in the language. In schools B and C this was not necessarily the case.

4.5.2 First Additional language teaching Practices in School B

In this school the lessons were text-based just as in school A. The lessons were planned using themes and sub-topics. The lesson in this instance was a basic activity that was given on the speculation that the learners were taught this material in the previous or intermediate phase. This lesson may be seen as a baseline to check their previous knowledge of isiXhosa. The teacher allowed them an opportunity to speak by pointing at things around them even at themselves, for example: wena 'you', mna 'me', phaya 'there', phi 'where'.

Learning outcomes:

(Writing)

The teacher first introduced a vocabulary list with words that they were going to look at when asked to construct sentences about their lesson on the seasons of the year. The teacher explained the four seasons that we get in a year together with their English translation for each season. The prepared vocabulary for the learners was written / divided into five paragraphs. The teacher explained to them as follows: iintlobo zokutya ezityiwayo 'types of food that people eat' in each season, as well as types of sports that are played during those seasons.

Seasons of the year:

The following day the learners were interacting in a meaningful way by brainstorming about various aspects of the different seasons. The teacher gave learners a writing activity and the instructions went as follows: Make a sentence about one of the four seasons using the words on your vocabulary sheets. Then take one word from each paragraph and combine to make

sentences. The teacher added that the learners have to structure their sentences by adding whatever words such as abantu 'people', kuba 'because' or umama 'mother'. The teacher then after some time moved behind their desks (which were in a C shape) and was marking the learners work. I heard her commenting aloud: "Good sisi, wenze kakuhle" 'Good sisi, you have done well'. Below is the blackboard summary of the above lesson:
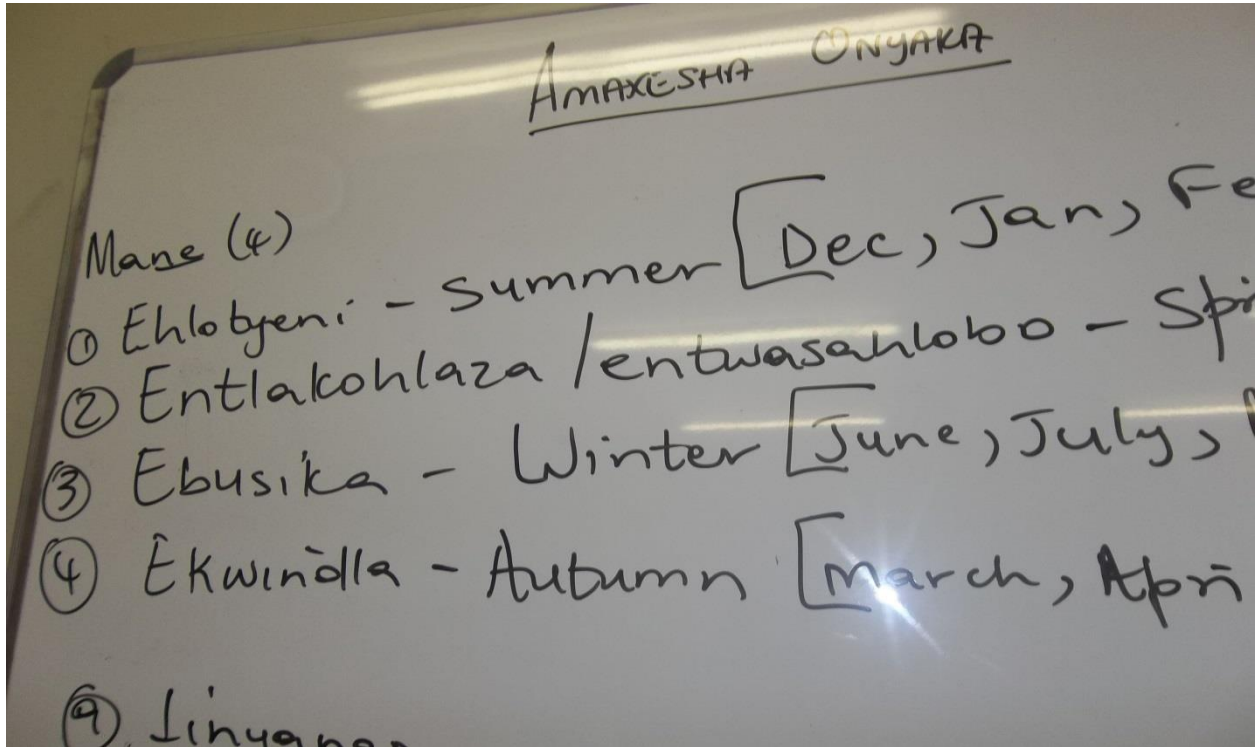
A further lesson was based on how we refer to each other in terms of titles. It was conducted as follows:

Titles:

(Listening and speaking)

- Molo mnumzana 'Hello Sir'
- Molo nkosikazi 'Hello madam'

The teacher introduced the lesson by saying that in communicative situations that require formality, using titles is preferred when addressing unknown people. Learners were given reading vocabulary on the following words:

- Umnumzana (Mr)
- UMhlekazi (Sir, For people in high positions including the Police)
- UNkosikazi (Mrs)
- UNkosazana (Ms/Miss)
- Utitshalakazi (Female teacher)

For reading, learners were allowed and encouraged to read aloud to see if they were able to read. There were written exercises that the learners had to do in class such as fill in the missing words exercises. In this school the learners were first given a vocabulary list on noun classes. From the lists they familiarized themselves with the words and the examples that they identified in the classroom. Further critical commentary on these exercises and the way they were constructed will be provided in the data analysis in Chapter 5.

A passage was given to them that needed to be translated into isiXhosa. It went as follows:

Translate this passage into isiXhosa

Learning outcome:

(Writing)

The boy is reading a book. There are pictures in the book. Granny greets the boy. They look at the pictures. They see a man. The man is painting the house. A boy is helping. The boy is holding a ladder. The girls are playing. The lady is cooking. The lady is cooking in the kitchen. They are all happy.

Vocabulary

Boy: Inkwenkwe

Read: learn/funda/study

Book: Incwadi

There is: Kukho

Pictures: Imifanekiso

In the book: Encwadini

Granny: umakhulu

Greet: bulisa

They: bona

Look: jonga

At the picture: emfanekisweni

See: bona

Amacala: Directions (Role Play)

Learning outcome:

(Thinking and reasoning)

- The teacher introduced the lesson by showing the learners different directions in isiXhosa such as:
- Ekhohlo (left),
- Ekunene (right),
- Phezulu (up),
- Ezantsi (down).

The teacher demonstrated to the learners in a loud voice both in English and isiXhosa also using her arm to point in different directions. The lesson was demonstrated in a more dramatic way. Learners had to participate in the lesson in pairs, as they took turns pointing and saying aloud the directions (Role-play). It was possible to do that within one period because of their small numbers in the class. There were also portable plastic road (artefacts) signs used during the lesson and that made the lesson come alive. Below is the sample of a lesson for directions.

Amacala - Directions

ekhohlo - left
ekunene - right
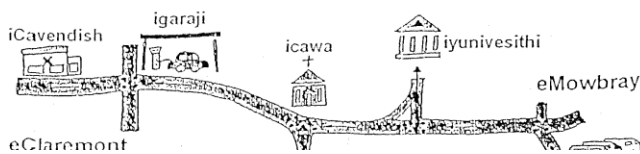ngaphambili - in front of...

Masijonge kwakhona! *Let's look again!*
Here are some directions in the form of simple signs.

Hamba ngqo. *Go straight.*

Nyuka ngqo. *Go straight up.*

Yihla ngqo. *Go straight down.*

Thatha isitalato sokuqala ekunene. *Take the first road on the right.*

Thatha isitalato sokuqala ekhohlo. *Take the first road on the left.*

Thatha isitalato sesibini ekunene. *Take the second road on the right.*

Thatha isitalato sesibini ekhohlo. *Take the second road on the left.*

Thatha isitalato sesithathu ekunene. *Take the third road on the right.*

Thatha isitalato sesithathu ekhohlo. *Take the third road on the left.*

Qabela ibholorho. *Cross the bridge.*

Gqitha ngasekunene. *Pass on the right.*

Gqitha ngasekhohlo. *Pass on the left.*

Iziphambuka. *Intersections/turn-offs.*

Yima. *Stop.*

Musa ukujika./Ungajiki tu. *Don't turn./Don't turn at all.*

Jika ekunene. *Turn right.*

Jika ekhohlo. *Turn left.*

Ezirhobothini. *At the robots.*

Ngena apha. *Enter here.*

Musa ukungena apha./Ungangeni apha. *Do not enter here.*

uphill { iqhina
{ indlela enyuko

downhill { indlela ehlayo

indlela yahluka

nyuka kwiqhina
yihla kwindlela.

cross (the roa
weld

Misa ku stop
ezirhobhothini

indlu ingasekunene kwendlela

abantu bangasekhohlo komthi

kwa + a - k
kwa + i - k
kwa + ii - k
kwa + u =

iCavendish igaraji icawa iyunivesithi
eMowbray
eClaremont
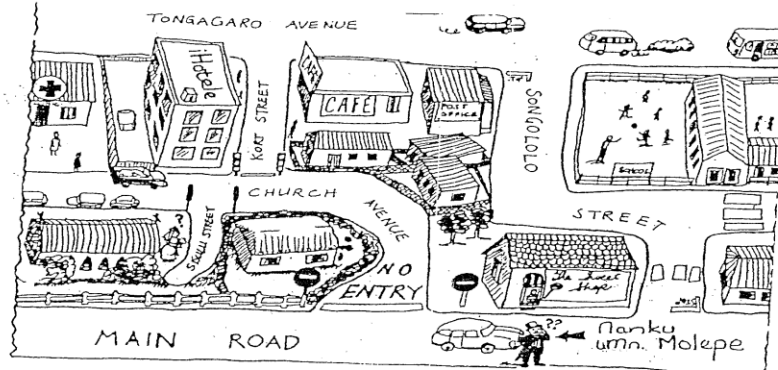

Below is an exercise given to them to do in class to see if they benefitted from the role play as outlined above. They had to respond to the given questions in writing as in the example below:

Umnumzana Molepe ufuna ukuya ecaweni:

Go on the main road
Turn left
Go straight
Turn left
Go straight
Take the first road left
This is Kort Street.
Go down Kort Street
Cross church avenue at the robot
Take the first road left
The church is on the right

Imibuzo
1) Indawoni ikliniki ?
2) Sindawoni isikolo ?
3) Indawoni icawa ?
4) Indawoni ivenkile, velek... ?

This type of lesson was an information transfer activity as it involved transferring information from a picture or diagram to a spoken or written text or the other way round i.e. from a text to a picture.

Diary entry:

Umhlobo wakho ugqiba iminyaka elishumi elinesine, yenza ingeniso yedayari yentsuku ezintathu (diary entry) uxele izinto ozenzayo ukulungiselela lomhla. 'Your friend is celebrating their 14th birthday. Provide three diary entries (from day 1-3) where you show what you do in anticipation of this celebration.'

Even though the themes were completely different in isiXhosa subject language levels at the respective schools (as indicated above), some of the strategies used were remarkably similar, though there were some differences. At school A the learners each received a reader or

textbook. On the contrary at the other two schools learners were formed into groups and often shared one book which had been put together by the teacher. The lessons in School B were facilitated by means of pictures as they were given photo-copied papers with pictures and also with vocabulary lists so as to match a word with the picture. In other words the styles of teaching at school A and B were facilitating a different level of language acquisition and therefore required somewhat different strategies, whereas at schools B and C the strategies were similar. A similarity in all the schools was that teachers would start with the explanation of the content while the learners were listening. In the middle of the lesson the learners would be asked to read and write in their own workbooks. From a researcher's point of view it was very important to note the different and various teaching strategies used for isiXhosa learning and teaching.

4.5.3 Second Additional language teaching practices in School C

At School C the activities were mostly communicative as this was required by the curriculum for the Second additional language (SAL). Simpler texts were used at this school. The teaching was mainly for communicative purposes. Below is an example of a sample that was designed to be a simple lesson for the learners.

Learning outcome:

(Reading and viewing in order to enrich vocabulary)

isiketi   iziketi

isihlangu   izihlangu

Shoes

The words are in the singular form and are then changed to the plural form. This method look-and-match, look and say, were the easiest way to facilitate a lesson for Second additional level.

Below is the summary of the vocabulary given to them to familiarise learners with the isiXhosa words. The words given were to introduce a reading comprehension called Ingwenya 'crocodile'. It is made easier for them to look at the isiXhosa word together with its English translation. This proved that throughout the lessons code switching and mixing had been used to facilitate the lesson (this had been mentioned earlier on in the above paragraphs) and will be explored further in Chapter 5.

Vocabulary

Uhlala nabani?	**is staying with**
Izilwanyana	**animals**
Jonga	**look**
Imbabala	**buck**
Inkawu	**monkey**
Ingwenya	**crocodile**
Ukubamba	**to touch**
Imivundla	**rabbits**
Ukondla	**to feed**
Amadada	**ducks**
Irhanisi	**goose**
Uphi?	**Where is?**
Umntwana	**Child**
Ecaleni	**Near**
Akakho apha	**She/he is not here**

Nanku	Here he/she is
Ufuna	She wants
Ukondla	To feed
Hamba	Go
akakhathali	She/he doesn't care

Below is another approach used by teachers to facilitate the lesson in terms of vocabulary acquisition in school C:

White-board summary at school C
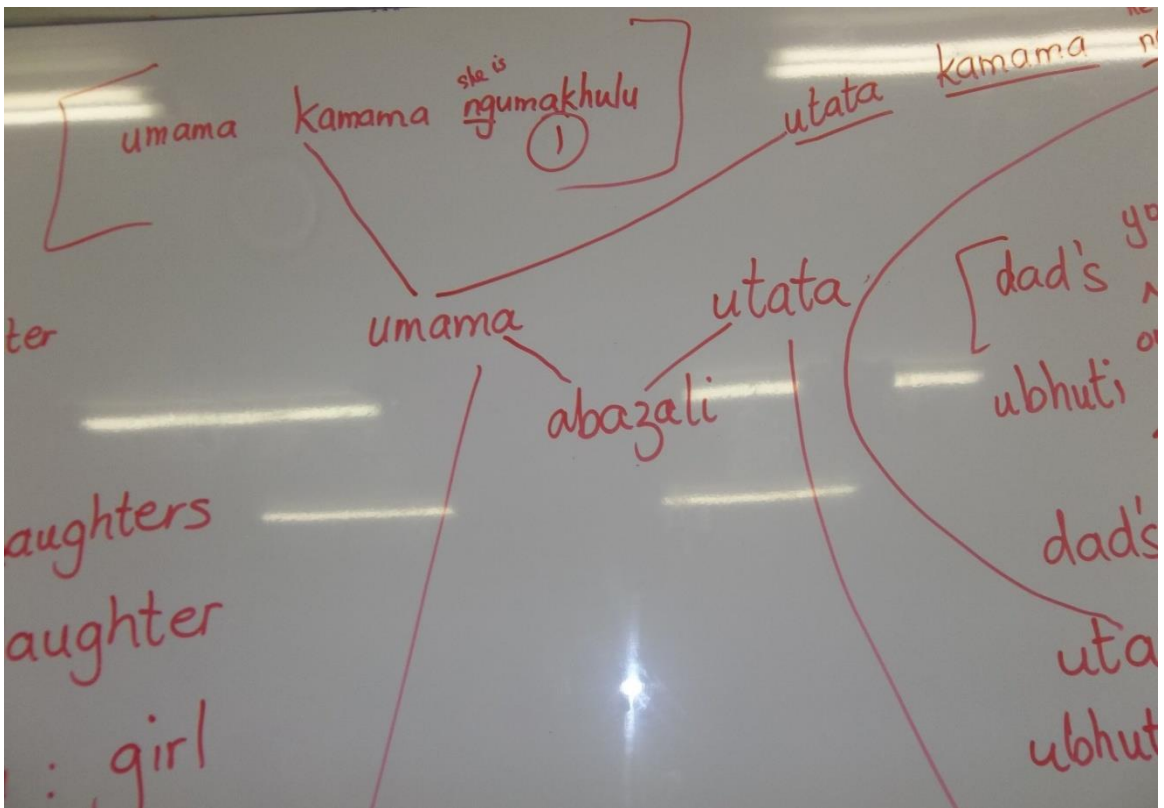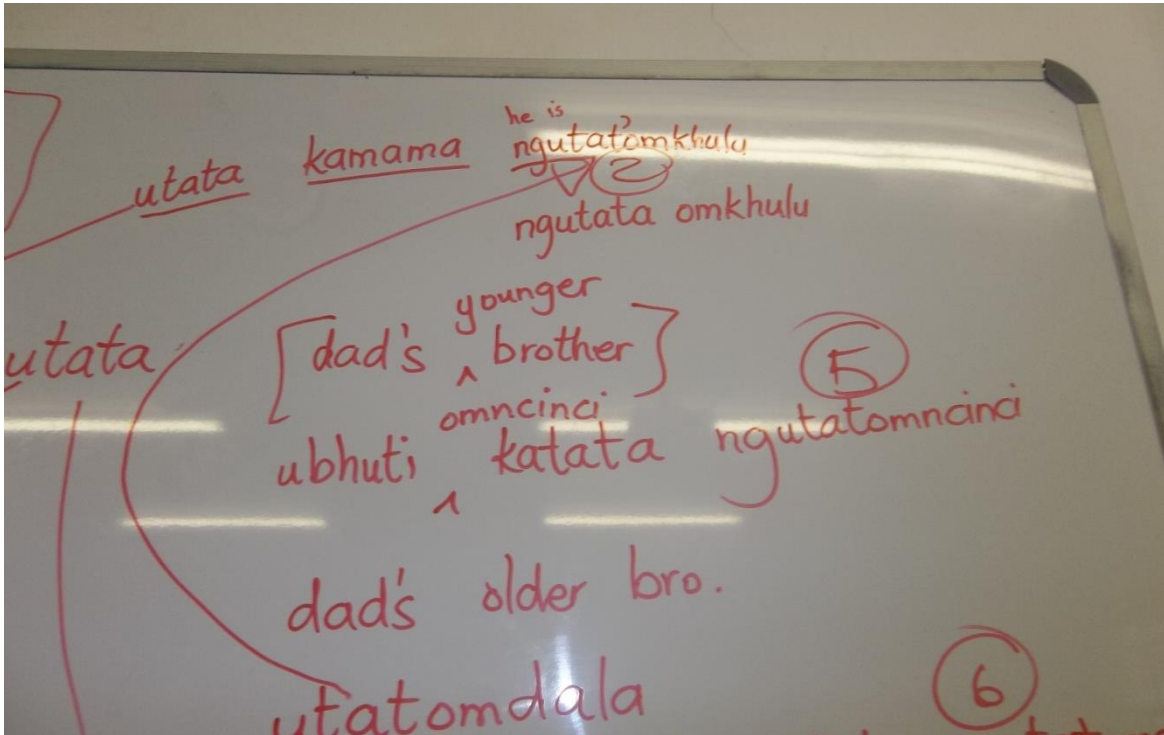
White-board summary at school C

Pictures taken at School C for a lesson on traditional attire

The lessons at school C were very visual and there was much use of strategies to develop vocabulary acquisition as opposed to school A where critical thinking was being encouraged and school B were a more in-depth reading culture in isiXhosa was being developed in terms of teaching isiXhosa as a first additional language.

4.6 Teaching resources

Teaching materials are any materials that the teacher uses to help with the lesson facilitation and presentation. These materials can be brought or the teacher can improvise, these can act as an aid to learner's understanding and can make a lesson come alive. The materials include charts, pictures, and real objects, these can bring reality and meaning to the lesson. What the learners see or touch would not necessarily be easily forgotten. The use and availability of those materials were picked up by the researcher during the classroom observations.

Guided by the interactionist theory (as mentioned in Chapter 2) within the qualitative research paradigm the teaching approaches that were used by the teachers in their isiXhosa lessons were

also looked at, and how they facilitated lessons in their classrooms. Such observations could not ignore the situational factors which influenced teaching and learning, the kinds of resources that were used in isiXhosa lessons for this study.

All the teachers agreed that teaching materials were very important in their lessons and said that they used them extensively and even developed them themselves, particularly in schools B and C. **T**1 and **T**2 from school A both explained that the use of teaching materials helps "*to develop learner's skills and to make the lesson learner-centred*". Also they both said that the real use of objects during the isiXhosa lessons *make the learners to have a real feel of what was happening in the lesson*". Therefore the learners became actively involved in the presentation. In school A teachers had to improvise as there were little or no materials to facilitate the lessons. Learners had to bring from home some of the teaching aids and many of the teachers had improvised by borrowing from neighbouring schools. For example, an iintendelezo 'bird's cage' was a wire cage brought in by one of the learners from home, and the teacher managed to use it in a more creative way. This also facilitated the use of a borrowed word for this isiXhosa term which was more understandable for the learners i.e. ikheygi. This was evidence of the importance of using real objects in classes such as these.

In schools B and C teachers used teaching materials that were provided by the Department of Education, and they were mainly posters and pictures rather than books. Also the teachers added their own material by bringing from home samples of traditional clothes and beaded bags to make the lesson come alive (see above). There is a belief that culture is embedded in any language, the two are inseparable. (Kaschula and Anthonissen, 1995:15) Teachers wrote on the white-board every output that was made by the learners during the isiXhosa lessons. All the isiXhosa teachers in those schools also attached great value to using pictures and also real objects, they all said "*everything that you do, you must have a picture, when a learner looks at the picture; he/she will start understanding what the picture was used for*". The teachers concluded by saying "*what the child sees and touches will not be forgotten like when he/she just hears about it.*"

Different teachers of isiXhosa per each school planned together according to the different level that was evident in their isiXhosa classroom lessons. They worked collaboratively. They used more or less the same teaching materials during the lessons that I observed. These included lessons where learners identified what was in the pictures, the lessons on directions, identifying

plural forms of the words that emanated from the lessons and the pictures of traditional wear. When they mentioned something, the teachers asked a learner to identify a picture and say what was on it. One of the critical outcomes of teaching and learning in the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) in South African education requires learners to be able to "communicate effectively using verbal and visual images". There were also supporting notes or vocabulary on the white-board. The researcher also took note of the different class arrangements and classroom infrastructure in each of the three selected schools. The diagrammatic representation of classroom layout of each classroom in the three schools selected will be presented in the discussion section in Chapter 5. What follows is another example of a strategy to increase vocabulary acquisition and enrichment of use of lexical items through sentence use in isiXhosa language acquisition:

Description	Comments	Questions for stimulated recall
Who will put this word "iqanda" (egg) in a sentence? **L**-iqanda **T**-is that a sentence? **L**-nditya iqanda. (I am eating an egg)	Learners are building sentences using the words they read.	Why are you asking them to build sentences with the words? Answer: It is to see if they understand the meaning of the words and to improve their language usage.
T- Good that is what we call a sentence. Let us read it together. **Ls**-Egadini kutyalwe imifuno	The teacher repeats the sentence and writes it on the board. One learner reads alone.	
T- Put the next word in a sentence-Egadini **L**-Umama uhlakula egadini **T**- Good let us read it. Well done you have read that	The teacher writes the sentence on the board. All learners read together.	

The above extract showed that the teachers taught lessons differently at a sentence level. The aim was for them to understand the meaning of isiXhosa words.

Because of my long stay in these three schools the teachers became open to me about the teaching of isiXhosa as a subject and some other teaching aspects in general. The learners became relaxed as they were used to seeing me in their classrooms. That gave me an opportunity of studying their behaviour in the isiXhosa classrooms. In one school I was even permitted to stay and observe other lessons other than isiXhosa. My major interest was to see if there were any similarities or differences in the way in which the teachers and learners interacted. It seemed as though there was less report between teachers and learners where the classes were less interactive as in the isiXhosa lessons.

4.7 The Assessment of learning

The main purpose of assessment is to develop a reliable picture of each individual learner's progress and level of achievement. Assessment is an example of external framing, which has implications for internal pacing of learners. Assessment can be formal and informal. A formal assessment is done quarterly and at the end of the year for progression purposes. An informal assessment was done during lesson presentations by the teachers. Assessment in the senior phase just like in any other phase is an integral part of teaching and learning. Assessments in the form of external papers were accredited by Umalusi, the national quality assurance body. The exam papers were for the grade 9 classes only and were written at the end of the year for the progression purposes. From grade 9 onwards the examinations are no longer internally controlled.

Also there was the continuous assessment in schools that took the form of formal assessment through different forms of activities throughout the years 2011-2013. Learners were assessed differently in the three schools under investigation for this study. Assessment was based on whatever was taught by the teachers according to the already mentioned levels of isiXhosa. Grade 9 learners had to answer written and oral assessment questions from the assessment forms that were given to them by their isiXhosa teachers. The researcher was helped by the colleagues to formulate questionnaires written in isiXhosa. The assessments were designed for First additional language learners (school B) and the other questionnaire was for learners who did Second Additional language (school C) in isiXhosa. The assessment forms were to measure learner's productive language skills through performances. The assessment forms were administered in two schools by the teacher and the oral assessment at school C were

administered by the researcher herself. As a researcher I felt that there was no need to administer the assessment forms at School A as that was an isiXhosa-rich environment. There was no doubt that the learners in school A had maximum exposure to isiXhosa. The researcher asked the learners at school C questions like: Ngubani igama lakho? 'What is your name?' Uhlala phi apha erhini? 'Where do you live here in Grahamstown?' The assessment was relevant in the sense that the questions that were asked were according to their level of study in both schools. Also the researcher wanted to find out how much did the learners know in the spoken and written language in isiXhosa. Furthermore the grade 9 end of the year papers of the three schools as well as the assessment forms are attached as appendices (see Appendix D).

The learners from grades 7-9 with regards to assessment were assessed using a seven point scale and that was how they were given marks in relation to the mistakes they made in the given activities in class. The lessons samples and learners activities combined all the five learning outcomes which are the focus for this study in order to achieve what the study aims to investigate (to be further discussed in the next Chapter). The activities provided multiple assessment opportunities in order for the learners to benefit from those activities. The activities ranged from comprehension, narrative tasks as well as the creative writing such as the letter, composition and the diary entry.

With regard to assessing comprehension given to learners in schools A and B after reading it they had to answer questions in their exercise books. The teachers marked the answers after finishing writing. The teachers were able to spot those learners who had difficulties in writing activities. In school A since there were plenty of text books the learners who failed to answer the questions correctly were given books to correct the answers at home. In school B the learners who performed better than the others were to read aloud individually for others to write down correct answers. At school C learners were to look at the pictures and state the answers orally. Teachers 1 and 2 in both schools B and C said that when assessing their learners as they are writing in their exercise books the teachers moved around to mark their work. Again when assessing orally the teachers looked at the learner's movement of the mouth and that helped them to detect the learners who struggle with isiXhosa.

In summary the teachers assessed their learners continuously to be aware of their performances so that they will be able to assist them accordingly.

4.7.1 Assessment practices at school A

In this school learners were assessed using continuous assessment (CASS). All the activities were either assessed formally through recording and sometimes informally when doing unprepared or sometimes prepared reading.

With regard to assessing (reading) comprehension given to learners in schools A after reading it they had to answer question in their exercise books. The teachers marked the answers after finishing writing. The teachers were able to spot those learners who had difficulties in writing activities. In school A since there were plenty of text books the learners who failed to answer the questions correctly were given books to correct the answers at home.

The criteria for assessing reading and writing were drawn from Weir (1999) and Hughes (1989). The first criterion was on form that refers to the pupil's ability to write connected answers in relation to the comprehension and creative writing, for example in the diary entry which is coherent and addresses the topic. Fluency was also a criterion to pupil's ability to communicate easily. The criterion on interpretive questions been answered was important as it assessed learners ability to think more laterally beyond the text, as it were.

4.7.2 Assessment practices at school B

The teachers in this school engaged their learners in different activities. During their lessons learners were involved in oral activities like identifying and describing pictures from the prepared list given to them by their teachers. One teacher had to wear traditional clothes also to attract the learner's interest; the learners were then assessed by looking and saying what they saw. Also there vocabulary lists prepared for them with explanations of difficult words. That was in preparation for the oral assessment on the comprehension activity that was given to them (Ingwenya 'crocodile').

The criteria for assessing the reading comprehension were the following:

- Has the questions been answered?
- Have pupils used their own words? The aim was to assess learners understanding as well as their abilities to express that understanding in their own words.

- Learners were awarded one mark for answering the question and one mark for using their own words.

Learners were assessed on their writing by practising of the words on the white-board. The learners were assessed orally by answering questions that emanated from the reading comprehension. That was to test their listening skills. The teacher started the lesson with a song and discussed the song with the learners. When I asked her she replied by saying: "ndifuna babenomdla kule lesson." '*My aim* is *to arouse the learner's interest in the lesson'.* The questions she asked learners led to the topic and at the same time tested their prior knowledge about the topic. Then the aim was for the learners to develop their thinking skills. Formative assessment was used for assessment.

4.7.3 Assessment practices at School C

Just like the other two schools, school C also used formal and informal assessment. Firstly the two teachers engaged the learners in oral activities to give them a clear picture of what the lesson was all about. The lessons were first introduced in English and then translated to isiXhosa to prepare them for participation throughout the lesson.

The lesson on plurals was taught pointing at each picture on the sheet i.e. Shoe-Shoes isihlangu-izihlangu. During this activity the visuals were used so that they can easily assess the speaking skills. The learner's marks were also recorded for progression purposes. Written activities were also marked after the lessons and the marks were recorded on the mark sheets just like in the other two schools.

There was a criterion that was used by teachers to assess writing tasks. See below:

- Form of organization
- Fluency or style and ease of communication
- Vocabulary
- Mechanics (spelling and punctuation)

Formative Assessment was done in the senior phase continuously as an integral part of the lesson and to help learners who were struggling in the isiXhosa language.

4.8 Learner competencies

In operationalizing and measuring the learner's competencies in isiXhosa, the researcher looked at criteria such as fluency, accuracy, complexity and lexical aspects of learner's performances in all the tasks that were observed by the researcher in the classroom. These criteria were used in assessing the tasks given to the learners by their teachers in the classroom. A sample of the scripts are attached as appendices to serve as evidence that the assessment was accountable (see Appendix D).

The majority of learners did very well in both schools as they were responding to the questions written and also to the oral questions. The learners were at least capable of communicating with the teachers in a meaningful way by asking questions for further clarity on given tasks in isiXhosa. These are the examples of what the learners were capable of doing:

-Uxolo titshalakazi sibhale ngoku? 'Sorry, teacher, should we write now?'

- Ndigqibile ngoku ukubhala 'I am finished writing now'

-Ndicime ibhodi? 'Shall I clean the board?'

-Ayikho i homework namhlanje? 'Is there no homework today?'

Also their writing competencies are presented (see Appendix D).

In the previous chapter and also in this chapter I mentioned the assessment tests that were administered in two grade 9 classes in schools B & C, and the reason for this was outlined. Below are the graphic accounts of the results of the assessments:

Oral Assessment at school C
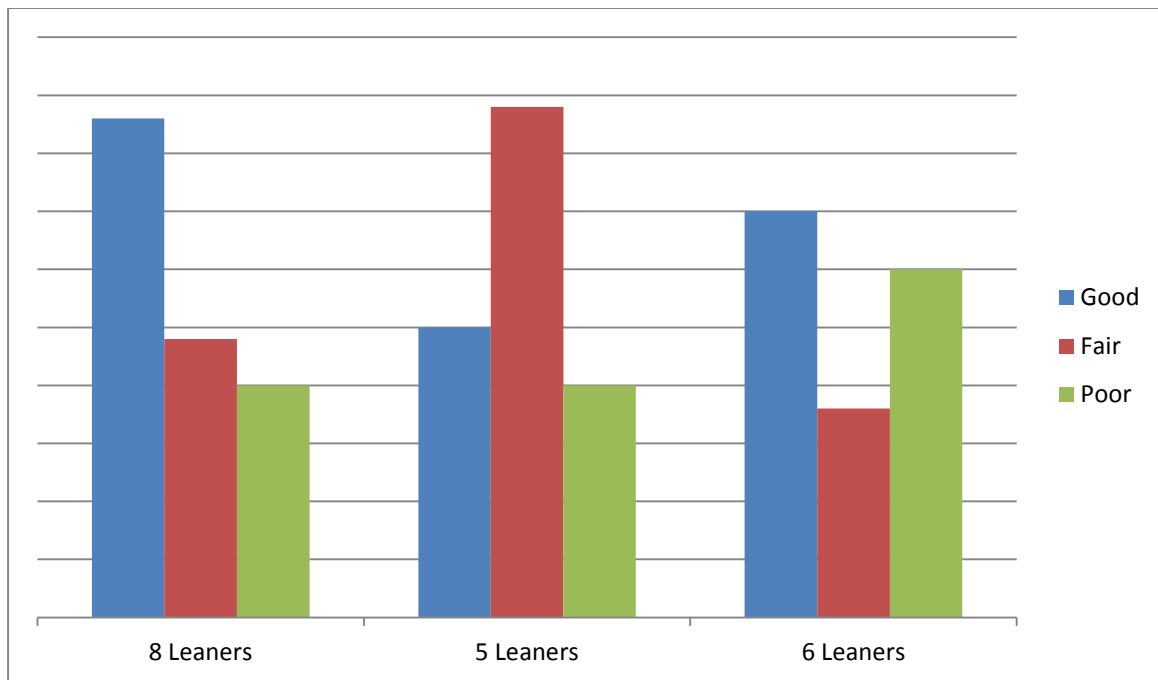
Grade 9 learners in school C (19 in class)

The following features of the results for the oral assessment task for Grade 9 have significant implications:

1. Only 8 learners who did better in isiXhosa
2. Only 6 learners who did fairly in isiXhosa
3. The learners who failed isiXhosa scored less than the average mark for the task

The above data showed that not all learners were able to communicate as some were struggling to communicate in isiXhosa. This was evident when they had to respond to oral questions that were asked. Limited exposure to isiXhosa tasks may explain this.

Written Assessment at School C
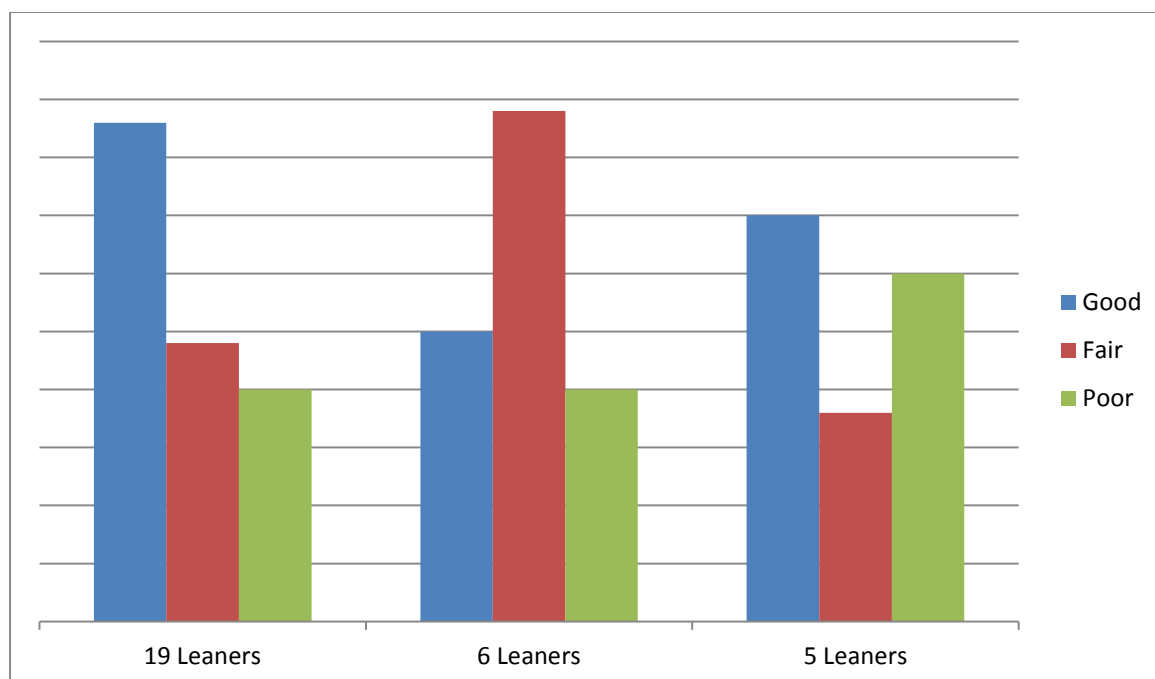
Grade 9 in school B (30 in class)

The features of the results for the written assessment task were as follows:

1. The general pattern is similar to that for school C
2. Only 19 who did better in isiXhosa
3. Only 6 who did fairly in isiXhosa
4. There were 5 learners who scored below average mark

It is clear from the above results that some learners were struggling with the written tasks as they could not express themselves clearly in isiXhosa but the majority of them did manage to do well in isiXhosa.

In summary the teachers assessed their learners continuously to be aware of their performances so that they will be able to assist them accordingly. The above findings are further discussed in Chapter 5.

4.9 Conclusion

The data presented in this chapter concerns both teaching isiXhosa as a HL as well as a FAL and SAL. Some of the data presented is based on classroom observations and interviews

conducted in schools A, B and C. Furthermore, an analysis of learner's workbooks as well as the assessment tests that were administered in two grade 9 classes in schools B and C, (Oral assessment at school C and written assessment at school B) are included. The reason why assessment was done at grade 9 was that this is an exit point i.e. the culmination of the work done in grades 7-9. Classroom data showed that there was more teacher talk in all the three schools. Also in one school there was more learning and teaching in isiXhosa i.e. school A. The most dominant approach to learning was though questions and answers i.e. an interactionist approach as already mentioned in Chapter 2.

In school A there was more interaction between learners and teachers in the language of isiXhosa itself. In school B and C the learners sometimes struggled to express themselves in isiXhosa although the class was also having isiXhosa mother-tongue speakers. The samples of isiXhosa lessons and learners work also showed that learners in schools B and C made use of code-switching and mixing to facilitate the lesson, though this was not as evident in school A.

Chapter 5 will present the further data analysis which is based on the data and observations that have been captured in this chapter.

Chapter 5

Data Analysis

5.0 Introduction

Following the data presented in the previous chapter, the data will be further analysed in this chapter. The analysis of data is informed by the research design and the theoretical framework underlying this study i.e. the qualitative research and the interpretivist research paradigm on the one hand, and isiXhosa knowledge construction on the other hand. The interpretivist research approach is in line with interactionist analysis which guides data analysis in this study (Henning et al. 2004-20). This ties in with the focus of this research, which aims at understanding isiXhosa as a subject that is taught and learned in the classrooms through the medium of isiXhosa. Furthermore it looked at the interaction of teachers and learners in the classroom as part of this process. Therefore, the purpose of this chapter is to describe, analyse and interpret observable interactions in the isiXhosa classrooms.

The nature of qualitative research implies that the collection of data and the analysis of data build on one another. One can only set broad guidelines for the proposed data analysis as it is dependent on what one finds. Marshall and Rossman (2011:210) suggest the following seven phases:

- Organizing the data
- Immersion in the data
- Generating categories and themes
- Coding the data
- Offering interpretations through analytic memos
- Searching for alternative understandings
- And writing the report or other format for presenting the study

In each instance data was collected, reduced and interpreted.

Many authors state that qualitative research data analysis involves breaking the data up into manageable themes, patterns, or trends in order to make sense of it (Henning et al. 2004:102;

Mouton, 2001:108). In the case of this study, the data analysis was guided by the research questions, and the aims and objectives, focusing on emerging themes and questions. Data analysis is the most important stage of research where the research has to be very skilfully and creatively pulled together to gather all the pieces of the data. This means that a clear picture of the research journey and the destination (i.e. the results of the research) needs to be fore grounded. This chapter intends to make sense of the descriptions of situations given in Chapter 4 by giving explanations of such acts. That makes a connection between the already presented data and the research findings. Furthermore the business of analysing data one has collected involves two closely related processes:

- Managing your data, by reducing its size and scope, so that you can report upon it adequately and usefully; and
- Analysing your managed set of data by abstracting from drawing attention to what you feel is of particular importance or significance (Henning, 1996:183).

If the data is well presented, and well analysed, then the research findings will be more meaningful and reliable as opposed to where there are gaps during data analysis. This chapter will start with the analysis of the classroom observations. The analysis pulls together related themes and facts. The themes may be in one way or the other relating to the research question and may not necessarily follow the same sub-topics of the previous chapter. As has already been mentioned in Chapter 3 data had been collected using different techniques in order to provide a coherent account of the data or research events. The five research questions are stated in the first chapter and inform this data analysis. To recap for the purposes of this chapter:

- What approaches or methods do teachers used in teaching isiXhosa in three different levels i.e. HL, FAL, and SAL?
- What learning strategies do learners use when they are taught isiXhosa through the medium of isiXhosa?
- How do teachers frame their isiXhosa lessons?
- What examples are used to explain isiXhosa concepts?
- What teaching materials are used during isiXhosa lessons?
- What kind of support do teachers provide to learners?

- To what extent are the teachers aware of the Language-in-Education Policy that guides teaching and learning in schools?

5.2 Teaching approaches

All the teachers in the three selected schools said that it was important to teach learners according to their learning abilities or levels. This is encapsulated in the remarks of one teacher who said: "the way we teach depends on our learners; we look at what levels they are at and that will determine how we teach them." Another teachers added that "we teach learners at different levels according to what they are able to do." The teachers believe that one should first assess the learning abilities of learners and that this will determine how to teach them.

With regard to classroom data, data analysis focused on how the teachers structured their isiXhosa lessons, the use of isiXhosa as media of instruction during the lessons, and learning strategies in all the three schools under question. In actual fact this addressed the first research question on the teaching approaches or methods teachers used in teaching isiXhosa as already indicated in Chapter 4.

5.2.1 Teacher-centred approaches

With regard to teaching approaches, the common feature in teaching either through the medium of English or isiXhosa often involves more teacher and little learner involvement, and few challenging questions in certain instances. This is at least my observation from the teaching of content subjects. Teacher talk is less interactive and it does not encourage active participation by learners in their lessons. Language as a means of communication is a very important tool in the classroom as it enables learners to talk, think, reason, read and write. In other words it mediates learning hence it is a prerequisite to learning and teaching.

Teacher talk is regarded as one of the traditional teaching methods which was and still is associated with autocratic teacher-centeredness in the classroom. Tsui (1996:152) states the following in this regard:

> The teachers have the misconception that an effective teacher should be able to solicit immediate responses and that responsible teachers should be talking all the time. When there is

more teacher talk, there will be less student participation, resulting in long silences in the classroom that prompt the teacher to talk even more.

The question and answer method that was applied in most of the isiXhosa lesson samples as indicated in Chapter 4 were largely interactive because it stimulates the learners to think and express their thoughts. The question and answer method is indeed interactive and learner-centred and is determined by the types and quality of questions asked. If the questions are not challenging, their effectiveness may not be guaranteed. In the case of this study, all teachers at schools B and C made more use of lower to middle order questions due to the nature of their learners, for example:

> **-Unaye usisi**? (Do you have a sister?)
>
> **-Unaye ubhuti?** (Do you have a brother?)
>
> **-Ngubani igama lakho?** (What is your name?)

These types of questions did not allow for much creativity and self-expression. Instead the questions encouraged the learners to learn chunks of isiXhosa knowledge without connecting such knowledge to a broader context that will promote critical thinking as suggested in the National Curriculum Statement. This is also ironic in regard to school B where many mother tongue speakers of isiXhosa find themselves in such a class which remains unstimulating for them. If questions are not challenging to the learner, the new knowledge may not be mediated in a way that enables the child to reach his/her potential as explained in Chapter 2, irrespective of the language of instruction.

At school A questions of the middle and higher order which challenge learners to think were asked, for example:

> **-Zikhuselwa njani iintaka kwamanye amazwe?** (How are the birds protected in other countries?)
>
> -**Nika intsingiselo yesi saci: usinde ngokulambisa lit. 'He saved himself because he made himself hungry'**. Give the correct meaning of the idiom: (He had been crossing his fingers)

The questions above were indeed for the isiXhosa Home level as the learners had to apply their minds in the types of questions asked. I think also questions were asked according to the level in which they were at as already mentioned earlier in this chapter. When looking at the exercises given at school A, they needed a lot of reasoning and thinking and also speaking and listening just like other two schools. Teachers in all the three schools tried to use a variety of approaches ranging from role plays, and dialogue (see lesson samples in Chapter 4). Also at school a teacher talk approach cannot be ruled out due to a number of factors. This includes the fact that all the teachers who participated in this study are still adapting to the Outcomes Based Education (OBE) curriculum that can be seen as a major shift as they were used to the more traditional teaching methods. The new learner-centred NCS approach may take a while before it is fully assimilated and understood by the teachers. There might be other factors that impact on the learning and teaching such as the lack of learner-teacher support material (LTSM), crime and poverty as indicated in Chapters 1 and 4 of this thesis.

For the benefit of this study it is important to note that out of six teachers that I worked with, only one teacher was not an isiXhosa mother-tongue speaker. Cleghorn (2005:108) claims that in cases where the medium of instruction is a second language of the teachers and learners, the question and answer method usually prevents teachers and learners from expressing themselves in the language of instruction. In this study school A is an isiXhosa-speaking environment as noted in Chapter 4, and learners in that school function mainly, if not entirely in isiXhosa in their daily interactions. The learners had been doing isiXhosa at a Home language level but to my surprise they were reluctant to participate fully in class as they were fully dependent on their teachers who were doing most of the talking.

At school B the classes were multiracial but populated by isiXhosa mother tongue speakers and they were doing isiXhosa at First Additional level. I assumed they would be of help to other learners who were not mother tongue speakers in terms of helping with translation and pronunciation, but it was observed that they were reluctant to speak their language freely which speaks to attitudinal issues at hand. At school C as with school B, all the classes observed were multilingual in nature. They depended on their teachers for explanations as it seemed the few isiXhosa speakers also knew nothing about isiXhosa words and concepts as they were brought up 'English' and everything was new to them. This speaks to another emerging South African phenomenon of language transfer. Given the sociolinguistic context in which the learners at both schools B and C learn isiXhosa, it is not really used except during the isiXhosa period.

Therefore it is to be expected that learners would have difficulty in reading, writing and speaking. This is in line with Cummins's linguistic interdependence hypothesis, which posits a link between the level of development of the first language and acquisition of an additional language. (Cummins, 1979)

In the three schools observed teacher-learner interaction took the form of a three phase discourse where the teacher (i) initiates a question, (**I**), (ii) the learners (**R**), and the teacher supplies feedback (**F**). (Jones 2000; Ellis 1985) In IRF situations, learners may avoid expressing themselves in an additional language such as isiXhosa and resort to one-word answers due to limited proficiency in the language. Examples include: **Ewe Titshalakazi**, 'Yes teacher', **Hayi Titshalakazi** 'No Teacher' and so on. This result is that learners are not given enough chance to explore the learning content on their own. The learners become restricted by the nature of the teacher's questions.

In my research I noticed that the teachers practiced a telling method throughout the isiXhosa lessons in all three schools for this study. This also has detrimental effects as the learner's critical thinking skills were not developed due to spoon feeding them throughout the lessons. In school A however this was less of an issue. This also linked therefore to the various levels of teaching of the language and it speaks to more innovative methods being required in schools B and C. What happens in this case is that the learners develop a form of grammatical competence to the exclusion of oral or holistic communicative competence. (Kaschula and Anthonissen, 1995) The result is the learner's engagement becomes very minimal with the lesson. I also think that the differences in teaching and learning in schools A, B and C stem from the levels in which the isiXhosa was offered and also from the lack of learner teaching support materials (LTSM), particularly in schools B and C.

5.2.2 Similarities and differences in the isiXhosa teaching approaches

After having interviewed and observed their isiXhosa lessons in the classrooms, it was clear that the teachers had aspects in common and that they also used different techniques in the teaching of isiXhosa in the senior phase of learning and teaching. This section of this chapter takes a very brief look at those aspects. I start with the similarities and then move to the differences.

The following are some of the similarities that emerged from the classroom lessons that I observed as well as the interviews that I conducted. There was a common feature that featured across the four teachers that is two from school B and the other two from school C. Their lessons depended entirely on vocabulary lists as well as the white-board summary. All teachers presented their lessons on an overhead projector that displayed the lesson for the whole class, in my view a rather outdated teaching method given the advance of technology in past years.

Teachers from both schools also hung their lessons on the white-board, for example the story on **Ingwenya 'crocodile' and the lesson on Directions** and the **plural lesson** as explained in the previous chapter. Both teachers wrote the known words from the vocabulary lists on the white-board and asked learners to read the names after them in a rather pedestrian fashion. None of the teachers in these schools taught isiXhosa lessons through the use of textbooks, as they kept on referring to the sentences written on the white-board and to material that they had manually put together.

In school A however, the two teachers kept on referring their learners to textbooks. For example **"masityhileni kwiphepha lesibhozo kwincwadi isiXhosa ngumdiliya"** (learners turn to page 8 of your reader called isiXhosa ngumdiliya). **"Nijonge kumsebenzi wesibini niphendule imibuzo** (look at exercise number 2 and provide answers to the questions). The significance of having a textbook is that learners know exactly what is required of them, where the lesson is going and more importantly what to expect when it comes to assessment as indicated in Chapter 4.

5.2.3 Drilling of Learners

Data shows that teachers used drilling as a strategy to emphasize key concepts of their lessons, especially in schools B and C where the learners were drilled on the pronunciation of isiXhosa words that were most difficult for them. This was mostly done in the lesson sample provided in Chapter 4. Examples from the lessons on traditional attire and the season of the year are as follows:

Traditional wear   **Seasons of the year**

T-Bafundi masijongene kumagama abhalwe kulo maphepha aphambi kwenu. (Learners let us look at the vocabulary lists placed in front of you).	**T**-Kwakhona bafundi masijongeni masijongeni kumaphepha athetha ngamaxesha onyaka (again learners let us look at the vocabulary lists on the seasons of the year)
Ls-Ewe titshalakazi (Yes teacher).	**Ls**-kulungile Titshalakazi (that is fine teacher)
T-ngoku ke ndizakubiza amagama kufuneka nitsho emva kwam. (Now I am going to say words and you all have to say them after me)	**T**-masitsho sonke sithi Ekwindla, Entwasahlobo. Ehlotyeni, Ebusika. (let us all say Autumn, Spring, Summer, Winter)
T-Inqawa (tobacco pipe)	**Ls**-Ehlothseni, Ebusika, Etwasahlobo, Ekwindla
Ls-Inqawa/ incawa/ inkhawa	**T**- Ehlotyeni not ehlotsheni is ty not tsh.
T-Hay, hayi andikhange ndithi **nc** okanye **nkh**. (no,no I did not say **inc** or **inkh** I said Inqa, nqa, nqa)	**T**-(Please say after me, TY- TY-TY)
L- can I please help teacher	
T-yes yes my girl	
L- Inqawa	
T- Nice one girl!	

Looking at the above extract, it is apparent that the teachers taught learners differently according to their abilities. The teachers did drill words with the learners who were having serious problem in reading and pronunciation of the words in isiXhosa in schools B and C. The words on the vocabulary lists were somehow strange to read as well as to pronounce for them i.e. entwasahlobo (spring), enkwindla (autumn) etc. ehlotyeni (summer). The learners were asked about other seasons of the year. In this case they made use of their vocabulary lists. In this case the questions were relevant as they formed a follow-up to the drill approach.

The teacher first introduced a lesson on "family" by explaining the structure of the Xhosa family. She explained the members as well as the extended family members. See the example that follows:

> **Ngubani umntwana ka Tatomncinci?** (Who is the child of your uncle from your father's side**?)**
>
> **Ngubani udad' botata?** (Who is my father's sister?)

At the end of the lesson the teacher told me that she will be introducing the lesson on Impahla yesintu (Traditional wear). She shared with me that it would be very difficult for her to just straight away introduce that lesson as she wanted to link the past lesson with the present one. She added: "**Kaloku akukho lula ukuvela ufundise isifundo kwaba bantwana kufuneka wenze icebo lokuba bakwazi ukuyiqonda into ezakuba ifundiswa, umzekelo ukuthi, umama unxibe umbhaco, utata utshaya inqawa. Usisi unxibe incebetha…" (You cannot just straight away introduce a lesson you help to devise your own plan to make** it **happen so as to draw their attention, for example, mother is wearing a traditional dress, father is smoking a pipe...)**

My major concern was that the sentences that served as examples in the family lesson were too long and sounded very strange to the second language learners and also to the first-tongue speakers of isiXhosa. One learner commented by saying **"ouch these words are too long and it is even difficult to say".** There was no coherence in her lesson; this resulted from her long worded explanations. I sensed boredom from the side of learners as others were yawning and others were staring into space. Too much teacher talk does not facilitate active learning and instead may lead to boredom and lack of creativity by learners. Again this highlights the necessity for a more coordinated curriculum accompanied by appropriate materials which would be of interest to learners and assist in the scaffolding of the course.

The learners sometimes responded with incorrect pronunciation of the words and the teacher would correct the words herself. To me it was as if the teacher was spoon feeding them instead of using other isiXhosa mother-tongue learners as a resource in class. Considering the linguistic background of the learners there were variations in the classroom, as cited by Gxilishe (1996:7). He states that teachers confront language varieties among their pupils in their everyday teaching. To mediate learning it is necessary that teachers clarify these language varieties in the classroom. This also speaks to the complexity of teaching language which means different things to different people. Standard isiXhosa which is taught in schools A, B and C is but one variety of many, for example isiMpondo, isiBaca, isiHlubi and so on. This however is not the focus of this thesis.

In school A there was also drilling that was applied during their isiXhosa lessons. The examples are in the comprehension for grade 7 on the environment: "Indalo". The learners were so surprised by the words and to some extent this showed again the disparity between contemporary varieties of isiXhosa and the old standard variety that is taught in schools which is sometimes not known by learners who have grown up in contemporary South Africa. As indicated earlier, there is then a need to also attend to then upgrade of HL materials in order to reach out to the students and to bring the textbooks into the 21st century:

> **"Iintendelezo"** in paragraph 1line 2
>
> "**Ezincotsheni"** line 5 in paragraph 2
>
> **"Ihlelo"** line 4 in paragraph 2
>
> **"Inqilo"** last paragraph

The teacher asked the learners to repeat the unknown words after her in a drill fashion. The teacher improvised to some extent by asking learners to bring pictures of a bird cage to class (iintendelezo), a picture of a mountain so that she could show them the (peak-encotsheni), a picture of a trap (ihlelo) as well as a picture of a type of bird called (inqilo).

In the above scenarios, one may argue that despite the fact that the teachers and learners were interacting through a language that they all understood, learners were not really encouraged to think critically about the environment. At one level learners understood the teacher's explanations well (as they were all isiXhosa speakers at school A) in their own language. At another level the teacher only provided information to learners and there was no opportunity for learners to engage in order to construct their own knowledge. As part of the drilling method in all three schools the learners were made to repeat words after the teacher without really engaging with the relevance of the words in relation to the greater society.

5.4 Layout of the classrooms

In this section I will be looking at the classroom seating arrangements in each of the classrooms observed, the book arrangement, and the teaching materials/artefacts. The different classroom layout is represented in figure 1, 2 and 3. This is relevant in that I believe the layout (effective or otherwise) influences the style of teaching as well as the ultimate learner outputs:
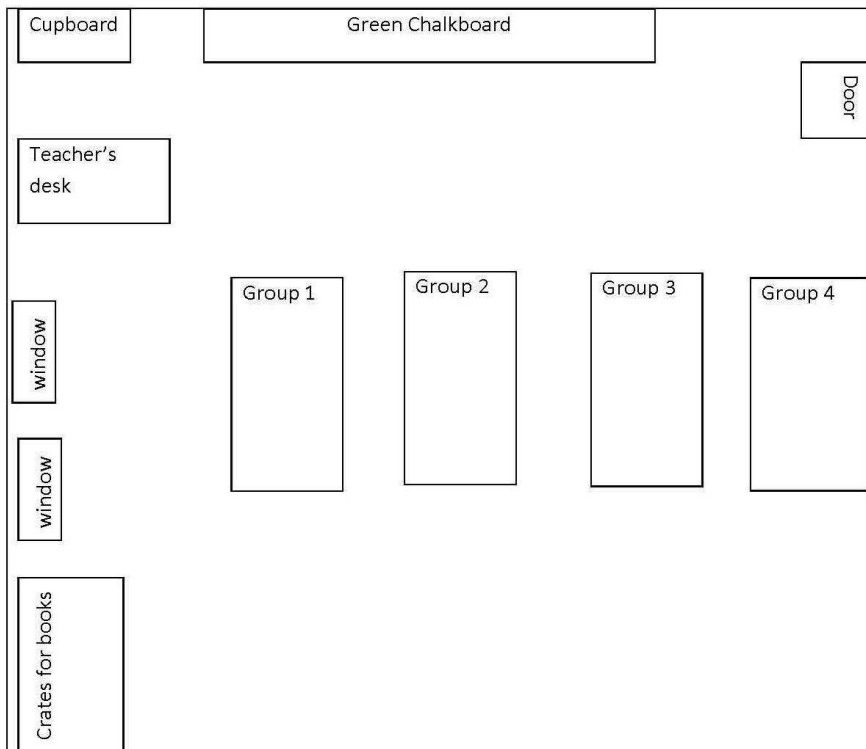
Learners especially in school A were grouped. The seating arrangement was the OBE/NCS type of seating. Learners were seated in groups of four, two at each desk facing each other. According to the NCS curriculum that was the proposed seating for all the schools. There is a belief that when learners are seated in this way, this allows for an interactive strategy, where learners learn collaboratively. It encourages learners to explore and discover things on their own, and thereby it instils good values i.e. sharing, tolerance, and respect. In terms of Vygotskian theory, group work can also enable the learners to attain their potential if they work in collaboration with more capable peers and under the guidance of a teacher (Freeman & freeman 1994). The groups therefore contain both strong and weak students as guided by the teacher. If the intellectual gap is not properly managed, it may not scaffold learners to reach their highest level of learning and this was effectively managed at school A.
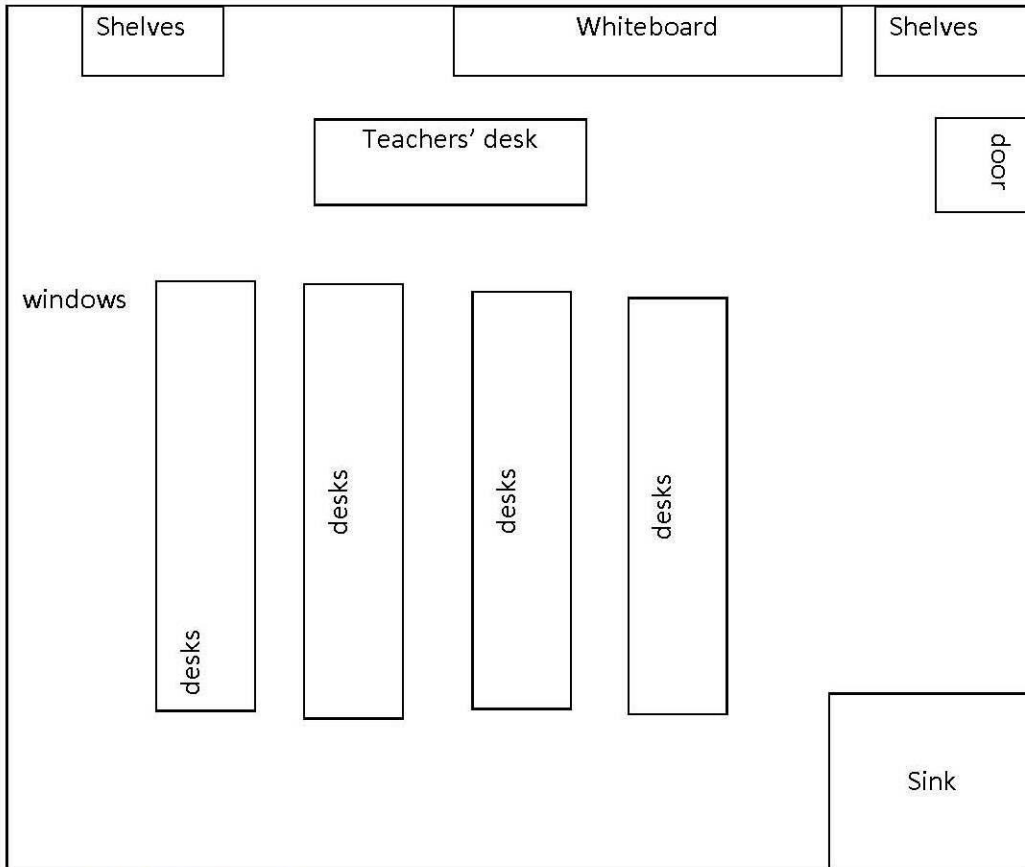
Figure 2: School B (Not to scale)

In School B the learners were seated in the old traditional way i.e. desks were in rows. In school C learners were seated in a horse shoe or C shape. The seating arrangement may have a major impact when learning and teaching happens in the classroom. According to the NCS curriculum the seating arrangement should accommodate group work so that learners help each other and discuss a given activity. In the above mentioned school there was nothing like group work. The learners had to always do things individually as there was no way for them to discuss things because of the isiXhosa language barrier. If there was any discussion it was done using English, the language they felt more comfortable with. Again, this does not favour an immersion process or encourage holistic communicative competence. The teacher would help with the translation into isiXhosa, but the teaching was then mostly teacher-centred as a result to some extent of the classroom layout.
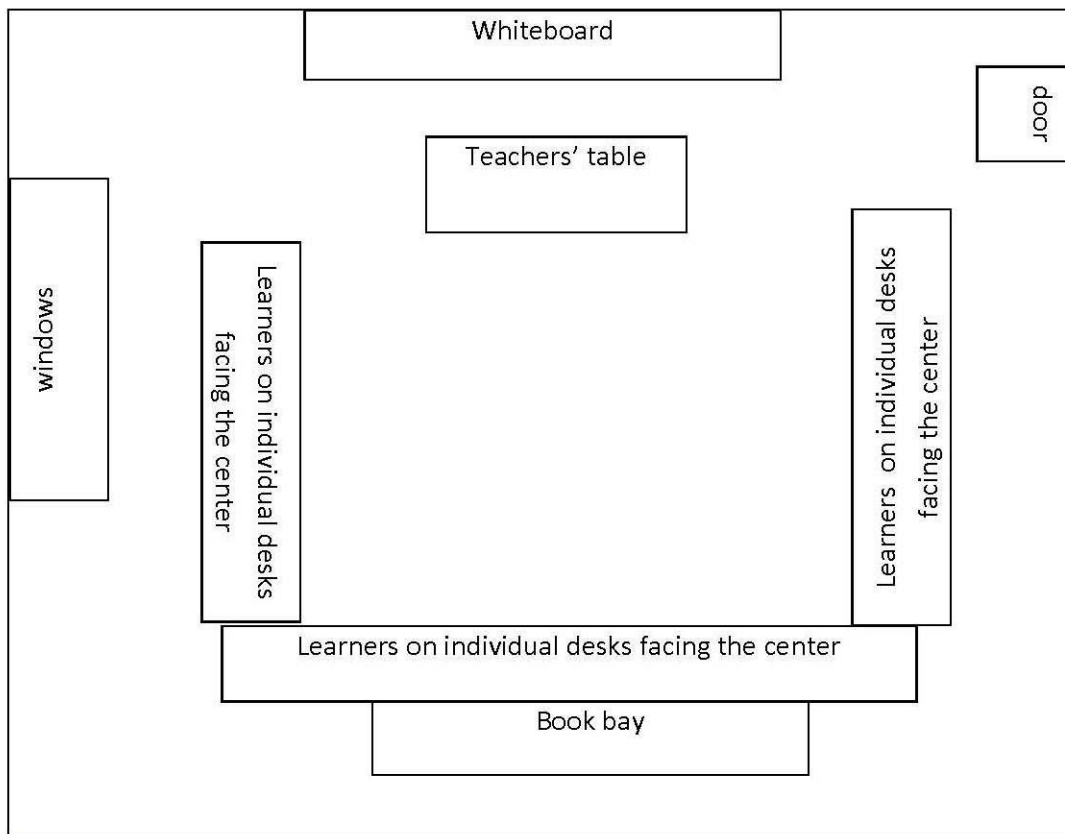
Figure 3: School C (Not to scale)

In school C learners were placed in a horse shoe type of arrangement. This resembled a seminar room. The learners were seated in single desks with single chairs. To me as a researcher that type of seating arrangement was not conducive and did not accommodate group work as suggested by the NCS curriculum. Also in school C there was a rich print-corpus of posters written in isiXhosa, and during my informal conversation with the teacher it was revealed that the classroom was reserved for isiXhosa learning and teaching only, a positive development indeed (see figures 1 & 2 below at school C).
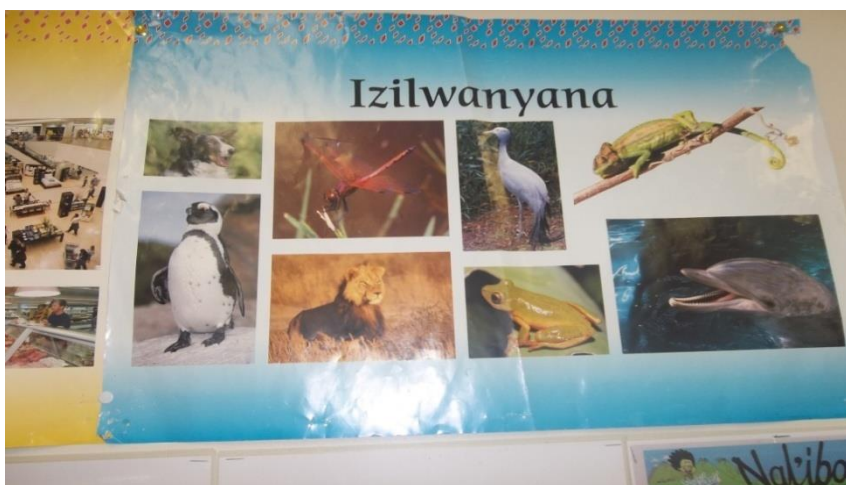
Figure 1. Print-rich walls at school C

Figure 2. Print-rich walls at school C

This contributed to a visual engagement with amaXhosa culture and with isiXhosa vocabulary. In Schools A and B there were posters for other learning areas which were written in English as the classrooms were shared with other teachers. It is therefore clear that a designated classroom contributes to language learning in some way. I was also surprised that in School A there were few posters as that was an isiXhosa environment. The indication here is that there is a complacency in the sense that it is believed that because a learner is born into a particular language group, then they automatically know and understand all that there is to do with that language. This is erroneous indeed.

One of the dimensions of multicultural education is content integration whereby "teachers use examples and content from a variety of culture and groups to illustrate concepts, principles, generalisations and theories in their subject area or discipline." (Banks, 1997:21) This means that the various teaching materials like posters, books and so on that are used should portray a variety of cultures, particularly the cultures of the various learners present in the classrooms and more especially since there is still much concern regarding language and cultural sensitivity in South Africa, materials that encourage social cohesion, a national government initiative. It is through language teaching that social cohesion can be encouraged and classroom layout and the visual nature of classrooms needs to create visibility in this regard.

Regarding books in the classrooms, there were plenty of books arranged in crates in school A. However these included a variety of books which were not organised in any way. The books were not isiXhosa specific. In school B, there was a book corner which was neatly arranged but with not a single isiXhosa book. Learners were given photocopies of exercises to be done in class. That was an indication of the shortage or lack of textbooks, and the photocopies were another means of improvising. In School C there was a sliding door at the back of the classroom. After one lesson I was invited to investigate. It was labelled the '**Book bay"** a small room where all the books were arranged and a few isiXhosa books were also neatly arranged on display. All the books in all the three schools were up to date and were NCS compliant as they were published between 2002 and 2012, though the lack of visibility of isiXhosa books was of grave concern and speaks to the need for materials development.

5.4. 1 Classroom activities

In all the classes most of the activities involved comprehension, filling in the missing words, use of plural-singular, creative writing such as diary entries and the essay. Some lessons were conducted in the form of a dialogue such as the lesson sample on finding directions. Other activities and lessons were for imparting knowledge, for example related to the environment or seasons of the year.

Comprehensions given as class exercises served to enhance conceptual understanding of a story as well as the acquisition of appropriate vocabulary. The stories were read aloud, thereby also enhancing pronunciation. In this process both listening and speaking took place and the stories were taken from the South African context. They were easily identifiable for learners and they ranged from nature, zoological stories as well as stories with a cultural underpinning. Even so, there were errors in some of the written stories, for example the story dealing with Ingwenya 'crocodile' and the story on Indalo 'environment'. This again speaks to the lack of consistency in the standard form of isiXhosa, thereby making the teaching of the language even more challenging. In the comprehension of the crocodile story for example there were a number of language errors: in line 3 it read **icikilishane instead of icikilishe;** Line 4 **Ungawupha** instead of **ungayipha;** line 4 **Ungawubamba** instead of **Ungayibamba** and so on. Even so, the story method helped with sentence construction and gave the learners some practise with full stops, capital letters, punctuation, pronunciation and so on.

The readers and constructed materials used in all the schools were NCS orientated, South African based and all attempted to contain vocabulary that could scaffold the learners effectively. Vocabulary lists contained many isiXhosa concepts and ideas that most South African would be familiar with. The vocabulary lists were user friendly for the different levels of learners, for example FAL and SAL.

From the research it was observed that in all the classrooms in each one of the three schools, writing was not taught as such but rather practiced. There were numerous language activities that the learners participated in whilst a number of them appeared to purely involve grammar or language structure rather than encouraging a communicative approach. Throughout the observations in all the schools there was little homework given to learners. That raised questions to me as a researcher. Personally I thought there was a need for them to be given homework and for the parents to help them at home. The only homework that was given was when the learners did not complete work within their scheduled time, then they were asked to complete their work at home. Mother tongue parental guidance should also be encouraged where possible. It is commonly known that learning follows a three-way format involving the teacher, the learner and the parent. (Fobe, 2010)

5.4.2 Problems teachers encountered in teaching isiXhosa

As states above, the main problem that the teachers at schools B and C encountered were the lack of texts books. The supplies that were sent to their schools by the Department of Education were very limited. Although the teachers were aware of this problem and knew that it would affect learner's progress, they avoided teaching their lessons from books and developed their own materials.

The use of books in encouraging reading is widely acknowledged (Leu and Kinzer, 1987; Hedge, 1985; Graves et al. 2007; Nzwala, 2007). Lack of reading books deprives learners from experiencing independent reading. The teachers in schools B and C taught their lessons using prepared vocabulary on the lists that were given by their teachers in the classrooms. They did not provide learners with sufficient practice in reading to achieve fluency. This in my view is a problem area that needs to be addressed by both administrators in government as well as teachers and curriculum developers.

The other challenge was the use of appropriate language. Some learners were not isiXhosa first language speakers. They did not have a good command of isiXhosa and their home language influenced their accent when pronouncing isiXhosa words. The teaching aids that were used during the lessons were also limited. The department seemed to dispatch inappropriate aids for the lessons that were too difficult and teachers had to improvise or borrow from the neighbouring schools. Teachers from schools B and C supplemented the teaching aids by using pictures from magazines and accessing Google as there were computers in their classrooms. In school A the materials were available but often somewhat outdated in terms of textbooks. There is a need therefore to seriously engage at all levels in order to develop appropriate materials for the teaching of isiXhosa. This is especially relevant in the light of the recent announcements by the Minister of Basic Education, Angie Motshega, that the teaching of African languages will be introduced incrementally from Grade R in 2014 and that the learning and teaching of such languages is to be made compulsory. Though not the main focus of this thesis, as this development falls out of the research period (2011-2013), it is necessary to mention this point and to furthermore take it up in Chapter 6 of this thesis. Without appropriate materials development it is unlikely that this endeavour will succeed.

5.4.3 Assessment

As indicated in Chapter 4, the main purpose of assessment is to develop a reliable picture of each individual learner's progress and level of achievement. Assessment is an example of external framing, which has implications for internal pacing of learners. Assessment can be informal and sometimes formal. Assessment is an integral part of teaching and learning and is done informally during lesson presentation. The main aim of the assessment is to assess the learner's development.

All assessments for grades 7-9 in the three schools were completed at the end of the year. But the focal point was on the grade 9 class (as already indicated in Chapter 4) as they were at the exit point of the senior phase. That served as a yardstick to measure and to see if they were competent enough in the target language i.e. isiXhosa. It is also important to mention that I was fortunate to have tracked the same set of learners as they were progressing through the respective grades. This was to see if they were competent enough in the specified outcomes of the NCS curriculum as well as in the outcomes selected for this study (see Chapter 1 for the outcomes).

The results of the tests however revealed that there were some learners who could not write words correctly, even at school A where isiXhosa is taught as HL. Learners in schools B and C were also not that competent in their pronunciation of isiXhosa words. At schools B and C the learners were given oral and written assessments. I took a careful look at the scripts that were administered at school B since the classroom was populated with isiXhosa first tongue speakers as well (see Appendix D). When I analysed them I found some spelling errors. What follows are examples of the types of questions asked in the assessment forms for school B:

- Injani imozulu namhlanje? 'How is the weather today?'
- **Impendulo**: banda 'Answer: cold'
- Isikolo singena ngabani ixesha? 'What time does school begin?'
- **Impendulo**: ngo-half past 7/ 7.30 'Answer: at 7.30'
- Siphume nini? 'When does it come out?'
- **Impendulo**: Ngo half one emini/1.30 Answer: 1.30'
- Uyichithe njani-impela veki yakho? 'How did you spend your weekend?'
- **Impendulo:** Ndidlala nechomi yam/bendhleli ekhaya/ndincokola neezihlobo/ulala 'Answer: I played with my friend/I chatted to friends/sleep'

Learners gave a wide variety of answers but some gave short answers instead of writing full sentences. This again speaks to the lack of attaining communicative competence, both linguistic and cultural in order to attain a certain level of communication that would be required for the purposes of social cohesion. (Kaschula and Anthonissen, 1995) The lack of exposure to language learning in a more natural environment is what seems to be lacking together with the lack of appropriate learning materials.

The name **chomi** for example is a jargon or township word that substitutes for umhlobo 'friend'. Learners should be aware of both options. The final question reads as follows: **Ukhe ulusebenzise ulwimi lwesiXhosa ukuphela kwephiriyodi?** 'Do you use isiXhosa fter the period?' Telling answers emerged such as the following:

Ewe ngamanye amaxesha (Yes sometimes),

Hayi envenkile (ni) (Only at the shop),

Ewe kancinci,(Yes a little of the time),

Ewe ndisithetha qho (yes I always speak isiXhosa),

Ewe kancinci ngezinye iimini (Yes a little on some days),

Kakhulu ekhaya (All the time at home).

At school C learners were also given an oral assessment to test their spoken isiXhosa language competencies (see also Appendix D). They were assessed individually. Some learners were competent and others were not yet competent. These are the examples of the questions posed which allows one again to assess the level of isiXhosa that is being taught:

- Molo mfundi 'Hello learner'
- Ungubani igama lakho? 'What is your name?'
- Ngubani ifani yakho? 'What is your surname?'
- Uhlala phi apha eRhini? Ndawoni? 'Where do you stay here in Grahamstown? Exactly where?'
- Uzalelwe phi? 'Where were you born?'
- Uzalwe ngomhla wesingaphi? 'On what day were you born?'
- Abazali bakho benza ntoni? 'What do your parents do?'
- Kungolwesingaphi namhlanje? 'What day is it today?'
- Uthanda ukwenza ntoni ngempelaveki? 'What do you like doing on the weekend?'
- Uyayihamba icawe? 'Do you go to Church?'

The assessment criteria were either 'competent' or 'not yet competent'. Learners that were competent were able to respond appropriately to questions posed above. Though there were errors, the meaning was not obscured and the responses could be understood. Learners were largely able to initiate and maintain a conversation. Learners that were not competent were judged by the fact that they were not responding appropriately to the questions posed due to the number of errors in meaning and the fact that the responses were unintelligible. Only speaking and listening competencies were assessed. Again, one was left questioning the type of questions posed, the relationship of the question or assessment to the 'drill' style of teaching and how this impacted on the learner's ability to converse in a more natural way, where

communicative competence was encouraged more holistically. This thesis suggests that it is this point that educators will need to engage with in the future for both FAL and SAL teaching.

In all the assessments learners were expected to answer the questions in terms of their own understanding and in their own words. They seemed to have difficulties in doing so, particularly in isiXhosa. Another factor could be that there were no English words given as translations as they were used to that in the classroom. In addition there were no real reading opportunities for learners in both schools in isiXhosa as reading material were limited. As Krashen (1993) and Cummins (2000, 2009) have argued, active engagement with literacy is fundamental for a pupil's academic success. Cummins (2000:98) concludes that "extended reading is crucial for academic development since academic language is found primarily in written texts."

Referring to the assessment of additional languages, Wigglesworth (2008:111) states that "tasks are designed to measure learner's productive language skills through performances which allow candidates to demonstrate the kinds of language skills that may be required in a real world context." In the context of this research, the "real world" refers to the subject knowledge which is highly dependent on the pupil's knowledge of the language of instruction i.e. isiXhosa in relation to events and issues pertaining to contemporary South Africa.

It was also observed that there might be a number of factors that influence the pacing of the lessons, for example the large number of learners in the classes at school A. This did not facilitate effective interaction between the teacher and learners. Another factor was the duration of periods at schools B and C as not much could be covered in the 30-35 minutes that were allocated for isiXhosa. Overall the analysis of test scores for the three consecutive years (2011-2013) indicates that learners who were taught through the medium of isiXhosa in the isiXhosa lessons outperformed the learners who were taught through English/isiXhosa translation techniques at both schools B and C. In other words, in terms of depth of understanding, critical thinking and acquisition of vocabulary the HL teaching and learning far exceeds the FAL and SAL streams. Although the outcomes would by necessity be different, the issue around communicative competence should be achievable at all three levels as this is in the interests of all learners and the country more generally if social cohesion is to be achieved.

The test results correlate then with the analysis of the learners work, which shows that learners expressed themselves better and more logically in their mother tongue. The test results seem to relate to consulted literature which points to the fact that learning through ones mother tongue is better than learning through an additional language, be it first or second language (Bamgbose, 2005, McKay & De Klerk, 1996; Rollnick and Rutherford, 1996; Stetson, 1994). It may therefore be more beneficial for FAL and SAL learners to be part of an immersion process in isiXhosa rather than making use of English as a 'medium of instruction' for the acquisition of isiXhosa. Such strategies may need to be developed and appropriate curricula designed. The strategy of code-switching as opposed to total emersion is further analysed below and it also has its merits.

5.5 Code-switching/mixing as a teaching resource

In situations where the teachers and learners are interacting where they have a limited proficiency, the following are the possible ways in which teacher-learner interaction can be affected:

1. The teacher may ask good questions and the learners may see the answers but fail to express themselves clearly due to lack of experience in descriptions and explanations.
2. The teacher may fail to ask the question correctly due to a conceptual misunderstanding or lack of appropriate reasoning.
3. The teacher may ask wrong questions due to poor language ability on his/her part, especially if the teacher is not a mother tongue speaker.
4. The teacher can try to run interaction in a code-switching or code-mixing manner and dominate the discourse (O-saki, 2005:44-45)

In the context of this study the approaches 1-4 seem to be more dominant in explaining how teachers in all the schools interacted with their learners in the isiXhosa lessons. Particularly in schools B and C teachers communicated using both English and isiXhosa with their learners during the isiXhosa lessons. The teachers seemed to have no choice but to switch into isiXhosa to facilitate the lessons. So code-switching for teachers in schools B and C was a means of mediating learning. (Freeman and Freeman, 1994:58) In school A the teacher as well as learners spoke isiXhosa and fluency was almost guaranteed. In schools B and C where isiXhosa was taught as FAL and SAL the learners remained silent when isiXhosa was used in class. The

learners were forced to switch over to English which in my opinion did not serve to enhance communicative competence. The code-switched communication does however have benefits for the learners understanding of isiXhosa content. Examples of code-switching and mixing are included (see Appendix E). Cleghorn (2005), as indicated in n Chapter 2 and in support of this approach states the following: "Code switching and mixing enables the teachers to convey the meaning of their lessons, while it helps learners to understand the lesson content." However, switching to English as a medium of instruction for understanding isiXhosa should not be permitted.

Although translation was used in schools B and C to facilitate the lesson it can be also seen as one of the factors that limited exposure to isiXhosa language input in the classroom. Considering Krashen's Theory of input Hypothesis (i+1) mentioned above, the more learners interact with isiXhosa, the better they understand the lessons. Code-switching seemed to have instilled a sense of "dependence on translations" where the majority of the learners would not even try to answer isiXhosa questions in isiXhosa. However other scholars have found code-switching to be particularly beneficial for the learning of content subjects. For instance the studies by Brock-Utne (2006), Holmarsdottir (2005) Mwinsheikhe (2003), Vuzo (2005), although conducted in different countries (South Africa and Tanzania) illustrate that teachers made use code-switching to make their lessons meaningful to the learners. This may not necessarily be the case for language learning and further research would be required in this n regard which goes beyond the scope of this thesis.

Concerning isiXhosa language use in the classroom, presented data shows that both learners and teachers relied on code-switching and mixing in all three schools. For instance the isiXhosa mother-tongue teachers were using English to praise the learners, for example (nice one! good that's it!). To confirm that the learners were listening to them words such as (nhe, okay) were used in both schools B and C. In school A both teachers used code-mixing when praising their learners: (Are we together bethuna, sihamba sonke bethu, and good sisi/bhuti). This was true too of the actual teaching process more generally.

As cited by Adendorff (1996:389) code-switching occurs in many South African schools and universities and it is a useful communicative resource used to accomplish educational objectives. In this particular   study code-switching was used for various purposes: Firstly to direct learners to answer in isiXhosa (as a management tool in schools B and C as they were

having multiracial learners). Secondly, code-switching was used as a scaffolding tool or to provide clues which the learners could use as a basis to broaden their understanding of the lesson. Thirdly, it was used not only to encourage the learners, but also to relieve tension which came as a result of learner's silence in class. This verified the statement that code-switching was used for classroom management, mediation or scaffolding and encouragement. Meerkotter (1998) describes code-switching as "a communicative resource to manage interaction in the teaching-learning situation." However, the effectiveness of the strategy becomes limited in the interactional support during lesson presentations in the classroom only because it is not acceptable in the examinations. Furthermore, in language teaching further research is required to measure its merits and demerits where language competency in listening, reading, writing and comprehension remain a priority.

5.5.1 Learning strategies

In this section the second research question is addressed: What learning strategies do learners use when taught through the medium of isiXhosa? In relation to the Interactionist theory which draws a connection between language and thought, emerging trends show that learning in one's mother tongue is more advantageous in terms of better conceptualisation than learning in a foreign language.

One would say the learning of isiXhosa in schools B and C was passive because the learner's remained silent when their teachers were communicating in isiXhosa. Similarly data on written work in the learners workbooks showed that some of the learners could not express themselves logically and meaningful in isiXhosa. The learner's performance in this regard could be explained in terms of their lack of confidence to express themselves in isiXhosa, hence some of them responded in English to isiXhosa questions. This again poses the question as to what would be the most effective teaching strategy in such situations where isiXhosa is largely only heard in the classroom. This research suggests that community integration is required as part of teaching strategies that wish to speak to social cohesion, in other words where learners are removed from their comfort zones and immersed in the community in order to enhance language acquisition as part of the learning process. This would need to be built into the curriculum in some way. It may be argued that if the learning and teaching of isiXhosa could only take place in isiXhosa in the classroom, the learners would then have no choice but to speak, read, and write in isiXhosa. Arguably much more learning would take place.

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5.5.2 Learners activity books

The learner's work books required the following activities to be undertaken in summary:

- Using vocabulary words in sentences
- Writing the meaning of words
- Answering comprehension questions about a text
- Writing a text or a story about a topic
- Writing what they saw happening in pictures provided to them

The activities that were given by teachers to the learners in class were approached differently in each of the three schools. Starting with the comprehension given in school A, the learners were required to read it out aloud. By so doing the teacher was checking their reading skills. Furthermore reading strengthens learner's comprehension in written texts, and encourages learners to be critical thinkers. For the other two schools reading was largely not done by learners for the purposes of critical thinking, the perception was that they were not going to be able to interpret and make connections among isiXhosa concepts if they were not reading with understanding. The teacher monitored any reading by correcting pronunciation errors. The learners were told to write out the questions that followed for the comprehension in their workbooks. In schools B and C the presentation of the comprehension was different, the teacher had to read the comprehension out aloud and then translate the material into English. This was time consuming as the lesson was to be completed in two periods that were not on the same day. As mentioned above, the periods were also quite short.

Writing no doubt encourages learners to think in a structured way, and to express their thoughts freely in order to show their knowledge of the subject. For instance learners can express themselves in a very meaningful way in the interpretation of texts and develop critical thinking skills (reasoning and reaching conclusions). As in speaking learners can articulate clearly what they know from writing. If the leaner does not explain a concept clearly in writing, it is likely that the learner does not clearly understand that particular isiXhosa concept (Freire, 2002:100). As mentioned above it is clear that speaking, reading and writing are language skills that work interdependently. These skills are also important in making sense of any learning activity. In the isiXhosa language those skills are strengthened through tasks such as presenting, debating

and reporting which play an important role in knowledge construction. The learner's activity books showed that learners were engaged in a different variety of activities which included oral activities, written activities and visual representation analysis through the use of pictures. They even practiced words written by the teacher on the white-board and all of the above was extrapolated in the previous chapter. The point that requires emphasis is that in all three schools, there is too little emphasis on understanding the standard isiXhosa orthography and encouraging extensive written work which proceeds beyond a short answer to a question, or at best the writing of a paragraph, even in the HL.

5.6 Language-in-Education policy awareness

In order to understand the use of isiXhosa as a taught language in this study, data on language policy issues focuses on awareness and implementation of language related activities at schools. My analysis in this section touches on teacher's awareness and views on language policy issues. It responds to bullet number 7 of the sub-research questions which reads as follows: To what extent are teachers aware of the Language-in-Education Policy that guides teaching and learning?

During my observations in the three schools I noticed that only one school (school A) did adhere to the language policy by strictly using isiXhosa mother-tongue instruction. At schools B and C teachers did not have much knowledge of the language policy. The only knowledge they had was that there are now 11 official languages that are in use in South Africa. The fact that schools are operating without language policies violates the purpose of redressing inequalities of the previous education system. It was apparent in schools B and C that few of the teachers had knowledge of the language policy. It is my assumption that the School Governing body (SGB) members were also not aware of the language policy. There is a need for the government to capacitate them regarding the benefits of mother-tongue instruction as well as the teaching of languages other than English. The primary function of the SGB is to make a choice on the language to be used by teachers for the purposes of learning.

It was apparent that the schools were following different policies in terms of language teaching and medium of instruction. School A taught isiXhosa as a home language in isiXhosa and all learners were also taught content subjects in isiXhosa up to Grade 4 as dictated by the policy. School B was an English medium school and a teacher confirmed that they were using the same

language policy which was used by the school before 1994 (before the release of the current Language-in-education Policy). School C was also an English medium school governed by the rules and regulations of an independent school. IsiXhosa was offered at Second additional level as per the school policy in the language's learning area. There were other languages offered in this school besides English and Afrikaans. The languages were Mandarin, French and German. Learners were to choose the language of their choice after grade 9.

During my observations I picked up that teachers lacked awareness and understanding of the current language-in-education policy (at schools B and C). Instead of referring to the school's Language policy one of the teachers (School B) emphasized code-switching as one of the aims of the language-in-education policy. There was a total lack of knowledge about the LiEP as explicated in Chapter 2 of this thesis. My own analysis was that the teachers were lacking a sound knowledge of the psychological and cognitive benefits of mother-tongue education as well as approaches to the teaching of FAL and SAL. Language policy within schools should provide direction to teaching and learning. It is clear that SGBs and schools have little or no knowledge regarding language teaching issues and steps must be taken to rectify this based on informed research. To some extent the recent announcements of implementing the learning and teaching of African languages from the top does speak to the research observations outlined in this thesis.

It is clear from the LiEP outlined in Chapter 2 that it does not take a definite stance on methodology for acquiring additive bilingualism, but states that the underlying principle of the policy is to maintain home languages while providing for the acquisition of additional languages.

Regarding the teacher's knowledge and awareness of the policy which guides teaching and learning in schools, none of the six teachers have seen a copy, nor did they have any details about how the policy works. This research confirmed that the teachers glorified and protected English to the exclusion of isiXhosa, even though this goes directly against the language-in-education policy. My own conclusion was that the teachers were ignorant about the policy which aims at developing African languages in schools. The teachers also lacked sound knowledge of the psychological and cognitive benefits of mother-tongue education.

The policy is also an integral component of the government's strategy for nation building. Thus the policy outlines sound linguistic principles with regard to the second language acquisition and the role of the first language in the process of education. The Revised National Curriculum (RNCS Grades R-9 2002:5) affirmed the LiEP by stating that the Home language should continue to be used alongside the additional language for as long as possible.

This implies that there was limited monitoring of the implementation of education policies by the Department of Basic Education, despite the fact that the national and provincial departments of education have officials who specialize in this field of language learning and medium of instruction. This lack of monitoring impacts negatively on transformation and progress in education. This research reveals that teachers lacked sufficient knowledge regarding language rights in education. It also appears that although the South African National Government or the National Department of Education issues policies that guide teaching and learning, some of the policies are not implemented in schools. As alluded to earlier, the fact that there is little or no adherence to the current LiEP defeats the purpose of redressing the imbalances of the previous education system.

5.7 Conclusion

In this chapter, I have further presented and analysed my findings on how teachers interacted with the learners in isiXhosa lessons and outlined observations concerned with language and education. In the next chapter, I present a summary of my findings as well as future recommendations.

Chapter 6

Summary of findings, conclusions and recommendations

6. Introduction

This chapter aims at developing a coherent viewpoint on the insights that have been gained through this research. The chapter presents an overview of the study. I comment on the key findings, make definite recommendations and discuss the potential value of the research as well as reflect on the research process.

The different research techniques that were employed in this study aimed to address the research questions that were outlined in the first chapter. Essentially what this research has found is that each of the three schools that were used as research sites make use of different teaching and learning strategies when it comes to the teaching of isiXhosa. This is largely as a result of the varying levels of isiXhosa teaching at these schools. These approaches are also indicative of the historical educational inheritance, whereby under apartheid language was used to divide and rule. Hence, in school A for example it remains as a predominantly isiXhosa environment as evidenced in this thesis, whereas schools B and C are mixed and school B has shown significant changes in terms of learner make-up, yet the teaching of isiXhosa in such a school remains largely unchanged and not able to reflect the changes brought by the influx of learners whose HL is one other than English.

To some extent this speaks to the notion of social change in South Africa, but it also highlights the fact that language is yet to be used successfully as a tool to create social cohesion in South Africa. It is evident from research on other countries that multilingualism can be seen as a strength and resource within the educational environment (Alexander, 2002). This is supported by Mutiga (2013) who states that "Multilingualism in Kenya occurs at the level of the individual as well as that of whole speech communities and most Kenyans are at least bilingual and a significant number is trilingual." It is important that such multilingual models be engaged with in South Africa, more especially within the educational system where the opportunities exist to grow multilingual citizens, once appropriate methodologies, curricula and status planning has been put in place as suggested in this thesis.

6.2 Results of the thesis in summary

A further purpose of this thesis was to look at the schools and the teaching within these schools from an ethnographic and comparative point of view in order to assess strengths and weaknesses within the teaching process. This required that all the backgrounds of teachers be analysed, against the backdrop of the learner make-up as well as the teaching strategies and facilities that are present in these respective schools. This formed the basis of Chapters 4 and 5 of this thesis. As a result of this research, one is then able to extrapolate certain trends and to

also assess which trends should be reversed as indicated below in the recommendations of this thesis.

What was also found in this research is that the efforts of the schooling system to subtly socially engineer an English dominant society whereby learners are not permitted to learn in, and about, their HL, for example isiXhosa, has a negative effect on the role of African languages within the schooling system and it also affects the learners attitudes towards their home language, which is seen as deficient, and not able to be on a par with English as a language which is favoured globally. If true social cohesion is to be encouraged through the sharing of linguistic spaces, then this assumption that all learners must be taught in English to the detriment of their mother tongue must be changed. This is what is envisaged in the new draft policy on the incremental implementation of the teaching and learning of African languages which is to be piloted in 2014. Further comment on this is included under the recommendations section.

Furthermore, the present approach where English is used as the only language of learning and teaching and where certain mother tongue speakers are taught their own language as a FAL, amounts to what could be termed as an implicit and deficit model of multilingualism which ends up being a subtractive model rather than a additive model as proposed by the language-in-education policy. Part of this research was to assess whether teachers at the three schools had any knowledge of this policy and whether they interact with this policy in formulating their teaching strategies. This analysis is included in Chapter 5 of this work. The teacher's awareness of LiEP was investigated in order to see if there was any relationship between LiEP and their classroom practices and how such practices informed the use of isiXhosa language teaching and learning. In relation to this policy it is the parents and SGBs that need to make informed decisions about the teaching and learning of languages. This thesis suggests that much work needs to be done in order to allow for these informed decisions to be made, especially at former Model-C schools such as school B as opposed to school A.

In relation to the above, the Constitution of South Africa (1996) allows for every child to be taught in his or her own language during the years of formal schooling. This means that the nine indigenous languages that we use in South Africa should all be encouraged, depending on the language used in each province or region. In a multilingual country like South Africa, it is important that the learners reach high levels of proficiency in at least two languages, and that they are able to communicate in other languages as well. This is especially true of social

cohesion is to be attained an indicated in the work of Alexander (2002). This is a point that is made continually throughout this thesis.

As indicated in Chapter 2, Cummins and Swain (1986:97-98) and Mutiga (2010) argue that the learning of other content subjects later on, as well as other languages, occurs even more effectively if the learner's cognitive skills are fully developed in the mother tongue. This research suggests that learners should be taught their mother tongue effectively, while acquiring good English as a well-taught subject as well. Furthermore, all FAL and SAL learners of isiXhosa should be taught at the required levels and each scholar should be individually evaluated to see which strand of teaching they would be best suited to belong to i.e. HL, FAL or SAL in each of the respective schools.

6.3 Curriculum and the benefits of language teaching in summary

This thesis contends that if a child is taught in the mother tongue in the Foundation and Intermediate phases, language transfer to a second language will take place more easily. The transition to the target language in the upper phases will be much easier. The learner's mother tongue is the basis for the acquisition and development of a second language and other languages (Alexander 2005; Prah 2003; Skutnabb-Kangas and Garcia, 1995). All three schools researched in this thesis are attempting to achieve this process, both from an English and isiXhosa mother tongue point of view as well as from an English FAL point of view at school A, an isiXhosa FAL at school B, and isiXhosa SAL at school C. Chumbow (1993:63) furthermore emphasises the psychological importance of the child's mother tongue. It is argued in this thesis that the importance of social cohesion in South African can be supported only by an additive bilingual approach to the learning of our languages. As indicated in Chapter 2, this is in line with Alexander's mother-tongue-based-bilingual education model (MTBBE).

The OBE policies and the NCS as outlined in this thesis also speak directly to an additive approach, though this is not found to be thoroughly implemented, more especially in schools B and C. The OBE curriculum starts by developing the learner's ability to understand and speak the language used as the medium of instruction as well as providing the opportunity to acquire other languages as FAL and SAL. Education and the new curriculum as indicated in this thesis, in particular, has an important role to play in realising the following aims as contained in the NCS:

- Healing the divisions of the past, and establishing a society based on democratic values, social justice, and fundamental human rights;

- Improving the quality of life of all citizens, and freeing the potential of each person;

- Laying the foundations for a democratic and open society in which government is based on the will of the people and every citizen is equally protected by the law; and

- Building a united and democratic South Africa that is able to take its rightful place as a sovereign state in the family of nations.

(Department of Education - Revised National Curriculum Statement - Grades R-9 (2002).

From the above aims of the Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS), it is clear that the RNCS is a government initiative to redress the inequalities of the previous education system of the apartheid era.

The birth of democracy in 1994 came with new changes in all sectors of government, particularly in education, hence the new curriculum. This type of curriculum is learner-centred. The RNCS is a component of this OBE curriculum; it aims at promoting success for learners and sees learners as achievers. (RNCS 2002:10) This curriculum ensures that South Africa's identity is built on values that are different from those that underpinned the apartheid education. The curriculum seeks to create multi-skilled and multilingual, as well as critical, citizens of this country.

6.4 Implementation of policies

Implementation of South Africa's Language-in-education policy starts with the teachers on the ground. It would be impossible to divorce the implementation of this policy from the process of teacher education. The teachers in the schools are the people that have to interpret the objectives and content of the curriculum plan. Implementation involves a series of related tasks. Implementing language policy is such a task, as it is not easy to adapt and accept change. This means that there are going to be new demands for teachers. New knowledge and attitudes will need to be acquired, which requires flexibility on the part of teachers.

Teacher education is essential for the implementation of language policy. The implementation of the new curriculum in schools depends largely on the retraining of teachers. This has everything to do with being creative, skilled and the changing of attitudes fostered during the initial training. Follow-up programmes such as workshops should be organised, so as to develop and equip teachers with what should be done in schools. This is true of all three schools

that were research as part of this thesis. For the implementation process to take place smoothly, teachers need to be dedicated to transformation, and need to adhere to what the language policy requires. This will enhance the view by Bamgbose (1991) that the success of language policy implementation is not necessarily attributable to government agencies, but that the input of teachers is imperative for its success. Another major finding is that out of six teachers who participated in this study only one did not have a qualification in isiXhosa i.e. in school B in particular. This means that the educational standards are in place with regards to the teachers, but they yet have to come to understand what the policies require of them in relation to the teaching of language within the schooling system.

Teachers are not given enough time to learn how to use the new OBE-RNCS curriculum and this should form part of the re-skilling process. I am saying this not only from my own experience as a teacher, but also from my observations at all the three schools as reflected in Chapter 4. Workshops that are held take place over three days only, and at the end of that short period, one is expected to produce good results in the classroom. Furthermore, teachers are not well versed with what is supposed to be done, and they end up following their own approaches, for example the teacher-centred approach followed in most of the schools.

My research supports the view of Bamgbose (1991:133) that implementation may arise from definitive directives, or it may be based on local initiatives based on the perception of perceived needs. Furthermore, the present language implementation plan does not yet appropriately reflect this important association between language policies and their own execution. (Bamgbose, 1991:133-139)

6.5 Teaching strategies in summary

It was found in this thesis that there was too much reliance on a teacher-centred approach in all three schools. Furthermore, that at FAL and SAL levels, the learners were not necessarily individually challenged as part of the teaching process, more especially when mother tongue learners found themselves in a FAL level class. It was also found that the use of drilling and rote learning or the 'telling' method which is often used in fact violates the stipulations of the OBE-RNCS curriculum, which advocates a learner-centred approach.

The questions that the teachers asked were also not challenging and often they did not stimulate the learners' critical thinking and creativity. Such teaching strategies support rote learning instead of active learning. The challenge for today's teachers is to break from the traditional

mould and to teach isiXhosa in a creative way, thereby making it more relevant to the future generation of 'could be' multilingual citizens. The traditional or teacher-centred approaches that were employed by the teachers appear to emerge from their lack of reflection on their teaching practices and their lack of knowledge and interaction with policy documents as indicated in this thesis. In my view, I think the way that the teachers themselves were educated has an effect on their ability to deliver in the classroom. Furthermore, I think overcrowded classrooms are not conducive to effective teaching and learning.

In all the phases for learning, the pedagogic focus is more on the teaching approaches and strategies that are used, rather than on the content of the instruction. An important factor is the teacher's attitude towards learning and teaching. If the teacher has a negative attitude towards teaching and learning, then no effective learning will be achieved. The new curriculum is a challenge, as it normally comes out with its goals and objectives that require implementation by teachers. In relation to all three schools, teachers were appropriately qualified and it was heartening to see that all but one of the isiXhosa teachers were in fact mother tongue speakers of the language. This differs greatly from the apartheid era where languages were not necessarily taught by teachers who were proficient in those languages or appropriately qualified.

6.6 Future recommendations

Teachers in South African schools need to embrace democracy, and everything that goes with it. Parents and teachers should break away from the shackles of the past regime by adapting to new changes that have taken place since 1994. Diversity needs to be encouraged in schools, by employing teachers of other race and cultural groups. This would be a step towards transformation in our schools and would again speak to the notion of social cohesion.

Lesson planning is one of the principles of the OBE-RNCS curriculum. Teachers cannot operate in isolation; they need to be directed. The National Department of Basic Education should consider retraining teachers. Teachers should be given monetary rewards for good work; this would make them feel appreciated. African languages should be made compulsory subjects in the former Model-C schools, so that learners of other race groups can learn and value these languages. This move will strengthen pride and loyalty in South Africans as citizens of the "rainbow nation", and nurture social cohesion. This is contained in a draft policy by the

Ministry (Kaschula et al 2014). In relation to this draft policy and in line with this thesis, I would like to recommend that the following adaptations be made to this policy:

In terms of 'Home Language' provision should be made here for bilingual children i.e. those that pick up two or perhaps even more languages as home languages. There should be no reason as to why a learner should not be able to study two languages as mother-tongue or first languages. The draft policy needs to consider this point.

It is also not clear what motivates the policy. Is it a response to the perceived wide-spread practice of the former Model C schools not being willing to teach African languages? Or is it for the purposes of using African languages as languages of learning and teaching, hence improving cognition in content subjects? If it is responding to the former, then it is only speaking to the inherited approaches to the teaching and learning of African languages as indicated in this thesis and within the schools that served as research sites.

The document and the content therein need to address the following two parallel processes:

Providing clear guidelines for African languages as LoLT;

Providing for the need for non-African language speaking students to learn an indigenous African language as a subject as is the case in schools B and C in this thesis.

The first need is the more urgent and critical one as the majority of these learners are failing to acquire content knowledge (either in their home language or in English). The term "additive multilingualism" as referred throughout this thesis applies to these African language-speaking learners who are failing to acquire Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) in their home language as indicated in Chapter 2. The second need has more to do with nation-building and social cohesion and should not be conflated with the first need, though this thesis emphasises this as a very important point for the nation as a whole.

It should be noted that excessive assessment has increased the burden on teachers. By increasing teaching time this will further add to the burden of workload on teachers and it is envisaged that this will create tension. It is further suggested that teachers should be given teaching assistants to assist with marking. The pedagogy of teaching African languages as home and additional languages is under-researched and needs to be opened up in order to find more creative methods of teaching. The proposal is silent about pedagogic innovation, a requirement which is suggested in this thesis as very important.

Regarding teachers, there is the challenge of skilling new teachers, the re-training of established teachers, as well as the inclusion of teaching assistants. Exactly how this is going to be done and facilitated needs to form part of the policy i.e. what the Higher Education implications would be in order to achieve implementation of the policy in Basic Education.

The policy needs to clearly articulate the difference between introducing African languages as additional languages for non-mother tongue speakers as well as using the African languages as LoLT beyond the initial years for mother-tongue speakers.

Furthermore, another recommendation would be that South Africa's indigenous African languages should be intellectualised, so that these languages can be used more effectively in our schools as languages that are taught, but also as language of tuition, as well as in our institutions of higher learning.

My concluding remarks are as follows:

- Mother-tongue education plays a fundamental role in cognitive development and the acquisition of additional languages. (Tollefson, 1991)
- Certain areas of the curriculum need to be revised for HL, FAL and SAL in order to suit the needs of the learners.
- Follow-up programmes on language implementation strategies should be set up by the DoE.
- Content gap workshops should be organised on a regular basis.
- Quarterly reports should be made at schools, and submitted to the language subject advisers, who should make regular visits to monitor the implementation process.

6.8 Conclusion

In South Africa we have enabling policies with disabling practices (Bialystock, 1991) Policies are already in place for education, but these need to be implemented. However, educators on the ground are promoting disabling practices, thereby creating confusion and negative attitudes, at least towards the indigenous African languages. The best remedy is to create an educational environment where teachers adhere to the implementation of South Africa's Language-in-education policy. That said one must recognise that much transformation has taken place in relation to the teacher qualification levels which have improved to create a pool of knowledge

to be used in the educational system. What is required now are effective development of curricula at all levels of isiXhosa teaching alongside the implementation of LiEP.

It is disappointing to note that twenty years into the new democracy, many Whites, Coloureds and Indians still cannot speak any of South Africa's indigenous African languages i.e. the languages of the majority of the people of this country. Schools B and C particularly are attempting to rectify this, but as pointed out in Chapter 4, one cannot teach language in a vacuum as it should also involve societal transformation where language acquisition is facilitated in a natural setting among Xhosa-speaking communities. Language is indeed a community affair which occurs at the level of the individual in relation to the community (Mutiga, 2013). Our children are the future of this country, and we need to invest in them, in the spirit of "Education for All" by providing quality education that is accessible and relevant to them in an equalised society where children of different race groups and language groups interact naturally in the languages they understand.

The general lack of command of the African languages among the White, Coloured and Indian population groups is due to the fact that these languages are simply not taught in historically white, Coloured and Indian schools, or these languages are taught inappropriately. Furthermore, it is disappointing to note that some of the former Model-C schools are not offering any of the indigenous African languages as HL subjects.

The most significant findings of this study are that the schooling background of the research participants played a crucial role in their teaching practices. Interviews showed that the teachers were in favour of the traditional ways of teaching. The major focus of this study was not on socio-economic problems, but these nevertheless contributed to the research problem. I say this because parental support is still lacking in black schools. Parents need to put their children's education first, by becoming involved in every aspect of their child's education, including helping them with their homework. This study showed that the structure of the learners' families had a definite effect on learners' academic success. It is clear from this study that there should be closer adherence to South Africa's language-in-education policy within the schooling system.

If learners are not actively involved in their own learning, it is unlikely that they will develop critical thinking skills that enhance conceptualization even if they learn through their own language. This approach is catered for in the new CAPS curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement which is to be implemented in 2014. Unless accompanied by a shift to contemporary

teaching and learning approaches, the use of African languages such as isiXhosa may serve to undermine the cognitive benefits associated with mother tongue education, unless appropriate curricula are developed and status planning takes place. The greatest challenge is to use African languages in order to produce creative and independent critical thinkers who will participate in a meaningful way that will produce integrated, socially cohesive and successful multilingual South African citizens of the 21st century.

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List of Appendices

Appendix: A

Interview Questions

English version

1. Tell me about yourself.

2. How would you describe the language of your school?

3. What do you understand by the Language-in-education policy for our schools?

4. Tell me about the learner-composition in your class.

5. Are there any learners that are coming from other race groups? Are there learners speaking different languages?

6. What strategies or teaching methods do you use in the classroom for isiXhosa lessons?

7. Do you use any teaching aids for your lessons and if so why?

8. How do you feel about working in a diverse environment?

IsiXhosa version

1. Ndicela ukhe undixelele ngawe.

2. Ingaba likhona ulwimi olosisivumelwano ukuba lusetyenziswe apha esikolweni?

3. Ingaba uchulumancile ngokusetyenziswa kolwimi lwenkobe ezikolweni zethu - wazi ntoni ngamalungelo axhasa lo mcimbi?

4. Ndicela undichazele ngobume begumbi lakho (lokufundisela abantwana ukutsho oko).

5. Ingaba bakhona abafundi bezinye iintlanga? Okanye abafundi abathetha iilwimi ezahlukeneyo?

6. Ingaba zikhona iindlela ozisebenzisayo ukuqhuba isifundo sakho?

7. Uyazisebenzisa izixhobo zokuncedisa / sana nesifundo / ukuba kunjani uyintoni unobangela walonto?

8. Ungeva kanjani ukusebenza kwisikolo apho kuxubene ootitshala/titshalakazi bezinye iintlanga?

Appendix: B

Interview Guide

1. Introduction.

2. Explain the purpose and nature of the study.

3. Ethical issues:

- Confidentiality - explain that pseudonyms will be used in the final report to preserve anonymity.
- Explain that this is an academic research project and that no financial gain or otherwise will arise from taking part in the study.
- Obtain written consent to partake in the study, for the audio-recoding of the interview and the use of extracts in the final report.
- Explain that member checking will be conducted.

4. Guide the interview process.

5. Closing: make sure I maintain the tone set throughout the interview that is friendly and courteous. Make a brief but not abrupt ending of the interview. Thank interviewee for their time and explain that I will contact them again to build or clarify issues arising from the interview.

Appendix: C

Consent form

I hereby agree to participate in an interview with Pamella Mila Fobe and give her permission to audio-record it as part of her data collection process. I understand that she will be making an inquiry around the topic of curriculum outcomes, teaching practises and learner competencies. I understand that the transcripts of the interview will be made and that she may use extracts in the final report.

Signed (respondent)…………………………………. Date…………………………..

Samples of oral and written assessment for Grade 9 as well as written work:

WRITTEN ASSESSMENT FOR GRADE 9

At school B 2013

Inkcukacha zephepha

1. Phendula yonke imibuzo ngokucacileyo
2. Phendula ngokhululekileyo kuba ayililo iphepha lovavanyo

IMIBUZO

Imibuzo	Impendulo
Ungubani igama lakho nefani yakho?	
Injani imo-zulu namhlanje?	
Isikolo singena ngabani ixesha?	
Siphume nini?	
Uthanda esiphi isifundo kwezi zenziwayo apha esikolweni?	
Uthanda ukwenza ntoni ukigqiba kwakho ukufunda?	
Uyichithe njani impela-veki yakho?	
Ukhe ulusebenzise ulwimi lwesiXhosa ukuphela kwephiriyodi?	

ORAL ASSESSMENT FOR GRADE 9 at School C 2013

Information on assessment

1. The assessment is oral ONLY – so we will be assessing your speaking and listening competencies.

2. Participants will be assessed individually.

Questions

a) Molo mfundi?
b) Ungubani igama lakho?
c) Ngubani ifani yakho?
d) Uhlala phi apha eRhini? Ndawoni?
e) Uhlala nabani ekhaya?
f) Uzalelwe phi?
g) Uzalwe ngomhla wesingaphi?
h) Abazali bakho benza ntoni?
i) Kungolwesingaphi namhlanje?
j) Uthanda ukwenza ntoni ngempela-veki?
k) Uyayihamba icawe?

Assessment criteria
Not yet competent: Learner unable to respond appropriately to the questions posed due to the number of errors meaning was obscured to the extent that the responses were unintelligible. learner was unable to initiate and maintain a conversation
Competent: Learner was able to respond appropriately to questions posed. Though there were errors, the meaning was not obscured and the responses could be understood. learner was able to initiate and maintain a conversation

UNovenkile: Enfosi, nantsi ~ipasilo~ yakho

<u>Umbuzo</u>

Match these sentences.

1. Here is your parcel
2. Follow me
3. My pants are old
4. Here is money
5. What size do you take?

6. I will take two

7. How much money?

8. I want to buy a pair of trousers

9. It fits me

10. How can I help you?

A. Iyandilingana
B. Ndiza kuthatha zibembini
C. Unxiba usayizi bani?
D. Yimalini?
E. Nantsi ipasile yakho

F. Ndilandele

G. Ndingakunceda ngantoni?

H. Iibhulukhwe zam zindala

I. Ndifuna ukuthenga ibhulukhwe

J. Nantsi imali

10/10

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English noun	isiXhosa meaning	Plural form	Noun classes
			9&10
e.g. desk	idesika	iidesika	
1. dog	inja	izinja	9 & 10
2. crocodile	ingwenya	iingwenya	9 & 10 ½
3. monkey	inkawu	iinkawu	9 & 10 ½
4. buck	imbabala	iimbabala	9 & 10 ½
5. chicken	inkuku	iikuku	9 & 10 ½
6. table	itafile	iitafile	9 & 10 ½
7. something	into	izinto	9 & 8
8. school	isikolo	izikolo	7 & 8 ½
9. skirt	isiketi	iziketi	7 & 8 ½
10. shoe	isihlao	izihlea	7 & 8 ½
11. scissors	isikere	izikere	7 & 8 ½
12. hospital	isibehlele	izibehlele	7 & 8 ½
13. hand	isandla	izandla	
14. bread	isonko	iisonka	9 & 10
15. horse	ihashe	amahashe	5 & 6 ½
16. policeman	ipolisa	amapolisa	5 & 6 ½
17. frog	isele	amasele	5 & 6 ½
18. duck	idadi	amadadi	5 & 6 ½
19. knee	idolo	amadolo	5 & 6 ½
20. egg	iqandi	amaqandi	5 & 6 ½
Marks	[20]	[20]	[10]

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ileri ✓
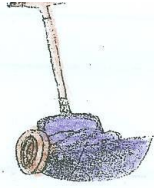
imowa ✓

iharika

I folokhwe ✓

umhlakulo ✓

ikiriva ✓

⑨ +5

itepu ✓

Into yo. iwotharingkhen.
ndihceshela

I-emele ✓

Umbhobho ✓

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Umsebenzi Waseklasini - Classwork

Imisebenzi yezizixhobo: Use of tools

Iharika - To rake leaves - ukuharika amagqabi ⁴⁄⁴

Ifolokhwe - To do the garden - ukukhukhule umhlaba

Umhlakulo - To dig - ukuphata notugrumba umhlaba

Ileri - To climb on - ukukhwela

Ipeki - To dig the ground - ukugrumba

Ikiliva - To carry goods - ukuphata izinto

I-emele - To carry water - ukuphatha amanzi

Umbhobho - To wash the car - ukunkcenkceshela izityalo

Isikere segadi - To cut grass - ukusika ingca nezityalo

Imowa - To cut the grass - ukusika ingca

li 20/08/08

Isixhosa

1.Igama lomntu awayephethe eRome echasene nomtshato?

a.Claudius II

2.Lo mntu ukhankanywe ngentla wayefuna

b.Amadoda anezoso ~~okuh~~ okulwa iimfazwe engatshatanga engenabantwana

3.UValentine lo yena wayefuna?

b.Abantu bangangeni ekuhendweni ngokunlalisana bengatshatanga

Unobangela A	Isiphumo B
① UCladius wayefuna amadoda anezoso abe amadoda engafuni kushiya abafazi aye emfazweni	UClaudius wawisa umthetho othi makungabikho namnye umntu otshatayo
② UValentine watshatisa abantu ngoku sele kuwiswe umtheto wokungatshati	Inkolo yobukrestu yavelwa umiomo ngesiquebo esiqatha
③ UValentine wanyebelezisa imiyalezo ethi, "khumbulani uValentine wenu"	UValentine wabulaleIwa ejele
④ UValentine wayezithethelela kude kucace ukuba angawoyisa umthetho	UValentine wavaleIwa ejele

5. Thatha kwaba nobangela neziphumo uze uzilandelelanise ngendlela ezalandelelana ngayo. Qaphela enye mayenze enye yenie ongeli xa enye isis senye

1.UCladius wayefuna amadoda anezoso abe amadoda engafuni kushiya abafazi aye emfazweni.

2.UClaudius wawisa umthetho othi makungabikho namnye umntu otshatayo

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Ukuphulaphula

1 Kwakuxatyiswe amasimi

2 Yimvula enamatye

3 kwakungaphathwa zembe, kunga tyatyiwekwa, kungazuywa

4 Ngokuba ukhona umntu owabhabha nesitulo ngenxa yemoyezul

5 Babenqumama abantu emisebenzini.

6 Ukuhambela mgama

Isixhosa

① Isichotho

② Akuzunekanga unribe into ebomvu.

3 Bangadlali phandle xa lisiza izulu ngokuba kuyingozi.

4 Kuqala kubemnyama, kududume

5 Asiyayinyani

Umbuzo 2

①

1 uTata ugabhe okwesana phezolo

Akhulile amathanga ka dabawo

2 Usisi utye ithanga yedwa namnlanje

Walitya ithanga lenkuku ndimjongile

3 Umnlathi kaSisanda ubuhlungu

WRITTEN ASSESSMENT FOR GRADE 9
2013

Inkcukacha zephepha

1. Phendula yonke imibuzo ngokucacileyo
2. Phendula ngokhululekileyo kuba ayililo iphepha lovavanyo

IMIBUZO

Imibuzo	Impendulo
Ungubani igama lakho nefani yakho?	
Injani imo-zulu namhlanje?	Kushushu
Isikolo singena ngabani ixesha?	Singena ngo 07:50
Siphume nini?	Siphuma ngo 13:30
Uthanda esiphi isifundo kwezi zenziwayo apha esikolweni?	Ndithanda isiNgesi
Uthanda ukwenza ntoni ukigqioba kwakho ukufunda?	Ndithanda ukudlala imidlalo
Uyichithe njani impela-veki yakho?	Ndiya lala indiphumle.
Ukhe ulusebenzise ulwimi lwesiXhosa ukuphela kwephiriyodi?	Ewe, kakhulu

Inkcukacha zephepha

1. Phendula yonke imibuzo ngokucacileyo
2. Phendula ngokhululekileyo kuba ayililo iphepha lovavanyo

IMIBUZO

Imibuzo	Impendulo
Ungubani igama lakho nefani yakho?	
Injani imo-zulu namhlanje?	Kushushu
Isikolo singena ngabani ixesha?	Ngo 7:30
Siphume nini?	~~Ngo~~ Ngo 13:30
Uthanda esiphi isifundo kwezi zenziwayo apha esikolweni?	Ngu L.O.
Uthanda ukwenza ntoni ukigqioba kwakho ukufunda?	Ndidlala
Uyichithe njani impela-veki yakho?	Ndidlala echommes yam
Ukhe ulusebenzise ulwimi lwesiXhosa ukuphela kwephiriyodi?	Ewe

WRITTEN ASSESSMENT FOR GRADE 9
. 2013

Inkcukacha zephepha

1. Phendula yonke imibuzo ngokucacileyo
2. Phendula ngokhululekileyo kuba ayililo iphepha lovavanyo

IMIBUZO

Imibuzo	Impendulo
Ungubani igama lakho nefani yakho?	
Injani imo-zulu namhlanje?	ushushu
Isikolo singena ngabani ixesha?	ngo 07.30
Siphume nini?	ngo 13.30
Uthanda esiphi isifundo kwezi zenziwayo apha esikolweni?	Mathematics
Uthanda ukwenza ntoni ukigqioba kwakho ukufunda?	Dlala
Uyichithe njani impela-veki yakho?	dialala
Ukhe ulusebenzise ulwimi lwesiXhosa ukuphela kwephiriyodi ?	Hayi

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WRITTEN ASSESSMENT FOR GRADE 9
GRAEME

Inkcukacha zephepha

1. Phendula yonke imibuzo ngokucacileyo
2. Phendula ngokhululekileyo kuba ayililo iphepha lovavanyo

IMIBUZO

Imibuzo	Impendulo
Ungubani igama lakho nefani yakho?	
Injani imo-zulu namhlanje?	Imozulu yam namhlanje ishushu!
Isikolo singena ngabani ixesha?	Isikolo sam singena ngo 07:30
Siphume nini?	Siphume ngo 13:30
Uthanda esiphi isifundo kwezi zenziwayo apha esikolweni?	Ndithanda isiXhosa, ukuba ndingumxhosa.
Uthanda ukwenza ntoni ukigqioba kwakho ukufunda?	Mna ndithanda ukumamela umculo
Uyichithe njani impela-veki yakho?	Ndiyichitha ngoku tyelela ichommie zam.
Ukhe ulusebenzise ulwimi lwesiXhosa ukuphela kwephiriyodi?	Ewe, ndisithetha qho.

Translate the following sentences into Xhosa

1) Check the oil and water
   Jonga ioyli namanzi ✓

2) Fill up the tank with petrol
○ Zalisa ipetroli ✓

3) Here is the key
   nantsi ~~key~~ isitshixo ✓

4) Wipe the windows
   sula
   ~~vula~~ ~~Rensor~~ ifestile ✓

5) Pump the wheels
   ipompa amavili ✓

6) Pour in water
   galela amanzi

○ 7) Wash the car   (15)
   ✗ iwasa imoto. ✓
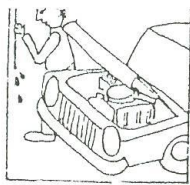
Umbuzo 2
Chaza imifanekiso

1)

_____

_____

_____

                                                    (2)

Ukuyena iti

1.) Ndivula Ndigalela amanzi abandayo
2.) Ndilayita iketile Ndilinda amanzi abile
3.) Amanzi ayabila Ndicima iketile.
4.) Ndithatha itreyi. Ndibeka iikomityi etreyini
5.) Ndifaka itibhegi ekomityini.
6.) Ndigalela amanzi abilileyo ekomyityi. _ekomityini_

Umbuzo 1   2 kaOktober $7\frac{1}{2}$
                                                    ───
                                                     10

a) Oo Mazibuko baya edolophini.

b) Utata ukhupha imoto egaraji

c) Umama nabantwana bakhwela imoto.

d) Edolophini utata uya e-ofisini

e) umama uya ebhankini

f) Emva koko uyaeposini.

g) Ufuna ~~ukwenza~~ ukuposa iileta apho $\frac{1}{2}$

h) Bafuna ukuthenga iimpahla ✓

i) UThemba ufuna ibhulukwe nehempe.

j) ? Incomplete work.

O??? Where is Umbuzo 2 ??? Please do it and
───   on 01/10/2012
 12

Umsebenzi 13

1.) Indoda ihlamba ngemotofi
2.) Iintombi ~~ithenga~~ ~~lekizi~~ lilekese
3.) Inkwenkwe ivela isikolo
4. Iinkomo zisela amanzi
5. Intombazana itshayela umgangatho.
6.) Iibhasi zihamba ngomso
7.) Imoto ivela eGoli
8.) Izinja ziluma abantu
9.) Iikati ithanda ~~impaku~~ ?impuku
10.) Inkosikazi icela imali

$\frac{10}{10}$

Umbuzo 2

$\frac{8}{9}$

OoMazibuko boya edolophini. Utata
uya e-ofisini. Umama uya elohapkini
Kuqala. Ufuna ukukhupha imali. Emva
koko uya eposini. Uposa iileta. Uthenga
izitampu. Abantwana bafuno iimpala.
UThemba ufuna ibhulukhwe nehempe.
UNomsa ufuna ilokhwe nezihlangu.
Kamva ooMaziko boyagoduka Badiniwe

9/4

Umzali Wolahleko
Umsebenzi 1

1 Kule Noveli ugqalathelweyo ngubani umlinganiswa oyintloko?
NguNdopho kuba yonke into ingqungje yena.

2 Khawuchaze ukuba unojaji lo ngumntu onjani ngokwasekuhlaleni, ekhaya
nasesikolweni. Caphula ngeziganeko apha ebalini
Unojaji ngumfazi ongenambeko okohlakeleyo kuba wayebotha abam
ana babantu bengenzanga nto. ngenxa yeligeza lomntu wakhe

3 UNdopho yena ngumntwana onjani?
UNdopho ngumntwana ongena mbeko kuba wayephendula kakubi
uMakhulu wakhe, kwaye akanasimilo

4 Ucinga ukuba uNdopho uzakuphelelaphi apha ebomini?
Akukho ndawo azoyakuyo kuba uphendulana nabantu abadala kwaye
akafuni ukuthunywa

5 Ngubani undimeni?
UNdopho Ngumntwana kaNomaneji no Menzile
Undimeni washiywa esemncinci kakhulu ngunina uNomaneji,
intombi kaNdodeni, waza ke wakhulela apha phantsi koNojaji.

6 UGakhulu yena ungathi ngumlinganiswa ongumrhasi/ongumtnasi
kusini na? Caphula ngeziganeko apha ebalini
Wayengumchasi ngoba uNdopho wayengumntwana ongenambeko
ongazuniyo ukuthunywa

7 Babanjani ubomi bukaNdimeni ngaphandle kwekhaya lakhe caphula

Umbuzo 1

1.1 Wayekhathazekile kakhulu engenako ukuthetha ✓

1.2 Sisimntwiso ✓

1.3 kukutshata indoda engasebenziyo wabhalisa ngayo indlu
yakhe ✓

1.4 Ukudandatheka, ukuzisola nokukhathazeka ✓

1.5 kuba imali ibingasangeni ebhankeni ukuze a ✓

1.5.2 Yaye yathengiswa ✓

Umblomlo 2

1 Kunjalo ayezise ileta ✓

2.

2.3 Uzakuthatha ezakhe uthembisa noMakhaya athathe ezakhe

2.4 NguMakhaya ✓

2.4.2 kuba uhlukene noThembisa ✓

2.4.3 Wathenga ikhephekhephe lematriki ✓

2.5 UMakhaya wazenza ingathi uyawazi umnyango weMatriki ✓

2.6 Ngoku zisola ✓

2.6.2

Umhlomlo 3

3.1 Ngu Wallachia, ngoba nguye otshintshatshintsha izinganda math

Appendix: E

A sample of code-switching and mixing used by the teachers in class:

- Yi noun class bani lena? 'What noun class is this?'

- Ubona ntoni kwi picture? 'What do you see in the picture?'

- I structure se family. 'The structure of the family.'

- Yi apron le. 'This is an apron.'

- Injani i weather phandle? 'What is the weather like outside?'

- Nitye ntoni for supper last night? 'What did you eat for supper last night?'

- Kokuphi ukutya that we eat in summer? 'What foods do we eat in summer?'

- What sport that is played ebusika? 'What sport is played in winter?'

- Masibhaleni i-sentences on the white-board. 'Let us write sentences on the white-board?'

- Phendula the question on your workbooks. 'Answer the questions in your workbook.'

- Enkosi and well done! 'Thank you and well done!'

- Please phendulani zonke iiquestions. 'Please answer all the questions.'