THE ATTITUDES OF ISIXHOSA-SPEAKING STUDENTS TOWARD VARIOUS LANGUAGES OF LEARNING AND TEACHING (LOLT) ISSUES AT RHODES UNIVERSITY

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Abstract

This study aims at eliciting opinions and beliefs of isiXhosa-speaking students to reveal their attitudes toward various languages of learning and teaching (LOLT) issues at Rhodes University, and to determine the influence of a number of variables (such as age, gender, schooling background, level of study and field of study) on these attitudes. Another aim of the study is to compare the findings of this research to the recent findings on isiXhosa-speaking students' language attitudes at the University of the Western Cape (Dyers 1999) and the University of Fort Hare (Dalvit 2004). Qualitative and quantitative methods were used: data was gathered using a survey that employed a questionnaire and interviews (individual and focus group). The questionnaire data is analysed through using percentage scores as well as mean values coupled with Chi-square tests, while the interviews are analysed qualitatively to further confirm the results of the quantitative analysis. Results are also compared with other recent surveys at South African universities.

The results reveal that respondents had a generally positive attitude toward English as LOLT, based mainly on instrumental motivations. More importantly, there was a positive attitude toward the use of isiXhosa alongside English. The motivations for the use of isiXhosa were both instrumental and integrative in nature. The majority of respondents who supported a bilingual arrangement did not, however, believe that a fully-fledged bilingual policy would be practical, mainly because of the multilingual nature of Rhodes University. They felt, however, that providing English and isiXhosa exam question-papers, bilingual tutor support and isiXhosa definitions of discipline-specific technical terms would facilitate learning. Most of the variables mentioned above had an influence on the relevant language attitudes, often confirming the findings of other studies. For instance, schooling background greatly influenced the language attitudes of respondents. Those from previously advantaged English-only schools showed very positive attitudes toward an English-only policy, while most respondents from formerly disadvantaged DET bilingual schools were favourably disposed toward a bilingual policy of English and isiXhosa at Rhodes University.

A comparison of the findings of this study with those of recent findings on isiXhosa students' language attitudes at other universities reveals that respondents at the University of Fort Hare were most favourable toward a bilingual policy, those at the University of the Western Cape were to some extent favourable toward a bilingual arrangement, while respondents at Rhodes University were least favourable toward a bilingual policy.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.0 Introduction

The success of any language policy depends on the attitudes of the people for whom such a policy is meant, hence the need for language-attitude research. This chapter serves as an introduction to my research, which examines the attitudes of isiXhosa-speaking students toward various languages of learning and teaching (LOLT)[1] issues at Rhodes University. It situates the research in its local context (cf. 1.1) and it provides the goals of the study and the research questions (cf. 1.2). The methodology employed to answer these questions (cf. 1.3) and the structure of the thesis (cf. 1.4) are also discussed in this chapter.

1.1 The context of the research

There has been much debate and controversy surrounding language-in-education planning and policy issues in South Africa, mainly as a result of the multilingual nature of South African society and its past history of colonialism and apartheid (Webb 1994). One of the objectives of language planning activity is to solve language problems (Karam 1974:105, cited in Cooper 1989). Webb and Kembo-Sure (2000) identify some language problems that may be solved through language planning activity, and these include: lack of standardization of the norms of a language; marginalization of some languages (situations in which some languages are not used in certain high status domains such as government, higher education and industry); and when negative connotations are associated with certain languages.

Some of these problems are present in South Africa (especially the last two) in respect of the indigenous African languages as a result of colonialism and apartheid. Kamwangamalu (2004:243) points out that language planning in South Africa has "historically been an arena for power struggle, where the whites exercised power over other ethnic groups" and made decisions about language that benefited them while other ethnic groups lost their "privileges, status and rights".

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[1] This acronym covers both the singular and plural forms, that is *language* and *languages of learning and teaching*.

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However, since the demise of apartheid in 1994, language planners under the democratic regime have been trying to correct the linguistic inequalities of the past[2]. The 1996 constitution (section 6, subsections 1–4, cited in LANGTAG[3] 1996) recognises eleven official languages (English, Afrikaans and nine indigenous South African languages) and encourages the use of these languages in all domains. To this end, the Language Policy for Higher Education encourages the development of the nine official indigenous African languages to function alongside English and Afrikaans as languages of learning and teaching (LOLT) in higher education institutions (Council on Higher Education 2001). Universities have been called upon to take the lead in developing African languages as "academic/scientific languages", so as to allow more learners to have access to higher education. This is perceived as necessary since the majority of these learners are not "fully proficient in English and Afrikaans" — the *de facto* languages of instruction in higher education institutions (Ministry of Education 2002:4; Council on Higher Education 2001). It is also suggested that higher education institutions develop those African languages which are predominant in the regions where the institutions are situated (Ministry of Education 2003).

In order to implement this policy, higher education institutions are required to formulate a language policy that promotes the development of African languages as LOLT; they are also encouraged to conduct regular language surveys to study the language attitudes in their respective institutions so as to make the necessary adjustments in language planning decisions (Council on Higher Education 2001).

In response to these recommendations, Rhodes University adopted a language policy in 2001 that articulates the university's commitment to the advancement of "the academic viability and status of isiXhosa" — the major African language in the Eastern Cape Province (Rhodes University 2005:2). The Rhodes University language policy encourages research on students' attitudes toward "the medium of teaching and learning at Rhodes University" in order to facilitate language policy planning decisions (*ibid*: 4). This is important because successful language planning and policy implementation depends not only on the endorsement of those in power but also on the acceptance of the target group for whom the policy is intended (Edwards 1985). The most recent language-attitude research conducted at Rhodes University was in 1996 and it examined students'

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[2] This is true in theory, but it is debatable how committed the government is in this regard. It is thus a sad irony that for example, the use of the mother-tongue as LOLT was promoted more in the apartheid era than in the current one.
[3] Language Plan Task Group.

attitudes toward English at Rhodes University (De Klerk 1996). The present study, which aims to examine the attitudes of isiXhosa-speaking students toward various LOLT issues at Rhodes University, may provide useful and more up-to-date information to policy-makers.

1.2 The goals of the study and research questions

The main goal of this research is to elicit and determine the opinions and beliefs of isiXhosa-speaking students, in order to reveal their attitudes toward various LOLT-related issues at Rhodes University. Another goal of this study is to determine the influence of a number of variables on these attitudes, for instance, to compare the attitudes of students from former Department of Education and Training (DET) schools [4] with those of students from former House of Assembly or Model C[5] and private schools. This is done in order to ascertain whether the nature of these different schools has influenced students' attitudes toward the use of isiXhosa as LOLT. Similarly, the findings of this research (from a historically white university) are compared to the recent findings on isiXhosa-speaking students' language attitudes at the University of the Western Cape (Dyers 1999) and the University of Fort Hare (Dalvit 2004) (historically black universities) so as to ascertain whether the students' attitudes are similar or not, given that they are learning in different environments. The findings of the study may, in this way, offer useful insights for future Rhodes University language-policy reviews, which are scheduled to take place every three years (Rhodes University 2005).

The research questions explored in this study are:

1) What are the opinions and beliefs of isiXhosa-speaking students toward various LOLT issues at Rhodes University? What underlying attitudes do these opinions and beliefs reveal?

The opinions and beliefs of these students are explored in this study because trustworthy evaluations of attitudes can be obtained when many belief statements are examined together (Fishbein 1965). Therefore, many belief statements relating to LOLT

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[4] The DET provided education for speakers of African languages during the apartheid era.
[5] Public schools built for "white" learners during the apartheid era.

issues are included in the questionnaires and students' responses to these belief statements may help to reveal the attitudes they hold.

2) What is the effect of the following variables on language attitudes: age, gender, year of study, field of study (i.e. faculty) and the nature of previous school attended as well as the higher education institution attended?

Age, schooling background (Baker 1992), gender (Milroy 1980), year of study (De Klerk 1996) and field of study (Dalvit 2004) have been identified in the existing literature as factors influencing attitudes toward a language. The extent to which these variables influence isiXhosa-speaking students' attitudes toward the LOLT issues at Rhodes University is considered in this study.

1.3 Methodology

This study uses quantitative and qualitative approaches to collect and analyse the data. Bryman (1988) claims that the combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches increases the validity of the findings of any research. The data was collected by using a survey that employed questionnaires and interviews. The questionnaires contain closed-ended Likert scale and multiple choice belief statements. In order to facilitate comparison, the questionnaires were closely modelled on those used by Dalvit (2004) at the University of Fort Hare.

500 questionnaires[6] were administered to isiXhosa-speaking students at lectures, tutorials and residences through eliciting the help of teachers, tutors and selected students. The questionnaires (in English and isiXhosa) were administered across all fields of study and across all years of study to make the study as representative as possible.

This was followed by recorded semi-structured in-depth individual and focus group interviews. The individual interviews involved 20 students while the focus group discussions involved two groups (made up of 8 students from former DET schools for the first group and 4 students from former model C schools for the second group). These students were randomly chosen from among those who indicated their interest (in the questionnaires) for a follow-up interview. The open-ended questions used during this

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[6] The students' statistics obtained in 2006 from the Data Management Unit of Rhodes University reveal that there were 715 Xhosa students in the University in 2006. Five hundred (500) questionnaires were distributed in order to reach many students, increase the response rate and guarantee representivity.

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stage are based on the results of the questionnaire survey and enabled the students to freely express their own beliefs and attitudes toward the LOLT issues. The use of questionnaires, individual and focus group interviews allowed for the triangulation of the data and thus hopefully increased the validity of the findings of the research (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias 1996).

The questionnaire data was then analysed using percentage scores, mean values, and Chi-square tests, which helped to provide insight into the attitudes of the respondents as well as the links between the various attitudes and the various variables mentioned earlier (e.g. age, gender etc). The data from the individual and focus group interviews were then analysed in order to obtain greater insight into the beliefs and attitudes of the respondents and hopefully confirm the results of the quantitative survey.

1.4 Structure of the thesis

This thesis is organised into five chapters. Chapter 1 introduces the study by providing the background information on the research, its objectives and research questions and the methodology employed in the study. Chapter 2 presents a review of the theoretical literature relevant to this study. The issues examined in this chapter include the role of language in society, language planning and policy in general and in education, the theory of attitudes and a review of language-attitude research in South Africa.

In chapter 3, a review of the various methodologies used in researching language attitudes is provided. Furthermore, a justification for selecting the questionnaire, individual and focus group interview methods employed in the survey is provided. The chapter concludes with a detailed explanation of the implementation of these methods.

Chapter 4 presents a summary and interpretation of the results of the survey. The questionnaire responses are analysed through the use of percentage scores, mean values and Chi-square test results, while the interviews are presented as summaries of the main themes found in the responses.

The research concludes with chapter 5, which provides a summary of the major findings of the research, some policy implications of these findings as well as recommendations for further research.

Chapter 2

Theoretical foundations

2.0 Introduction

In order to lay the foundations for the analysis in this study, this chapter reviews the core theoretical issues relating to it. Issues of concern in the literature include the role of language in society, language planning and policy as well as the theory of attitudes in general and language attitudes in particular.

The chapter begins in section 2.1 with an examination of the relationships that exist between language and society. The theory of language in ethnic-group relations (Giles, Bourhis & Taylor 1977) is explored in order to establish why attitudes are formed toward language. The role of language planning in general and language-in-education in particular is examined in section 2.2. An examination of this issue is important because language planning and policy activity in South African society has been a contentious issue and has greatly influenced and been influenced by language attitudes. Furthermore, language-attitude surveys often provide useful information for language-planning activities and this study intends to contribute in the same way. An overview of the theory of attitudes is provided in section 2.3 so as to distinguish attitudes from other related concepts such as belief, opinion etc. The various types of language attitudes are explored in section 2.4 in order to isolate the type of language attitude that the proposed study intends to explore. Section 2.5 examines the place of language attitude in society, while the chapter concludes in section 2.6 with a review of language-attitude research in South Africa.

2.1 Language in society

Language fulfils important social functions. It is used as a means of communicating information and establishing and maintaining relationships with other humans (Trudgill 1992). Dirven (1989:4) points out that there are three primary functions that every language fulfils and these are "cognitive categorisation, interactional communication and social stratification". The *cognitive categorisation* function of language relates to the fact that language is an embodiment of the cognitive system of humans. It interprets and produces reality as experienced by humans and also "shapes its perception in a culture specific-way" (*ibid*: 4). The second function of language

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(*interactional communication*) implies that language is used for interaction and communication and that it embodies all the "speech events in a community as well as all the speech acts that are needed in that community" (Dirven 1989:4). This function of language shows that language helps to identify and preserve social groups (Wardhaugh 1993). In other words, a group can be distinguished from another group through the variety of language that the group uses. *Social stratification* is the third function of language and this refers to the notion that language expresses or portrays vital features of a society's structural patterns, such as hierarchical ordering of groups within the society, social class systems and so on (Dirven 1991).

The functions of language have been described by Webb and Kembo-Sure (2000:2) as both "instrumental and symbolic". The instrumental function of language refers to the use of language as a tool or instrument to accomplish something. This function of language is further divided into "informative, binding or separating and participatory" functions (*ibid*: 2). Webb and Kembo-Sure (2000) state that the *informative function* involves the use of language as an instrument for giving or receiving information or expressing emotions and desires, all of which play a significant role in interpersonal and social interaction.

Binding/separating function: This function deals with the use of language as an instrument through which people group themselves together (the language used within a group unites or binds the group members) or the use of language as an instrument by which people separate themselves from other people who are not members of their group. For instance, an isiXhosa-speaking student at Rhodes may separate him/herself from native English speakers and identify more with isiXhosa-speaking students. The informative and binding/separating functions of language is similar to the second function (interactional communication) identified by Dirven (1989) above.

The participatory function refers to the use of language as a tool that enables people to participate in important social activities and benefit from the resultant privileges (*ibid.*). In South African society, proficiency in English (the language used in practically all spheres of public life) enables an individual to participate in politics, tertiary education and the economy. Hence, those who lack proficiency in English are excluded from participating in these activities and deriving the benefits associated with them (*ibid.*).

The symbolic function of language implies that language is useful in distinguishing different groups in society. Language 'symbolizes identity', for instance isiXhosa

symbolizes or identifies an individual as being a member of the Xhosa 'cultural group' (Webb & Kembo-Sure 2000:2). Hence, language could be regarded as a symbol of group identity or as a social group marker (Fasold 1984). This function of language overlaps somewhat with the binding/separation function (discussed above), since language is seen as a tool that binds group members together or separates people from other groups. Furthermore, the symbolic function of language relates to the interactional communication and social stratification functions identified by Dirven (1989), given that the type of language that a group uses distinguishes this group from other groups.

The various functions of language identified above indicate that there is a close relationship between language and society. Since language is a social phenomenon, it is closely tied up with the social structure and value system of a society; various languages are evaluated in different ways (Trudgill 1992). This leads to attitudes being formed toward different languages (favourable attitudes toward those evaluated as high-status languages or prestigious languages (overt prestige) while those seen as having less prestige often receive unfavourable attitudes). However, positive attitudes can also be formed toward less prestigious languages because of their integrative value (covert prestige). For L1-African language speakers in the South African context, English – the language of wider communication – has overt prestige while the indigenous African languages with limited functions have covert prestige.

According to Smit (1996), it is important that the particular nature of multilingual societies (such as South African society, classified into several ethnolinguistic groups) be taken into consideration when conducting language-attitude research. She suggests that a theoretical framework that may be useful for the study of language attitudes in South Africa is the theory of language in ethnic-group relations and this theory is drawn upon in this study. This framework is an integration of three different theories: "a taxonomy of ethnolinguistic vitality, Tajfel's theory of intergroup relations, and Giles' theory of speech accommodation" (Giles *et al*. 1977:343). These theories further highlight the role of language in society. A brief description of each of these theories follows.

2.1.1 Ethnolinguistic vitality

This theory deals with the factors (such as "status, demographic and institutional support factors") that distinguish a group from other groups in intergroup contexts (Giles *et al*. 1977:309). Status factors refer to the economic, social, sociohistorical and language status of a group. A group that has more material wealth in a community or nation

usually has high social status. Such a group receives high esteem and overt prestige, which is ascribed to it by most individuals in a society. The language of the high-status group gains prestige and becomes standardized. In turn, language perceptions are influenced by standardization (the codification of the norms of a language) and the importance attached to a language as evident in the number of functions that the language serves in society (Edwards 1994).

As noted by Edwards (1994), language can be evaluated on the basis of social status (attractiveness of a language) and solidarity (the integrity the language provides to members of a group). The issue of social status versus solidarity is faced in particular by lower-status groups who contend with two competing languages:

- The high-status group variety (the attractive variety) is associated with power and prosperity — overt prestige; while
- the in-group variety (lower-status variety) is associated with identity and feelings of solidarity — covert prestige (Smit 1996).

Ferguson (1959) uses the term *diglossia* to describe a situation in which two or more *varieties of the same language* are used in different contexts. The high-status variety has a wide range of functions (used in formal contexts) while the lower-status variety has limited functions (used mostly in informal contexts). An example of this is a situation in which Pidgin English or Creole (a lower-status variety used mostly in informal contexts) and Standard English (a high-status variety used in formal contexts) are used side-by-side in a society. On the other hand, Fishman (1971) argues that a diglossic situation also applies in a society that has different *languages* used in the same way.

Fishman (1971)'s definition of diglossia applies to the South African context in which European colonial languages (English and Afrikaans) are the high-status varieties with a wide range of functions and overt prestige, while African languages (for example isiXhosa) are low-status languages with limited functions and covert prestige (Luckett 1995, Heugh 2002).

Sometimes individuals have to make a choice between maintaining solidarity with their group or shifting to the high-status varieties when it is not possible to belong to both the original group (the lower-status group) and the higher-status group. At other times, it is possible to identify with both groups and the individuals may use any of the varieties in

separate domains when necessary (Smit 1996). The proposed study will, among other things, examine the extent to which isiXhosa students maintain solidarity with their language group while identifying (if at all) with the high status group variety (English).

Returning now to the main factors of ethnolinguistic vitality, demographic factors involve the concentration of a group within a territory and the number of speakers that a linguistic group has. A group with a high number of speakers concentrated in its territory has more vitality, while a group that has fewer speakers has less vitality and its language is more likely to die out (Giles *et al.* 1977). The third factor deals with the institutional support that a linguistic group and its language enjoy. A group whose language is used in both formal (mass media, education, business, government etc.) and informal institutions (religion, culture etc.) has high vitality. These factors increase the vitality of the ethnolinguistic group or the chances of survival that a language group has as a united entity in intergroup contexts and thus the more likely it is that its language will be maintained. In addition to these factors, the behaviour of individuals in intergroup contexts also contributes to the maintenance or death of a language. This issue is explored in Tajfel's theory of intergroup relations, and Giles' theory of speech accommodation, both of which are discussed below.

2.1.2 Tajfel's theory of intergroup relations

This theory includes four related concepts: *social categorization, social identity, social comparison* and *psychological group distinctiveness* (Giles *et al.* 1977). According to Louw-Potgieter (1988:4), these concepts together became known as "social identity theory (SIT)". Social categorisation deals with the division of the world into different social groups or social categories. It is in terms of these social divisions that individuals place themselves and others within society (Louw-Potgieter 1988). The social groups that individuals position themselves in or belong to are known as in-groups, while the categories that they situate others in or do not identify with are known as out-groups (*ibid.*). According to Smit (1996) an individual identifies with several in-groups and separates him/herself from a number of out-groups. The in-groups and out-groups make up the society which is structured in a hierarchical way along the power dimension (*ibid.*). For instance, a group that has more economic or political power in society tends to dominate other groups.

Social identity refers to an individual's awareness of the fact that s/he belongs to several groups as well as the attachment of positive or negative value to his/her

membership. This awareness forms part of the 'self-concept' (Giles *et al.* 1977:319). Hogg and Abrams (1988:24) point out that the self-concept involves the entirety of "self-descriptions and self-evaluations" that an individual performs in a subjective way. Individuals in a group only become aware of their social identity by comparing themselves with other groups (social comparison) and they generally prefer to belong to groups in which they find personal satisfaction and have positive social identity (Giles *et al.* 1977). According to Louw-Potgieter (1988:5), individuals who want to attain positive social identity will attempt to create "positive distinctiveness" between their in-group and out-groups. Through intergroup comparison individuals who have more power and wealth are judged to be superior and are accorded high status while members of a group judged inferior (by external makers of wealth) have low status. Members of the high socio-economic status group have a sense of satisfaction and positive social identity while members of the low status group often have negative social identity (Giles *et al.* 1977, Louw-Potgieter 1988).

Members of the low status group who are not satisfied with the low status of their group may employ the following strategies to correct the unsatisfactory situation in order to have a positive social identity: individual social mobility, social creativity and social competition (Hogg & Abrams 1988, Louw-Potgieter 1988). Individual social mobility refers to a situation in which an individual leaves the perceived inferior group and moves into the superior group. This may be attained through an adjustment of one's own values, style of dressing and speech in order to integrate into the superior group (Giles *et al.* 1977). This strategy is an individualistic one because it does not bring about change to the situation of the group as a whole (Louw-Potgieter 1988). According to Hogg and Abrams (1988), individuals who leave the subordinate group believe that the boundaries between their group and the superior group are porous and that it is possible for an individual to move from the inferior group to the superior group through effort and hard work.

Social creativity on the other hand involves the efforts that group members may put in place to reinterpret their prior negative characteristics (such as their colour of skin, style of hair and dialect or accent; see Giles *et al* 1977) as favourable ones (for instance, the black skin colour which was previously evaluated negatively is redefined as positive – "black is beautiful") or to select a new measure for intergroup comparison (Louw-

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Potgieter 1988). For example, the "coloured"[7] people who had more privileges and higher status than the "black" people during the apartheid regime in South Africa may obtain more satisfaction from comparing themselves with "black" people than with "white" people who had higher status than the "coloured" people during the last regime (Hogg & Abrams 1988).

Lastly, social competition refers to a situation where inferior group members attempt to change their group's situation (in order to attain a satisfactory social identity) by competing with the superior group. This may involve the redistribution of wealth and power in society (for example, affirmative action or black economic empowerment in South Africa). Such policies often create conflict and resentment between the inferior and the superior groups.

2.1.3 Giles' theory of speech accommodation

Giles theory deals with the reasons why people are motivated to change their speech style and the outcomes of such changes. The theory shows that people are motivated to modify their speech styles in order to express attitudes toward others (Giles *et al.* 1977). Shifting one's speech style toward that of another person is a way of seeking approval (this is known as convergence) while shifting away (divergence) shows disapproval (*ibid.*). In intergroup relations, individuals from the inferior group who want to improve their social identity often shift their speech style (or even language) toward that of the high status or prestige language variety. For instance, such individuals may try to adopt the high status accent of the language variety, a process which is known as upward convergence. This is done in order to reduce linguistic differences and integrate with the perceived superior group members (*ibid.*). An example of this can be seen in the South African context where some speakers of African languages may try to sound like a mother-tongue speaker of English when they speak English to native speakers of English.

2.1.4 SIT and language

Giles *et al.* (1977) integrate the three independent theories discussed above (ethnolinguistic vitality, social identity and speech accommodation) to form the theory of language in ethnic-group relations, which provides a framework that sheds light on the

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[7] Scare quotes are used for the terms *white*, *coloured* and *black* because they are politically sensitive terms in the South African context. These racial categories are furthermore arbitrary as there are no clear boundaries between them and indeed they are social constructs.

central role that language plays in intergroup relations. This theory also shows why language attitudes are formed in intergroup relations. Social identity theory (SIT), comprising the notions of social categorization, social identity, social comparison and psychological group distinctiveness, is the foundation of the framework. Within this framework, language is associated with all the concepts of SIT, as the discussion below shows.

Language is one of the major bases for categorising people into social groups; a group can be distinguished from another group through language. In intergroup situations languages signify in-group inclusion or solidarity and out-group exclusion. Language thus functions as a social group marker (Giles *et al*. 1977). Language is the most evident symbol of social group identity, as can be seen in some of the functions of language discussed above. Group members who have strong positive feelings toward their language are motivated to attach themselves to the group. Members of the inferior or subordinate groups often evaluate their language or speech style negatively, which shows that they have negative social identity (*ibid.*). Similarly, Edwards (1994) points out that in a society with different language varieties, often the language of the high-status group is positively evaluated as the superior language by the in-group members and evaluated in the same way by the lower-status group (the out-group), while that of the lower-status group is negatively evaluated by both groups. Members of the subordinate group who have a negative attitude toward their language may not be willing to learn the language or be taught in it in school. This situation is evident in the South African context in which there is resistance against mother-tongue instruction by most members of the lower-status group (speakers of African languages).

Language also plays a crucial role in intergroup comparison, since the importance of a group's language as a symbol of group identity can be seen when it is compared to that of contrasting groups. According to Giles *et al.* (1977), through intergroup comparison, members of the subordinate group who perceive that there are other alternatives to the existing situation will embark on some linguistic strategies (either on the individual or group level) to improve their identity. At the individual level there is social mobility (which may involve the adoption of the accent of the high status language variety in order to be accepted by the high-status group or even a shift to another language completely) and at the group level, assimilation, redefinition of negative characteristics, social creativity and group competition (see 2.1.2 where redefinition of negative characteristics, social creativity and group competition were discussed earlier).

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Assimilation is a situation where an entire subordinate group shifts or converges to the speech style or language of the dominant group. This is often done to gain the dominant group's approval and thus receive the material benefits that result from this. This is often seen in a situation where a group emigrates from their home country to another country. The desire for positive identity will lead to positive attitudes toward the language of the host community or the dominant group (*ibid.*).

Another linguistic strategy that a subordinate group employs is that of redefining negative characteristics, which on a linguistic level involves re-evaluating a group's variety in a more positive way. This re-evaluation may inspire pride in the language of the group members, that is members will equate their language with that of the superior group that they were converging toward previously and this will motivate them to confidently use the language in all domains. A positive attitude toward the subordinate's group language is likely (Giles *et al.* 1977).

Furthermore, a subordinate group may compete with the superior group over language issues in the mass media, education, government and so on in order to improve their social identity. An ethnic group may compete with another group over control of which language to use in the media (such as radio and television) or as LOLT in education. These different kinds of intergroup relations lead to different kinds of language attitudes.

In the South African context, English and Afrikaans were the official languages used in all spheres of the public domain, while the African languages were in general, relegated to the private and informal domains during the Apartheid era[8]. However, since the inception of democracy in 1994, the government has been trying to make African languages more competitive by according official status to nine of these languages. This was done in order for them to function as official languages alongside English and Afrikaans in all domains, including higher education.

The functions of language identified by Dirven (1989) and Webb and Kembo-Sure (2000), as well as the theory of language in ethnic-group relations (Giles *et al.* 1977) discussed above, clearly show the significant roles that language performs in society. The themes common in these various theories about the role of language in society are that language is very useful for communication, distinguishing or categorising the different

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[8] Except in the domain of education (where African languages were developed as LOLT) and in the so-called Bantustans where efforts were made to develop the African languages to serve various formal functions. In general, however, English and Afrikaans remained the languages of power and access.

social groups in society and that it can serve as a tool for improving one's social status. In what follows, I discuss language planning and language policy, both important issues in the literature pertaining to language attitudes as policy affects and is shaped by language attitudes.

2.2 Language planning and language policy

Language planning is defined as "a body of ideas, laws, and regulations (language policy), rules, beliefs, and practices" designed to bring about change in the manner in which language is used in a society (Baldauf & Kaplan 1997:3, cited in Kamwangamalu 2004). Some of the goals of language planning are sometimes achieved through the implementation of language policy (Cooper 1989). As noted by Fettes (1997:14), language planning includes "all systematic language policy development and implementation". However, sometimes there is a gap between policy and practice which may influence the linguistic situation in a country.

Karam (1974:105, cited in Cooper 1989) refers to language planning as "an activity, which attempts to solve a language problem, usually on a national scale, and which focuses on either language form or language use or both". Webb and Kembo-Sure (2000) identify three language problems that may be solved through language-planning activity (cf. 1.1). Two of these problems (the relegation of some languages to the functional background and negative attitudes being formed toward certain languages) are present in South Africa as a result of the country's past history in which African languages (for example) were afforded limited functions largely in informal low status domains, while English and Afrikaans functioned in most domains. Efforts have been made toward solving these problems in language planning activity since 1994.

Cooper (1989:35) points out that language planning is not only carried out to solve language problems but it is often done for the achievement of non-linguistic goals such as:

> consumer protection, scientific exchange, national integration, political control, economic development, the creation of new elites or maintenance of old ones, the pacification or cooption of minority groups, and mass mobilization of national or political movements.

He argues that these non-linguistic goals provide the main motivation for language planning. Thus, defining language planning as attempts to solve language problems may be misleading because this does not reveal the basic motivation behind such planning. According to Cooper (1989:35), since the primary attention of language planning is focused on the achievement of non-linguistic goals, it may be more appropriate to define language planning as "efforts to influence language behaviour" instead of seeing it as attempts to solve language problems.

Baldauf and Kaplan (2004:6) contend that language planning and policy take place in relation to language ideologies, which emanate from a "socio-political and historical framework of relationships of power, forms of discrimination, and nation building". As noted by Williams (1981, cited in Edwards 1985), individuals who hold powerful positions in a society are usually the ones who carry out language planning. Hence, the language polices or regulations that result from language planning are often intended to benefit them. Kamwangamalu (2004) argues in a similar vein that language planning in South Africa gave more privileges to the white people who were in power in the past regimes, while the suppressed groups had less language rights. This imbalance of power is one of the reasons why the indigenous languages in South Africa do not have high status.

According to Tollefson (1995), the issue of power is a fundamental concept in language planning because all levels of language policy, from the national to the classroom level, reflect unequal power relationships. Even though linguists may be consulted in language planning, the actual planners are "politicians, administrators and rulers" (Edwards 1985:89). Louw-Potgieter and Louw (1991) argue, therefore, that language planning is a political process. Although the political implications of language planning are not addressed in this study, the above is worth mentioning because the political aspect of language planning affects attitudes toward language policies.

The model of language planning comprising "norm selection, norm codification, functional implementation and functional elaboration" designed by Haugen (1966, cited in Edwards 1985:88) is one of the theoretical frameworks followed in many language-planning processes. Norm selection refers to the process of choosing a variety or varieties to develop into a standard language (Hudson 1980). After the selection process, the chosen variety is standardized. Here the norms of the language are codified, which entails the language being written down and the grammar, orthography and lexicon being made to have regular forms, in order for everyone to learn and use the 'correct' forms of the

language (Edwards 1985, Hudson 1980). According to Edwards (1985:88), the third stage of the language-planning process is known as functional implementation and this involves making the standardized variety popular "through official pronouncements, education and the media". In order to ascertain the extent to which the standard language has been accepted, several evaluation methods are used to determine the attitudes of individuals toward it (Edwards 1985). Elaboration of the functions of the chosen language is the last stage of the language-planning process. This deals with the "modernisation and expansion" of lexical items of the language so that it can accommodate changes that may occur in the world (Edwards 1985:88).

Although the nine indigenous South African official languages (for example isiXhosa) are codified, the functional implementation and elaboration processes may need to receive more attention in order for these languages to be used in higher domains such as higher education (Ministry of Education 2002).

2.2.1 Classification of language-planning activity

The above language-planning processes may be classified into three broad categories: corpus planning, status planning and acquisition planning (Cooper 1989). Webb and Kembo-Sure (2000:16) define corpus planning as "the determination of standards and norms for a language, as well as the introduction of new words and technical terms" and this is done to enable a language to perform its functions in society. Acquisition planning refers to language planning directed towards the spread of language as realized by an increase in the users of a language (Cooper 1989). I will focus on status planning in what follows because of its relevance to the study.

Status planning refers to the adoption of a language or languages as the official language/s of a country (Fettes 1997). The status of a language is often encoded in the law. Multilingual countries often rely on language-related legal provisions to maintain peace and unity amidst diversity (Coulmas 2005). Cooper (1989:32) points out that status planning also refers to the "allocation of languages or language varieties" as official languages, languages of learning and teaching and languages of the mass media. According to Gorman (1973:73, cited in Cooper 1989), language allocation may be seen as comprising "authoritative decisions to maintain, extend, or restrict the range of uses (functional range) of a language in particular settings". In South Africa (a multilingual society), the 1996 constitution (section 6, subsections 1–4, cited in LANGTAG 1996:46) recognises eleven official languages as shown below:

(1) The official languages of the Republic are Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda, Xitsonga, Afrikaans, English, isiNdebele, isiXhosa and isiZulu.

(2) 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.

(3) National and provincial governments may use particular official languages for the purposes of government, taking into account usage, practicality, expense, region and the balance of the needs and preferences of the population as a whole or in respective provinces, provided that no national or provincial government may use only one official language. Municipalities must take into consideration the language usage and preferences of their residents.

(4) National and provincial governments, by legislative and other measures, must regulate and monitor the use by those governments of the official languages. Without detracting from the provisions of subsection (2), all official languages must enjoy parity of esteem and must be treated equitably.

From the constitution it would appear that the government intends to extend the functional range of the African languages which was limited during previous regimes.

Language planning under the democratic regime in South Africa has sought to correct the inequalities of the past in the language domain. For instance, the Language Planning Task Group (LANGTAG) was established in 1996 to conduct research and advise the government on what is required for the effective implementation of the principles in the constitution. The main task of this advisory body was to challenge the hegemony of English and Afrikaans as well as to eradicate the negative social connotations associated with the African languages. This calls for a change in the prevailing attitudes toward African languages (LANGTAG 1996). As noted by Alexander (1995), speakers of indigenous South African languages developed negative attitudes toward mother-tongue instruction[9] as a result of the apartheid mother-tongue

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[9] Although Reagan (1986) argues that the mother-tongue policy of apartheid is in line with UNESCO's mother-tongue principle, it has been shown that its true function was to promote the apartheid government's ideology of separate development: "in South Africa … the policy of apartheid has had recourse to the choice of the mother tongue as the main medium of instruction at the primary level (beyond which, it has shown, the vast majority of African children do not pursue their studies) in order to reinforce the linguistic, social and cultural isolation of the African population within the country as well as from the world at large" (UNESCO, 1967:67, cited in Mazrui 2002).

language policy that was meant to promote separateness and prevent the unity of the black people, as well as subduing them and keeping them underdeveloped.

In order to raise the status of the official African languages, LANGTAG (1996:15) recommends that these languages:

> be used in high-status functions such as parliamentary debates, languages of learning and teaching in all phases of education, from pre-school up to the universities and the technikons, in the print and electronic media and for domestic (national, regional and local) business transactions.

The language-planning body known as Pan South African Language Board (PANSALB) has been established to create conditions for the development and use of all the official languages and to implement the recommendations of LANGTAG in terms of uplifting the status of African languages. Much effort in terms of legislation has been made to correct the inequalities of the past. One result has been the Language Policy for Higher Education that encourages the development of the nine official African (indigenous) languages so as to function alongside English and Afrikaans as languages of learning and teaching in higher institutions (Council on Higher Education 2001). Universities have been called upon to take the lead in developing African languages as "academic/scientific languages", so as to allow more learners to have access to higher education. This is perceived as necessary since the majority of these learners are not "fully proficient in English and Afrikaans" — the *de facto* languages of instruction in higher education institutions (Ministry of Education 2002:4; Council on Higher Education 2001; Alexander 2001).

However, Coulmas (2005:195) points out that the colonial languages still continue to dominate despite efforts to promote indigenous languages as official languages in Africa, mainly because many people see the colonial languages as providing "symbolic access to modernity" and social mobility. It would appear that South Africa is no exception to this general trend. Thus, Foley (2004) argues that, theoretically, it is possible to develop African languages in South Africa but that, practically, the policy may not be successfully implemented owing to socio-economic and political problems militating against the development of these languages as LOLT in higher institutions.

2.2.2 Different approaches and issues in language planning

Phillipson (1992:86) and Coulmas (2005:195) note that Western concepts of language planning such as "one nation one language are not automatically valid for the third world" since the latter have extremely multilingual societies. The traditional approach to language planning, in which one language variety is developed to perform many functions while others are relegated to the background in society, is regarded as the "streamlining approach" (Muhlausler 1966, cited in Fettes 1997:19).

According to Fettes (1997), the streamlining approach reproduces inequalities and barriers to communication since members of the marginalized groups must have knowledge of the dominant language in order to improve their social status in society. For instance, in Anglophone African countries, an individual needs knowledge of English to get a good job and improve his/her status in society. The use of English as LOLT is encouraged in traditional language planning so that people can learn English and fully participate in socioeconomic and political activities and derive the benefits associated with them (Smit 1996).

On the other hand, the modern approach to language planning promotes bilingualism or multilingualism (for example, in South Africa), by selecting and developing two or more languages as official languages of the state (*ibid.*). Fettes (1997) discourages the traditional approach of developing a society on the basis of monolingualism. Instead he suggests that it will be "beneficial for many languages to coexist in a complex web of relationships where most people are bilingual or multilingual and experience this as a resource worth preserving" (*ibid*:20). This approach is regarded as an "ecological approach" to language planning and is believed to have a positive effect on education, because it will enable learners to become bilingual or multilingual individuals (Fettes 1997:20). The relevance of this in education is noted by Alexander (1995:39):

> …multilingual persons (especially children) are better equipped cognitively than monolingual persons because they have to grapple with the metalinguistic dimensions of language learning.

Another theoretical issue in the literature on language planning deals with the participants involved in language planning. The traditional approach (a top-down

process) involves language planning and policy-making at the national or higher level ('macrolevel'). These plans and policies are then transmitted to the citizens at the lower level ('microlevel'), without satisfactorily examining the language attitudes of the target groups (Cooper 1989:38, Edwards 1985). Several theorists are not in favour of this approach. They propose that the attitudes of the citizens should be taken into consideration in language planning. This means that planning should start from below, at the microlevel, and *then* move to the macrolevel (Edwards 1985, Cooper 1989, Alexander 1992, Eastman 1992). This present language-attitude study that seeks to examine isiXhosa-speaking students' attitudes toward various LOLT issues at Rhodes University will hopefully enable and encourage language planning from below at Rhodes University.

Edwards (1985) argues that successful language planning depends not only on the approval of those in power but also the acceptance of the individuals for whom the language policy is intended. Similarly, Mackey (1984:165, cited in Eastman 1992) notes that successful implementation of language-in-education policy programmes depends to a great extent on "public enthusiasm and support". Failure to take this into consideration may lead to social strife such as the Soweto uprising of 1976 (Eastman 1992). Hence, Eastman (1992:107) suggests that sociolinguists should be interested in language attitudes "when it comes to suggesting which languages are appropriate in which situations". This reveals the social importance of language-attitude research in society.

2.2.3 Language planning in education

Phillipson (1992) argues that since educational language policy is a form of language planning, the social factors that influence general language planning are also visible in educational language planning. A strong relationship exists between language-in-education policy and political, economic and military power (*ibid.*). According to Tollefson (2002), the choice of language of learning and teaching (LOLT) is often not the only issue in language policies in education; instead a lot of socio-political issues are involved. Therefore, it is recommended that language policies in education be understood in relation to broad social, political and economic forces that define education and social life in general (*ibid.*).

Phillipson (1992) notes that during the colonial era, English (LOLT in most ex-colonial Anglophone countries) was imposed, but in recent times language policies in education are determined by compelling argument (in which language policy and use is

planned in a rational way based on facts that are available) and the market or the demand for a language/s. The idea of choosing English is thus often based on the fact that English is associated with "progress and prosperity" (Phillipson 1992:8). However, although the argument in favour of English in language-in-education policies appears sensible on the surface, the idea is based on a "dominant ideology" which is not in the interest of the subordinate group, although the irony is that it is accepted by them (Phillipson 1992:8). For instance, during the colonial period the colonial powers imposed their languages on Africans and relegated the use of African languages to the lower primary school level. This policy has not produced very good results in the educational systems in Africa.

According to Heugh (2002), the failure prevalent in the educational systems on the continent can be largely attributed to the restricted use of the learners' mother tongue at the lower primary school level and the subsequent transition to an English medium system at a stage when most learners do not have adequate proficiency in English.

Even though it is claimed, as noted above, that this policy is not very effective, African language-in-education policy makers in the post-colonial era often accept and still adhere to a colonial language policy. In general, they have not done much to develop African languages to function at higher levels of education. Mazrui (2002) argues that the dominance of English in the African educational systems (especially the university) has created a situation in which Africans will continue to depend on the West. Thus, Auerbach (1995:9) argues that "dynamics of power and domination" are hidden in language-in-education planning.

The issue of power and domination in educational language planning in South Africa has produced much controversy over the years (Reagan 2002). Heugh (2002) points out that language-in-education policies encountered much resistance during the colonial and apartheid years. For instance, "the Anglicisation policy in the Cape colony" generated resistance from the Afrikaans-speaking population against whom it was mainly directed; similarly the apartheid language policy, which imposed Afrikaans upon African-language speakers, produced resistance that climaxed in the 1976 student riot in Soweto (Reagan 1986:2, Heugh 2002:240). Black South Africans regarded Afrikaans (the language of apartheid) as the language of oppression and English (the preferred international language) as the language of liberation (Mazrui 2002).

Tollefson (2002) points out that language-in-education policies that do not promote multilingualism are unrealistic. Alexander (1995) argues that a policy of multilingualism will promote national unity and reduce ethnic strife. Similarly, Young

(1995) claims that practical multilingual policies, which encourage the use of African languages, may help to solve the complex language-education problems in South Africa. Several authors have called for such policies in language-in-education planning, and the 1996 constitution also encourages multilingualism in all domains of society (Alexander 1995, Luckett 1995, Heugh 1995 and 2002, LANGTAG 1996). However, Kamwangamalu (2004) observes that there is a sharp contrast between the language policy and actual language practice in South Africa, because while the language policy promotes multilingualism, language practice advances monolingualism in English in higher spheres of public life such as higher education institutions where very often only English is used as LOLT. This has led to the maintenance and perhaps increase of favourable attitudes toward English and a diglossic situation in South Africa (cf. 2.1.1).

2.3 The theory of attitudes

In this section, an attempt is made to define the term *attitude* and to examine concepts related to attitudes. The theory of language attitudes is also briefly explored.

2.3.1 Definition of attitude

There is no unique definition of the term *attitude* in the literature because it means different things to different individuals. The definitions in the literature on attitudes are seen as matters of convenience as researchers define the concept to suit the purpose of their study (Jahoda & Warren 1966). The different definitions usually show the theoretical orientations or interests of the researchers (Agheyisi & Fishman 1970). Doob (1947, cited in Chein 1967) argues that given the ambiguous and inconsistent manner in which the term *attitude* is used, he is tempted to propose that its use be discontinued in the social sciences because it does not really serve a full scientific need and that if this is done it will lead to a more unified, scientific way of studying human behaviour. Chein (1967) himself takes a different position and claims that it would be absurd to abandon the use of the term *attitude* due to a lack of precise definition, since most scientific inquiries begin with vague observation and progress gradually until the observation is clearer and a more precise definition is attained. Lasagabaster (2004) notes that the concept 'attitude' is indispensable, as it has been heavily relied upon in the study of human behaviour. I agree with this author's position particularly as it relates to my study: the knowledge of the attitudes that individuals hold toward a language will help language planners to formulate policies that may be successfully implemented.

According to Agheyisi and Fishman (1970:138) there are two broad "theoretical and methodological positions (mentalist and behaviourist)" in relation to the definition of attitudes. Proponents of the mentalist approach believe that attitudes are a condition of the mind that an individual has toward an attitude object. This view is based on Allport's (1954:20) definition of attitude as:

> a mental and neural state of readiness, organised through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related.

This implies that attitudes cannot be directly observed but can be inferred from an examination of a person's expressed thoughts, feelings and motives. The criticism of this definition is that attitude defined in this way cannot be physically measured (Agheyisi & Fishman 1970).

On the other hand, the behaviourists argue that attitude *can* be directly observed. In this approach, attitude is seen as: "directly related to overt behaviour or overt verbal responses to any given set of stimuli" (*ibid*:138). As noted by Baker (1992), this could sometimes lead to misleading explanations of attitudes, since the prediction of attitudes from behaviour has been seen to be imperfect. Smit (1996) argues that most working definitions integrate features of the two approaches.

Working definition of attitude: Lasagabaster (2004) and Baker (1992) show that a preferred working definition is given by Ajzen (1988:4) who defines attitude as a "disposition to respond favourably or unfavourably to an attitude object, person, institution or event". The evaluative nature (favourable or unfavourable) of attitude is brought out in this definition and this is often seen in attitude scaling methods, where a person's attitude is measured or evaluated on the basis of his/her response (favourable or unfavourable) to the attitude object or referent (Ajzen 1988). Similarly, McGuire (1969) claims that an individual's attitude toward an object could be determined by his/her reactions to the attitude object.

A further important theoretical issue in the literature on attitudes dating back to Plato is the classification of attitudes into cognitive, affective and conative components (Baker 1992). The cognitive component deals with *thoughts and beliefs* (knowledge) about the attitude object. For instance, if the attitude object is a language (for example, isiXhosa), this may entail expressions of beliefs concerning the importance and benefits

of using the language as LOLT. The affective component involves responses that reveal *feelings* toward the attitude object. The conative component deals with *actions* that individuals are ready to take toward an object or event under certain situations (Baker 1992, Ajzen 1988). For instance, African language speakers who believe that it is important to learn English or use it as LOLT (because of the social status of the language and the upward social mobility associated with knowledge of the language) may take action by sending their children to an English-medium school.

According to Agheyisi and Fishman (1970), proponents of the mentalist approach mostly suggest that attitudes have multiple components made up of cognition, affect and conation (multicomponential); while most proponents of the behaviourist approach claim that attitude is made up of one component – affect (unicomponential). McGuire (1969) notes that some theorists believe that the affective component of attitude is the core of attitude, while the cognitive and the conative components are seen as 'growths' which form around it.

Several authors believe that the three components of attitudes are separate entities, while others believe that they are interrelated (Lasagabaster 2004). Oppenheim (1966:106) believes that:

> attitudes are reinforced by belief (the cognitive component) and often attract strong feelings (the emotional or affective component) that will lead to particular forms of behaviour (the conative or the action tendency component).

Ajzen (1988:20) points out that although a number of theorists view attitude as a "multidimensional construct" (made up of cognition, affect and conation), they believe that the evaluations expressed in each component may be different. An example of this can be seen in the case of a student who may hate English (negative affect), but believes that having a knowledge of English will help him/her to obtain a good job after graduating from school (positive cognition), hence still continues to use English – positive conation. Ajzen (1988)'s definition of *attitude* will be drawn upon in this study as it provides a clear, relatively unambiguous understanding of the concept. It is also useful because it highlights the lack of continuity between the different components of attitude.

2.3.2 Attitudes and related concepts

The relationship between attitudes and behaviour as well as perceptions, opinions, beliefs, behavioural intention and values has received much attention in the literature on attitudes. A clear understanding of the meaning of each term and their relationship to attitude will provide a better understanding of the concept of attitude itself.

Attitudes and behaviour: Attitudes are latent, the attitudes that an individual has cannot be seen by another person, they can only be inferred from external behaviour or "measurable responses" (reflecting positive or negative evaluations of the attitude object) and the situation in which the behaviour takes place (Ajzen 1988:4).

However, behaviour sometimes does not reveal the actual attitude that a person may have toward an object or event. This lack of congruence between attitude and behaviour presents some problems in the measurement of attitudes (Baker 1992). The inconsistency between what people say (expressed attitude) and what they do (actual behaviour) is evident in research conducted in the United States of America by Lapiere (1934, cited in Baker 1992) which examined the relationship between actual behaviour and expressed attitudes. In the relevant study, a Chinese couple visited 251 restaurants in the USA and a questionnaire was sent to these restaurants six months later. The results revealed that while 92% of the informants said that they would not allow a Chinese couple to come into their restaurant, in practice only one restaurant refused service to the couple.

Smit (1996) argues that this finding and others showing the inconsistency between expressed attitude and behaviour should not discourage attitude research as a way of predicting behaviour. She was of the view that both attitude and behaviour research should be conducted and improved upon since this will promote a better understanding of these concepts and their relationship.

In what follows, other concepts related to attitudes (perception, opinion, belief, value and behavioural intention) are explored. According to Smit (1996) perception, opinion and belief are related to the cognitive component of attitude because they involve knowledge that people hold toward attitude objects.

Perception involves an individual's understanding or awareness of a situation, hence it is related to the cognitive component of attitude (*ibid.*).

The term *opinion* is defined as a "more specific manifestation" of attitudes (McGuire 1969:152). It may also be seen as the open expression of a concealed attitude (Thurstone 1929, cited in McGuire 1969). Opinions can be observed more than attitudes

because the latter exist in the "private consciousness" of the person who holds them (*ibid*:152). Cooper and McGaugh (1966:29) see opinion as a "tentative perception" held by an individual or the public toward an attitude object at a specific time, which may change in the future. Oskamp (1991) claims that opinion is sometimes seen as an equivalent term to attitude, but he is of the view that opinion relates more to belief because it mainly involves the cognitive component of attitudes.

Belief refers to the knowledge or information that an individual has about an object, and is thus associated with the cognitive component of attitude (Fishbein & Ajzen 1975). To a certain degree, future behaviour or action can be predicted on the basis of an individual's beliefs (Cooper & McGaugh 1966). According to Fishbein (1965), trustworthy evaluations of attitudes can be obtained when many belief statements are examined together. In this study, for example, many belief statements about various LOLT issues have been included in the questionnaire and students' responses to these belief statements have helped to reveal the attitudes they hold toward, among other things, the use of isiXhosa as LOLT at Rhodes University. Smit (1996) points out that a number of language attitudes may be more appropriately called language beliefs and opinions because the responses that informants provide are influenced by their knowledge of the relevant situation.

Behavioural intention involves an individual's intentions to carry out different behaviours toward the attitude object; this deals with the conative component of attitude (Fishbein & Ajzen 1975).

Values may be seen as deeper or broader than attitudes. McGuire (1969:151) shows that some theorists view opinion, attitude, interest and value as "successive points along a single continuum" with value being at the deepest point. Similarly, Oppenheim (1966) claims that value is at a relatively deep level in the four levels he identifies. In his model, belief is shown to be relatively superficial, followed by attitudes, while value is shown to be at a deeper level, with personality at the deepest level. Value and personality are more embracing and enduring than attitudes (*ibid.*). Figure 1 below shows these various levels:
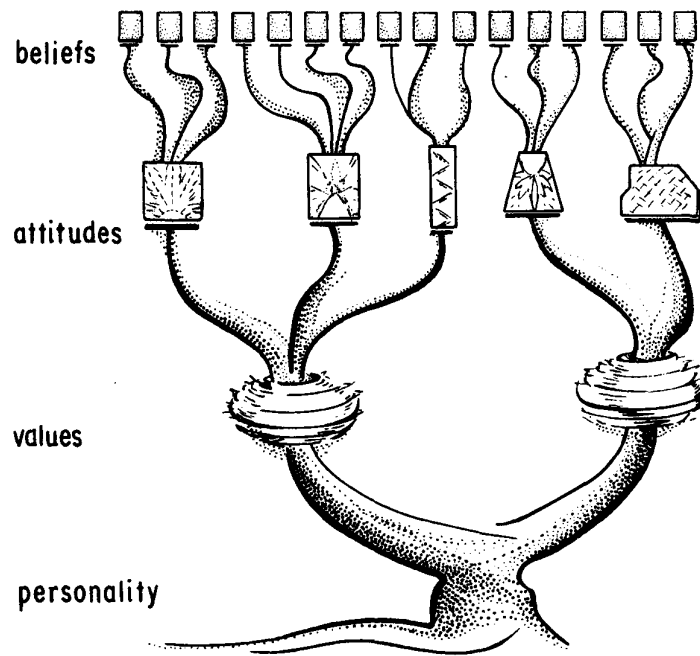
Figure 1: Attitude and related concepts levels (Oppenheim 1966:110).

According to Cooper and McGaugh (1966), value implies an attitude in which the attitude object is evaluated or judged by an individual on the basis of the degree to which it is in harmony with the goals that the individual wants to achieve.

2.3.3 Language attitudes

According to Smit (1996), language attitudes refer to attitudes that are exhibited toward language. Dirven (1991) notes that humans form attitudes toward language, because language reveals society's structural pattern (especially the hierarchical nature of society) and humans form their identity through language (cf. 2.1.2). It is suggested that language-attitude research should acknowledge the fact that an individual who holds attitudes belongs to several groups that s/he identifies with and that each of these groups has different structural patterns (Smit 1996).

The theory of language in ethnic-group relations (cf. 2.1) reveals that the place of an individual in relation to society (where s/he identifies with his/her in-groups and separates him/herself from out-groups) is vital to language-attitude research (*ibid.*). An individual's attitudes toward language are learned through experience of his/her environment and these attitudes may change with changes in the individual's experience:

this shows that language attitudes are influenced by other attitudes and other factors such as context, time and other people involved in the context (*ibid.*).

These factors are taken into consideration in this study, in the sense of being analysed as variables that may influence language attitudes (see section 4.3). Baker (1992) notes that age, gender, the type of school attended, etc. may influence attitudes toward a language. In a bilingual or multilingual situation, attitudes toward the higher-status varieties or languages (for example, English) become more favourable with increasing age, while attitudes toward the lower-status languages (for example, African languages) become less favourable (Baker 1992). It is also noted in sociolinguistic research that females have more favourable attitudes toward the higher-status varieties while males are more favourably disposed toward the lower-status varieties (Milroy 1980).

Furthermore, the nature of the secondary schools that students have attended may affect attitudes to a language, due to the peculiarities of the "curriculum and extra curricula activities" that they may have been exposed to (Baker 1992:43). The extent to which these and other possibly relevant variables influence isiXhosa-speaking students' attitudes toward the relevant LOLT issues have been considered in the study. For instance, the extent to which the context or the learning environment influences isiXhosa-speaking students' attitudes toward the LOLT issues is examined: the attitudes of isiXhosa-speaking students at Rhodes University (a historically white university) are compared to those of isiXhosa-speaking students at the University of Fort Hare and University of the Western Cape (historically black universities). This is done in order to ascertain whether the students' attitudes are the same or whether the different learning environments have had an influence on their attitudes. In the next section, the various types of language attitudes that have been identified in the literature are discussed.

2.4 Categories of language attitudes

Four attempts made to classify language attitudes are examined in this section. The first is that made by Agheyisi and Fishman (1970) who classify language attitude studies into three main categories. The first category involves studies which deal with "language-oriented or language-directed" attitudes (*ibid*:141). This category of study focuses on the evaluations of a language such as its "smooth and sweet-sounding" nature and so on (*ibid*:141). Agheyisi and Fishman (1970:141) note that studies in the first category may be classified into two topical subdivisions: (i) topics dealing with "classical/standard/official versus modern/non-standard/vernacular varieties" and (ii)

those dealing with "creoles and pidgins". The second category of language-attitude research concerns studies that deal with "community-wide stereotyped impressions toward particular languages or language varieties, their speakers, functions etc." (*ibid*: 141). Research in this category looks at the social importance of languages or language varieties with particular reference to attitudes toward those who speak the high-status language varieties versus those who speak different low-status varieties in multilingual situations (Agheyisi & Fishman 1970). The third category deals with language behaviour emanating from particular attitudes or beliefs. Some topics covered in this area are language planning and language use (*ibid.*).

Cooper and Fishman (1974:6) identify four types of language attitudes which are:

- attitudes toward a language (such as isiXhosa);
- attitudes toward a feature of a language (such as the syntax of isiXhosa);
- attitudes toward language use (such as the use of isiXhosa as LOLT); and
- attitudes toward language as a group marker — such as isiXhosa as the language of Xhosa people (*ibid*:6).

Schmied (1991:164) classifies language attitudes studies into three fields, which are:

- attitudes toward certain languages (in this kind of research a general evaluation of language is done which may give rise to stereotypes);
- attitudes toward varieties of language (studies in this field deal with the norms of a language); and
- attitudes toward sociolinguistic topics (this involves studies dealing with attitudes toward the use of a particular language in a particular field, such as the use of isiXhosa as LOLT in education, which this study intends to explore).

My research seeks to examine isiXhosa-speaking students' attitudes toward the use of languages as LOLT at Rhodes University. Hence, it can be associated with Cooper and Fishman's (1974) third category of language attitudes (attitudes toward language use) and the third field of language attitudes identified by Schmied (1991) – attitudes toward sociolinguistic topics, which involves studies dealing with attitudes toward the use of a particular language in a particular domain.

A further method of classifying language attitudes is that suggested by Gardener and Lambert (1972, cited in Baker 1992). They classify language attitudes into two categories: instrumental and integrative. Gardner and Lambert (1972) distinguish these attitudes as part of their study on orientations and motivations underlying the learning of a second language. Instrumental attitudes toward a language are associated with the importance and usefulness of a language, as well as the desire to improve one's social and economic status in a society (*ibid.*). McClelland (1958, 1961, cited in Baker 1992:32) argues that an instrumental attitude to a language is often "self-oriented and individualistic" because the individual interested in learning a second language is motivated by what s/he can achieve through knowledge of the language (such as gaining better employment and upward social mobility, see 2.1.2 and 2.1.3).

The integrative attitude to a language is not individualistic but "social and interpersonal" in nature (Baker 1992:32). It has to do with the need to be identified with a particular language group: people with an integrative attitude toward the learning of a second language are motivated to learn the language because they want to attach themselves to the speakers of the language and participate in their cultural activities (cf. 2.1.3).

Research on language attitudes in Africa show that most Africans have positive instrumental attitudes toward the learning of colonial European languages as second or foreign languages or using them as LOLT because of the benefits associated with the knowledge of them, while they are attached to their first languages for integrative purposes. This shows that a diglossic situation exists in many countries in Africa: the European languages are high-status varieties (perform more functions) and the African languages are low-status varieties (have limited functions).

2.5 The place of language attitudes in society

Language-attitude research highlights the significance of language in society; it provides information on "social relationships" and shows how language functions as a group marker (Fasold 1984:158). The importance of a language as LOLT or as a group marker can easily be determined by assessing or measuring the attitudes toward that language. This information is typically obtained through surveys and aims to represent the views of the people in a democratic manner (Baker 1992). Knowledge of a group's attitudes may help to restore, preserve and prolong the life of a language in the society (*ibid.*). Furthermore, language attitudes play an important role in the educational context;

attitude is one of the factors that influence the outcomes of language learning (Smit 1996, Baker 1992). A favourable language attitude enables learners to make rapid progress in second language learning, and it is also responsible for the retention of competence in a language (Baker 1992). More importantly language-attitude research may provide useful information to help formulate and successfully implement language-in-education policies, as noted by Lewis (1981:262, cited in Baker 1992):

> Any policy for language, especially in the system of education, has to take account of the attitudes of those likely to be affected. In the long run, no policy will succeed which does not do one of three things: conform to the expressed attitudes of those involved; persuade those who express negative attitudes about the rightness of the policy; or seek to remove the causes of the disagreement. In any case knowledge about attitudes is fundamental to the formulation of a policy as well as to success in its implementation.

2.6 Review of language-attitude research in South Africa

A review of language-attitude research conducted across all levels of education in South Africa is presented in this section. Since my research is on isiXhosa-speaking students' attitude toward LOLT issues, attention is focused on the review of language-attitude research involving African language-speaking students' attitudes toward the use of various languages as LOLT in education.

This section begins with a review of language-attitude research conducted during the apartheid era and the transition period and concludes with research on language attitudes conducted in the post-1994 democratic South Africa.

2.6.1 Research in the apartheid era and transition period

One of the earliest language-attitude studies conducted (during the apartheid era) on African language speaking students was that of Edelstein (1972). He investigated the attitudes of 200 African language-speaking matric students residing in Soweto toward various issues in society (*ibid.*). One of the issues examined was that of language of learning and teaching in education. In the questionnaire the students were asked to choose the language (Afrikaans, English or vernacular) that they would like their children to use as LOLT.

The study revealed that an overwhelming majority of the respondents preferred the use of English as LOLT rather than Afrikaans or the African languages. Of the 200 respondents, 177 (88.5%) preferred English as LOLT, 19 (9.5%) chose the African languages while only 4 (2.0%) preferred Afrikaans as LOLT (Edelstein 1972:115). In this survey respondents were asked to choose only one language as LOLT for all levels of education. There was no provision for them to choose any kind of bilingual policy, for example, the use of African languages *and* English or Afrikaans as LOLT (Bekker 2002).

The Human Sciences Research Council's (HSRC) language-attitude research conducted in 1975 was another attempt made during the apartheid era to study the language attitudes of black South Africans. The study was conducted on 3,600 black people between the ages of 15 and 54 (Prinsloo 1987). The results revealed that most respondents preferred African languages as LOLT in crèches and lower primary schools, while English was the preferred LOLT in higher primary and secondary schools. The research indicated that English was the most accepted LOLT chosen for secondary education. Afrikaans followed English while African languages came last (*ibid.*).

Vorster and Proctor (1976) conducted research on isiXhosa-speaking students' attitudes toward English and Afrikaans in general. The study employed the Matched-Guised technique (cf. 3.1.3) and the results revealed that the subjects had more favourable attitudes toward English than Afrikaans.

In 1989, language-attitude research was conducted by Louw-Potgieter and Louw (1991) in the Western Cape. The study explored the University of the Western Cape students' preferences concerning language planning. The authors employed a simulation method using questionnaires which were administered to students from three language groups – Afrikaans, English and isiXhosa. These students were told to imagine that they were in an imaginary country known as Peka with three different language groups named King, Spalang and Peki. King represented English which was regarded as a "colonial, official, modern, international language" spoken by about 3 million people (*ibid*: 96). Spalang represented Afrikaans, as it was described as an official and modern language developed from a colonial language by the government and spoken by over 5 million people, while Peki represented isiXhosa, as it was seen as an indigenous language that was not used as an official language and not modernized and was spoken by 14 million people.

Five language policy options were presented to the respondents. These were: (i) maintenance which involved the retention of King and Spalang as official languages,

while Peki retained an unofficial status, (ii) a diversity policy, which entailed the use of King, Spalang and Peki as official languages, (iii) a unity language policy, which referred to a situation in which only one language (King) is chosen as the official language in order to unite the people, (iv) a transitional trilingualism policy, which dealt with the acknowledgement of three languages (King, Spalang and Peki) as official languages at the outset, while the government simultaneously provided resources for the teaching of King to everyone in Peka in order that King would ultimately become the sole official language in the country and (v) a bilingualism language policy, which referred to a situation in which two languages, an international language (King) and a local language (Peki) were chosen as official languages. In this imaginary scenario, resources were made available for the development of Peki so that it could eventually function as an official language alongside King, while Spalang was regarded as an unofficial language.

The results indicated that isiXhosa-speaking students would prefer a bilingual policy of English/isiXhosa as official languages or LOLT (i.e. option v). English and Afrikaans mother-tongue respondents would prefer a diversity language policy in which Afrikaans, English and isiXhosa were used as official languages (i.e. option ii). English was viewed as a language of unity by all the language groups because it was seen as a language that can unite people in a multilingual situation and was also perceived as a language of international contact. The majority of the respondents did not favour the policy of maintenance. However, English and Afrikaans speakers were more positive about retaining their languages as official languages than the isiXhosa speakers.

Young, Ratcliffe, Boreham, Khiba and Fitzgerald (1991) conducted language-attitude research in Western Cape high schools between 1990 and 1991. The research project involved three pilot studies that attempted to examine the 'popular assumption' that English might possibly be the only national language in a democratic South Africa. The research employed a questionnaire survey method to elicit information on the attitudes of the respondents. The first pilot study was conducted on one 125 Afrikaans-speaking students in former House of Representatives schools[10]. The subjects of the second pilot study were 98 isiXhosa-speaking students in former Department of Education and Training schools, while the third pilot study which evolved out of the results of the first and second studies was conducted in two Afrikaans/English dual-medium former House of Representatives schools.

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[10] Public schools built for "coloured" learners during the apartheid era.

The findings of the second pilot study, involving 98 isiXhosa-speaking students, have direct relevance to the current study. The results of this pilot study revealed that the students had a generally positive attitude toward studying English as a school subject and using it as LOLT. Forty-three percent (43%) of the respondents preferred isiXhosa as LOLT, 23.5% preferred Afrikaans as LOLT, whereas an overwhelming majority (82.7%) preferred English as LOLT. However, some of these students expressed a desire for their teachers to use isiXhosa to explain difficult English words and terminology. This shows that these students preferred a bilingual arrangement in which their teachers code-switch to clarify difficult concepts in isiXhosa in order to facilitate learning.

It is, however, unclear from the results of this study whether the choice of a bilingual English/isiXhosa LOLT policy was given to the students. If this choice was clearly reflected in the questionnaire it might have prevented the contradictions that were reported in the students' responses. For example, 75% of the Standard 9 (Grade 11) students who indicated that they would prefer isiXhosa as LOLT also chose English as LOLT. This gives the impression that these respondents might have preferred a bilingual English/isiXhosa LOLT arrangement.

De Klerk and Bosch (1994) report on language-attitude research conducted in 1993 (during the transition era) in the Eastern Cape. The study explored the attitudes of 298 Eastern Cape residents toward the major official languages of the region: English, Afrikaans and isiXhosa. Among other things, the study investigated the respondents' language preferences in education. The study revealed that English and Afrikaans speakers preferred to study further in their mother tongue, while isiXhosa speakers would choose to study further in English. The three language groups expressed a general positive attitude toward English; it was the preferred language of learning and teaching in education and was seen as a language associated with success.

During this period, language-attitude research was also conducted in Grahamstown by Smit (1996). This study investigated high school students' attitudes toward the use of various varieties of English (mother tongue, Afrikaans and Black South African English[11]) in education as well as the use of other languages along with English. The results of the research showed that the respondents accepted that Standard English should remain as a major LOLT. One-third of the respondents accepted that Black South African English might be used in education in the future. The study also revealed that the

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[11] Variety of English spoken by "black" people in South Africa for whom English is an additional language.

majority of isiXhosa-speaking students from former DET schools would prefer isiXhosa to be used together with English as LOLT, while a small number of them preferred isiXhosa and Afrikaans as LOLT (Smit 1996).

The research conducted during the apartheid era (and the transition period) reveals that the respondents had a generally positive attitude toward the use of English as LOLT because of its instrumental value. However, studies that clearly presented the choice of a bilingual arrangement also showed that the majority of the subjects were favourably disposed toward such a bilingual arrangement mainly for improved understanding of what is being taught. The next section reviews the research that was conducted during the post-apartheid era in order to ascertain whether similar trends are visible.

2.6.2 Post-apartheid research on language attitudes

Since the inception of democratic rule in South Africa, several language-attitude studies have been conducted which examine students' attitudes toward LOLT issues in the context of a democratic constitution and language policy that promotes the equal use of all the official languages of South Africa at all levels of education. One such study was conducted by De Klerk (1996), who investigated students' attitudes toward the use of English at Rhodes University, Grahamstown. All students registering for the 1995 academic year were required to fill in a questionnaire that elicited information about their use of and attitudes toward language (De Klerk 1996). The results of the survey on the preferred LOLT indicated that the majority of the isiXhosa-speaking students were satisfied with Rhodes University's policy of using only English as LOLT. Although this group of students strongly identified with their language, as they were often seen in groups speaking their language, only a few of them (22%) would have preferred the use of English and isiXhosa as dual LOLT at Rhodes, while 74% of the isiXhosa-speaking students preferred using only English (De Klerk 1996).

This survey was conducted about eleven years ago and attitudes might have changed. Hence a survey that reveals the current language attitudes of the isiXhosa-speaking students is important, since Rhodes University is committed to developing isiXhosa into a language that could be used for academic purposes at the university level (Rhodes University 2005). The current research aims to fill this gap.

Similarly, Chick's (1998) study of KwaZulu-Natal tertiary education students' attitudes toward the LOLT issue revealed that the overwhelming majority of the

respondents were in favour of using only English as LOLT: only 3.6% of the respondents chose isiZulu or any other African language as LOLT. There was no option of a bilingual LOLT policy however[12].

Language-attitude research, examining the attitudes of speakers of African languages, was conducted in 1998 by Dyers (1999) at the University of the Western Cape (UWC). The research explored first and second year isiXhosa-speaking students' use of language, attitudes and preferences. It also investigated whether their attitudes remained stable or changed over time as they studied and interacted with students from other language groups at the university. Questionnaires and interviews were used to collect data for the study.

The students expressed a desire that isiXhosa and other Black South African Languages (BSALs) be developed to the extent where they could be used for study at the university. They felt however, that since BSALs had not yet developed to the extent where they could be used as LOLT at the university, that these languages could not currently be seen as practical substitutes for English. In spite of the fact that the isiXhosa students recognised the usefulness of their L1 as a tool that would enable them to understand their subjects better and improve their performance, they felt that using isiXhosa (the dominant BSAL of the region) could create conflicts between the different language groups as it would exclude speakers of other languages and create the kind of language situation that existed during the apartheid era.

These isiXhosa-speaking students believed that it was solely the English-only option that would not cause conflict between the different language groups, because it has more potential to promote national unity than any other language. Hence it was regarded as the "only safe option" and as the unifying language (Dyers 1999:81).

Some language-attitude research shows that it is not only African-language speaking *students* that favour the use of English as LOLT in school and university but that their parents also have a similar positive attitude toward English. For instance, Mhlanga (1995) points out that most African parents believe that their children acquire sufficient knowledge of their L1 at home before going to school; hence they are expected to learn English and use it as LOLT in school. The instrumental value of English is the main motivation underlying the general positive attitudes toward the use of English as LOLT.

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[12] It should also be noted that the purpose of the study was to critique and explore the methodologies employed.

De Klerk (2000:87) explored the "experiences and attitudes of isiXhosa-speaking parents who sent their children to English-medium schools in Grahamstown". The research showed that the positive attitude that these parents have toward English (which motivated them to send their children to English medium schools) is based on instrumental values. They are very interested in the socio-economic advancement of their children, to the detriment of maintaining isiXhosa, and this in turn is leading to language shift in Grahamstown, especially among the relevant children.

In 2001, Barkhuizen embarked on a research project that attempted to bring learners' desires into the language planning and curriculum development process. He examined high school students' perceptions of the teaching and learning of isiXhosa as a first language as well as the use of isiXhosa as LOLT in Eastern and Western Cape schools. The survey employed the questionnaire method and questionnaires were administered to 2825 students from 26 schools in the two provinces.

The results show that the majority of the students (75%) preferred the use of English as LOLT in all subjects except Bible Studies, which they preferred to be taught in isiXhosa. It appears that one of the reasons why the students have negative attitudes toward isiXhosa is that the variety they are taught at school (regarded as deep isiXhosa) is different from the one (an urban variety) they speak with their family and friends.

The choice of English is based on instrumental reasons, because English is seen as the language that would enable them to obtain good jobs when they leave school. Most of the students believed though that isiXhosa should be studied in school as a *subject* for integrative purposes. They felt that it was important, as it is the language of their people, thus indicating that although they were positive toward English they still wanted to identify with their in-group. However, some of the students (35%) did choose isiXhosa as LOLT and Barkhuizen (2001) points out that it would be useful to ascertain what exactly these students had in mind in this regard. He suggested that they probably preferred a bilingual (English and isiXhosa) LOLT policy of instruction. This issue has been explored in my research: the students who were positive toward the use of isiXhosa as LOLT (for example) were asked in the personal and group interviews to explain what they had in mind with regard to the possible use of isiXhosa at Rhodes University.

Barkhuizen (2001) used only questionnaires in his study and these provided the general patterns of the students' attitudes toward the study of isiXhosa and its use as LOLT. It is noted by Barkhuizen (2001:14) that in-depth interview and participant-observation methods would have helped to investigate the "feelings, interpretations and

opinions" of learners on an individual basis. Such in-depth individual interviews and focus-group discussions have formed a core component of this research.

Bekker (2002) examined the attitudes of mother tongue African-language speaking students at UNISA[13] toward the university's proposed use of African languages as LOLT. It emerged from the study that there is a generally positive attitude toward English due to its instrumental importance as a language that promotes socio-economic progress in society as well as its function of unifying people in a multilingual context.

On the other hand, the positive attitudes expressed toward the use of *African* languages as LOLT at UNISA were based on two factors: (1) instrumental value – the recognition of the usefulness of African languages as a tool to enable students to understand their subjects better and improve their performance, and (2) for integrative reasons – the students' desire to identify with their language groups, and also the desire that their languages be given equal and fair treatment i.e. the same as is given to English and Afrikaans – the two dominant official languages of the past regimes.

Similar research was conducted by Dalvit (2004) at the University of Fort Hare. The study investigated the attitudes of isiXhosa-speaking students toward the use of their L1 as LOLT. Most respondents in this study were in favour of dual-medium instruction (English and isiXhosa), especially at first-year level and in the faculties of Arts, Education and Social Sciences. There was also a generally positive attitude toward English because of its instrumental value. The respondents who felt that it was important to study in isiXhosa expressed both integrative and instrumental attitudes toward isiXhosa. They wished to identify with their language and culture and they also believed that the use of isiXhosa alongside English would facilitate learning. Bekker (2002)'s study did not indicate whether the students in the different fields of study (faculties) at UNISA exhibited different attitudes toward the LOLT issue. This gap was filled by Dalvit (2004) who shows that more positive attitudes toward the use of isiXhosa as LOLT were found in the faculties of Arts, Education and Social Sciences than in the other faculties. Field of study is one of the variables examined in the current research (see 4.3).

Dalvit (2004)'s research did not specify which kind of high school the isiXhosa-speaking students at the University of Fort Hare had attended (for example, former DET, private or former model C schools). Inclusion of this variable is important because the

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[13] University of South Africa

different high schools' learning environment could influence attitudes toward the use of isiXhosa as LOLT in the university (Baker 1992). This variable is given due consideration in my research, particularly since Rhodes University is a historically English university that attracts both the elite who attended private and former model C schools as well as those who attended former DET schools. This research will explore whether or not these different learning environments have different influences on the relevant attitudes of these students.

Another study dealing with language attitudes is that conducted by Nosilela (2005), who investigated the attitudes of students and parents to learning isiXhosa and using it as LOLT. The study was conducted in various primary and high schools in the Eastern Cape Province. It was obvious from the results that most students and parents have negative attitudes toward studying African languages or using them as LOLT in education. Parents want the teachers to teach in English in the lower primary classes in opposition to the language policy that requires teachers to use African languages in the lower levels and introduce English later. The teachers in the rural and township schools are thus often put under pressure by parents to teach their students in English. Parents also often place their children in former model C schools because they want their children to learn in English.

The above review of language-attitude research dealing with the attitudes of African language speakers reveals generally positive attitudes toward the use of English as LOLT across all levels of education. It is also obvious that a small but sizable number of students would prefer the use of their L1 in education mostly as part of a bilingual arrangement vis-à-vis English. These findings can be attributed to the diglossic situation that exists between English (a high-status language) and the African languages (low-status languages). It will be interesting to find out whether those who supported a bilingual arrangement would prefer a fully-fledged bilingual policy or just a partial use of isiXhosa, such as in using it for the provision of definitions of technical terms or its use in tutorials. This issue is further explored in my study.

2.7 Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to provide the theoretical foundations for the study. The first section examined the relationship that exists between language and society. The theory of language in ethnic-group relations (Giles *et al.* 1977), explored in 2.1, shows why attitudes are formed toward language in society. It looked at how society

is structured, the place of an individual in relation to the society and the related use of language, all of which gives rise to the formation of language attitudes.

The important role of language planning in general and language-in-education in particular was examined in 2.2 as language planning and policy in South African society have been contentious issues and have greatly influenced and been influenced by language attitudes.

Section 2.3 explored the theory of attitudes and language attitudes. Definitions of attitudes from the mentalist and the behaviourist points of view were provided. The classification of attitudes into cognitive, affective and conative components as well as the various views (unicomponential versus multicomponential) regarding these components was discussed. This section also explored the relationship between attitudes and behaviour. Even though attitudes can often be determined by behaviour, the relationship between them is often indirect. The meaning of some other concepts related to attitudes (such as perception, opinion, and belief) and their relationship to attitudes was shown, since a clear understanding of the meaning of these concepts provides a better understanding of the concept of *attitude*.

The fourth section (2.4) looked at attempts made to classify language attitudes. Gardner and Lambert's (1972, cited in Baker 1992) classification (instrumental and integrative attitudes) relates to the motives behind the different types of attitudes that students exhibit toward languages in the second language learning context. Schmied (1991) classifies language attitudes studies into three fields: attitudes toward certain languages, attitudes toward varieties of language and attitudes toward sociolinguistic topics. The third field includes studies dealing with attitudes toward the use of a particular language in a particular domain. The proposed study falls into this field because it examines isiXhosa-speaking students' attitudes toward LOLT issues at Rhodes University.

Finally, the importance of language-attitude research in society and in particular to language-in-education issues was examined. The review of language-attitude research in South Africa indicated that the majority of African language-speaking students have very positive attitudes toward the use of English as LOLT across all levels of education. However, some of them would prefer a bilingual English and African language LOLT policy. My study will examine whether the attitudes at Rhodes University are similar to those reported on in the language-attitude research reviewed above.

The description of the various methods employed in researching language attitudes and the reasons for choosing the methods used in this study are presented in the next chapter.

Chapter 3

Methodology

3.0 Introduction

This chapter reviews the methodologies employed in achieving the objective of this study, namely to examine the attitudes of isiXhosa-speaking students toward LOLT issues at Rhodes University. To this end, a review of the various methods used in researching language attitudes is provided in the first part of this chapter, while the second part provides a description of the actual methods used in the study as well as the justification for selecting them.

3.1 Methods employed in researching language attitudes

Both qualitative and quantitative approaches are employed in social science research. Qualitative research seeks to examine the attributes of an object or occurrence (Schwandt 1997). This form of research employs theory in order to explain the actions of humans in a manner that takes into account the views of the respondents and that of the researcher (Jackson 1995). Analysis from this approach involves interpreting observations (described verbally) in order to provide an in-depth understanding of a situation and to discern the significance of an event or the reasons behind the occurrence of a phenomenon (Babbie & Mouton 2001, Mwanje 2001).

As noted by Bryman (1988), a vital feature of qualitative research is seeing through the eyes of those being studied and interpreting events from their point of view. However, a major weakness of this approach is that it is not very easy to determine the extent to which a researcher can actually present accurate accounts of the respondents' point of view (*ibid.*). Furthermore, qualitative research may not be truly representative of the larger population because researchers in this paradigm often conduct research on a particular situation or a small group of individuals in a specific location, hence the "representativeness of such research is unknowable, so that the generalizability of such findings is unknown" (Bryman 1988:100).

Examples of qualitative research are individual case studies and ethnographic studies. The methods of data collection employed in qualitative research include participant observation, individual interviews, focus group discussions and so on.

In the quantitative approach, observations about human behaviours are described and analysed numerically and statistically (Jackson 1995). Examples of quantitative research identified by Bryman (1988) include surveys, experimental studies, structured observation (in which data from recorded observations are quantified) and content analysis (a situation in which the content of media such as newspapers is subjected to quantitative analysis). Quantitative research data are usually regarded as more reliable because of the systematic methods employed in collecting the data. Quantitative research is usually more representative than qualitative research and findings are often inferable to larger populations, that is they adhere to the principle of representativeness through the use of random selection (*ibid.*). Thus, there is the option of generalising the findings of research conducted in terms of this approach (Bryman 1988). Critics of the quantitative approach believe that the data emanating from quantitative research methods are superficial. For instance, survey research is seen as providing 'surface' level information because of the limited contact with the subjects of the research, such as when mail questionnaires are used to collect the data (*ibid.*).

From this perspective, qualitative research data are regarded as richer and deeper than quantitative equivalents because of the constant contact maintained with the subjects of the research. Such contact enables a researcher to explore a situation in great detail and provide an in-depth account which will shed more light on the subjects' viewpoint on the research issues (Bryman 1988).

A combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches is therefore often encouraged in research, as this increases the validity of the relevant findings of any research (Bryman 1988). A combination of the two approaches leads to greater confidence in the findings of research, as these are obtained using various methods of inquiry (*ibid.*). The application of quantitative *and* qualitative methods presents a "general picture and complete account" of an issue or a situation under investigation (Bryman 1988:140). Such use of different methods of collecting and analysing data is an effective way of revealing relationships and underlying patterns which one method may not easily reveal (*ibid.*). Combining quantitative and qualitative approaches produces more trustworthy research and both approaches are therefore, used in collecting and analysing the data in this study.

With specific reference to the study of language attitudes, Ryan, Giles and Hewstone (1988:1068) organise the various quantitative and qualitative research techniques into three fundamental methods, and these are: "analysis of societal treatment

of language varieties, direct assessment with questionnaires or interviews and indirect assessment" (for example, the matched-guise technique).

3.1.2 Analysis of societal treatment of language varieties

This method involves a content analysis of the treatment that language varieties and their speakers receive in society. The social status and the importance attached to language varieties can be seen from the treatment accorded to them (Ryan *et al.* 1988). The techniques used under this method of analysis do not require the direct elicitation of viewpoints or reactions of respondents. The following are the techniques associated with this method:

- observational, participant-observation and ethnographic studies;
- demographic and census analysis;
- analysis of government and educational language policies;
- analysis of literature, government and business documents, newspapers, and broadcasting media; and
- analysis of prescriptive language books (*ibid*: 1068).

Some of these techniques are qualitative in nature (for example, participant-observation, ethnographic studies, qualitative analysis of documents, books etc.) while others may exhibit qualities of quantitative research, such as structured observation in which the observation is recorded in harmony with a fixed schedule and in terms of which the data is quantified; as well as quantitative analysis of media content and so on (Bryman 1988).

This method of analysis is not employed in this study because the research seeks to elicit direct viewpoints and reactions that will reveal the attitudes of isiXhosa-speaking students toward various LOLT issues at Rhodes University. Since attitudes toward the use of English and isiXhosa in a particular context (education) are dealt with in this study, the direct method of assessing language attitudes is employed. It is evident from the literature on language attitudes that the direct assessment method is one of the most effective methods employed in investigating language attitudes. The following section presents a detailed description of this method.

3.1.3 Direct assessment of language attitudes

In the direct method, informants are required to respond to questionnaire or interview questions designed to seek their opinions and beliefs about a language (Fasold

1984). Some of the techniques used under this method possess the characteristics of qualitative research (for example, open-ended questionnaire responses and interviews analysed by interpreting respondents' viewpoints) while others exhibit the qualities of quantitative research (for example, closed-ended questionnaire responses that are quantified and analysed statistically).

3.1.4 The questionnaire

The questionnaire is a text containing a series of questions aimed at obtaining written information from respondents in a survey (Babbie & Mouton 2001). It is a useful instrument for obtaining information when a researcher intends to "gather a large amount of data at a relatively superficial level and at a relatively low cost" (Irwin 2004:7). In order for the questionnaire to elicit the appropriate responses needed for a survey, careful consideration should be given to the content of questions, the types and sequence of questions, as well as the wording of the questions (Oppenheim 1966). As noted by Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (1996:251), survey questions focus attention on "facts, opinions, attitudes, respondents' motivation, and their level of familiarity" with the topic under investigation. Questions used in surveys can be divided into two groups known as "factual questions and questions about subjective experiences" (*ibid*: 251).

Factual questions are asked to obtain background information about the respondents. Questions eliciting information about gender, age, marital status and the income of respondents are examples of factual questions. They are used to classify respondents or are analysed as variables that may influence attitudes. The next series of questions are those about *subjective experiences* and are often in the form of belief statements. Such questions deal with respondents' beliefs, attitudes, feelings and opinions (*ibid.*). Such questions arouse respondents' attitudes for or against an issue, and help to reveal whether the respondents have favourable or negative attitudes toward an attitude object such as a language.

Another way of categorising questions identified in the literature is that between *closed-ended* and *open-ended questions*. In closed-ended questions, respondents are presented with a series of options; they are required to choose answers that best express their viewpoints. Oppenheim (1966:43) notes that it is "easier and quicker" to answer closed-ended questions as respondents are not required to write their responses. Although this type of question has been criticised for preventing respondents from freely expressing their thoughts spontaneously, the responses are easy to quantify and analyse

statistically (Irwin 2004, Oppenheim 1966). As such, closed-ended questions are commonly used in quantitative survey questionnaires.

Some of the closed-ended question formats identified by Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (1996:258) include the "rating and semantic differential" question formats. These involve various ways of structuring the 'response categories' of closed-ended questions (*ibid*:257). The rating scale is the most popular question format used in surveys for social science research and this is employed when respondents are required to "make a judgment in terms of sets of ordered categories", an example of this being: *strongly agree, agree, not sure, disagree* and *strongly disagree* (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias 1996:258). The response categories of questions are thus quantifiers (for example, *strongly agree*) which reflect the intensity of the specific judgement involved (*ibid.*). Several rating scales have been identified by Agheyisi and Fishman (1970). Some require a yes/no response, others require respondents to choose from a 5-point scale (such as the Likert scale that measures agreement ranging from *strongly agree* to *strongly disagree*) or a 7-point scale (for example, a semantic differential scale, which is a bipolar scale containing contrasting adjectives at each end). The numbers that accompany the response categories signify the intensity of the response (*ibid.*).

Open-ended questions do not have answer options attached to them; hence respondents are allowed to express their thoughts freely. Respondents express their ideas in their own words and do so spontaneously. Open-ended questions enable respondents to reveal some attitudes that the researcher may not have expected (Agheyisi & Fishman 1970). One of the disadvantages of open-ended questions is that respondents may deviate from a question and may thus provide answers that are not useful to a researcher (*ibid.*). Moreover, respondents may not provide detailed enough answers because of the time and effort required to write down the answers (*ibid.*). As noted by Oppenheim (1966) it is difficult to answer and analyse open-ended questions. Such questions are more successfully used in interviews than in questionnaires because it is easier for respondents to talk at length in an interview than to write their views in questionnaires (Agheyisi & Fishman 1970).

Sequence of questions: The sequence or order in which the questions are placed in the questionnaire is vital because it may affect the responses provided. Two types of question sequences that motivate respondents to provide the required responses are the "funnel sequence and the inverted funnel sequence" (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias 1996:258). As noted by Oppenheim (1966), the funnel approach starts with very broad

questions and gradually narrows down the scope of the questions until they become very specific. To this end, every successive question has a relationship with the previous one. The advantage of this approach is that it enables respondents to remember and supply detailed information more effectively which is very important in a survey that seeks to obtain detailed information from the respondents (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias 1996). By contrast, the inverted funnel approach starts with narrow questions and then moves to broader ones. This approach is recommended in situations in which the respondents are not motivated to communicate due to their lack of interest in or unfamiliarity with the topic (*ibid.*). In such situations, it is advisable to start with narrow, easier questions and progress to broader and more difficult questions (*ibid.*).

Question wording: Short, simple and clear words are encouraged in question wording, so that the respondents can understand the meaning of the questions and provide appropriate answers (Oppenheim 1966). Questions should not be too vague; they should be worded in a manner that encourages specific answers. In order to avoid bias in question wording, double-barrelled questions, leading questions and threatening or embarrassing questions should be avoided. Double-barrelled questions refer to questions that combine two or more questions in one (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias 1996). It is suggested that a question should deal with only one point so as to avoid confusing the respondents (Frazer & Lawley 2000). Leading questions are questions which are worded so that the answers are suggested to the respondents. This naturally could bias the responses. As noted by Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias (1996), the responses to embarrassing questions are often biased because respondents may deny or under-report a behaviour that seems embarrassing to them.

It is suggested that pilot work be carried out after the construction of a questionnaire and before the actual survey takes place. The information derived from the responses in the pilot study helps to find more appropriate wording for questions for the main study. This is especially important when questions are borrowed from other surveys, since the results from the pilot study enable a researcher to adapt the questions to suit his/her respondents (Oppenheim 1966).

3.1.5 Interviews

In interviews, respondents are required to provide oral responses to open-ended questions directed to them by the researcher. This could be in the form of a face-to-face encounter or over the telephone. The various structures of interviews identified in the

literature are: "formal or structured, semi-structured or focused, and unstructured or non-directive" interviews (Berg 1998:60). The *structured interview* is guided by an interview schedule to which the interviewer is expected to strictly adhere. The questions are not to be reworded by the interviewer and they should be asked in the sequence in which they appear in the interview schedule (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias 1996). This is done so that the questions have the same meaning for each respondent and so that if there are differences in the responses these can be attributed to individual differences among the respondents (*ibid.*).

Semi-structured or focused interviews are also guided by a schedule containing interview questions. The interviewer is, however, permitted to reword the questions or to ask other questions which are not in the schedule in order to clarify issues or obtain more information (Berg 1998). This kind of interview is characterised by the following:

- it takes place with respondents known to have been involved in a particular experience;
- it refers to situations that have been analysed prior to the interview;
- it proceeds on the basis of an interview guide specifying topics related to the research hypothesis; and
- it is focused on the subjects' experiences regarding the situation under study (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias 1996:234).

The respondents in semi-structured interviews are given the freedom to express their views on a topic, despite the fact that it is structured and guided by an interview schedule. This form of interview provides the interviewer with an opportunity to experience the "personal reactions and specific emotions" of respondents (*ibid*: 235).

The *unstructured interview* is a flexible interview situation. The interviewer does not use a schedule to ask questions because there is no prepared set of questions to guide the discussion. In this form of interview, the respondents are persuaded to relate their experiences and describe any event that they feel is important relating to the topic of discussion as well as to freely express their opinions and attitudes as they deem fit (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias 1996). In order for the interviewer to obtain detailed information to meet the objective of the study, 'probing' is employed to motivate the respondents to provide reasons for any views they hold as well as to focus the discussion on the particular topic of the interview (*ibid*:241).

According to David and Sutton (2004), qualitative research is often characterised by the use of semi-structured and unstructured interviews. Moreover, an interview can be held with an individual (individual interview) or a group of people (focus group interview). An *individual interview* is a 'one-to-one' encounter between the interviewer and interviewee (David & Sutton 2004:87). The interviewer has more control over an individual interview interaction and collects more orderly data than in a group interview (Morgan 1988). Furthermore, some interviewees may be more honest and feel more comfortable in expressing their opinions on some sensitive topics in private with an interviewer than in a group setting (Morgan 1988). According to Berg (1998:104), a researcher obtains "more detailed content information" in individual interviews than focus group interviews. On the other hand, individual interviews do not provide the opportunity for observing interaction which often supplies interesting details about the different experiences, opinions and attitudes of the respondents. Such detail is often obtained in focus group interviews (*ibid.*).

The focus group interview encourages debate and discussion among the respondents in relation to a specific topic (Mwanje 2001). As noted by Patton (1990:335) it is an interview situation with a 'small group of people' who freely engage in a discussion on a given topic. The interaction that takes place during a group interview may lead to respondents producing spontaneous responses which may be prompted by the responses of other participants in the group (Morgan 1988). Focus group discussion usually takes place among six to twelve respondents selected by a researcher. The discussion may be moderated by a researcher or a trained group leader who initiates the topic for discussion (De Vos 1998, Neuman 2000). The moderator is expected to be flexible, to ensure that the respondents do not deviate from the topic and to motivate all of them to participate equally (Neuman 2000). Focus group interviews provide respondents with the opportunity to examine their own viewpoints in the context of the viewpoints of their peers (Patton 1990). The relevance of the focus group interview is further highlighted by Terre-Blanche & Durrheim (1999: 304):

> In interviewing an individual we develop an understanding of subjective
> experience, when we work with groups we can gain access to
> intersubjective experience … experience that is shared by a community of
> people. In accessing intersubjective experience through interviewing, we
> also gain access to understanding differences between people whom we

might previously have thought of as an homogeneous group – in other words, the ways in which they do not share a common base of experience.

Hence, this technique often generates rich and deep qualitative data. One of the weaknesses of the focus group interview, however, is that some respondents may dominate others. Therefore, it is better that people of similar backgrounds be brought together in order to allow for equal participation in focus group discussions.

3.1.6 Indirect assessment of language attitudes

In this approach respondents do not know that their language attitudes are being examined (Fasold 1984). The Matched-Guised Technique (MGT) is a popular example of indirect assessment of language attitudes. According to Fasold (1984), in the MGT, bilinguals are asked to read passages in two languages (for example, English and Afrikaans) and they are tape-recorded as they do so. The tape-recorded readings are arranged in a manner that the identity of the speakers would not be easily identified by listeners. The listeners who serve as judges are usually bilinguals from the same speech community as the speakers. These judges evaluate the speakers' "intelligence, dependability, self-confidence, social class, general likeability" etc. based on the recorded passages (Lambert, Hodgson, Gardner, & Fillenbaum 1960:44). Very often the one guise (for example English) of a speaker generates different evaluations than the other guise (for example isiXhosa) of the same speaker.

This method has been criticised for not adequately revealing the attitudes of the informants; rather it stirs up "intergroup stereotypes" (Edwards 1994, Smit 1996:47). According to Agheyisi and Fishman (1970:146), the MGT is used to "measure group evaluation reactions to particular languages or varieties and their representative speakers". This current study is not focusing on eliciting the attitudes of isiXhosa-speaking students toward isiXhosa and English as a whole or toward their speakers, but toward the use of these languages in a particular context. Therefore, this method is not employed in this research. Rather, the direct method (questionnaire and interviews) which enables respondents to express their conscious attitudes toward particular issues is used to achieve the goals of this research.

3.2 Application of methodologies

This section describes how some of the methodologies discussed in the first part of this chapter have been applied in this study, and also provides justification for using them.

Both quantitative and qualitative approaches were used in gathering and analysing the data as the combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches increases the validity of the findings of any research (Bryman 1988). The data was gathered as a result of a survey that employed a questionnaire and interviews (semi-structured individual and focus group interviews) in order to obtain attitudes that the respondents express consciously.

3.2.1 Quantitative methods (questionnaire)

The questionnaire (see Appendix 1) used in this study was modelled on those used for language-attitude studies conducted at secondary schools (Barkhuizen 2001) and tertiary institutions (Dyers 1999, Bekker 2002, Dalvit 2004) in South Africa (cf. 2.6.2 and 3.1.4). Moreover, I developed some questions based on the information contained in Rhodes University's language policy relating to the advancement of "the academic viability and status of isiXhosa" (Rhodes University 2005:2). The first section of the questionnaire contains factual questions aimed at obtaining background information about the respondents (cf. 3.1.4). The questions in this section attempt to seek information about age, gender, the category of previous school attended, year of study, courses studied and the faculties that the respondents belong to. The information obtained from the factual questions was used to classify the respondents. They were also analysed as variables that may influence language attitudes. These variables were chosen because they have been identified in the literature as factors which often influence language attitudes (cf. 2.3.3). As mentioned in section 1.2, it is one of the goals of this research to explore how these variables influence the attitudes of isiXhosa-speaking students at Rhodes University toward LOLT issues.

The other sections of the questionnaire mostly contain belief statements designed to elicit the attitudes or subjective experiences of the respondents (Oppenheim 1966, Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias 1996). The belief statements in these sections consist of closed-ended Likert scale and multiple-choice items. Closed-ended "questions" have been chosen for the questionnaire because it is easier for respondents to answer them and the responses are easy to quantify and analyse statistically (Irwin 2004, Oppenheim 1966,

cf. 3.1.4). The use of this method also enables a researcher to gather representative quantitative data.

The funnel sequence of questions (cf. 3.1.4) is used in this survey's questionnaire and interview schedule. This approach is chosen because of its advantage of helping the respondents to remember and provide detailed information. Another reason for the choice of the funnel sequence of questions is that the LOLT issues referred to by the questions are common topics for debate in South Africa, and thus students are familiar with the topics and likely to be interested in them.

The questionnaire was translated into isiXhosa by a Master's student (who handles translation work) in the isiXhosa language department at Rhodes University and some corrections were made to it by a part-time lecturer in the department. This translation was included in order to provide the respondents with an opportunity to use the language of their choice.

After the construction of the questionnaire, it was pilot-tested on a small group of students. The pilot study was conducted in August 2006 on a group of thirteen students from the Extended Studies Programme[14] at Rhodes University. These students were mother-tongue speakers of isiXhosa; they were all in their first year of study in the Faculty of Humanities. A group of students from the Extended Studies Programme was chosen for the pilot study because the majority of them were from formerly disadvantaged schools with comparatively low English academic literacy. Hence, it was deemed important to ascertain if they understood the relevant questions before conducting the actual survey since if they did, then it was highly likely that the broader student population would too.

The questionnaire (written in English and isiXhosa) was administered to the isiXhosa-speaking students in a language classroom and they used the first fifteen minutes of the period to fill in the questionnaire. The two versions of the questionnaire were presented to the students and they were encouraged to choose the language that they were more comfortable with. Seven students (five males and two females) filled in the English version of the questionnaire while six of them (four females and two males) filled in the isiXhosa version. The students indicated that they understood the questions except

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[14] The Extended Studies Programmes are extended curriculum programmes (4 years for a degree) designed to help South African second language speakers of English who have the potential to be successful at university but may not meet the requirements for entrance into their preferred faculties (Extended Studies Unit 2006).

for two of the initial factual questions. These questions were reworded for the main survey.

Five hundred questionnaires (written in English and isiXhosa) were administered to isiXhosa-speaking students (who number 715 according to Rhodes 2006 data) in all the faculties at Rhodes University toward the end of September and October 2006. Five hundred questionnaires were distributed in order to reach many students, increase the response rate and guarantee representivity. In order to ensure that the respondents were given adequate opportunity to use the language of their choice, 250 of the questionnaires had the English version first followed by the isiXhosa translation, while the remaining 250 had the isiXhosa version first followed by the English. Furthermore, each of the questionnaires had a cover page which contained an introduction (written in both English and isiXhosa) explaining the purpose of the research and the page numbers of each version of the questionnaire. Hence, the introduction clearly directed the respondents to the pages of the questionnaire where they could find either the English or the isiXhosa version. These questionnaires were handed out randomly to students.

Before the distribution of the questionnaire commenced, requests were made to some Deans, Heads of Department and coordinators of programmes for permission to administer the questionnaire to their students and all the requests were granted. The questionnaire was administered across all fields of study and across all levels of study to make the study as representative as possible.

Most of the questionnaires were administered to isiXhosa-speaking students in classrooms and tutorials by the tutors or students. Furthermore, I personally administered some of the questionnaires to students in classrooms where the lecturers allowed me to do so, either before or after lectures. Some of the lecturers even allowed me to use the first fifteen minutes of their lecture time to administer the questionnaire and collect the filled in copies. I had a 100% return or response rate in such classrooms and about 40 – 60% in classrooms where the questionnaires were administered to students after lectures, as some of the students left without filling in the questionnaire or they promised to bring it to the next lecture but failed to do so. In one of the faculties, tutors were used to distribute the questionnaire to students in tutorials and the response rate was very low. As a result, I elicited the help of students in various levels of that faculty to assist in distributing the questionnaire to their classmates. This helped to increase the response rate from that faculty.

According to Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (1996), one of the methods of increasing a response rate is by following up on respondents through phone calls or emails. A series of phone calls were thus made and emails were sent to remind particular respondents as well as tutors and students who assisted me in the distribution of the questionnaire. This increased the response rate as well. At the end of the survey, 268 questionnaires had been filled in and returned, 53% of the original number (500) distributed. This represents 37% of the isiXhosa-speaking student population at Rhodes University in 2006. As noted by Babbie (1989), a 50% response rate is a satisfactory one.

The questionnaire was analysed using percentage scores, mean values and the Chi-square test, which helped to provide insight into the attitudes of the subjects as well as the links between these attitudes and the various variables mentioned earlier (cf. 2.3.3), the Chi-square test being used to determine whether the differences between mean values were significant (Startup & Whittaker 1982). In order to determine whether the observed differences in the Chi-square test results were significant or not, the standard method used in most social sciences was employed in this regard. Results in which the probability values (p) were ≤ 0.05 were regarded as borderline statistically significant, those with probability values of ≤ 0.01 level were viewed as significant, while the results that had probability values of ≤ 0.005 or ≤ 0.001 were regarded as highly statistically significant (Statsoft 2007). Appendix 3 presents details of the Chi-square test results, including percentages of row counts, Chi-square values, degrees of freedom (DF) and probability values (P-values).

3.2.2 Qualitative methods (interviews)

The analysis of the questionnaire survey results was followed by recorded semi-structured in-depth individual interviews and focus group interviews. The semi-structured interview was used in this study because of the structure and flexibility involved in this form of interview. It also yields in-depth data.

The individual interviews involved 20 respondents while the focus group interviews involved two groups of eight and four students each. The focus group interviews involved students who had a similar schooling background in order to encourage equal participation. The first group comprised eight students from formerly disadvantaged DET schools while the second group was made up of four students from previously advantaged Model C schools. Each of the groups had a balanced representation of male and female respondents and respondents were from different age

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groups, faculties and levels of study. The respondents who participated in the individual and focus group interviews were randomly chosen (according to the variables – age, gender, schooling background, level of study and faculty) from among those who had indicated their willingness (in the questionnaires) to partake in a follow-up interview.

The respondents were given appropriate information about the usefulness of the research before the interviews. This was done in order to motivate them to participate fully in the interviews (Terre-Blanche, Durrheim & Painter 2006, Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias 1996). The open-ended questions (see Appendix 2) that were used during this stage enabled the students to freely express their own beliefs and attitudes toward the LOLT issues.

The interview questions were pilot-tested on five Extended Studies students who filled in the pilot study questionnaire and volunteered to participate in the follow-up interviews. An individual and a focus group interview were conducted. The first interview was an individual interview held with a female respondent while the second interview was a focus group interview held with 4 male students. Female respondents were contacted for a pilot group interview but failed to make the appointment. After the pilot interviews were conducted and analysed some of the questions were reworded and additional ones were added to the interview schedule.

An interview schedule containing 13 open-ended questions was used for the main research and the schedule was adhered to. However, some questions were reworded during the interviews (such as questions 7, 10 and 13) in order to provide a clearer understanding of some of the terms used in those questions. This was done especially for some respondents hailing from former DET schools who did not understand some of the questions completely. The isiXhosa-related and English-related interview questions were alternated in the schedule so that the answer to one question had as little influence as possible on the next one (see Appendix 2).

Furthermore, some additional questions were used to prompt some of the respondents to elaborate on their answers or to clarify some issues. Some of the interviews were held in the respondents' rooms while others were held in a quiet part of the library basement at Rhodes University. The interviewees were asked to choose locations where they would want the interviews to be held and the above-mentioned places were chosen on this basis. This was done so that the interviews could be conducted in "an informal and relaxed atmosphere" (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias 1996:240).

The majority of the interviewees expressed themselves freely because they saw me as a black person who was interested in research concerning the development of an African language. During the interview I tried to maintain 'rapport' (*ibid*: 240) with the interviewees. For instance, some of the respondents from formerly disadvantaged schools who would like the use of isiXhosa as LOLT at Rhodes University bitterly expressed the difficulties and frustration they experience in using only English as LOLT at Rhodes. I tried to assure them that they were not alone in this as most second language speakers of English from disadvantaged backgrounds also experience such difficulties in using it as LOLT and that I understood their frustration as a second language speaker of English too. I believe that this rapport encouraged many of them to freely express their thoughts on the issue.

During the focus group interviews some rules for focus group participants were adhered to:

- only one person should speak at a time;
- allow others to speak; and
- respect the right of others to express the views that are not yours (David & Sutton 2004:97).

The participants were told to speak in turns so that they could all have equal participation. However, three of the participants (two females and one male) in the DET group tried to dominate the discussion and would sometimes deviate from the topic, so efforts were made to bring them back to the topics as well as to tactfully appeal to them to allow others to speak. The individual interviews and focus group discussions supplied important qualitative data on students' attitudes which the questionnaires did not fully reveal (Irwin 2004). This issue is discussed in detail in the summary and interpretation of findings presented in chapter 4.

Qualitative methods were used to analyse the data from the personal interviews and focus group discussions. Summaries of the interviews were constructed and the general themes in the data were also classified (David & Sutton 2004). Moreover, interpretations of the beliefs and attitudes expressed in the personal and group interviews were provided and an attempt was made to find coherent patterns in the data. This provided support for some trends in the quantitative data.

A questionnaire, individual and focus group interviews were used in this study in order to obtain in-depth information on the kind of attitudes that isiXhosa-speaking students hold toward various LOLT issues at Rhodes University as well as to provide adequate opportunity for the triangulation of the data and to increase the validity of the findings of the research (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias 1996).

3.3 Summary

This chapter has explored the methodology employed in achieving the objective of the study, namely to examine the attitudes of isiXhosa-speaking students toward the various LOLT issues at Rhodes University. The first part of the chapter (3.1) reviews the various methods employed in quantitative and qualitative research as well as the strength and weaknesses of the quantitative and the qualitative approaches. The benefits associated with the combination of both approaches in research are also highlighted in this part of the chapter.

The second section (3.2) provides the reasons for the selection of the quantitative method (questionnaire) and qualitative method (interviews) used in the study and further discusses how these methods were applied to achieve the goals of the research.

In the next chapter, I present the summary and interpretation of the results of the study.

Chapter 4

Summary and interpretation of results

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents a synopsis of an interpretation of the results of the questionnaire responses and the interviews conducted in the research. Data relating to the factual questions (see Appendix 1) and other background information of the respondents are provided in the first part of the chapter (4.1). A detailed though selective analysis of the main questionnaire and interview responses is dealt with in the second part (4.2), while the last part (4.3) focuses specifically on the impact of various variables on the reported language attitudes (cf. 2.4). At various places a comparison of the results of this study with those of others conducted at South African universities is provided.

4.1 Factual and background information

This section presents an analysis of the responses to the factual questions contained in the questionnaire as well as related background information.

4.1.1 The questionnaire respondents

Two hundred and sixty-eight questionnaires (53%) of the original 500 were filled in and returned (cf. 3.2.1). As indicated in Figure 2 below, 23% of the students filled in the isiXhosa version of the questionnaire while 77% filled in the English version. This indicates that the majority of the students were more comfortable with English than isiXhosa, at least in the context of filling out a questionnaire.

Figure 2: Language of questionnaire filled in by students
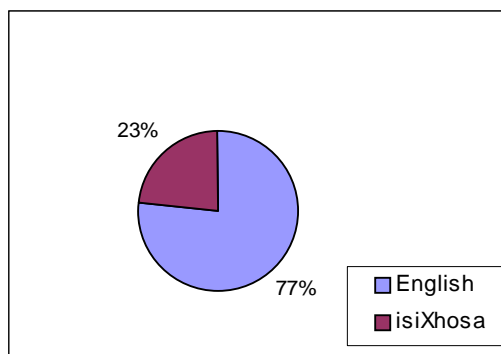
As indicated in Figure 3 below, 54% of the respondents were between 17 and 20 years old, 23% were between 21 and 25 years old and those who were 26 years and older constituted the other 23% of the population.

Figure 3: Age categories of the respondents
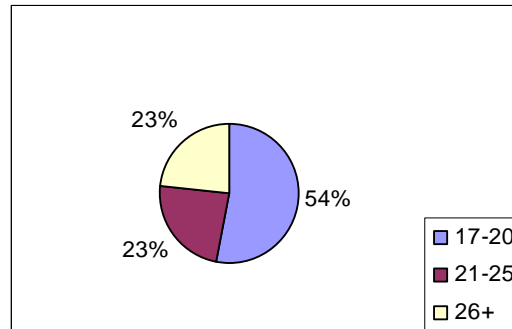
The male respondents in the survey comprised 40% of the total while the females constituted 60% (see Figure 4 below). These percentages are representative of the real proportions of gender at Rhodes University. The university's data for 2006 revealed that the number of isiXhosa-speaking male students was 291 (40% of the student population), while female students numbered 424 (60% of the student population).

Figure 4: Gender
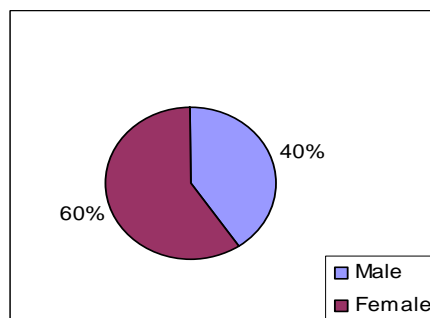
The majority of the respondents (74%) had attended former Department of Education and Training (DET) schools before coming to Rhodes University, 21% had been to former Model C schools (cf. 1.2), 4% had attended Private schools while only 1% had been to former House of Representatives schools (HOR). There were no respondents from former House of Delegates schools[15]. Private and Model C schools are conflated in future analysis into one category: previously advantaged schools (PA). The responses of the students who went to former HOR schools were similar to those of Private and Model

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[15] Schools built for Indian learners during the apartheid era.

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C schools and have thus also been included in the PA group. Figure 5 below shows the proportion of respondents from these schools.

Figure 5: Schooling background
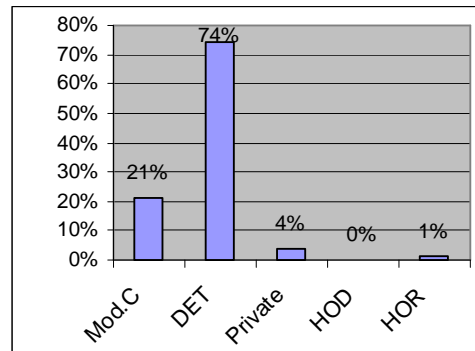
Most of the students (64%) came into early contact (pre-school and lower primary school) with English as LOLT, 22% at preschool and 42% at lower primary school (grades 1–3). Twenty-two percent (22%) claimed that they started using English as LOLT at higher primary school (grades 4–7), 11% started using English as LOLT at high school while 3% came into contact with English as LOLT at Rhodes University. These various levels of education are abbreviated as follows in Figure 6 below: pre-school (PRESCH), lower primary school (LPSCH), higher primary school (HPSCH), high school (HSCH) and Rhodes University (RU).

Figure 6: First contact with English as LOLT
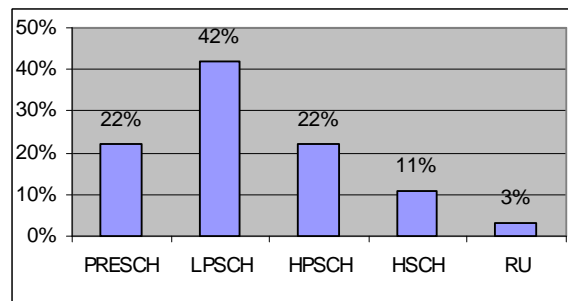
More females (69%) came into early contact with English than males (51%). Moreover, more of the Private and former Model C school (these schools are previously advantaged) respondents (85%) started using English early in their education than the respondents from former DET schools (53%). Forty-seven percent (47%) of former DET respondents came into late contact with English i.e. in higher primary school and high school. The younger students started using English earlier than the older students; 66% of

the younger students (17–20 year old), 59% of those in the 21 to 25 age category and 53% of those 26 years and older claimed that they came into early contact with English.

As far as the level of study of the respondents was concerned, 47% of the students were in their first year, 25% in their second year, while 16% were third year students. The postgraduate students (Honours, Masters and PhD) constituted 12% of the respondents. Again, these proportions are close reflections of the distribution of isiXhosa-speaking students across the various levels of study at Rhodes University: the highest proportion of isiXhosa-speaking students was in first year, followed by second year, third year and postgraduate respectively. In Figure 7 below, the various levels of study are represented as: year 1 (YR1), year 2 (YR2), year 3 (YR3), Honours (HON), Masters (MA/MSc) and doctoral studies as PhD.

Figure 7: Level of study
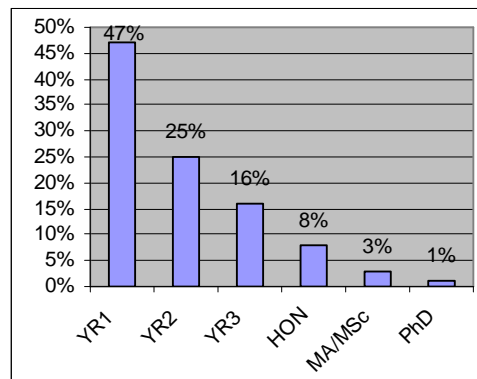
The respondents were from all six faculties at Rhodes University. The graph below (Figure 8) shows the percentage distribution of respondents across faculties.

Figure 8: Faculties of respondents
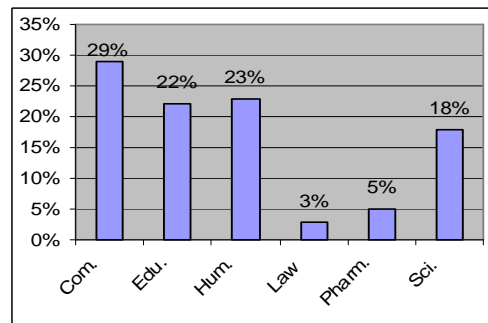
Rhodes University data showed that 30% of isiXhosa-speaking students were in the Commerce (Com.) faculty, while 26% were in Education (Edu.). Humanities (Hum.) had 24% of isiXhosa-speaking students, 1% of those students were in the Law faculty,

4% belonged to the faculty of Pharmacy (Pharm.), while the Science (Sci.) faculty had 12% of the isiXhosa-speaking students. Hence, it is obvious that the data for this research closely matched the actual distribution of isiXhosa-speaking students across faculties at Rhodes University. On the whole, it is obvious that the sample is a fairly representative one. The abbreviated forms of these faculties are used in the graph above.

4.1.2 The interview respondents

Thirty-two respondents from both previously advantaged schools (Model C and Private schools) and historically disadvantaged schools (former DET), various faculties, levels of study, genders and different age groups participated in the semi-structured individual and focus group follow-up interviews (cf. 3.2.2). Twenty interviewees participated in the individual interviews, while twelve respondents took part in the focus group interviews. The respondents who participated in the individual and focus group interviews were randomly chosen from among those who had indicated their willingness (in the questionnaire) to partake in a follow-up interview.

As indicated in 3.2.2, focus group interviews were held with two groups of respondents. The first of these was conducted with eight interviewees (four males and four females) from former DET schools and the second interview was done with four respondents (two males and two females) from former Model C schools.

Age categories of the interviewees: Eighteen of the interviewees were between 17-20 years old, nine of them belonged to the 21–25 years age group, while five of the interviewees were 26 years and above. This is similar to the age distribution of the respondents of the questionnaire (see section 4.1.1).

Gender: Fifteen males and seventeen females took part in the interviews.

Schooling background: Twelve of the students were from previously advantaged (PA) schools, while twenty came from former DET schools. The interviewees from PA schools were from an English only LOLT environment and they had come into early contact with English (pre-school and lower primary school). On the other hand, former DET students came mostly from a bilingual (English and isiXhosa) LOLT learning environment. Some of them came into contact with English as LOLT in lower primary school, while others started using English in higher primary school.

Level of study: Eleven first year students participated in the interviews, nine were in second year, third year students were four, while eight of the interviewees were postgraduate students.

Faculty: Interviewees came from the six faculties and the following provides the distribution of these students: Commerce – 5, Education – 2, Humanities – 8, Law – 4, Pharmacy – 3 and Science – 10.

These interviewees were motivated to come to Rhodes University because of the university's high standard of education, the peacefulness of Grahamstown as opposed to the fast pace of life in bigger cities (for example, Johannesburg), the good sporting facilities at Rhodes University and the proximity of the university to some of the students. The names of the interviewees have not been used, as some of them indicated a wish to remain anonymous.

4.2. Summary and interpretation of the main results

The analysis and discussion of the main questionnaire and interview results are dealt with in this section. Following Dyers (1999) and Dalvit (2004), these questions were analysed according to various topics. Section 4.2.1 examines the students' assessment of their competencies in isiXhosa and English. Sections 4.2.2 to 4.2.5 explore the students' attitudes toward the use of English and isiXhosa in education, while section 4.3 focuses specifically on the various variables (age, gender, schooling background, level of study and field of study) and their influence on the language attitudes.

Questionnaire analysis: The questionnaire consists of 29 belief statements or questions, 17 of which are Likert scale and 12 of which are in multiple-choice format (see Appendix 1). The overall attitudes of the students were analysed using simple percentage scores for the various response categories, while the role of the various variables was analysed using the mean values of the different sub-populations (for example, male versus female) and in many cases a Chi-square test, which was used to determine whether the differences between the means were significant (cf. 3.2.1). Chi-square tests were performed for questions 1–20 where the students were allowed to choose one option. However, this was not done for questions 21–29 because the respondents were allowed to choose more than one option in these questions. Each option was considered as a question by the software programme used to conduct the significance tests and this meant that about 45 items would need to be analysed for these five variables, instead of just 9. Only percentages were thus used for the analysis of questions 21–29.

Analysis of interviews: As noted in chapter 3 (section 3.2.2), an interview schedule containing 13 open-ended questions was used for the research and the schedule was adhered to (see Appendix 2). However, some questions were reworded during the

interviews (such as questions 7, 10 and 13) to enable a clearer understanding of some terms used in those questions. Qualitative methods were used to analyse the data from the individual and focus group interviews (cf. 3.2.2). Summaries and interpretations of the beliefs and attitudes expressed in the interviews were provided and an attempt was made to find coherent patterns in the data. This provided support for some trends in the quantitative data.

Questions 1–5 of the interview schedule are factual questions asked to obtain background information about the interviewees and they have been dealt with in section 4.1.2 above. The next section presents an analysis of respondents' assessment of their language competencies using data from both the questionnaire survey and interviews.

4.2.1 Assessment of language competence

This section of the results provides an analysis of students' self-assessments of their proficiency in isiXhosa and English in both the questionnaire and interview responses. The summary and interpretations of responses to questionnaire belief statements 1 and 2 (Likert scale, see Appendix 1 for the questionnaire) and interview questions 8 and 9 (see Appendix 2 for the schedule of interview questions) are presented here.

The response categories of the Likert-scale belief statements were *strongly agree, agree, not sure, disagree* and *strongly disagree* and have been abbreviated to *SA, A, NS, D* and *SD* in the graphs below. Where applicable, *strongly agree* and *agree* have been 'grouped together' (as for example, in Dyers 1999:77) in the analysis to indicate a positive attitude toward a belief statement, while *disagree* and *strongly disagree* have been grouped together to indicate a negative attitude. Often the total percentage responses (i.e. the number of responses in each response category) do not add up to 100% because of the rounding up of figures.

Although an initial overview graph for each belief statement is always included, only graphs of demographic variables with the most *significant* Chi-square test results are provided. The graphs of demographic variables do not have actual percentage scores because the inclusion of these percentages made the graphs to appear untidy. As noted in 3.2.1, results in which the probability values (p) were less than or equal to 0.05 are regarded as borderline statistically significant, those with probability values of ≤ 0.01 were viewed as significant, while the results that had probability values of ≤ 0.005 were

regarded as highly statistically significant (Statsoft 2007). The full Chi-square test results for belief statements 1–20 are provided in Appendix 3.

Belief statement 1: *My isiXhosa is good enough to study in at university.*

Figure 9.1: Overview
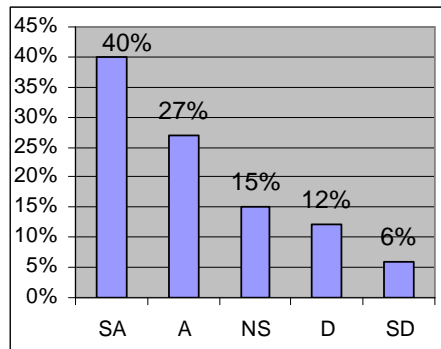
Figure 9.2: Age
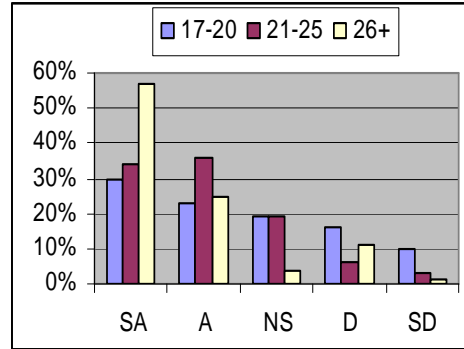
The majority of the students (67%) positively evaluated their proficiency in isiXhosa which indicated that they had high levels of confidence in using isiXhosa as LOLT at the university. Fifteen percent (15%) of them were not sure about their level of proficiency, while 18% negatively evaluated their proficiency in isiXhosa (see Figure 9.1 above).

The older students were more confident about their competence in the use of isiXhosa at the university level than the younger students. The relevant Chi-square test reveals highly statistically significant ($p = 0.000$) differences in the responses of the different age groups. The most obvious difference is seen in the *strongly agree* response category (see Figure 9.2 above and Appendix 3). Fifty-seven percent (57%) of 26+ respondents were very positive about their proficiency in isiXhosa as opposed to 35% of 21–25 year olds and 31% of 17–20 years respondents. The youngest group of respondents (17–20 years) had the highest proportion of students who were not very confident about their level of competence in isiXhosa.

Unsurprisingly, the analysis at various levels of study reveals results similar to that of the age categories above. The respondents at the higher levels of study were more positive in the assessment of their competence in the use of isiXhosa than those at the lower levels of study. The differences between the responses of the different levels are very significant ($p = 0.002$).

The respondents from former DET Schools seemed to be more confident than those from PA schools in their use of isiXhosa as LOLT. The Chi-square test shows that

the differences between the responses of the DET and PA respondents are very significant (p = 0.004). Seventy percent (70%) of former DET respondents positively evaluated themselves, while 53% of the PA students did so. Furthermore, 30% of PA students felt that they were not proficient in isiXhosa, while only 15% of the former DET respondents felt this way (see Appendix 3 – Chi-square results).

The males were more confident than the females; 73% of the males as opposed to 59% of the females were confident about their proficiency in the use of isiXhosa in education, while 14% of males and 23% of females were not confident. The differences between the male and female responses are marginally significant (p = 0.050).

At faculty level, most of the respondents evaluated themselves positively. Pharmacy, Education and Law respondents were more positive about their level of isiXhosa proficiency than respondents from other faculties. However, the Chi-square test result reveals that the differences in the responses of the various faculties are not significant (p = 0.188). Reasons for the observed differences across the various variables are provided in 4.3.

Belief statement 2: *My English is good enough to cope with university studies.*

The majority (92%) of the students were confident about their English language competence (see Figure 10.1 below). Again the differences between the responses of DET and PA respondents are highly significant (p = 0.000). It is worth noting here that 75% of the PA respondents strongly agreed that their English is good enough to cope with university studies as opposed to 32% of the DET students who strongly agreed with this statement (see Figure 10.2 below).

Figure 10.1: Overview
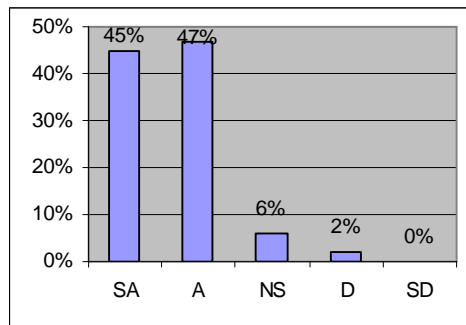
Figure 10.2: Schooling background
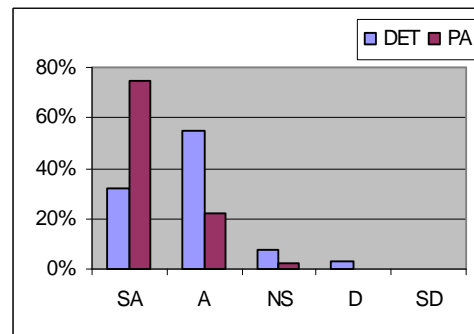
This shows that the PA respondents who came from an only English LOLT environment were very confident about their proficiency in English. The majority of the students across the different levels of study positively evaluated their English language

competence. As shown by the Chi-square test result ($p = 0.002$), a highly significant difference exists across the various levels of study. These can be seen in the *strongly agree* and *agree* response categories. Forty percent (40%) of first year respondents, 44% of second years, 61% of third years and 41% of postgraduate students strongly agreed that their English is good enough to cope with university studies, while 50% of first year students, 49% of second years, 30% of third years and 51% of postgraduate respondents agreed with this idea. This result shows that the third year students were more confident about their level of proficiency in English than other levels. Dyers' (1999) study conducted on first and second year isiXhosa-speaking students at the University of the Western Cape reveals that the second year students were a bit more positive about their English competence than the first year students, which partly confirms the findings of this current study.

The differences in the responses of male and female respondents are not significant ($p = 0.128$) with regard to this question. With respect to the age variable, there was a generally positive assessment of English proficiency across the various groups. The younger generation of students were slightly more confident about their English proficiency than the older generation who, as seen in question 1, evaluated their isiXhosa proficiency more positively than the younger students. However, the observed differences are not significant ($p = 0.129$).

A similar positive assessment is seen in the students' responses across the various faculties. The Law faculty had the lowest proportion of respondents who positively evaluated their competence and the highest proportion of respondents who were not sure about their level of English language competence. On the other hand, Humanities, Commerce, and Pharmacy had a high proportion of students who strongly agreed that their English language is good enough to cope with university studies. The differences observed are however not significant ($p = 0.099$).

In what follows I present summaries of responses to interview questions 8 and 9 both dealing with assessment of English competence.

Interview question 8: *Do you think that your English is good enough to cope with university studies?*

The interviewees from previously advantaged (PA) schools were more confident about their level of proficiency in English than students from formerly disadvantaged

DET schools. The PA respondents felt that they were coping well with the use of English as LOLT at Rhodes University because that is what they have been used to over the years. On the other hand, the former DET students were not very confident about their proficiency level in English because of the bilingual isiXhosa/English environment they came from. Some of these students noted that the teachers in their previous schools used a lot of isiXhosa and little English in their teaching. Therefore, when they came to Rhodes University they struggled to cope with using only English as LOLT. These interviewees said that they had to work very hard to improve their English in order to meet the required high standard of English language usage at Rhodes University.

Analysis of students' responses here for schooling background and across other variables (age, gender, level of study and faculty) reveals a pattern of responses similar to what is obtained for belief statement 2 in the questionnaire (see belief statement 2 above).

Interview question 9: *Has your English improved since you came to Rhodes?*

The interviewees' responses to this question were positive. They claimed that they had improved their writing skills and had acquired more vocabulary. The DET respondents said that they had improved their English through a lot of hard work. They felt that the multilingual nature of Rhodes University had given them the opportunity to communicate in English with people from other language groups, which had helped them to improve their spoken English.

One of the aims of this research is to compare the results of this study to those of other studies (for example, Dyers (1999) – The University of the Western Cape and Dalvit (2004) – Fort Hare University, etc.) in order to ascertain if the results obtained are similar to the findings of other studies. The results of students' assessment of their isiXhosa proficiency at the University of Fort Hare (Dalvit 2004) reveal that 93% of the respondents positively evaluated their isiXhosa proficiency as opposed to 67% that did so at Rhodes University.

Ninety-two percent (92%) of the respondents at Rhodes University positively evaluated their English competence. On the other hand, 71% of respondents at the University Fort Hare did so (Dalvit 2004). The results on assessment of language competence show that the students at the University of Fort Hare were more confident about their isiXhosa competence than those at Rhodes University, while the opposite is

the case with English i.e. competence is rated higher at Rhodes University than at the University of Fort Hare.

This may be due to the fact that about one-third of the respondents at Rhodes University came from previously advantaged schools where they used only English as LOLT and that the majority of DET students (i.e. previously disadvantaged) felt that their English had improved because of the English only LOLT policy that they were exposed to at Rhodes University. Another factor mentioned in the interviews (see the summaries of interview questions 8 and 9 above) was the multilingual environment at the university that provides isiXhosa-speaking students with the opportunity to communicate in English with students from other language groups including a large group of L1 English students.

In contrast, the University of Fort Hare is a historically black university with a large population of isiXhosa-speaking students and respondents at this university almost exclusively attended DET bilingual (English/isiXhosa) schools. Dalvit (2004) notes that much isiXhosa is used for communication in informal settings among the students as well as in academics: at tutorials and group discussions as well as at lectures where isiXhosa-speaking lecturers regularly code-switch to explain difficult English concepts. The next section presents results involving respondents' attitudes toward English in general.

4.2.2 Attitudes toward English in general

Belief statements 25 and 26 (in multiple choice format, dealing with attitudes toward English in general), are analysed in this section. Respondents are allowed to choose more than one option in these belief statements. Chi-square tests are not performed for these belief statements as discussed in section 4.2.

Belief statement 25: *English is the language of*:

- ❑ *international contact (Int.cont.)*
- ❑ *division (Div.)*
- ❑ *ambition (Amb.)*
- ❑ *liberation (Lib.)*
- ❑ *tertiary education (Tert. Edu.)*
- ❑ *oppression (Oppres.)*
- ❑ *national unity (Nat. Unity)*

Belief statement 25 (multiple choice format with 7 options) elicits the students' view of English. Forty-nine (49%) of the responses indicate that the students believed that

English would enable them to make international contact, 4% believed that it is the language of liberation, another 12% claimed that English is the language of tertiary education, 3% saw it as the language of ambition, while 27% of the responses reveal that they believed that English is the language of national unity. However, 3% saw English as the language of division and 2% of the students felt that English is the language of oppression (see Figure 11 below).

Figure 11: Belief statement 25: Overview
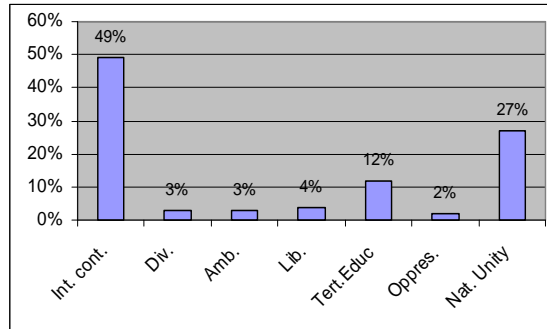
On the whole, a generally positive attitude is expressed toward English in this question as 95% of the responses (international contact, ambition, liberation, tertiary education and national unity) show a positive assessment, while only 5% of the responses (division and oppression) indicate a negative attitude toward English.

Belief statement 26: *When I speak English to an English native speaker*:

- ❑ *I try to sound like an English native speaker*
- ❑ *I'm proud of my isiXhosa accent*
- ❑ *I don't care about my accent*

Figure 12: Belief statement 26: Overview
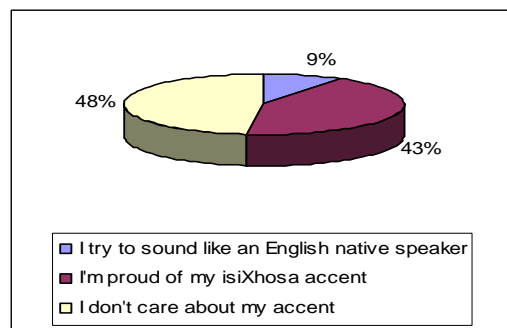
The above belief statement on accent was put before the respondents to ascertain whether they were motivated to modify their speech styles toward that of L1 speakers of

English in order to express attitudes or seek the approval of L1 speakers of English (Giles *et al.* 1977*).* Figure 12 above reveals that 9% of the respondents indicated that they try to sound like L1 speakers of English. Forty-three percent (43%) claimed that they were proud of their isiXhosa accent, while 48% said that they do not care about their accent. Similar results are seen across the different variables (age, gender, school attended, faculties and level of study). No obvious differences are found. This result shows that the majority of the respondents do not have an integrative attitude toward English (cf. 2.1.3 and 2.5).

A detailed discussion on the different types of attitudes (instrumental and integrative) revealed in the responses to questions eliciting attitudes toward English as LOLT is presented in the next section (4.2.3).

4.2.3 Attitudes toward the use of English as LOLT

Belief statements 3, 4 and 19 (in the questionnaire) as well as interview questions 6 and 11 are analysed in this section.

Belief statement 3: *Using only English for teaching and learning disadvantages African students*

Figure 13.1: Overview   **Figure 13.2: Age**
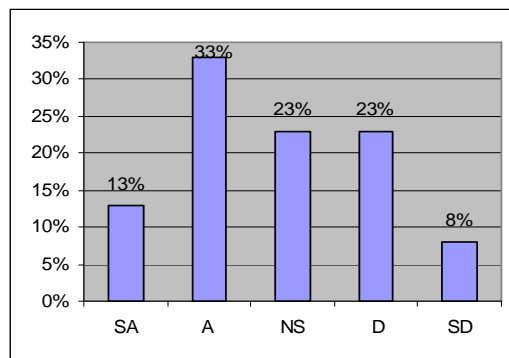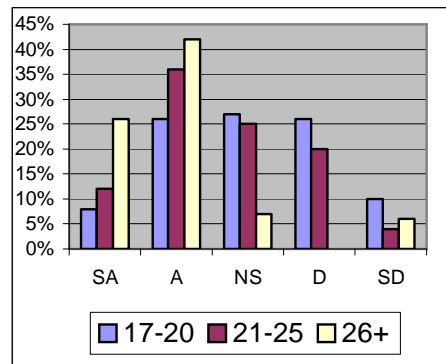
The students' responses to this question (see Figure 13.1 above) reveal that 46% of respondents felt that using only English as LOLT disadvantages African students. Twenty-three percent (23%) of the respondents were not sure, while 31% disagreed with this idea. A greater number of the older students believed that using only English disadvantages African students; while more of the younger students than the older respondents disagreed with this statement. A highly significant result ($p = 0.001$) is

observed for the differences among the responses across the age category for this belief statement (see Figure 13.2 above).

At the faculty level, the majority of Education students (68%), Law (56%) and Science students (51%) were of the view that the use of only English as LOLT disadvantages African language speakers, while the higher proportion of respondents who disagreed with this idea were found in the faculties of Commerce (41%) and Pharmacy (38%). Significant differences can be seen across the responses of the various faculties (p = 0.007). The differences between the responses of DET and PA respondents are also marginally significant (p = 0.046). Here the major differences can be seen in the *strongly agree* and *not sure* response categories. Eighteen percent (18%) of former DET students and 5% of PA respondents strongly agreed that the use of only English disadvantages African language-speaking students, while more of the PA (32%) students than DET respondents (19%) were not sure of this.

Most of the third year (61%) and postgraduate students (68%) believed that the use of only English as LOLT disadvantages African students. On the other hand, more of the first and second year respondents than the higher-level students disagreed with this idea. These responses are similar to those in the age graph above (Figure 13.2). The differences in the responses across the various levels of study are marginally significant (p = 0.049).

Fifty percent (50%) of males and 44% of females were of the view that using only English disadvantages African students. However, 27% of the males and 19% of the females were not sure, while 22% of males and 35% of the females did not support this view. The differences between the responses of male and female respondents are not significant (p = 0.085).

Belief statement 4: *Speakers of African languages experience problems in using English as a language of learning and teaching*

The responses to this question reveal that 53% of the students were of the opinion that speakers of African languages experience problems in using English as LOLT. Twenty-eight percent (28%) were not sure and 19% did not have this belief (see Figure 14.1 below). The graph on faculties below (Figure 14.2) indicates that Education, Law and Humanities had relatively higher proportions of respondents who believed that speakers of African languages experience problems in using English as LOLT. The

differences between the responses across the various faculties (especially those between Education, Pharmacy and Commerce) are marginally significant (p = 0.050).

Figure 14.1: Overview   **Figure 14.2: Faculties**
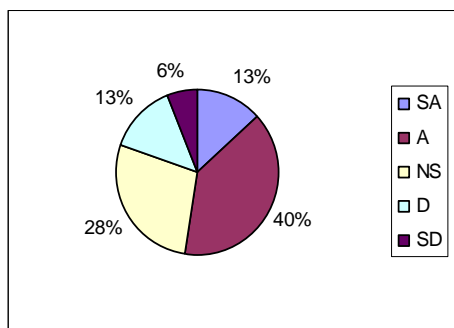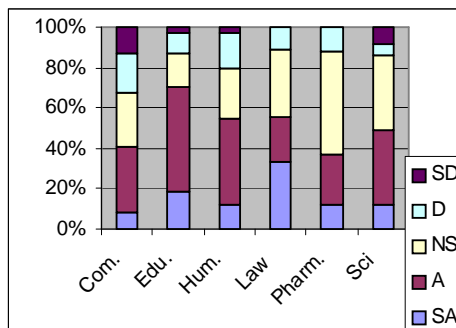
The highest proportion (70%) of respondents who believed that speakers of African languages experience problems with the use of English as LOLT is found in the 26+ age category, while 54% of 21–25 year olds and 44% of those in the 17–20 age group also upheld this view. However, the differences between the responses across these various age categories are not significant (p = 0.059).

More of the DET students, males and respondents in the higher levels of study supported this idea than females, PA respondents and lower level students. However, there are no significant differences observed across the responses of these various groups of respondents.

Belief statement 19: *English should be introduced as the language of learning and teaching:*

- *from the very beginning (BEG)*
- *during lower primary school (LPS)*
- *during higher primary school (HPS)*
- *in high school (HS)*
- *at university (UNI)*
- *it should just be studied as a subject and not be used as a language of learning and teaching (SUB)*

The majority of the respondents (70%) felt that English should be introduced as LOLT from the very beginning i.e. pre-school, 21% of the respondents were of the view that it should be introduced in lower primary school, 4% preferred this at the higher primary level, while very few of the students (5%) believed that English should just be studied as a subject and not used as LOLT at all (see Figure 15.1 below).

Figure 15.1: Overview
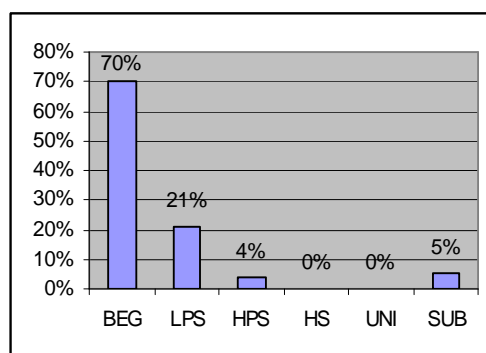
Figure 15.2: Level of study
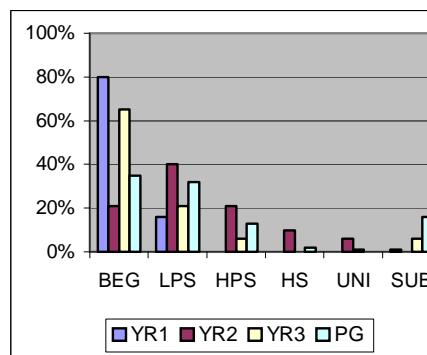
A generally positive attitude toward the early introduction of English is seen across the various variables. As shown in Figure 15.2 above, highly significant differences are observed between the responses of students across the various levels of study (p = 0.000). The different age groups (0.000) and the various faculties (0.000) also have highly significant differences across responses. One such difference can be seen in relation to the first response option (pre-school). A higher proportion of younger students and lower level respondents preferred the introduction of English at pre-school level. For instance, 80% of first year respondents would like English to be introduced at the pre-school level, while only 35% of the postgraduate respondents held this view. Furthermore, only 2% of the first year students would like English to be taught as a subject as opposed to 16% of the postgraduate students who preferred that English should be taught as a subject and not used as LOLT (see Figure 15.2 above).

At the faculty level, Education (46%) and Law (33%) had lower proportions of respondents who would like English to be introduced at pre-school level, while Commerce (80%), Humanities (68%), Pharmacy (75%) and Science (84%) had higher proportions of respondents that would like English to be introduced from the very beginning (pre-school). Highly significant (p = 0.000) differences are contained in the responses of the students here, especially between Law and Science. The differences between the responses of former DET and PA respondents are marginally significant (p = 0.050). However, there is no significant (p = 0.669) difference between the responses of males and females.

There is a close link between the responses to questions 3, 4, and 19, all of which elicit attitudes toward English i.e. the majority of the respondents (older students, higher level respondents, DET, male, Education and Law students) who felt that the sole use of

English as LOLT disadvantages African language-speaking students and who said they experience problems in using only English as LOLT would also not like English to be introduced very early in education (pre-school). On the other hand, the majority of the respondents who had positive attitudes toward English (previously advantaged school students, females, younger students, lower level respondents, Commerce, Humanities, Pharmacy and Science students) also preferred the introduction of English as LOLT from pre-school. Likewise, the groups that had more positive attitudes toward English evaluated their English language proficiency more positively and had come into earlier contact with English than have the group that had less positive attitudes toward English (see section 4.3 for some reasons for this observation). Similar results are also obtained in the interview questions discussed below.

Interview question 6: *What do you feel about Rhodes University's policy of using only English as the language of learning and teaching?*

The majority of the students felt that Rhodes' policy of using only English as LOLT is a good one. In these respondents' opinion English is a universal and an international language needed for wider communication in a world that is becoming a global village. Hence, they thought that it is important that they were taught in English because they believed that a good knowledge of English would enable them to communicate effectively, get good jobs and study further abroad. Furthermore, some of the students believed that English is a national language that unites people in the university despite the diversity of Rhodes University's population. They also felt that English is the only LOLT that will accommodate all students in Rhodes University's multilingual environment.

On the other hand, a minority of interviewees were not favourably disposed towards Rhodes University's policy of using only English as LOLT. They were of the view that the English-only policy hinders students from formerly disadvantaged schools (DET bilingual English/isiXhosa schools) from fully understanding their courses. These respondents claimed that they found it difficult to cope with using only English as LOLT at Rhodes University. Some of them believed that this is one of the reasons why some students from former DET schools fail and get excluded from Rhodes University. This can be seen from the comments of a second year male student in the Commerce faculty (from the 21–25 year age group):

My friends have been excluded from Rhodes because they failed because they do not understand what is being taught. But if isiXhosa can be used it would prevent all these.

The majority of males, DET students, older and higher level respondents were not very favourably disposed toward the English-only policy at Rhodes University. However, all the students from previously advantaged (PA) schools, the majority of the females, younger students and lower level respondents had very positive attitudes toward this policy. The PA respondents who had become comfortable with using only English in their previous Model C and Private schools believed that they were more competent in English than in isiXhosa and would learn better in English. However, the majority of former DET respondents from a bilingual English/isiXhosa background felt that using only English as LOLT at Rhodes University disadvantaged them. The attitudes expressed in the responses of the various groups of respondents to this question are similar to what were obtained in response to belief statements eliciting attitudes toward the use of English as LOLT in the questionnaire (belief statements 3 and 4), indicating that the questionnaire is a good measure of students' attitudes.

Interview question 11: *Do you experience any problems in using English as the only language of learning and teaching at Rhodes University?*

The respondents from previously advantaged schools said that they do not experience any problems in using English as the only language of learning and teaching at Rhodes, since they had become comfortable and used to the sole use of English in their previous schools. These respondents felt privileged that their former school had prepared them so well for learning at Rhodes University.

However, respondents from previously disadvantaged schools claimed that they experienced problems in using only English as LOLT at Rhodes. These DET students (from a bilingual isiXhosa/English LOLT background) said that they struggled especially (in their first year) to learn and understand their courses.

The majority of these respondents believed that they were working very hard to improve their English so that they can cope with university studies. They said that it was difficult to understand some English terminology in their various disciplines and they found it difficult to find the right words in essays and exams. One of the interviewees felt

that most of the students from former DET schools (especially those doing BA degrees) find it difficult to use the right vocabulary and to structure their essays properly in a way that would earn them good marks. She was of the view that lecturers expect very high standards from the students without taking into consideration the weak background that some of the DET students are coming from.

Some of the students claimed that they experienced problems in using only English at Rhodes University because many of them fail exams due to lack of understanding of their courses which are taught and examined in English. They felt that if isiXhosa question papers are provided alongside English ones in the exam, it might help them to understand the questions better and reduce the rate of failure.

A male second year student, who participated in the focus group interview held with DET students, and a male Master's student who participated in an individual interview, noted that sometimes some former DET students (especially first year students) may have questions to ask or answers to give in class and in tutorials but they may be shy to do so because they may not be fluent enough in English. Hence, they suggested that isiXhosa should be introduced and used alongside English in tutorials to help isiXhosa-speaking students from bilingual English/isiXhosa DET backgrounds to actively participate in learning and understand their courses better.

The responses to this interview question confirm the results of belief statement 4 (*Speakers of African languages experience problems in using English as a language of learning and teaching*) in the questionnaire analysis above.

On a general level, a positive attitude is displayed toward English in the questionnaire and interview responses. The majority of the respondents positively evaluated their English proficiency and perceptions about English were very positive (cf. belief statements 2 and 25). The positive attitudes that most of the respondents at Rhodes University had toward English were more instrumental than integrative in nature. The questionnaire and interview responses reveal that the majority of the respondents were in support of Rhodes University's policy of using only English as LOLT (even though they found studying in English difficult as a second language) because they believed that English is a universal and international language needed for wider communication and that a good knowledge of English would enable them to communicate effectively, get good jobs and study further abroad.

For these respondents, English performs informative and participatory functions (cf. 2.1). It is seen as an instrument that would enable them to communicate effectively and

participate in tertiary education as well as other socio-economic activities in a multilingual South African society where English is used in practically all spheres of public life and where proficiency in English enables an individual to participate in these activities and derive the benefits associated with them (Webb & Kembo-Sure 2000).

Because of the several functions that English serves in society, the respondents naturally attached much importance to it and were favourably disposed toward its use as LOLT at Rhodes University. This confirms the findings of Giles *et al.* (1977) and Edwards (1994) discussed in section 2.1.1 and 2.1.2. They note that languages such as English that have high socio-economic status are often positively evaluated and more favourable attitudes are shown toward such languages than lower status varieties (like African languages). This shows that a diglossic situation exists in South Africa (Fishman 1971) as outlined in section 2.1.1. These results also confirm the findings of other language-attitude research conducted in South Africa (for example, De Klerk 1996, Bekker 2002, Dalvit 2004).

However, the majority of Rhodes University isiXhosa-speaking respondents were not motivated to modify their speech styles toward that of L1 speakers of English in order to seek the approval of these speakers or to integrate with them (cf. Giles *et al.* 1977 i.e. there is little attempt at speech accommodation as discussed in 2.1.3). This can be seen in the responses to question 26 of the questionnaire, as discussed above. Only 9% of the respondents indicated that they try to sound like L1 speakers of English, while the majority did not have integrative attitudes. Forty-three percent (43%) claimed that they were proud of their isiXhosa accent, while 48% said that they do not care about which accent they use. Therefore, the results show that the majority of the students were interested in using English for its instrumental value and not for integrative purposes (Baker 1992, cf. 2.5).

This result on isiXhosa-speaking students' attitudes toward English at Rhodes University confirm the results of Dyers' (1999) study at the University of the Western Cape (UWC), Barkhuizen (2001) and those of Dalvit (2004) at the University of Fort Hare. These findings show that isiXhosa students as well as other African language-speaking students are motivated to learn in English because of the material benefits associated with a knowledge of English and not because they desire to integrate with its L1 speakers.

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4.2.4 Attitudes toward the use of isiXhosa in education

The analysis of questionnaire and interview items concerning attitudes toward the use of isiXhosa in education is considered in this section. Belief statements 6–9, 12–16 (Likert scale format) and 21–24 (multiple choice format) as well as interview questions 7, 10 and 12 are analysed here.

Belief statement 6: Isi*Xhosa and other African languages should be developed to the point where they can be used for teaching and learning at the university.*

Figure 16.1: Overview
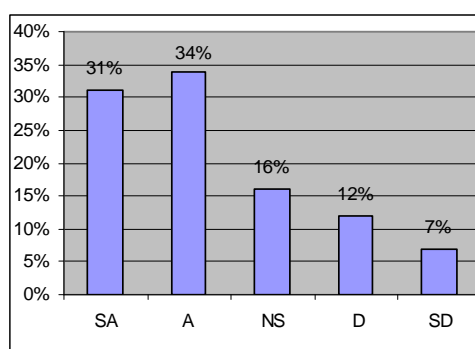
Figure 16.2: Age
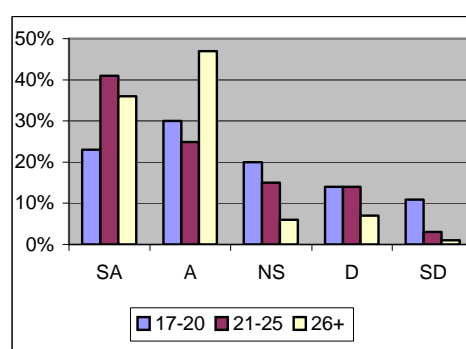
The majority of the respondents (65%) were of the view that isiXhosa should be developed as a LOLT at the university. Sixteen percent (16%) were not sure, while 19% did not support the idea (see Figure 16.1 above). Although the majority of the students across the various age groups supported this idea, the older students had more positive attitudes toward isiXhosa than the younger students. Again, the differences across age groups are highly significant ($p = 0.000$) and such differences are very obvious between the responses of the 17–20 year olds and 26+ respondents (see Figure 16.2 above).

Highly significant ($p = 0.002$) differences are also seen between the responses of former DET and PA students. As usual, more of the DET respondents were favourably disposed toward the use of isiXhosa as LOLT than the PA respondents (see Appendix 3).

Moreover, a higher proportion of males, respondents at the higher level of study, Education, Pharmacy and Law students supported this idea, while more females, lower level students and Humanities, Science and Commerce respondents were against it. Marginally significant differences are seen between the responses of males and females ($p = 0.048$) as well as those of the various faculties ($p = 0.05$). However there are no

significant (p = 0.184) differences between the responses of the various levels of study in this question (see Appendix 3 for detailed results).

Belief statement 7: *It should be made compulsory for everybody coming to Rhodes University to study isiXhosa as a subject.*

The majority of the respondents (52%) would not want the study of isiXhosa made compulsory, 22% were not sure and 26% agreed with this idea (see Figure 17.1 below).

Figure 17.1: Overview   **Figure 17.2: Age**
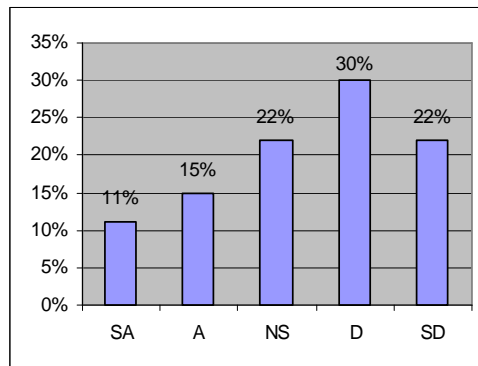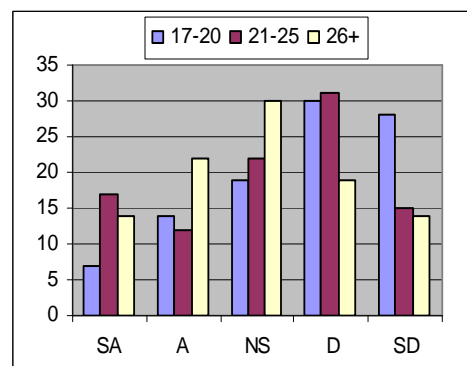
In the interviews, some respondents felt that the study of isiXhosa as a subject should be made compulsory at Rhodes University because isiXhosa is the dominant official language spoken in the Eastern Cape and the language of the majority of inhabitants of Grahamstown where Rhodes University is situated.

The responses to belief statement 7 reveal that schooling background, level of study and faculties have no significant differences across responses, while marginally significant differences can be seen between the responses of the various age groups (p = 0.021) as shown in Figure 17.2 above, as well as across gender (p = 0.030). Again, a higher proportion of older students, males, DET respondents, higher level students, Education and Law respondents agreed that isiXhosa should be made compulsory as a subject at Rhodes University. Most of the females, younger students, PA respondents and lower level students did not support this idea.

Belief statement 8: *Written isiXhosa is different from the type of isiXhosa I speak.*

Seventy-seven percent (77%) of the students believed that written isiXhosa is different from the type of isiXhosa that they spoke. Eleven percent (11%) were not sure, while 12% disagreed with this view (see Figure 18.1 below). There is no significant

difference between the responses of the various groups except for schooling background (p = 0.017) (see Figure 18.2 below).

Figure 18.1: Overview   **Figure 18.2: Schooling background**
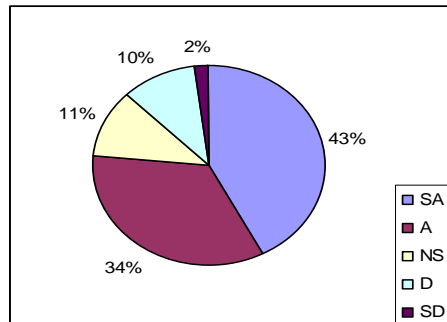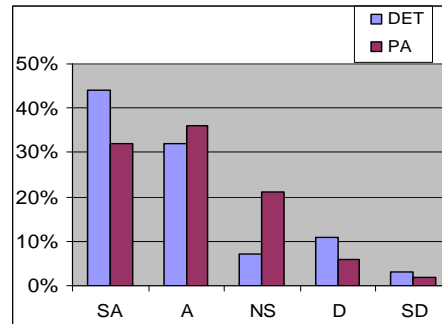
The major difference can be seen in the *strongly agree* and *not sure* response categories. Forty-five percent (45%) of DET students and 33% of PA respondents strongly agreed that written isiXhosa is different from the type of isiXhosa that they spoke, while 21% of PA and only 8% of the DET respondents were not sure. This result is not surprising because DET respondents were from a bilingual learning environment where much isiXhosa is used alongside English as LOLT, hence they were probably more certain of the differences that exist between written and spoken isiXhosa than PA respondents from an English only LOLT environment.

Belief statement 9: *IsiXhosa-speaking students would understand their courses better if departments were to make isiXhosa definitions of technical terms available.*

Figure 19.1: Overview   **Figure 19.2: Schooling background**
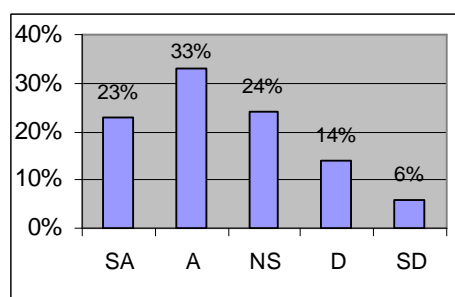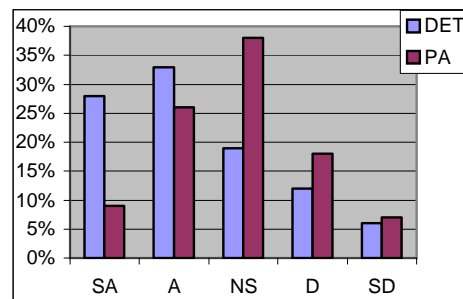
Most of the students (56%) believed that the provision of isiXhosa definitions of technical terms would enable them to understand their courses better. However, 20% of the students did not believe that this would help them while 24% were not sure (see Figure 19.1 above).

Sixty-four percent (64%) of the third year, 68% of the postgraduate students and 75% of the Education students believed that the provision of isiXhosa definitions of technical terms would enable them to understand their courses better. Furthermore, more of the male (65%) than the female respondents (48%) were favourably disposed to this issue. Again the majority of the students who were 26 years and older (75%) and the former DET respondents (62%) had a very positive attitude toward the use of isiXhosa in this regard. A higher proportion of respondents who did not believe that isiXhosa-speaking students would understand their courses better if departments were to make isiXhosa definitions of technical terms available were found among the younger respondents (17 to 20 years old – 46%) and PA students (36%).

A highly significant (p = 0.001) difference is observed between the responses of DET and PA students in relation to this question (see Figure 19.2 above). Major differences in responses can be seen in the *strongly agree* and *not sure* response categories. On the whole, DET respondents displayed a much more positive attitude toward isiXhosa than the PA respondents. Another variable that displayed a significant difference in response is age (p = 0.017) and this is especially obvious with regard to the different responses of the 17–20 year olds and 26+ respondents (see Appendix 3).

Belief statement 12: *At university, I'd rather study some things in isiXhosa and learn how to translate my knowledge into English, than learning everything in English.*

Figure 20.1: Overview	**Figure 20.2: Schooling background**
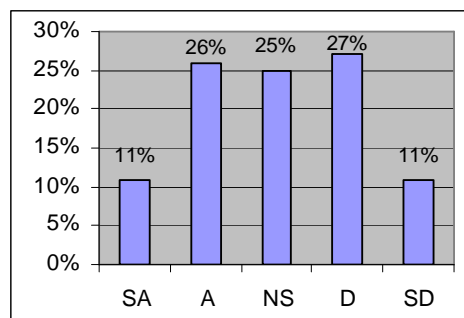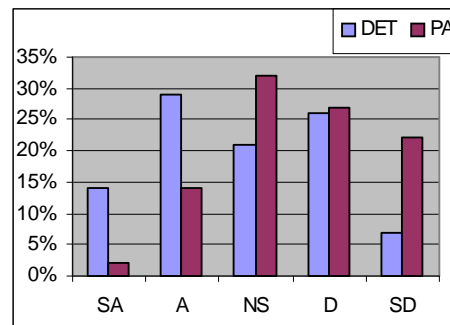
Thirty-seven percent (37%) of the respondents would like to study some of their courses in isiXhosa and learn how to translate their knowledge into English, rather than learning everything in English. Thirty-eight percent (38%) did not support this idea, while 25% were unsure (see Figure 20.1 above). A positive attitude toward the use of

isiXhosa was shown by the majority of the respondents who were 26 years and older (59%), as well as the students in the Education (59%) and Law (56%) faculties.

On the other hand, a higher proportion of the students in the faculties of Pharmacy (56%), Humanities, (48%), and Commerce (44%) as well as female respondents (41%), previously advantaged schools students (50%), first (41%) and second year students (42%) and the respondents who were between 17 and 20 years old (43%) opposed the idea of learning in isiXhosa.

Significant (p = 0.007) differences are found between the responses of the various faculties and highly significant ones across age (p = 0.002), gender (p = 0.001) and schooling background (p = 0.000). Again the difference between the responses of DET and PA students is the most significant one. Figure 20.2 above reveals the pattern of these responses. Highly significant differences can be seen in the *strongly agree*, *agree* and *strongly disagree* categories and it is obvious that DET respondents were more inclined toward the use of isiXhosa as LOLT than the PA students.

Belief statement 13: *I would like to be able to use isiXhosa during discussions in tutorials.*

Figure 21.1: Overview | **Figure 21.2: Schooling background**
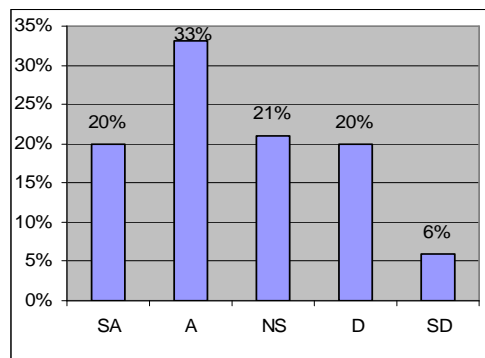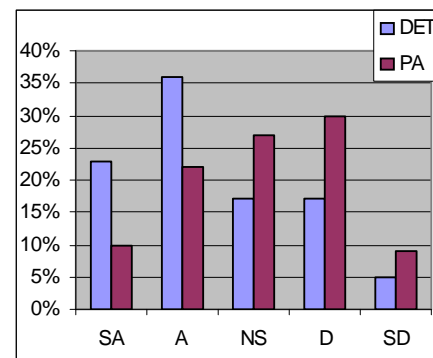
Fifty-three percent (53%) of the respondents would like to be able to use isiXhosa during discussions in tutorials. Twenty-one percent (21%) were not sure if they would want to see this happen at Rhodes University, while 26% of the respondents were not in favour of using isiXhosa during tutorials (see Figure 21.1 above). As expected, the majority of the former DET respondents (60%) had a more positive attitude than the previously advantaged school students (33%) on this issue. A highly significant result (p = 0.003) is obtained for the difference between the responses of DET and PA students (see Figure 21.2 above).

The majority of the students in the faculties of Education (66%) and Pharmacy (56%) would like to use isiXhosa during tutorials, while the Commerce faculty had more students who opposed this idea. A marginally significant difference is seen in the responses to this question across the faculty level (p = 0.036).

Again, males (60%) had a more positive attitude toward this issue than the females (47%). However, there is no significant difference (p = 0.070) observed between the responses of males and females. Similarly, the difference between the responses of students across the various age groups (p = 0.151) and levels of study (p = 0.743) is not significant.

Belief statement 14: *The use of isiXhosa in tutorials would enable me to understand my subject much better.*

Figure 22.1: Overview   **Figure 22.2: Schooling background**
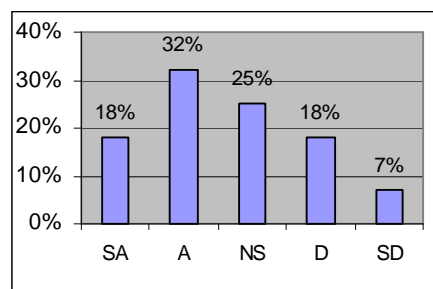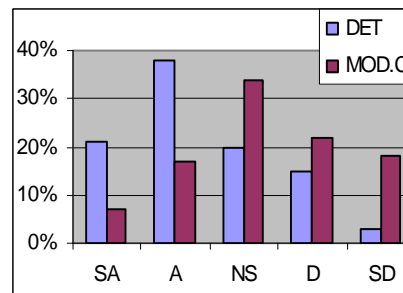
Fifty percent (50%) of the students believed that the use of isiXhosa in tutorials would enable them to understand their subjects better, 25% were not sure, while another 25% felt that it would not be beneficial to them (see Figure 22.1 above). Highly significant (p = 0.000) differences can be seen between DET and PA responses, as Figure 22.2 above shows. The majority of DET respondents supported this idea, while a high proportion of PA respondents disagreed with it. Moreover, more of the respondents who were 26 years and older (62%) as opposed to 17–20 (49%) and 21–25 (43%) year olds were of the opinion that the use of isiXhosa in tutorials would be beneficial to them. A marginally significant difference is observed across the age groups (p = 0.028).

There is no significant difference across gender (p = 0.176), the various levels of study (p = 0.29) and the different faculties (p = 0.25)

Belief statement 15: *I would like my tutors to be able to speak isiXhosa.*

The majority of respondents (61%) indicated they would like their tutors to be able to speak isiXhosa, 18% were unsure, while 21% were not in support of this idea (see Figure 23.1 below).

Figure 23.1: Overview   **Figure 23.2: Schooling background**
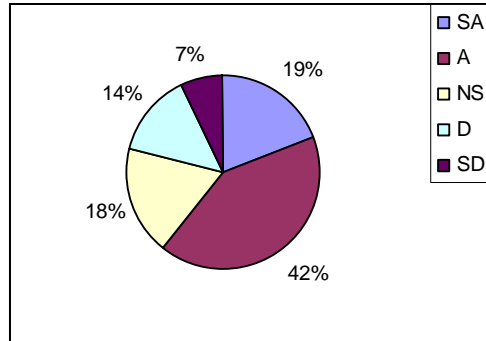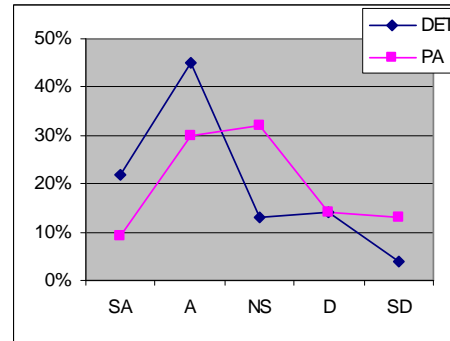
More of the DET respondents (68%) would like their tutors to be able to speak isiXhosa than the PA students (40%), and a highly significant difference (p = 0.000) is again observed across these two groups. Figure 23.2 above reveals that most of the DET respondents agreed with this idea, while a high proportion of PA respondents disagreed or were unsure about the issue.

At the faculty level, most of the respondents in Education, Science and Pharmacy were favourably disposed toward the issue of tutors being able to speak isiXhosa. However, Commerce and Humanities had a higher proportion of students who were not in support of this idea. The difference across faculties is marginally significant (p = 0.036). On the other hand, there are no significant differences across level of study (p = 0.381), age groups (p = 0.102) or gender (p = 0.257).

Belief statement 16: *I would like my lecturers to be able to speak isiXhosa.*

Figure 24.1: Overview   **Figure 24.2: Age**
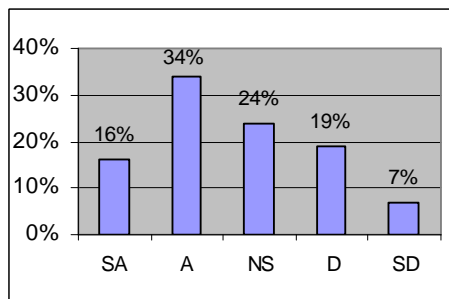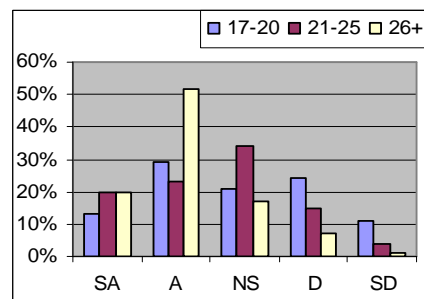
Fifty percent (50%) of the respondents indicated that they would like their lecturers to be able to speak isiXhosa. However, 26% of them were opposed to this idea, while 24% of the respondents were unsure (see Figure 24.1 above).

The same groups of respondents who had so far maintained a consistent positive attitude toward the use of isiXhosa in academics at Rhodes also displayed such an attitude in response to this question. For instance, most of the older students (26+ – 73%) and the higher level students (third year – 64% and postgraduate students – 65%) would like their lecturers to be able to speak isiXhosa. A highly significant (0.000) difference is observed across the various age groups. Figure 24.2 above reveals that the 26+ respondents had the highest proportion of students who were favourably disposed toward this issue.

Again, more of the former DET (58%) respondents than PA respondents (32%) were favourably disposed to this idea. The difference between DET and PA respondents is very significant (p = 0.001). Positive attitudes were displayed by Education (70%), Pharmacy (69%) and Law (56%) students. A marginally significant (p = 0.039) difference is observed across the various faculties.

Belief statement 21: *If isiXhosa is used to learn and teach at Rhodes University*:

- ❑ *it would not be a problem: isiXhosa can be used to express academic ideas (isiXhosa can)*
- ❑ *new technical terms in isiXhosa should be developed (New Tech.)*
- ❑ *English technical terms could be explained in Xhosa (Eng. Tech.)*
- ❑ *isiXhosa cannot be used to explain technical ideas at the university (isiXhosa cannot)*

Figure 25: Overview
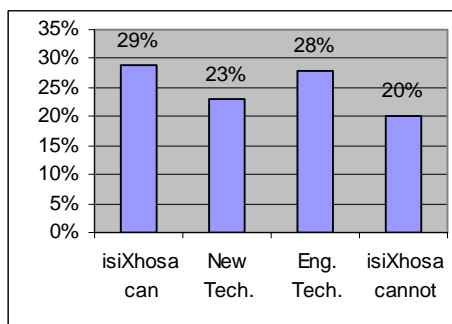
Chi-square tests were not performed for this multiple choice belief statement as well as belief statements 22, 23 and 24 (cf. 4.2). The majority of the respondents (80%)

exhibited positive attitudes toward the use of isiXhosa in this regard (see Figure 25 above). Twenty-nine percent (29%) of these students believed that if isiXhosa is used as LOLT it would not be a problem because isiXhosa can be used to express academic ideas.

Twenty-three percent (23%) of them felt that new technical terms in isiXhosa should be developed and 28% were of the opinion that English technical terms can be fitted with isiXhosa explanations. On the other hand, 20% of the respondents believed that isiXhosa cannot be used to explain technical ideas at the university. There is a generally positive attitude toward the use of isiXhosa in this regard across the different variables. However, more of the females (23%), younger students (17 to 20 – 25%) and the lower level (first year – 24%) respondents felt that isiXhosa cannot be used to explain technical ideas at the university.

Question 22: *Studying in isiXhosa is important because*:

- ❑ *IsiXhosa is an official language (off.lang)*
- ❑ *IsiXhosa will help me to get a job (job)*
- ❑ *IsiXhosa is the language of my people (lang. of my pp.)*
- ❑ *IsiXhosa will help me if I study further (study fur.)*
- ❑ *I do not think it is important at the university level (not imp.)*

Figure 26.1: overview   **Figure 26.2: Gender**
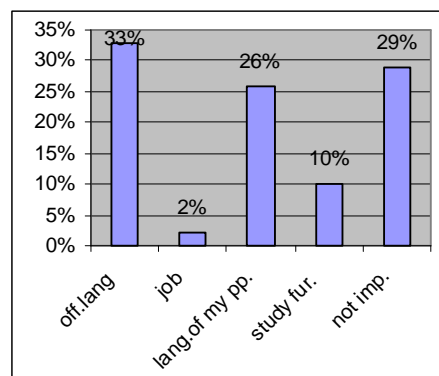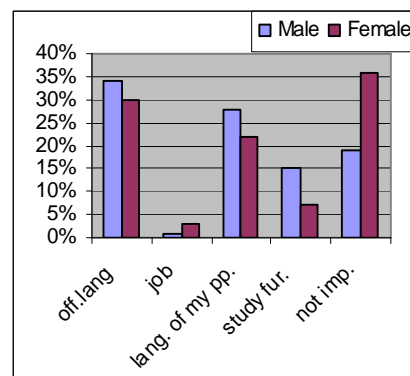
The majority of the respondents (71%) were favourably disposed toward studying in isiXhosa. Thirty-three percent (33%) of the responses indicated that isiXhosa is important because it is an official language. Only 2% of the responses revealed that the students believed that isiXhosa would help them to get a job (low instrumental motivation to use isiXhosa as LOLT, cf. 2.4). Twenty-six percent (26%) of the responses indicated that the respondents associated the importance of isiXhosa with the fact that it is the language of

their people (this reveals the intrinsic value of isiXhosa as carrier of cultural identity). Ten percent (10%) felt that isiXhosa is important because it would help them to study further, while 29% thought that it is not important at the university level (see Figure 26.1 above).

There is a generally positive attitude toward isiXhosa in this belief statement across the various variables. Again, males, DET respondents, older respondents, higher-level students, and the Education and Law faculties had a higher proportion of respondents who had positive attitudes toward isiXhosa. On the other hand, females, PA respondents, lower level students, younger respondents, Commerce and Pharmacy faculties had a higher proportion of students who had negative attitudes toward the use of isiXhosa at the university level. More of these latter respondents (especially the females, see Figure 26.2 above) felt that isiXhosa is not important at the university level.

Belief statement 23: *To study in isiXhosa:*

- ❑ *would make me feel more confident (Conf.)*
- ❑ *would help me understand things better (Underst.)*
- ❑ *would help me get higher marks (H.marks)*
- ❑ *it would not help me at all (Not help)*

Figure 27.1: Overview	Figure 27.2: Schooling background
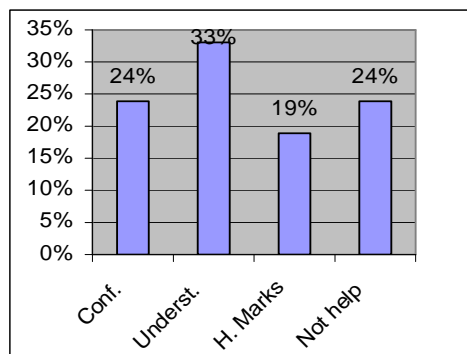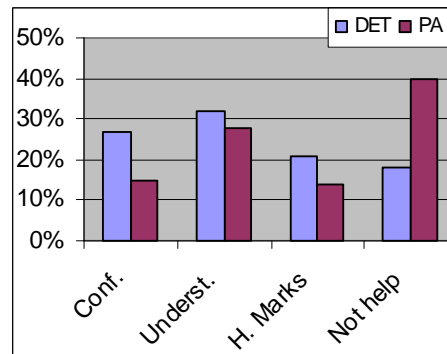
Most of the respondents (76%) displayed a positive attitude toward the use of isiXhosa in education in their responses to this question because they believed that studying in isiXhosa would enable them to feel more confident (24%), understand things better (33%) and get higher marks (19%). Only twenty-four percent (24%) of the respondents believed that it would not help them at all (see Figure 27.1 above).

The consistent pattern of responses obvious in the results of other earlier belief statements is repeated here as more of the DET respondents, males, older students, higher level respondents, Education and Law students believed that the use of isiXhosa at

Rhodes University would be beneficial to them, while the females, PA respondents, younger students, lower level respondents, Commerce and Humanities students took the opposite standpoint i.e. the latter had a higher proportion of respondents who felt that the use of isiXhosa as LOLT would not help them at all at university. For instance, 40% of PA respondents felt this way as opposed to 18% of DET respondents (see Figure 27.2 above).

Belief statement 24*: If isiXhosa could be used to learn and teach in at Rhodes University, at what stage should it be used?*

- ❑ *first year only (first yr.)*
- ❑ *all the undergraduate levels (Undergrad)*
- ❑ *postgraduate levels (Postgrad)*
- ❑ *all the levels so that isiXhosa students can learn in their mother-tongue (All levels)*
- ❑ *it should not be used at Rhodes (It shouldn't)*

Twenty percent (20%) of the respondents felt that isiXhosa should be used as LOLT at the first year level, only 22% would want it at the undergraduate level, 3% chose the postgraduate level and 29% felt that isiXhosa should be used as LOLT at all levels. However, 26% of the respondents were not favourably disposed toward the use of isiXhosa as LOLT at Rhodes University (see Figure 28.1 below).

Figure 28.1: Overview
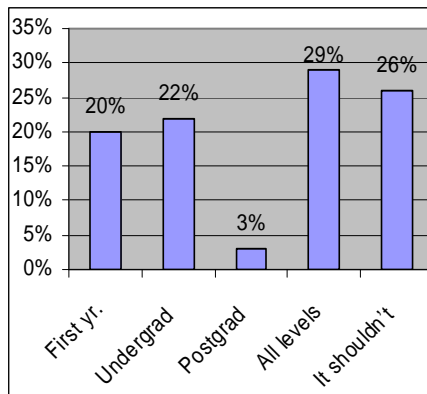
Figure 28.2: Level of study
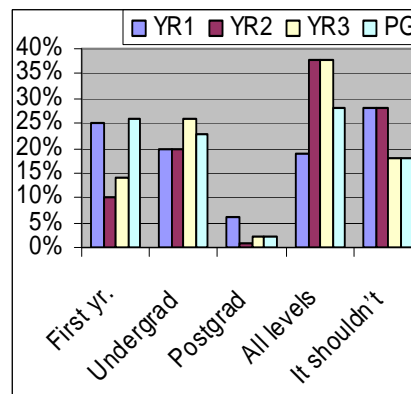
Again the majority (74%) of the respondents showed a positive attitude toward the use of isiXhosa as LOLT at Rhodes. Figure 28.2 above shows that the second and third year students had the highest proportion of respondents that would like isiXhosa to be used at all levels, while a higher proportion of first year and postgraduate students would like isiXhosa to be used at first year level. Most of the males, older students (21–

26 years), DET, Education and Law students would prefer that isiXhosa should be used at all levels at Rhodes, while a high proportion of younger students (17–20 years) as well as Commerce respondents would prefer it to be used at the first year level only. On the other hand, more of the PA respondents, females, younger students, lower level respondents (see Figure 28.2 above), Humanities, Pharmacy and Science students were of the view that isiXhosa should not be used at Rhodes at all.

Summaries of interview questions 7, 10 and 12 eliciting attitudes toward the use of isiXhosa as LOLT are presented below.

Interview question 7: *Would you like isiXhosa to be used alongside English as LOLT at Rhodes? Why?*

Most of the DET students (especially the males) would like isiXhosa to be used alongside English at Rhodes University. The interviewees who supported the use of isiXhosa believed that this would help to facilitate learning for the DET students who came from an English/isiXhosa bilingual background and had to struggle with learning in only English at the university. These respondents were of the opinion that the exclusive use of English as LOLT hinders students from formerly disadvantaged schools from fully understanding their courses, a fact which is contributing to the high rate of failure among the African language-speaking students from DET schools. They believed that if isiXhosa could be used alongside English at Rhodes University it would help them to understand their courses better and the pass rate would increase.

Some of the interviewees who were favourably disposed toward the use of isiXhosa as LOLT at Rhodes University felt that since isiXhosa is their language and an official language, it should be developed and used at the university level in the same way that Afrikaans is used as LOLT in some universities in South Africa. Furthermore, some of these respondents (especially Law students) believed that isiXhosa would help them to get a job. One of the students claimed that it would be useful in her future career as a journalist. The above results reveal that these students have both integrative and instrumental attitudes toward isiXhosa. These findings confirm the results of belief statements 6, 9, 22, and 23 in the questionnaire analysis.

Similar results are also obtained at the University of the Western Cape and the University of Fort Hare. However, the results from these universities show that more of their respondents have positive attitudes toward the use of isiXhosa as LOLT than those at Rhodes University because of the different learning environment that these students

find themselves in. The University of the Western Cape and the University of Fort Hare are historically disadvantaged universities with a large population of isiXhosa-speaking students, while Rhodes University is a historically English university with a large population of L1 English speakers.

On the other hand, many of the interviewees would not like isiXhosa to be used as LOLT at Rhodes University. Most of the respondents who opposed this use of isiXhosa were from previously advantaged schools, females and younger students.

Some of these respondents felt that the use of isiXhosa as LOLT would make African language-speaking graduates less competitive in the labour market, since most employers would not interview them in isiXhosa. These respondents felt that students who would study in isiXhosa and other African languages would find it difficult to obtain a good job after graduating from the university.

Another reason that is provided for opposing the use of isiXhosa as LOLT at Rhodes University is that it would not accommodate all students, such as isiXhosa students from English only schools and other African language speakers. The respondents who held this view thought that it would generate conflict as students from other language groups in South Africa would feel left out and would also fight for the use of their languages as LOLT at Rhodes University. The use of isiXhosa as LOLT is also discouraged in order to prevent racial segregation like that found during apartheid. It is thought that the use of isiXhosa at Rhodes would cause division because "black" students would not mix with "white" students, as they would have separate lectures.

This finding confirms the findings of Dyers (1999) and Dalvit (2004). It is noteworthy that the majority of the students who rejected the idea of using isiXhosa as LOLT in these universities believed that its use in multilingual South African universities would lead to segregation and conflict among the different language groups in South Africa. Hence, they supported an English-only policy in order to prevent the type of situation that existed during apartheid.

Some respondents rejected the idea of using isiXhosa as LOLT at Rhodes because isiXhosa is seen as a difficult language with different varieties (such as the 'deep' isiXhosa of the rural Transkei as opposed to urban isiXhosa). These respondents believed that written isiXhosa is the deep variety and using it as LOLT at the university level would be challenging, as it is different from the urban colloquial variety that most of them speak with their family and friends. This finding confirms the result obtained in

question 8 in the questionnaire analysis above. A similar result was obtained in the studies by Barkhuizen (2000) and Dalvit (2004).

Another reason why the use of isiXhosa was discouraged was that it would be difficult to explain some discipline-specific words in isiXhosa. For instance, an Honours student (female) majoring in Biochemistry and Microbiology noted that it would be very difficult to teach sciences in isiXhosa because there are so many scientific terms that cannot be explained in isiXhosa as there are no words for such technical terms in isiXhosa. A similar thought was expressed by a part-time Masters student in the Mathematics Education Department. This female student believed that it would be difficult to teach Mathematics, Geography and Science courses in isiXhosa. The respondent (a teacher at a former DET school) noted that an isiXhosa Mathematics dictionary project for primary schools had been discouraged because of the difficulties in finding the right isiXhosa vocabulary and that the usefulness of the project was also questioned by many isiXhosa-speaking teachers who felt that they would struggle to learn how to use those new terms in their teaching.

The negative attitudes that African language speaking students have toward the use of their L1 in education was thought to be one of the factors that would discourage the use of isiXhosa as LOLT at Rhodes University. For instance, a female PhD Pharmacy student felt that Rhodes University should not be encouraged to use isiXhosa since most of the African language-speaking students at high school do not want to study their mother-tongue as school subjects; they rather prefer to study English and Afrikaans. Therefore, this respondent was of the view that it would not be appropriate for Rhodes University to use isiXhosa as LOLT since most isiXhosa-speaking students at high school do not want to learn their own language. This view was also held by an eighteen year old male DET respondent who believed that isiXhosa-speaking students had sufficient knowledge of isiXhosa from home and high school; hence, they should learn something new in the university through English, not isiXhosa. He claimed that he would not come to the university to use isiXhosa as a LOLT since it would not be beneficial to isiXhosa-speaking students after graduating. He was totally against the use of isiXhosa as LOLT at university level.

This result confirms the findings of Edwards (1994 cf. 2.1.3), who observes that in a diglossic society with different language varieties, the language of the high-status group (in this case English) is positively evaluated as the superior language by the high-status group members and evaluated in the same way by the lower-status group, while the

language of the lower-status group (isiXhosa and other African languages) is negatively evaluated by both groups. Therefore, members of the subordinate group who have a negative attitude toward their own language may not be willing to learn the language or be taught in it at school or university. This explains the attitudes of a high proportion of the respondents.

The next interview question examines the extent to which the respondents that have positive attitudes toward isiXhosa would like it to be used at Rhodes University.

Interview question 10: *To what extent would you like isiXhosa to be used at Rhodes?*
(Study materials, tutorials, exam question papers or used as a language of learning and teaching alongside English).

The respondents had different opinions about the extent to which they would want isiXhosa to be used at Rhodes University. A high proportion of respondents who would want isiXhosa to be used as LOLT at Rhodes University (cf. interview question 7) said that isiXhosa question papers should be provided alongside English ones in exams. These respondents just want isiXhosa question papers in order to understand the questions better but would still provide answers to the questions in English, since they realised that most of the lecturers do not understand isiXhosa. These responses are similar to those of belief statement 11 in the questionnaire (see below). In belief statement 11, the majority of the respondents (65%) agreed that the provision of English and isiXhosa question papers in exams would help them to understand questions better.

Similarly, a high proportion of the interviewees who supported the use of isiXhosa as LOLT at Rhodes University would like isiXhosa to be used at tutorials. These respondents believed that the use of isiXhosa in tutorials, in the form of bilingual (isiXhosa/English) tutor support, would help isiXhosa-speaking students from former DET schools to actively participate in learning and understand their courses better.

Postgraduate and older respondents who had been working as tutors and Academic Development Programme (ADP)[16] coordinators at Rhodes University noted that some former DET isiXhosa-speaking students were more enthusiastic to ask them questions in isiXhosa during tutorials and that answers that were given to these DET students in isiXhosa help them to understand the topics better. They felt that these students might not have the confidence to ask their questions in English in lectures and

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[16] A programme created to provide assistance to first year students from formerly disadvantaged back-grounds.

tutorials where the lecturers and tutors do not speak isiXhosa. This observation was supported by the responses of the majority of students in the focus group interview held with DET respondents. These first and second year male students (from the Humanities and Law faculties) claimed that if isiXhosa was to be used in tutorials, they would be able to ask questions and participate fully during tutorials, a situation which they believed would help them to better understand topics that they might not fully understand during lectures delivered in English.

A male PhD interviewee from the Chemistry Department, who tutors foundation and undergraduate chemistry courses, noted that the provision of isiXhosa support in tutorials at the University of the Western Cape (where he did his undergraduate programme) and the University of Cape Town (where he did his Honours and Masters degrees) was very beneficial to students from historically disadvantaged schools, as it helped them to have a better appreciation of the content of their courses. Hence, he strongly encouraged the implementation of isiXhosa support in tutorials at Rhodes University.

Some of the DET students who participated in the focus group interviews (two Law respondents and a Humanities interviewee) said that they would like to receive study materials in isiXhosa. For instance, one of these interviewees (a Law student) claimed that there were so many difficult terms in Law that she often kept her dictionary handy as she read her Law textbooks and other study materials. She felt that if study materials could be translated into isiXhosa she would be able to understand those technical terms better. Other participants in the DET focus group interview also supported this view and they further suggested that the provision of isiXhosa question papers in examinations would save them the stress of trying to decipher discipline-specific technical terms in exams.

On the other hand, a second year female Science student (DET focus group interview participant) argued that it would be better for them to meet the challenge of learning those English words, which they would work with when they graduate from Rhodes, instead of learning them in isiXhosa and later facing the challenge of using English terminology in a multilingual working environment.

However, the students who wanted isiXhosa claimed that some students would fail and be excluded because of lack of understanding of their courses and would not even make it to the working world. Hence, they would rather be given isiXhosa materials that would enable them to understand the difficult concepts and pass their courses at

Rhodes University. They argued that they were interested in how they could be successful *now* at Rhodes University and not about the future yet, because many students who fail their courses are being excluded yearly. They attributed the high rate of failure among African language-speaking students to a lack of understanding of courses which are taught and examined in English only. Thus, they favoured the use of isiXhosa alongside English as LOLT at Rhodes University so that they could understand and pass their courses and complete their studies at Rhodes University.

Although the interviewees from previously advantaged (PA) schools were comfortable with the use of only English as LOLT and would not generally like to use isiXhosa alongside English as LOLT at Rhodes, some of them felt that the provision of isiXhosa materials, question papers and bilingual tutors who could explain the courses better during the tutorials, would help former DET students to understand their courses better. However, one of the PA interviewees (a male Humanities student), who participated in the focus group interview with respondents from previously advantaged schools, was totally against the use of isiXhosa at Rhodes University. He felt that a bilingual tutorial support system would not be practical because there might not be sufficient isiXhosa tutors to help these DET students and that the multilingual nature of the university would pose a challenge.

Another participant (a female Humanities respondent) was of the view that the DET students could be paired up with isiXhosa-speaking tutors who could assist them at a personal level. One male Law student supported this view as well. This interviewee emphasized the merits of bilingual tutor support by relating an experience of how he helped a DET foundation student who attended a first year Commerce course with him. He believed that the student was intelligent but that his low proficiency in English meant that he could not understand some of the topics that were taught. He said that this foundation student always asked him in isiXhosa to explain the topics that he did not understand. He believed that the isiXhosa explanation of the topics that he provided for the student helped this student to understand the course better. Hence, he felt that the provision of isiXhosa support in tutorials would help former DET students to understand their courses better.

The responses to question 10 of the interview are similar to those obtained in response to belief statements dealing with attitudes toward the use of isiXhosa as LOLT at Rhodes University (see belief statements 5, 6, 9–11, 13–17 and 23 in sections 4.2.4 above and 4.2.5 below).

Interview question 12: *At what levels of study would you want isiXhosa to be used? (e.g. first year, etc.)*

All the respondents who supported the use of isiXhosa at Rhodes University suggested that isiXhosa should be used at first year and foundation levels in order to help students from formerly disadvantaged schools (DET bilingual environment) to adjust better to the new learning environment at Rhodes University.

Most of the postgraduate students who served as tutors for the Extended Studies Programme and other first year courses strongly recommended that isiXhosa be used at these levels to help the students because they noticed that some of the DET students in the Extended Studies programme and first year levels really struggled to learn in English only. A male postgraduate student from the Education faculty stressed the need to use isiXhosa at first year level in the following comment:

> I think that Rhodes University should look into teaching using isiXhosa that would allow first year Xhosa students to stand the challenges of university. Students from rural areas fail their first year because of this. What causes this failure is the English language medium that is used.

In the questionnaire survey (belief statement 24), the postgraduate level had the highest proportion of respondents who would like isiXhosa to be used at the first year level (see Figure 28.2 in section 4.2.4). Hence, the responses given above to interview question 12, also confirm the questionnaire results.

4.2.5 Attitudes toward a possible bilingual policy of English and isiXhosa

An analysis of belief statements involving attitudes toward a possible bilingual policy of English and isiXhosa is provided in this section. Belief statements 5, 10, 11, 17 (Likert scale format), 20, 27, 28 and 29 (multiple-choice format) as well as interview question 13 are discussed here.

Belief statement 5: *IsiXhosa students should receive their tutorials and study notes in their mother-tongue and English at Rhodes University.*

Forty percent (40%) of the respondents were in favour of receiving study materials in English and isiXhosa. Nineteen percent (19%) were unsure, while 41% did

not support this idea (see Figure 29.1 below). The older students (21–25 years – 67%, 26+ – 84%) had a more positive attitude toward a bilingual policy than the younger students (17–20 years – 28%). The latter had the highest proportion of students (49%) of all the age groups who were not favourably disposed toward a bilingual policy of English and isiXhosa at Rhodes University (see Figure 29.2 below). The Chi-square test result reveals a highly significant (p = 0.000) difference across the various age groups.

Figure 29.1: Overview   **Figure 29.2: Age**
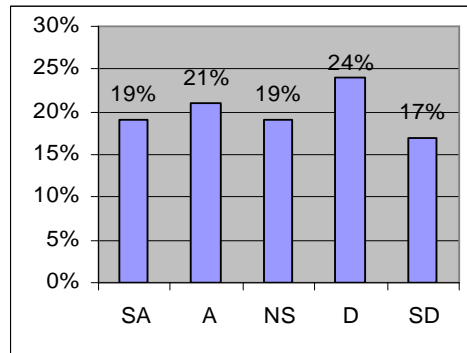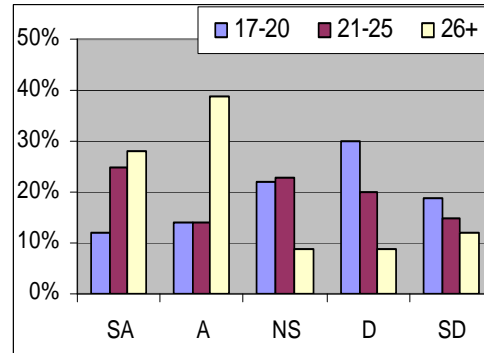
A higher proportion of the third year (59%) and the postgraduate students (57%) exhibited a positive attitude toward this bilingual issue, than the first year (27%) and second year (41%) students. A high proportion of the first year students (52%) were opposed to this idea. A highly significant (p = 0.003) difference is observed across the various levels of study. More of the DET respondents supported a bilingual policy than the PA students. This difference is also highly significant (p = 0.005).

At the faculty level, Education (66%) and Law (67%) students had the highest proportions of students preferring a bilingual policy. On the other hand, most students in the other faculties were not favourably disposed toward this idea. The difference between the responses is significant (p = 0.010). The males (56%) were more positive about this issue than the females (34%). The majority of the females had a negative attitude toward receiving study materials in both languages. The difference between males and female responses is also significant (p = 0.024) although marginally so.

Belief statement 10: *I would like to study all my courses at the university in English and isiXhosa.*

Forty-six percent (46%) of the respondents disagreed with this idea, 19% of the respondents were not sure, while 35% percent of them were in support of this idea (see

Figure 30.1 below). A similar result is also obtained in the interviews. Only a few of the interviewees expressed a desire for the use of isiXhosa as a fully-fledged language of learning and teaching alongside English at Rhodes University. These few students argued that isiXhosa should be developed and used as LOLT at university level in South Africa just as Afrikaans is used at the University of Stellenbosch, a fact which enables mother-tongue speakers of Afrikaans to learn in their mother-tongue and have a better understanding of their courses. It is worthy of note that these were all male respondents and the majority of them were Law students.

Figure 30.1: Overview	**Figure 30.2: Gender**
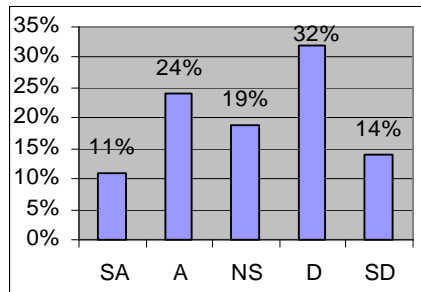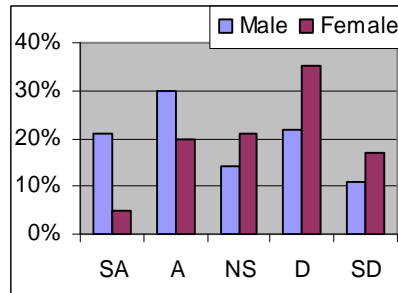
The responses to belief statement 10 also show that more of the males than the females had positive attitudes toward the bilingual issue, while most of the females disagreed. The difference across gender is very significant (0.000) as can be seen especially in the *strongly agree* and *disagree* response categories (see Figure 30.2 above). A similar result is obtained by comparing the responses of DET and PA students. The majority of DET respondents supported a bilingual LOLT policy, while most PA students disagreed with this idea. A significant (p = 0.006) difference is observed.

Moreover, Education, Pharmacy and Science respondents had a more positive attitude toward the bilingual issue than the respondents in other faculties. Again a higher proportion of older students and higher-level respondents were more favourably disposed toward bilingualism than the younger students and the lower level respondents. Significant differences are observed across the different age categories (p = 0.015), faculties (p = 0.017) and levels of study (p = 0.050).

Question 11: *If both English and isiXhosa question papers are provided in the exams that would help isiXhosa students to understand the questions better.*

The majority of the respondents (65%) believed that the provision of English and isiXhosa question papers in the exam would help them to understand the question better

(see Figure 31.1 below). The provision of bilingual question papers was also highly supported in the interviews (see the results of interview question 10 in section 4.2.4). A similar result was obtained at the University of Fort Hare, where 65% of the respondents also felt that it would be beneficial to receive question papers in English and isiXhosa (Dalvit 2004).

Figure 31.1: Overview **Figure 31.2: Gender**
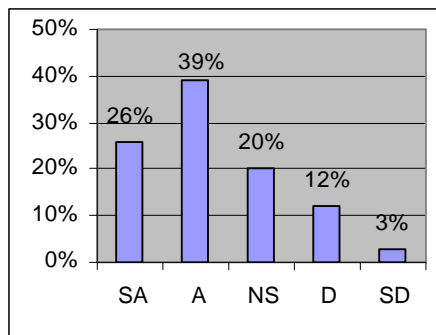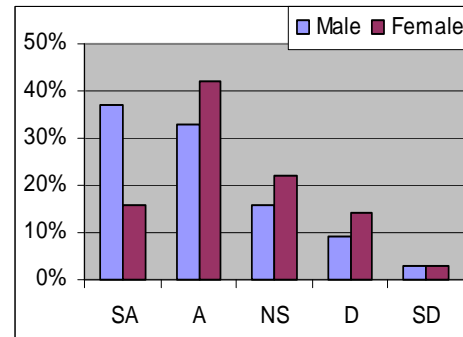
The gender graph above (Figure 31.2) shows that a high proportion of males (70%) and females (59%) had positive attitudes toward the provision of English and isiXhosa question papers in examinations. However, there is a significant (p = 0.006) difference between their responses. For instance, more of the males (21%) than the females (5%) strongly agreed on this issue. Positive responses as well as significant differences in responses are obvious across other variables: schooling background (p = 0.007), age (p = 0.015) level of study (p = 0.050) and faculties (p = 0.017). The older students, higher level, DET, Education and Science students had more positive attitudes toward the bilingual idea than the other groups.

Belief statement 20: *I think that using both English and isiXhosa as languages of learning and teaching at Rhodes University is:*
- ❑ *possible, and should be done (PSBD)*
- ❑ *possible, but should not be done (PSNBD)*
- ❑ *impossible (IMP)*

Kindly give reasons for your answer.

Figure 32.1: Overview	Figure 32.2: Age
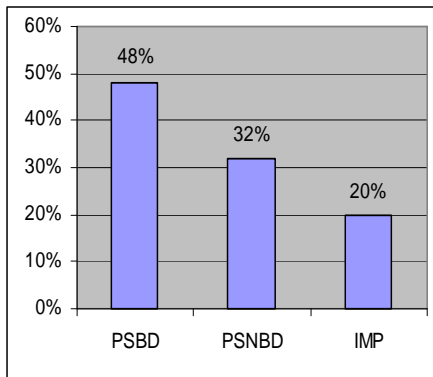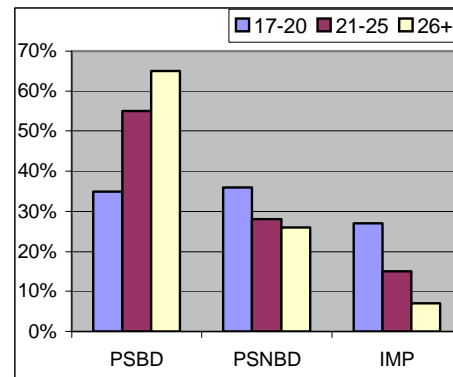
Forty-eight percent (48%) of the respondents believed that it would be possible to use both English and isiXhosa as LOLT at Rhodes University and they were of the view that this should be implemented. These students held this view because they felt that there were isiXhosa teachers and students who would be able to help the university to achieve this bilingual goal. They supported this outcome since they viewed it as possibly helping the students to understand their courses better and improve their performance.

Thirty-two percent (32%) of the students felt that it would be possible but they discouraged an implementation of a bilingual policy of English and isiXhosa at Rhodes University. On the other hand, 20% of the students believed that it would be impossible to use both English and isiXhosa as LOLT at Rhodes University (see Figure 32.1 above). The students who discouraged the use of isiXhosa as LOLT at Rhodes University believed that there were not sufficient isiXhosa teachers in the university who would help in implementing this bilingual arrangement. They also felt that the language is difficult and that the arrangement would not accommodate all students such as isiXhosa students from only English medium schools and other African language speakers. Furthermore, these students claimed that this bilingual arrangement would create conflict in a multilingual environment such as Rhodes University. These reasons provided for and against the use of isiXhosa at Rhodes University in the written responses to this belief statement in the questionnaire are similar to the results obtained in the interviews (see the summaries of interview questions 7, 10 in 4.2.4 above and 13 below).

Highly significant differences are seen across the various age groups (p = 0.000), genders (p = 0.001), faculties (p = 0.003) and levels of study (p = 0.004), while those of schooling background (DET and PA) are significant (p = 0.01). Figure 32.2 above shows the highly significant difference between the responses of the younger and older respondents. More of the older students (21–25 years – 57%, 26+ – 65%) as opposed to

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the younger respondents (17–20 year – 35%) believed that a bilingual (English/isiXhosa) LOLT arrangement would be possible at Rhodes University and encouraged its implementation.

Respondents in the Education and Law faculties, higher level students, males and DET respondents displayed a more positive attitude toward the use of English and isiXhosa at Rhodes University than the females, PA respondents and lower level students. A higher proportion of the latter discouraged the implementation of a bilingual policy.

Belief statement 27: *At Rhodes University, isiXhosa should be used alongside English as a language of learning and teaching in the faculties of:*

- ❑ *Commerce (Com.)*
- ❑ *Education (Educ.)*
- ❑ *Humanities (Hum.)*
- ❑ *Law (Law)*
- ❑ *Pharmacy (Pharm.)*
- ❑ *Science (Sci.)*
- ❑ *all the faculties (All)*
- ❑ *none (None)*

Thirty-two percent (32%) of the respondents suggested that isiXhosa should be used alongside English in all the faculties, 21% suggested Education while the remaining students who would want isiXhosa to be used at Rhodes University chose the other faculties (Commerce 5%, Humanities 13%, Law 8%, Pharmacy 1% and Science 2%). However, 16% of the respondents were of the opinion that a bilingual arrangement should not be implemented in any of the faculties (see Figure 33 below).

Figure 33: Overview
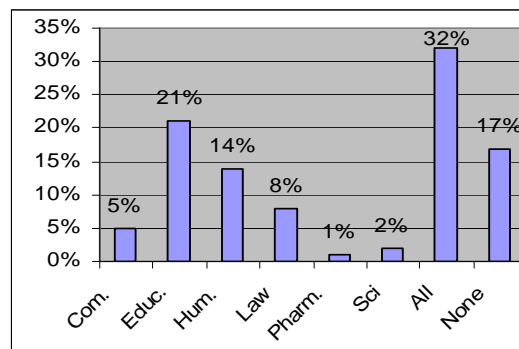
Furthermore, female respondents, younger students (17–20 year olds) as well as first and second year respondents had the highest proportions of students who did not want the implementation of a bilingual policy in any faculty.

Belief statement 28: *If isiXhosa is used alongside English as a language of learning and teaching at Rhodes University:*

❑ *the standard of teaching will decline (The standard)*

❑ *it will open up new areas of research (It will open)*

❑ *the number of students will decrease (Number)*

❑ *more isiXhosa students will be able to go to Rhodes (More XH)*

❑ *it will affect the international status of Rhodes negatively (It will affect)*

Figure 34: Overview
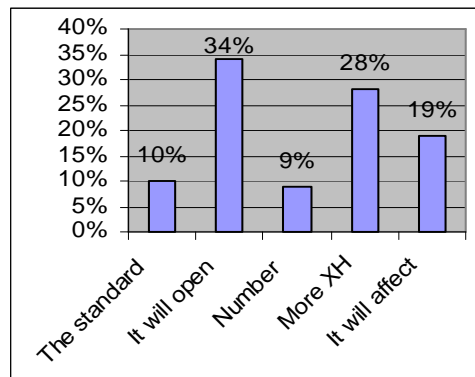
Thirty-four percent (34%) of the responses show that the students believed that a bilingual arrangement would open up new areas of research at Rhodes University and 27% of the responses reveal that they were of the opinion that an English and isiXhosa bilingual policy at Rhodes University would encourage more isiXhosa students to come to Rhodes University. This further reveals a positive attitude toward bilingualism as these two categories of responses account for the majority of the responses (57%) to this question.

On the other hand, 38% of the responses show that some of the students were opposed to this idea. Ten percent (10%) of the respondents felt that the standard of teaching would decline if isiXhosa were used alongside English at Rhodes. The third option was chosen by 9% of the students who believed that English and isiXhosa bilingualism at Rhodes University would discourage some students from coming to the university and the remaining 19% were of the view that such a bilingual policy would affect the international status of Rhodes University negatively (see Figure 34 above).

The distribution of responses was relatively similar across the different variables. The males and females' responses were almost similar, although it can still be seen that more females than males believed that a bilingual policy at Rhodes University would affect the university negatively. Furthermore, the DET respondents and older students still maintained a more positive attitude toward a bilingual arrangement at Rhodes University than the PA respondents and younger students. The majority of Education and Law respondents believed that the introduction of a bilingual arrangement would be beneficial to isiXhosa-speaking students. Once again more of the third year and the postgraduate students than the lower level respondents were favourably disposed toward this idea.

Belief statement 29: *If both English and isiXhosa are used for teaching, isiXhosa graduates from Rhodes University:*

- *will have a better understanding of the topics they have studied (better und)*
- *will still speak English as well as they do now (sp.Eng. well)*
- *will have more problems finding a job (prob. finding job)*
- *will have more problems continuing their studies abroad (prob.cont. st)*

Figure 35: Overview
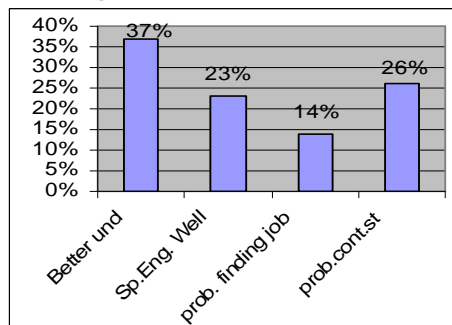
Thirty-seven percent (37%) of the responses reveal that the respondents felt that if both English and isiXhosa were used for teaching, isiXhosa graduates from Rhodes University would have a better understanding of the topics they were studying. Twenty-three percent (23%) of the responses show that the students thought that a bilingual policy of isiXhosa and English at Rhodes University would not negatively affect the English of isiXhosa-speaking students.

However, 14% of the responses indicated that some of the students believed that isiXhosa graduates that would come out of a bilingual English and isiXhosa arrangement at Rhodes University would be less competitive, i.e. they would have more problems

finding a job. Finally, 26% of the responses show that some of the students thought that isiXhosa graduates would have greater problems continuing their studies abroad, if both English and isiXhosa are used for teaching at Rhodes University. On the whole 60% of the responses indicated a positive attitude toward isiXhosa while 40% revealed a negative attitude (see Figure 35 above)

More of the female and PA respondents than the males and DET respondents felt that isiXhosa graduates coming out of a bilingual arrangement would find it more difficult to get a job and to continue their studies abroad.

The younger students had a higher proportion of respondents who were of the view that the use of English and isiXhosa as LOLT would not be beneficial to isiXhosa-speaking graduates, while the majority of the older students believed that such an arrangement would be beneficial to them. This again indicated a more positive attitude toward the use of isiXhosa in education on the part of the older students than younger students.

A generally positive attitude toward a bilingual policy at Rhodes University can be seen on the part of the respondents from the various faculties and levels of study. However, the respondents at the higher levels (third year and postgraduate) and the faculties of Education and Law had a more positive attitude toward the bilingual issue than the lower level students and respondents from the other faculties. The interview question below provided an opportunity for respondents to freely express their view on the bilingual issue.

Interview question 13: *Do you think that Rhodes University has the capacity to develop and use isiXhosa as a language of learning and teaching alongside English?*

The students who supported the use of isiXhosa at Rhodes University believed that the university has the capacity to develop and use isiXhosa as LOLT because there are some isiXhosa language professors who have written many books in isiXhosa and other lecturers in the department of isiXhosa who can facilitate the development and use of isiXhosa as LOLT at Rhodes University.

The respondents who were against the use of isiXhosa at Rhodes University felt that this would not be possible because of the multilingual nature of the university and because most lecturers and students do not speak isiXhosa. However, a male Law respondent in the individual interviews suggested that isiXhosa language training should

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be given to members of staff at Rhodes University in order for the use of isiXhosa as LOLT to become a reality.

Another male student who strongly argued for the use of isiXhosa in the focus group interview with DET respondents believed that Rhodes University could develop and use isiXhosa if the university works closely with the isiXhosa Dictionary Unit at the University of Fort Hare which has resources for isiXhosa development. However, a first year female student felt that it would be more feasible for the University of Fort Hare, which is a historically black university, to develop and use isiXhosa rather than Rhodes University (a more multi-racial university). A female Science student believed that it would not be proper to use isiXhosa in Rhodes University's multilingual environment, especially since isiXhosa-speaking students at the university constitute just a small fraction (12%) of the student population. It would thus not be practical to develop and use isiXhosa at Rhodes University. She instead suggested that English be used for teaching and each department should have an isiXhosa-speaking lecturer who could assist isiXhosa-speaking students on a personal level to understand difficult issues in their courses.

Another female respondent from the Sociology Department (participant in a focus group interview) who was not in support of using isiXhosa at Rhodes believed that the use of isiXhosa as LOLT at Rhodes University would affect the international standard of the university negatively. On the other hand, a male Political Science student argued that Rhodes University focuses too much attention on internationalisation and fails to cater for the immediate language needs of isiXhosa speaking students in the Eastern Cape where the university is situated. He believed that the use of isiXhosa would not lower Rhodes University's standards, rather it would be beneficial to isiXhosa-speaking students at Rhodes University. This view was supported by a male Law student. He said that Rhodes University should first develop and use isiXhosa at the university in order to help isiXhosa-speaking students to improve their performance so that they would be able to compete internationally, after which the university can focus attention on internationalisation.

The findings from these interviews confirm the results obtained from the questionnaire survey. A consistent pattern of responses is obtained in the questionnaire (quantitative analysis) which is furthermore similar to the responses in the interviews (qualitative analysis). The results from the quantitative and qualitative analyses reveal that male respondents, older students, higher level respondents, DET students and the

faculties of Law and Education respondents had more positive attitudes toward the use of isiXhosa as LOLT than respondents from previously advantaged schools, females, younger students, respondents at the lower level of study and the remaining faculties. A detailed discussion on the reasons for the observed differences in responses across the various groups is provided in the next section (4.3).

4.3 The role of the variables

One of the goals of this research is to examine how the nature of previous school attended, gender, age, year of study and field of study (i.e. faculty) influence the language attitudes of isiXhosa-speaking students at Rhodes University (cf. 1.2). In section 4.2 above, a consistent pattern of responses has been observed across various groups.

Schooling background: The analysis of the questionnaire and interview results show that the students from previously advantaged (PA) English-only LOLT schools maintained a consistent positive attitude toward the sole use of English as LOLT at Rhodes University, while the majority of DET students (from a bilingual environment) had more positive attitudes toward the use of isiXhosa and a bilingual English/isiXhosa policy.

The majority of DET respondents in the questionnaire and interviews favoured the use of isiXhosa as LOLT at Rhodes University in order to improve their performance. The schooling background of the respondents had the most significant influence on language attitudes in the study. This variable also had a direct link to other variables. Generally positive attitudes were displayed toward the use of isiXhosa as LOLT at Rhodes University by most of the males, older students and higher-level respondents (postgraduate) and Education students. The majority of these respondents, however, attended former DET bilingual schools. They were more favourably disposed toward the use of isiXhosa at Rhodes University than the females, younger students, lower level respondents and students from other faculties who had a higher proportion of respondents that had been to previously advantaged schools.

This finding reveals that the learning environments that the respondents came from had in all likelihood greatly influenced their language attitudes. The respondents who came from environments where only English was used as LOLT were more favourably disposed toward an English-only LOLT policy at Rhodes than those who came from learning environments where more isiXhosa was used alongside English. The latter were more favourably disposed to an isiXhosa/English bilingual policy than the

former. This result is in line with other findings reported on this variable in Baker (1992) who shows that a bilingual environment in which teachers strongly promoted and used local languages alongside English tends to produce students who have more positive attitudes toward their local languages than those who came from a different background (cf. 2.4).

Gender: The results show that male respondents were more favourably disposed toward the use of isiXhosa as LOLT at Rhodes University than the female students. The reactions of a female respondent in the Commerce faculty and a male Law student toward my research in the interviews further supported the findings. This female respondent was not very enthusiastic about participating in the interview and when she eventually came, it was obvious from her facial expression that she was not very happy about the idea of using isiXhosa at Rhodes University. Her question and subsequent comments before the interview started clearly revealed her attitude toward the use of isiXhosa as LOLT:

> Why are you doing this research, I don't care whether isiXhosa is used or not. The use of isiXhosa in teaching at Rhodes will further disadvantage Xhosa students just as it is disadvantaging students at our black schools in the township and rural areas. English was supposed to be use for teaching but our teachers used 70% isiXhosa and 30% English for teaching and when I came to Rhodes I was speaking only 30% English and I had to struggle so much to learn in English.

In the interview with this female respondent, it was very clear that she was not favourably disposed toward the use of isiXhosa in education. She believed that it had a negative effect on isiXhosa-speaking students from a former DET background and thus she would like to study only in English which she felt had empowered black students from former Model C and private schools to cope better than those from former DET schools. This student and the majority of the females strongly believed that by studying only in English they would be able to improve their economic and social status in society; a result which confirms Hogg and Abrams' (1988) as well as Louw-Potgieter's (1988) findings on the attitudes of individuals who embark on individual social mobility in order to have a positive social identity in society (c.f. 2.1.2).

On the other hand, the reaction of a male student toward the research is very warm and encouraging as can be seen from his comments:

I'm very glad that those of you in Linguistics department are thinking about this language issue. It's nice to see Africans who are interested in research that concerns the use of African languages at university level. This is an important issue that most people do not want to talk about. I wish you the best in your research.

This male student maintained a very positive attitude toward the use of isiXhosa alongside English as LOLT at Rhodes University and other universities in South Africa throughout the interview with him.

Some of the females (especially participants in the focus group interviews) showed a little support for the use of isiXhosa in response to the strong arguments of the males for it. The females were very tentative in their responses but by the end of the interviews it could be seen that they were more favourably disposed toward the use of English as LOLT than isiXhosa. The results show that females were more interested in the benefits (communicating effectively in English and getting good jobs) that they would derive from studying in English after graduating. Therefore, they were determined to work hard to study in English only, even though they acknowledged that it was difficult.

On the other hand, the majority of the males complained a lot about the problems that they experienced in using only English as LOLT. The benefits that they would derive from the immediate use of isiXhosa in improving their performance at Rhodes University were uppermost in their minds. This was more important to the males than the thought of meeting the challenges that the use of English in the multilingual work environment would present to them after graduating from Rhodes University. This is obvious in the responses of the majority of the males in the interviews.

It is obvious from both the quantitative and qualitative results that the males were more positive about using isiXhosa in education than the females, which confirms findings in the literature on language attitudes. For instance, Milroy (1980) observes that females have more favourable attitudes toward higher-status varieties (e.g. English), while males are more favourably disposed toward lower-status varieties, i.e. as African languages (c.f. 2.4). This explains why many of the males were very assertive of their isiXhosa identity. All those who supported the use of isiXhosa as LOLT believed that it would facilitate learning. However, the majority of the males also wanted isiXhosa to be developed and used as LOLT at university level because they claimed that it is their

language and that they were proud of it even though they recognised the importance of studying in English.

Although these students were attracted to English because of its social status, they still wanted to maintain solidarity with their group by studying in their language. Smit (1996) notes that the tension between social status and solidarity is faced in particular by lower-status groups who contend with two competing languages: the high-status group variety and the in-group variety (c.f. 2.1.1). For these isiXhosa-speaking respondents, English is the high-status group variety and it is associated with power and prosperity; while isiXhosa is the in-group variety (lower-status variety) which is associated with identity and feelings of solidarity (Smit 1996). Hence, this is one of the reasons why they would like both languages to be used as LOLT at Rhodes University. A similar positive integrative attitude is exhibited toward isiXhosa by the majority of the respondents at the University of Fort Hare, as shown in Dalvit (2004).

Age: Three age groups were considered in the study (17–20, 21–25 and 26+). The results show that the older students (21–25 and 26+) had a more positive attitude toward isiXhosa and a possible bilingual English/isiXhosa policy than the younger students (17–20). The latter also displayed more positive attitudes toward English in questions eliciting attitudes toward English in the questionnaire and interviews.

One of the interviewees (a 25-year-old Master's student in the Computer Science Department) provided a possible reason for the above observation. He noted that most of the African language-speaking students who attended primary and secondary schools during the apartheid era were confined to their language groups and studied under poorer conditions. Thus, they were not very proficient in English. He was of the view that students who are coming out of high schools in this democratic regime would be more proficient in English than those of the older generation who attended primary and high schools during the apartheid era. This respondent suggested that any structure that is put in place to provide isiXhosa support should be a temporary one, as it would not be needed in the future. For this student, the improvement of learning conditions in former DET schools would produce students who are more proficient in English. Hence they would not need isiXhosa support at the university level.

Level of study: The first and second year students (lower level respondents) were more enthusiastic about the use of English than the higher-level respondents (third year and postgraduates). The students at the third year level and postgraduate students displayed more positive attitudes toward the use of isiXhosa at Rhodes University than

the lower level students. This is evident in their responses to most of the questions. There are some similarities between the responses of students across the age and level of study variables. An example of this can be seen in the responses to Belief statement 3 (*Using English only for teaching and learning disadvantages African students*): see figures 36.1 and 2 below.
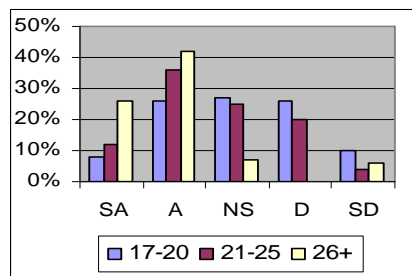
Figure 36.1: Age	Figure 36.2: Level of study
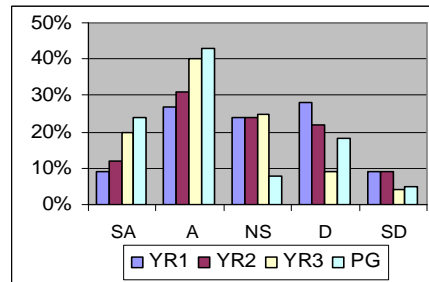
The graphs above show that the majority of the older and higher level respondents agreed that the use of only English as LOLT disadvantages African students, while more of the younger and lower level respondents disagreed with this idea. The third year and the postgraduate students were mainly of course the older students in the survey.

The results on level of study confirm De Klerk's (1996) findings. Her study reveals that the lower level students were more favourably disposed toward English than the higher-level students (postgraduates). She suggests that second language speakers of English in the higher levels of study had low confidence levels because of the high standard of English language that these students had contended with in academics at Rhodes University. A similar pattern is also observed at the University of Fort Hare and a possible explanation for this is provided by Dalvit (2004:90), referring here to the lower level students:

> Probably, this group of students' positive attitudes towards English were part of a set of positive attitudes towards the university experience (new and supposedly, exciting to most of them) with which the English language was associated.

However, the interviews reveal that the majority of higher level and older students had become more comfortable and confident over the years in using only English as LOLT than the younger and lower level students (especially first year students from former DET schools complained much about the challenges of learning in English only when they had just arrived at Rhodes University) and thus seemingly contradicting De

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Klerk's (1996) analysis. The postgraduate students believed that they now cope better with using only English as LOLT and that their English has improved over the years, as they did many research presentations, tutoring of lower level students and so on. In fact, none of the postgraduate students would like to use isiXhosa as LOLT at *their* level of study. They claimed that they would have welcomed such assistance in their first year of study and recommended the use of isiXhosa as LOLT for the Extended Studies Programmes and first year students from former DET schools who struggle to cope with the use of only English as LOLT.

This finding from the interviews dovetails with other findings in the literature. For example, Baker (1992) notes that in a bilingual or multilingual situation, attitudes toward the higher-status varieties or languages (e.g. English) become more favourable with increasing age, while attitudes toward the lower-status languages (e.g. African languages) become less favourable (c.f. 2.4). Related results were also obtained at the University of Fort Hare (Dalvit 2004) and the University of the Western Cape (Dyers 1999). These studies show that the students at the higher levels of study were more confident about their level of English competence. In this case, the open-ended questions used in the interviews helped to supply important (although somewhat ambiguous) qualitative data on the postgraduate students' attitudes at Rhodes University which the questionnaire did not fully reveal.

Field of study (Faculty): The respondents in this study came from the six faculties (Commerce, Education, Humanities, Law, Pharmacy and Science) at Rhodes University. Education and Law respondents displayed more positive attitudes toward the use of isiXhosa as LOLT than students from the Commerce, Humanities, Pharmacy and Science faculties in the majority of the questions eliciting attitudes toward isiXhosa, while the latter were more favourably disposed toward the use of English as LOLT than the former.

The Education Faculty had the highest proportion of respondents who came into late contact (higher primary and high school) with English and had a low proportion of students who would want English to be introduced at pre-school level. The majority of the respondents in this faculty maintained very consistent positive attitudes toward isiXhosa. Their age and the nature of the schools that these respondents came from probably had a significant influence on their attitudes (Baker 1992 cf. 2.4). All the respondents (part-time students) from the Education faculty were 26 years and above. They had all attended formerly disadvantaged DET schools and were teaching at these schools too. Many of these teachers were from the rural areas where much isiXhosa is

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being used. The bilingual (isiXhosa/English) environment in which these respondents had been schooled in and were working in had no doubt greatly influenced their attitudes toward isiXhosa, as can be seen from their strong support for the use of isiXhosa as LOLT and a bilingual policy at Rhodes University.

Law faculty respondents were very assertive of their isiXhosa identity. Their responses to questions dealing with attitudes toward isiXhosa were very positive. They showed strong support for a bilingual policy at Rhodes. The Law faculty had the highest proportion of respondents who felt that it was possible to implement a bilingual policy at Rhodes University and also encouraged its implementation. This faculty had the lowest proportion of respondents who would want English to be introduced at pre-school level even though a high proportion of them started using English at pre-school level. The highest proportion of respondents who felt that studying in isiXhosa would help them to obtain a job was found in the Law faculty. This may be due to the kind of job that these students will pursue after graduating, one which involves a lot of interaction with people as well as representing them in court.

All the Law respondents (except one) who participated in the interviews strongly supported the use of isiXhosa as LOLT alongside English at Rhodes. They were very assertive of their cultural identity as isiXhosa speakers and they often use the following kinds of expressions in their responses:

> IsiXhosa is my language and the language of my people, I am proud of my language, isiXhosa is an official language and so it should be developed and used as LOLT at university level in order to help isiXhosa speakers to understand their courses better as the use of Afrikaans at University of Stellenbosch enables mother-tongue speakers of Afrikaans to learn in their mother-tongue and have a better understanding of their courses.

Some of them suggested that more isiXhosa-speaking lecturers should be employed to assist isiXhosa-speaking students and that isiXhosa language training should be given to non isiXhosa-speaking lecturers at Rhodes University in order for a bilingual policy to become a reality. This result confirms the findings of Dalvit (2004) at the University of Fort Hare. The Law profession emphasises "social justice and equity", hence the Law students were very assertive and strongly supported the development and

use of isiXhosa which was formerly disadvantaged (Stewart 2003, cited in Dalvit 2004:93).

Commerce, Humanities, Pharmacy and Science students were more favourably disposed toward the use of only English as LOLT than the faculties above. This may be attributed to the fact that these faculties had a higher proportion of respondents from previously advantaged schools, first year and younger students. The majority of these groups of students had very positive attitudes toward English in the study. In the interviews, Commerce students felt that it would be difficult to teach Economics and Accounting in isiXhosa as it would be difficult to explain some of the technical terms of these fields in isiXhosa. Similarly, some Science students were not in support of the use of isiXhosa as LOLT at Rhodes because they thought that it would not be easy to translate some scientific words into isiXhosa as there might simply not be isiXhosa words for such technical terms. The respondents from the Science faculty at the University of Fort Hare had similar views (Dalvit 2004).

4.4 Summary

On the whole, this study shows that Rhodes University's policy of using only English as LOLT is supported by the majority of the respondents for instrumental reasons (see interview questions 6 and 7). Although some students were favourably disposed toward a bilingual policy, the practicality of its implementation was of great concern to these students because of Rhodes University's multilingual nature. Hence, the possibility of a fully-fledged bilingual policy was very remote in the minds of the majority of the respondents. Even though many students would have liked to have bilingual tutorials, they could not imagine how this would be effectively implemented as the tutorial groups consist of students from various language groups. Thus, bilingual tutor support on a personal level for isiXhosa-speaking students was suggested by some students. Many students felt that a more practical option would be in the provision of exam question papers and study materials in isiXhosa.

As for the level at which this policy should be implemented is concerned, the respondents who supported it unanimously suggested that it should be at first year level because they believed that students from a DET bilingual environment struggle a lot to adjust to using English only as LOLT in their first year. Therefore, a bilingual arrangement was recommended for this level to help them cope better.

The importance of the various variables in influencing these various attitudes is highlighted in the next chapter (c.f. 5.1).

Chapter 5

Conclusion

5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of the major findings of the research, some policy implications of the findings and recommendations for further research.

5.1 Summary of major findings

The main goal of this research was to elicit the opinions and beliefs of isiXhosa-speaking students, in order to reveal their attitudes toward LOLT issues at Rhodes University, as well as to determine the influence of a number of variables (such as age, gender, schooling background, level of study and field of study) on these attitudes. Qualitative and quantitative approaches were used to gather and analyse the data. The data was gathered through a survey that employed a questionnaire and interviews (individual and focus group). The quantitative results were analysed through the comparison of percentage scores, mean values and Chi-square tests, while the interviews were analysed qualitatively in order to determine the beliefs and attitudes expressed in the responses.

The results revealed that the respondents had a generally positive attitude toward the use of English as LOLT at Rhodes University and that this was based on instrumental reasons. There was also a relatively strong positive attitude toward the use of isiXhosa alongside English as LOLT. The motivations for the use of isiXhosa at Rhodes University were associated with instrumental (primarily to facilitate learning) and integrative values.

Furthermore, the results showed that the majority of the respondents who were favourably disposed toward the use of isiXhosa alongside English did not support a fully-fledged bilingual policy because of the multilingual nature of the university. Instead, it was suggested that isiXhosa should be used alongside English in a limited capacity, specifically for exam question papers, tutorials and definitions of discipline-specific technical terms in order to facilitate learning.

The findings of this research indicated that the various variables (age, gender, school, level of study and field of study) examined in the study all had an influence on the language attitudes of these respondents, often confirming the findings of other studies

on language attitudes. For instance, the results showed that the *schooling background* of the respondents greatly influenced their language attitudes. Those from previously advantaged (Model C and Private) English-only LOLT schools had very positive attitudes toward an English-only LOLT policy at Rhodes University. On the other hand, most of the respondents from formerly disadvantaged DET bilingual schools were favourably disposed toward a possible bilingual policy of English and isiXhosa at Rhodes University (cf. Baker 1992 and 2.4 and 4.3).

The schooling background variable probably had an influence on the other variables (particularly age, level of study and field of study). The majority of the older students, higher level respondents and Education faculty students had attended DET bilingual schools and these groups of respondents expressed more positive attitudes toward the use of isiXhosa alongside English at Rhodes University than the other groups of students. Although schooling background is an outstanding variable, age is also a significant variable. The levels of study (third year and postgraduate students) and faculties (education and law) that had the majority of older students were more enthusiastic about the bilingual arrangement than the levels of study (first and second year) and faculties (Commerce, Humanities, Pharmacy and Science) that had a higher proportion of younger students. The latter were for example, more favourably disposed toward an English-only LOLT policy than the former, which confirms the findings of De Klerk (1996), Dyers (1999) and Dalvit (2004).

On the other hand, the interviews suggest that while older students were more positive toward a possible bilingual arrangement at Rhodes University, they were more confident than the younger (particularly ex-DET) students with regard to their use and command of English.

Lastly, gender also played a very significant role in the distribution of responses. Supporting the existing literature (for example, Milroy 1980), males were found to regularly express more positive attitudes than the females toward the use of the low-status variety in question (i.e. isiXhosa).

5.2 Implications for language policy, and recommendations for further research

The findings of this research have two implications: firstly for Rhodes University's language policy and secondly for national language in education policy for both lower and higher levels. This study shows that a fully-fledged bilingual policy may not be appropriate at Rhodes University because of the diversity of the university's

population which most of the respondents acknowledge. The majority of students at Rhodes University are not isiXhosa-speaking and most of the isiXhosa-speaking students preferred the English-only policy. Furthermore, the majority of respondents who would want isiXhosa to be used alongside English at Rhodes University preferred to have the greater part of their learning done in English in order to communicate effectively in English and obtain good jobs. Moreover, the fact that the majority of the lecturers at Rhodes University do not speak isiXhosa would also complicate matters. Therefore, most of these respondents felt that implementing a fully-fledged bilingual policy (which may involve recruiting more bilingual lecturers and developing isiXhosa materials for all the courses) for just a few students who indicated an interest in the arrangement might amount to a waste of resources.

However, from the findings, some suggestions emerged as to how isiXhosa could be used alongside English to help students from a disadvantaged background. Some forms of mother-tongue intervention could be used to facilitate learning for isiXhosa-speaking ex-DET students, in particular bilingual tutor support during tutorials, the provision of English/isiXhosa exam question papers and isiXhosa definitions of technical terms by departments. Rhodes University should carry out research on how this arrangement could be successfully executed. The implementation of this policy could start from first-year level and at the Extended Studies Programmes in order to help students from ex-DET bilingual backgrounds to cope better in their first year.

Respondents from former DET schools, who strongly supported the use of isiXhosa at Rhodes University, noted that it was very difficult for them to adjust to learning in only English in their first year. They attributed the high rate of failure and exclusion common among the ex-DET students to this problem and they thought that bilingual support at first year level would help former DET students to improve their performance and successfully complete their programmes.

Furthermore, since it is the government's desire that historically advantaged universities like Rhodes University train more students from formerly disadvantaged schools, some form of bilingual structure should be put in place to help these students to successfully complete their first-year level and progress to other levels of study.

Caution should, however, be exercised in order not to generate conflict as the majority of the students are from other language groups. Efforts should be made to employ bilingual tutors so that weak students could meet these tutors in private for assistance.

However, the structures that should be put in place to help these students should not be permanent ones. The findings of this study show that the majority of the younger students who recently came out of high schools were more favourably disposed toward the English only policy at Rhodes University, i.e. more than the older students (especially the part-time students from the Education department) who attended high schools during the apartheid era when the quality of education was supposedly poorer. If government's interventions to improve the quality of education at the lower level produce students who are better able to cope at the university level, some of the above-mentioned structures might become increasingly unnecessary.

The argument of Foley (2004) is relevant here. He argues that the government should focus more attention on improving English language competence and the quality of education in general at primary and secondary levels of education, so that the matriculants who come out of high schools would have acquired skills that would enable them to succeed at a higher education level. It is hoped that this would be more beneficial to students than the "last-minute intervention strategies" that the Department of Education is encouraging higher institutions to put in place in order to help students from formerly disadvantaged background to succeed (*ibid*:7).

Therefore, a more comprehensive nationwide study at the high-school level would provide better direction for future language policy. Language-attitude research would help to ascertain the background and needs of the learners which in turn would enable the Department of Education to plan the right interventions that may help the learners to succeed at the lower and higher levels of education. This should of course be done on a regular basis.

Further language-attitude research is also needed at the tertiary level of education in order to determine the right university environment for particular mother-tongue intervention strategies. For instance, a specific university in a province could develop the major African language of that province so that students who may be interested in using their L1 could receive full mother-tongue support at such a university. It may not be possible to develop the local languages in all the universities given the huge resources that may be involved in doing so and given that some universities' environment may lend itself to the more adequate promotion of the development of local languages than others.

The findings of this study show that a highly multilingual university like Rhodes University may not be the appropriate environment to develop isiXhosa and use it alongside English in a fully-fledged bilingual arrangement, mainly because of the

relatively small number of isiXhosa-speaking students at Rhodes University. IsiXhosa-speaking students at Rhodes University constitute only a small fraction of the student population (12%) and besides, a high proportion of these students preferred studying in English only because of the socio-economic benefits associated with knowledge of English. Moreover, the majority of respondents who would want isiXhosa support preferred a partial bilingual arrangement, as they would want to develop their proficiency in English and also felt that the multilingual nature of Rhodes University would not encourage a fully-fledged bilingual policy.

On the other hand, the University of Fort Hare would probably be a more appropriate environment for the development of isiXhosa than Rhodes. Dalvit (2004) shows that the majority of students (about 80%) at the University of Fort Hare are isiXhosa-speakers and much isiXhosa is used informally and in academia. Some students at this university believed that there was an informal bilingual arrangement already in place, since isiXhosa is used in tutorials, group discussions and at lectures (where isiXhosa-speaking lecturers code-switch to explain difficult English concepts). Thus, implementing a formal bilingual arrangement may not pose much difficulty there. The language-attitude research results from this university show that a higher proportion of respondents at the University of Fort Hare were confident about their isiXhosa proficiency and were more enthusiastic about the use of isiXhosa alongside English as LOLT than respondents at Rhodes University.

Furthermore, the University of Fort Hare has an isiXhosa dictionary centre and plenty of other resources for the development of isiXhosa. Overall, this university has more potential to develop and implement a fully-fledged bilingual English/isiXhosa policy than Rhodes University.

5.3 Conclusion

The objectives of this study have been achieved through the various methods that were used to gather and analyse the data. The qualitative results (individual and focus group interviews) generally confirmed the results of the quantitative data (questionnaire) and provided further insights into what the students really had in mind with regard to the use of isiXhosa at Rhodes University. The findings of this language-attitude research at Rhodes University revealed that while a high proportion of the respondents would want the English-only policy to continue the way it is for instrumental reasons, others would welcome the use of isiXhosa alongside English at Rhodes University. An analysis of the

various variables which influence language attitudes has revealed that a high proportion of the former are young, female and from previously advantaged schools, while a high proportion of the latter are old, male and ex-DET respondents.

Although the majority of the respondents who supported a bilingual arrangement did not think that a fully-fledged policy would be practical because of the multilingual nature of the university, the areas (exam question papers, bilingual tutor support and definitions of technical terms) that they identified as feasible to implement should be explored. The respondents who supported a possible bilingual policy at Rhodes University spoke very passionately about the need for mother-tongue intervention in order to facilitate learning. Since one of the objectives of Rhodes University's language policy is to advance the "academic viability and status" of isiXhosa (one of the major languages in the Eastern Cape Province), it seems necessary to take into consideration the language needs of these isiXhosa-speaking former DET respondents (Rhodes University 2005:2). Rhodes University should thus conduct further research in order to explore how isiXhosa could be used alongside English in the areas that these students have identified.

A further research may also be conducted to ascertain whether the attitudes of these students (especially younger students or first year students) would change over time. Such a longitudinal language-attitude study may help to determine whether the reasons provided for the observed differences among the various variables considered in this study would be consistent over time.

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Appendix 1: Questionnaire

This questionnaire is part of a Master's thesis research project in Linguistics and Applied Language Studies at Rhodes University. The development of African languages as languages of learning and teaching in higher education institutions is encouraged in various higher education language policies. The purpose of this survey is to find out what isiXhosa-speaking students' perceptions are about using isiXhosa as a language of learning and teaching alongside English at Rhodes University. It would be highly appreciated if you could spend a few minutes completing the questionnaire. There is also an isiXhosa version of this questionnaire attached (pages 6-10).

UMBUZO-PHANDO

Le yinxalenye yophando lwesifundo see-mastazi kwisebe le-Lingwistiki nee-Lwimi eRhodes Yunivesiti. Uphuhliso lweeLwimi zesintu kwimfundo ephakamileyo yinto ekhuthazayo leyo. Injongo yoluphando kukufumana iimbono zabafundi malunga nofundiso lwesiXhosa kwakunye nesiNgesi eRhodes Yunivesiti. Ingancomeka into yokuchitha imizuzu embalwa uzalisa lefomu yoluphando. Ukhona omnye umbuzo-phando wesiNgesi oncanyathelisiweyo (iphepha 2-5).

SECTION 1: PERSONAL INFORMATION

PLEASE TICK THE RIGHT OPTION

Age: 17-20 ☐ 21-25 ☐ 26 and older ☐

Gender: Male ☐ Female ☐

School attended: Former Model C ☐ Former DET/township/rural ☐
Private ☐ Former House of Delegates ☐ Former House of Representatives ☐
Other………………………………………………………………………………….

Level of study at Rhodes (e.g. first year etc.)……………………………………………..

What are you studying?...

Name of faculty: …………………………………………………………………………

SECTION 2

PLEASE TICK THE OPTION THAT EXPRESSES YOUR VIEW

	Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1. My isiXhosa is good enough to study in at university.					
2. My English is good enough to cope with university studies.					
3. Using only English for teaching and learning disadvantages African students.					
4. Speakers of African languages experience problems in using English as a language of learning and teaching.					
5. IsiXhosa-speaking students should receive their tutorials and study notes in their mother-tongue *and* English at Rhodes university.					
6. IsiXhosa and other African languages should be developed to the point where they can be used for teaching and learning at the university.					
7. It should be made compulsory for everybody coming to Rhodes University to study isiXhosa as a subject.					
8. Written isiXhosa is different from the type of isiXhosa I speak.					
9. IsiXhosa-speaking students would understand their courses better if departments were to make isiXhosa definitions of technical terms available.					

	Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
10. I would like to study all my courses at the university in English *and* isiXhosa.					
11. If both English *and* isiXhosa question papers were provided in the exams it would help Xhosa students to understand the questions better.					
12. At university, I'd rather study some things in isiXhosa and learn how to translate my knowledge into English, than learning everything in English.					
13. I would like to be able to use isiXhosa during discussions in tutorials.					
14. The use of isiXhosa in tutorials would enable me to understand my subject much better.					
15. I would like my tutors to be able to speak isiXhosa.					
16. I would like my lecturers to be able to speak isiXhosa.					
17. Rhodes University should use **both** English *and* isiXhosa as languages of learning and teaching.					

SECTION 3
<u>PLEASE TICK ONE OPTION</u>

18. I started using English as a language of learning and teaching:
   - ❑ in pre-school
   - ❑ in lower primary school (grades 1-3)
   - ❑ in higher primary school (grades 4-7)
   - ❑ in high school
   - ❑ at Rhodes

19. English should be introduced as the language of learning and teaching:
   - ❑ from the very beginning
   - ❑ during lower primary school
   - ❑ during higher primary school
   - ❑ in high school
   - ❑ at university
   - ❑ it should just be studied as a subject and not be used as a language of learning and teaching

20. I think that using **both** English *and* isiXhosa as languages of learning and teaching at Rhodes is:
   - ❑ possible, and should be done
   - ❑ possible, but should not be done
   - ❑ impossible
   Kindly give reasons for your answer:…………………………………………………...

SECTION 4

YOU MAY TICK MORE THAN ONE OPTION IF YOU SO DESIRE

21. If isiXhosa is used to learn and teach in at Rhodes University:
    - ❑ it would not be a problem: isiXhosa can be used to express academic ideas
    - ❑ new technical terms in isiXhosa should be developed
    - ❑ English technical terms could be explained in isiXhosa
    - ❑ IsiXhosa cannot be used to explain technical ideas at the university

22. Studying in isiXhosa is important because:
    - ❑ IsiXhosa is an official language
    - ❑ IsiXhosa will help me to get a job
    - ❑ IsiXhosa is the language of my people
    - ❑ IsiXhosa will help me if I study further
    - ❑ I do not think it is important at the university level

23. To study in isiXhosa:
    - ❑ would make me feel more confident
    - ❑ would help me understand things better
    - ❑ would help me get higher marks
    - ❑ it would not help me at all

24. If isiXhosa could be used to learn and teach in at Rhodes University, at what stage should it be used?
    - ❑ first year only
    - ❑ all the undergraduate levels
    - ❑ postgraduate levels
    - ❑ all the levels so that isiXhosa students can learn in their mother-tongue
    - ❑ it should not be used at Rhodes

25. English is the language of:
    - ❑ international contact
    - ❑ division
    - ❑ ambition
    - ❑ liberation
    - ❑ tertiary education
    - ❑ oppression
    - ❑ national unity

26. When I speak English to an English native speaker:
    - ❑ I try to sound like an English native speaker
    - ❑ I'm proud of my isiXhosa accent
    - ❑ I don't care about my accent

27. At Rhodes University, isiXhosa should be used alongside English as a language of learning and teaching in the faculties of:
    - ❑ Commerce
    - ❑ Education
    - ❑ Humanities

- ❑ Law
- ❑ Pharmacy
- ❑ Science
- ❑ all the faculties
- ❑ none

28. If isiXhosa is used alongside English as a language of learning and teaching at Rhodes University:
    - ❑ the standard of teaching will decline
    - ❑ it will open up new areas of research
    - ❑ the number of students will decrease
    - ❑ more isiXhosa students will be able to go to Rhodes
    - ❑ it will affect the international status of Rhodes negatively

29. If *both* English *and* isiXhosa are used for teaching, isiXhosa-speaking graduates from Rhodes University:
    - ❑ will have a better understanding of the topics they have studied
    - ❑ will still speak English as well as they do now
    - ❑ will have more problems finding a job
    - ❑ will have more problems continuing their studies abroad

Please use the space below for any additional comments you would like to give.

…………………………………………………………………………………………………
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………………………………………………………………………………………….............
…………………………………………………………………………………………………

Kindly provide your contact details if you would welcome a follow-up discussion.

Name: ---

Telephone no: ---

Email: ---

Address in Grahamstown: ---

Thank you for participating in this survey.

Philomina Aziakpono

UMBUZO-PHANDO

Le yinxalenye yophando lwesifundo see-mastazi kwisebe le-Lingwistiki nee-Lwimi eRhodes Yunivesiti. Uphuhliso lweeLwimi zesintu kwimfundo ephakamileyo yinto ekhuthazayo leyo. Injongo yoluphando kukufumana iimbono zabafundi malunga nofundiso lwesiXhosa kwakunye nesiNgesi eRhodes Yunivesiti. Ingancomeka into yokuchitha imizuzu embalwa uzalisa lefomu yoluphando. Ukhona omnye umbuzo-phando wesiNgesi oncanyathelisiweyo.

ISIGABA SOKUQALA: IINKCUKACHA NGAWE

 <u>NCEDA UTIKISHE EYONA NDAWO IFANELEKILEYO</u>

Iminyaka : 17-20	
21-25	
26 +	
Isini :	Iduna		Isikhomokazi	

Isikolo ebendifunda kuso: Ebesifudula singu-Model C ☐   Ebesifudula siphantsi kwesebe leMfundo noQeqesho/Elokishini/emaphandleni ☐   Isikolo esizimeleyo ☐
Indlu yamaNdiya ☐   Indlu yabeBala ☐   Abanye………………

Unyaka okuwo eRhodes :……………………………………………………………

Wenza esiphi isifundo:……………………………………………………………

Igama lecandelo: ……………………………………………………………….

ISIGABA SESIBINI

NCEDA UTIKISHE EYONA ICHAZA IZIMVO ZAKHO KWEZI ZILANDELAYO

	Ndiyavuma kakhulu	Ndiyavuma	Andiqinisekanga	Andivumi	Andivumi tu
1. IsiXhosa sam silungele ukuya eYunivesiti					
2. Andinangxaki nesiNgesi ndingafunda eRhodes					
3. Ukufunda ngesiNgesi qha kuyingxaki kwabaMnyama					
4. Abantetho isisintu banengxaki esiNgesini.					
5. Makufundiswe ngesiXhosa nangesiNgesi					
6. Makuphuhliswe iilwimi zesintu.					
7. IsiXhosa masinyanzeliswe eRhodes.					
8. IsiXhosa esibhalwayo sahlukile kwintetho.					
9. Abantetho isisiXhosa bangatsala lula ukuba kungakho inkcazelo zamagama ayingxaki.					
10. Ndinqwenela ukufunda zonke izifundo zam ngesiNgesi nangesiXhosa.					
11. Ukuba amaphepha ebesetwe ngesiNgesi nangesiXhosa abantetho isisiXhosa bangaqonda lula.					
12. E-Yunivesiti ezinye izinto kungangcono xa zinokufundwa ngesiXhosa ndinganakho ukuguqulela ezinye izinto esiNgesini.					
13. Kungangcono xa ndinokuxoxa ngesiXhosa xa kuxoxwa ezifundweni.					
14. Ukusetyenziswa kwesiXhosa kungabangela ndifunde lula.					
15. Ndingavuya xa abahlohli bangakwazi ukuthetha isiXhosa.					
16. Kwakhona ndingavuya abahlohli bam xa benokuthetha isiXhosa.					
17. I-Rhodes kungangcono xa inokusebenzisa isiNgesi nesiXhosa ekufundeni nasekufundiseni.					

ISIGABA SESITHATHU

NCEDA UFILISHE INDAWO IBENYE

18. Ndaqala ukusebenzisa isiNgesi:

Ekhritshi	
Kumabanga aphantsi (inqanaba 1-3)	
Kumabanga aphakamileyo (inqanaba4-7)	
Kumabanga aphezulu	
E-Rhodes	

19. IsiNgesi singasetyenziswa ekufundeni nasekufundiseni

Xa uqala ngqa ukufunda	
Kumabanga aphantsi	
Kumabanga aphakamileyo	
Kumabanga aphezulu	
E-Yunivesiti	
Masifundwe nje singabi lulwimi elenzelwe ukufunda nokufundisa	

20. Ukusetyenziswa kwesiXhosa nesiNgesi eRhodes njengesifundo
     nokufundiswa kungafaneleka

Kufanelekile, makuqhutywe	
Kufanelekile, makungaqhutywa	
Akufanelekanga	

Nceda nika izizathu ngempendulo yakho:

…………………………………………………………………………………………………
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21. Ukuba isiXhosa singafundwa sifundiswe eRhodes:

Ayinakuba yingxaki:IsiXhosa singasetyenziswa ekuphuhliseni ubungcaphephe kwezemfundo	
Amagama amatsha esiXhoseni angaphuhliswa	
Amagama angatolikekiyo esiNgesini angakwazi ukucaciseka esiXhoseni	
IsiXhosa asinakukwazi ukuwacacisa la magama	

ISIGABA SESINE

UNGATIKISHA ZIBENINZI UKUBA UYAFUNA

22. Ukufunda ngesiXhosa kubalulekile ngezizizathu:

IsiXhosa lulwimi lwasebuRhulumenteni.	
IsiXhosa singenza ndifumane umsebenzi.	
IsiXhosa lulwimi lwabantu bam.	
Singandinceda ukuqhuba izifundo zam.	
Andiqondi ibalulekile eYunivesiti.	

23. Ukufunda ngesiXhosa:

Kungandenza ndizithembe.	
Kungenza ndiqonde msinyane.	
Kungenza ndifumane amanqaku aphezulu.	
Ayinakundinceda kwaphela loo nto.	

24. Ukuba isiXhosa singafundwa eRhodes kwesiphi isigaba?

Kwisigaba sokuqala qha.	
Kubo bonke abangekafumani zidanga.	
Kwasebenezidanga.	
Kuzo zonke izigaba ukwenzela abantetho isisiXhosa bafunde ngolwimi lwabo.	
Masingasetyenziswa eRhodes.	

25. IsiNgesi lulwimi lo/lwa:

Qhagamshelwano lwezizwe ngezizwe.	
Lweyantlukwano.	
Lwamabhongo/mampunge.	
Lwenkululeko.	
Lwemfundo ephakamileyo.	
Lwengcinezelo	
Lokudibanisa iintlanga-ngeentlanga	

26. Xa ndithetha isiNgesi kwabantetho isisiNgesi:

Ndiziva ndifana twatse nentetho isisiNgesi	
Ndiyazingca ngolwimi lwesiXhosa	
Andikhathalele ukuba ndivakala njanina xa ndithetha isiXhosa	

27. ERhodes isiXhosa masisetyenziswe ngokulinganayo nesiNgesi kula manqanaba:

Ikhomesi	
Kwicandelo lwezeMfundo	
Kwezobuntu (Mumanities)	
Kwezomthetho	
Kwifamasi	
Kwezobugqi	
Kuwo onke amanqanaba (faculties)	
Nakanye	

28. Ukuba isiXhosa singasetyenziswa ngokulinganayo nesiNgesi eRhodes:

Izinga lezifundo liyakuhla.	
Ingavula amathuba ophando.	
Amanani abafundi ayakuhla.	
AbaNtsundu bangafumana amathuba okufunda eYunivesiti.	
Ingachaphazela ubume bamazwe ngamazwe eRhodes kakubi.	

29. Ukuba isiXhosa nesiNgesi zingasetyenziswa, abanezidanga zaseRhodes banga:

Nolwazi lwezihloko ezifundwayo	
Bangathetha isiNgesi njengokuba besenze ngoku	
Banganeengxaki zokufumana imisebenzi	
Banganeengxaki zokufunda phesheya kweelwandle	

Nceda usebenzise esisithuba singezantsi ukunika izimvo zakho:

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Nceda usinike iinkcukacha zakho ukuba uyafuna udliwano-ndlebe kwakhona.

Igama : …………………………………………………………………………..

Inombolo yomnxeba : ………………………………………………………………….

I-Email …………………………………………………………………………..

Idilesi yakho eRhini : ……………………………...

ENKOSI NGOKUZIDINA

Philomina Aziakpono

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Appendix 2: Interview questions

1. How old are you?
2. What kind of school did you attend before coming to Rhodes University? What languages were used for teaching?
3. When did you first come into contact with English in your education? What course/s are you majoring in?
5. What motivated you to come to Rhodes University?
6. What do you feel about Rhodes University's policy of using only English as the language of learning and teaching?
7. Would you like isiXhosa to be used alongside English as language of learning and teaching at Rhodes University? Why?
8. Do you think that your English is good enough to cope with university studies?
9. Has your English improved since you came to Rhodes?
10. To what extent would you like isiXhosa to be used at Rhodes? (Study materials, tutorials, exam question papers or used as a language of learning and teaching alongside English).
11. Do you experience any problem in using English as the only language of learning and teaching at Rhodes?
12. At what levels of study would you want isiXhosa to be used? (e.g. first year, etc.)
13. Do you think that Rhodes University has the capacity to develop and use isiXhosa as a language of learning and teaching alongside English?

Appendix 3: Chi-square test results

Gender

Belief state- ments		SA	A	NS	D	SD	Total		Chi- square	DF	P-value	Signifi- cant?
1	Male	52	27	15	9	5	108		9.31	4	0.050	Yes
		48.15%	25.00%	13.89%	8.33%	4.63%						
	Female	50	45	27	25	13	160					
		31.25%	28.13%	16.88%	15.63%	8.13%						
		102	72	42	34	18	268					
2	Male	41	55	10	1	1	108		7.15	4	0.128	No
		37.96%	50.93%	9.26%	0.93%	0.93%						
	Female	78	69	8	5	0	160					
		48.75%	43.13%	5.00%	3.13%	0.00%						
		119	124	18	6	1	268					
3	Male	20	34	29	18	7	108		8.23	4	0.085	No
		18.52%	31.48%	26.85%	16.67%	6.48%						
	Female	17	54	31	43	15	160					
		10.63%	33.75%	19.38%	26.88%	9.38%						
		37	88	60	61	22	268					
4	Male	20	39	29	16	4	108		6.41	4	0.171	No
		18.52%	36.11%	26.85%	14.81%	3.70%						
	Female	16	65	44	21	14	160					
		10.00%	40.63%	27.50%	13.13%	8.75%						
		36	104	73	37	18	268					
5	Male	31	22	20	19	16	108		11.20	4	0.024	Yes
		28.70%	20.37%	18.52%	17.59%	14.81%						
	Female	21	33	33	43	30	160					
		13.13%	20.63%	20.63%	26.88%	18.75%						
		52	55	53	62	46	268					
6	Male	43	35	13	9	8	108		9.57	4	0.048	Yes
		39.81%	32.41%	12.04%	8.33%	7.41%						
	Female	39	54	30	25	12	160					
		24.38%	33.75%	18.75%	15.63%	7.50%						
		82	89	43	34	20	268					
7	Male	17	19	29	27	16	108		10.73	4	0.030	Yes
		15.74%	17.59%	26.85%	25.00%	14.81%						
	Female	13	23	31	49	44	160					
		8.13%	14.37%	19.38%	30.63%	27.50%						

		30	42	60	76	60	268				
8	Male	42	36	10	14	6	108		6.22	4	0.184	No
		38.89%	33.33%	9.26%	12.96%	5.56%					
	Female	69	54	21	14	2	160				
		43.13%	33.75%	13.13%	8.75%	1.25%					
		111	90	31	28	8	268				
9	Male	33	37	24	8	6	108		11.44	4	0.022	Yes
		30.56%	34.26%	22.22%	7.41%	5.56%					
	Female	29	47	42	30	12	160				
		18.13%	29.38%	26.25%	18.75%	7.50%					
		62	84	66	38	18	268				
10	Male	23	33	16	24	12	108		25.05	4	0.000	Yes
		21.30%	30.56%	14.81%	22.22%	11.11%					
	Female	8	32	35	57	28	160				
		5.00%	20.00%	21.88%	35.63%	17.50%					
		31	65	51	81	40	268				
11	Male	40	36	18	10	4	108		14.34	4	0.006	Yes
		37.04%	33.33%	16.67%	9.26%	3.70%					
	Female	27	68	36	23	6	160				
		16.88%	42.50%	22.50%	14.37%	3.75%					
		67	104	54	33	10	268				
12	Male	21	31	20	29	7	108		19.04	4	0.001	Yes
		19.44%	28.70%	18.52%	26.85%	6.48%					
	Female	9	37	46	43	25	160				
		5.63%	23.13%	28.75%	26.88%	15.63%					
		30	68	66	72	32	268				
13	Male	27	38	22	14	7	108		8.68	4	0.070	No
		25.00%	35.19%	20.37%	12.96%	6.48%					
	Female	25	50	33	42	10	160				
		15.63%	31.25%	20.63%	26.25%	6.25%					
		52	88	55	56	17	268				
14	Male	26	37	22	16	7	108		6.33	4	0.176	No
		24.07%	34.26%	20.37%	14.81%	6.48%					
	Female	22	50	43	31	14	160				
		13.75%	31.25%	26.88%	19.38%	8.75%					
		48	87	65	47	21	268				
15	Male	26	47	16	13	6	108		5.30	4	0.257	No
		24.07%	43.52%	14.81%	12.04%	5.56%					

									Chi-square	DF	P-value	Significant?
	Female	25	63	34	25	13	160					
		15.63%	39.38%	21.25%	15.63%	8.13%						
		51	110	50	38	19	268					
16	Male	21	40	20	19	8	108		3.42	4	0.489	No
		19.44%	37.04%	18.52%	17.59%	7.41%						
	Female	24	50	43	31	12	160					
		15.00%	31.25%	26.88%	19.38%	7.50%						
		45	90	63	50	20	268					
17	Male	32	31	21	14	10	108		10.28	4	0.036	Yes
		29.63%	28.70%	19.44%	12.96%	9.26%						
	Female	25	49	32	39	15	160					
		15.63%	30.63%	20.00%	24.38%	9.38%						
		57	80	53	53	25	268					
18	Male	16	41	29	16	6	108		9.50	4	0.050	Yes
		14.81%	37.96%	26.85%	14.81%	5.56%						
	Female	42	69	30	15	4	160					
		26.25%	43.13%	18.75%	9.38%	2.50%						
		58	110	59	31	10	268					
		BEG	LPS	HPS	HS	UNI	SUB	Total				
19	Male	73	23	7	1	0	4	108	3.20	5	0.669	No
		67.59%	21.30%	6.48%	0.93%	0.00%	3.70%					
	Female	110	33	5	1	1	10	160				
		68.75%	20.63%	3.13%	0.63%	0.63%	6.25%					
		183	56	12	2	1	14	268				
		PSBD	PSNBD	IMP	Total							
20	Male	66	24	18	108				14.12	2	0.000	Yes
		61.11%	22.22%	16.67%								
	Female	61	63	36	160							
		38.13%	39.38%	22.50%								
		127	87	54	268							

Schooling background

Belief statements	School	SA	A	NS	D	SD	Total		Chi-square	DF	P-value	Significant?
1	PA	16	24	13	15	8	76		15.52	4	0.004	Yes
		21.05%	31.58%	17.11%	19.74%	10.53%						
	DET	86	48	29	19	10	192					
		44.79%	25.00%	15.10%	9.90%	5.21%						
		102	72	42	34	18	268					
2	PA	57	17	2	0	0	76		40.87	4	0.000	Yes

		75.00%	22.37%	2.63%	0.00%	0.00%					
	DET	62	107	16	6	1	192				
		32.29%	55.73%	8.33%	3.13%	0.52%					
		119	124	18	6	1	268				
3	PA	4	24	24	18	6	76		9.71	4	0.046	Yes
		5.26%	31.58%	31.58%	23.68%	7.89%					
	DET	33	64	36	43	16	192				
		17.19%	33.33%	18.75%	22.40%	8.33%					
		37	88	60	61	22	268				
4	PA	7	23	26	12	8	76		7.89	4	0.096	No
		9.21%	30.26%	34.21%	15.79%	10.53%					
	DET	29	81	47	25	10	192				
		15.10%	42.19%	24.48%	13.02%	5.21%					
		36	104	73	37	18	268				
5	PA	8	12	25	18	13	76		14.71	4	0.005	Yes
		10.53%	15.79%	32.89%	23.68%	17.11%					
	DET	44	43	28	44	33	192				
		22.92%	22.40%	14.58%	22.92%	17.19%					
		52	55	53	62	46	268				
6	PA	14	23	22	11	6	76		16.72	4	0.002	No
		18.42%	30.26%	28.95%	14.47%	7.89%					
	DET	68	66	21	23	14	192				
		35.42%	34.38%	10.94%	11.98%	7.29%					
		82	89	43	34	20	268				
7	PA	6	10	13	22	25	76		8.03	4	0.091	No
		7.89%	13.16%	17.11%	28.95%	32.89%					
	DET	24	32	47	54	35	192				
		12.50%	16.67%	24.48%	28.13%	18.23%					
		30	42	60	76	60	268				
8	PA	25	28	16	5	2	76		12.01	4	0.017	Yes
		32.89%	36.84%	21.05%	6.58%	2.63%					
	DET	86	62	15	23	6	192				
		44.79%	32.29%	7.81%	11.98%	3.13%					
		111	90	31	28	8	268				
9	PA	7	20	29	14	6	76		19.20	4	0.001	Yes
		9.21%	26.32%	38.16%	18.42%	7.89%					
	DET	55	64	37	24	12	192				
		28.65%	33.33%	19.27%	12.50%	6.25%					
		62	84	66	38	18	268				

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10	PA	3	11	18	29	15	76		14.57	4	0.006	Yes
		3.95%	14.47%	23.68%	38.16%	19.74%					
	DET	28	54	33	52	25	192				
		14.58%	28.13%	17.19%	27.08%	13.02%					
		31	65	51	81	40	268				
11	PA	9	29	19	14	5	76		14.12	4	0.007	Yes
		11.84%	38.16%	25.00%	18.42%	6.58%					
	DET	58	75	35	19	5	192				
		30.21%	39.06%	18.23%	9.90%	2.60%					
		67	104	54	33	10	268				
12	PA	2	11	25	21	17	76		24.54	4	0.000	Yes
		2.63%	14.47%	32.89%	27.63%	22.37%					
	DET	28	57	41	51	15	192				
		14.58%	29.69%	21.35%	26.56%	7.81%					
		30	68	66	72	32	268				
13	PA	8	17	21	23	7	76		16.29	4	0.003	Yes
		10.53%	22.37%	27.63%	30.26%	9.21%					
	DET	44	71	34	33	10	192				
		22.92%	36.98%	17.71%	17.19%	5.21%					
		52	88	55	56	17	268				
14	PA	6	13	26	17	14	76		34.66	4	0.000	Yes
		7.89%	17.11%	34.21%	22.37%	18.42%					
	DET	42	74	39	30	7	192				
		21.88%	38.54%	20.31%	15.63%	3.65%					
		48	87	65	47	21	268				
15	PA	7	23	25	11	10	76		25.42	4	0.000	Yes
		9.21%	30.26%	32.89%	14.47%	13.16%					
	DET	44	87	25	27	9	192				
		22.92%	45.31%	13.02%	14.06%	4.69%					
		51	110	50	38	19	268				
16	PA	7	17	29	17	6	76		18.10	4	0.001	Yes
		9.21%	22.37%	38.16%	22.37%	7.89%					
	DET	38	73	34	33	14	192				
		19.79%	38.02%	17.71%	17.19%	7.29%					
		45	90	63	50	20	268				
17	PA	6	18	24	16	12	76		22.58	4	0.000	Yes
		7.89%	23.68%	31.58%	21.05%	15.79%					
	DET	51	62	29	37	13	192				

Belief	Type							Total		Chi-square	DF	P-value	Significant?
		26.56%	32.29%	15.10%	19.27%	6.77%							
		57	80	53	53	25		268					
18	PA	36	29	9	2	0		76		48.93	4	0.000	Yes
		47.37%	38.16%	11.84%	2.63%	0.00%							
	DET	22	81	50	29	10		192					
		11.46%	42.19%	26.04%	15.10%	5.21%							
		58	110	59	31	10		268					
		BEG	LPS	HPS	HS	UNI	SUB	Total					
19	PA	53	20	0	0	1	2	76		10.96	5	0.050	Yes
		69.74%	26.32%	0.00%	0.00%	1.32%	2.63%						
	DET	130	36	12	2	0	12	192					
		67.71%	18.75%	6.25%	1.04%	0.00%	6.25%						
		183	56	12	2	1	14	268					
		PSBD	PSNBD	IMP	Total								
20	PA	27	35	14	76					9.34	2	0.009	Yes
		35.53%	46.05%	18.42%									
	DET	100	52	40	192								
		52.08%	27.08%	20.83%									
		127	87	54	268								

Age

Belief state-ments	Age	SA	A	NS	D	SD	Total		Chi-square	DF	P-value	Signifi-cant?
1	17-20	44	33	27	23	15	142		27.50	8	0.000	Yes
		30.99%	23.24%	19.01%	16.20%	10.56%						
	21-25	22	23	12	4	2	63					
		34.92%	36.51%	19.05%	6.35%	3.17%						
	26 plus	36	16	3	7	1	63					
		57.14%	25.40%	4.76%	11.11%	1.59%						
		102	72	42	34	18	268					
2	17-20	69	61	8	4	0	142		12.54	8	0.129	No
		48.59%	42.96%	5.63%	2.82%	0.00%						
	21-25	32	25	5	1	0	63					
		50.79%	39.68%	7.94%	1.59%	0.00%						
	26 plus	18	38	5	1	1	63					
		28.57%	60.32%	7.94%	1.59%	1.59%						
		119	124	18	6	1	268					
3	17-20	12	38	39	38	15	142		27.05	8	0.001	Yes
		8.45%	26.76%	27.46%	26.76%	10.56%						
	21-25	8	23	16	13	3	63					
		12.70%	36.51%	25.40%	20.63%	4.76%						

	26 plus	17	27	5	10	4	63				
		26.98%	42.86%	7.94%	15.87%	6.35%					
		37	88	60	61	22	268				
4	17-20	14	48	45	22	13	142		14.96	8	0.059	No
		9.86%	33.80%	31.69%	15.49%	9.15%					
	21-25	11	23	17	10	2	63				
		17.46%	36.51%	26.98%	15.87%	3.17%					
	26 plus	11	33	11	5	3	63				
		17.46%	52.38%	17.46%	7.94%	4.76%					
		36	104	73	37	18	268				
5	17-20	18	21	32	43	28	142		36.04	8	0.000	Yes
		12.68%	14.79%	22.54%	30.28%	19.72%					
	21-25	16	9	15	13	10	63				
		25.40%	14.29%	23.81%	20.63%	15.87%					
	26 plus	18	25	6	6	8	63				
		28.57%	39.68%	9.52%	9.52%	12.70%					
		52	55	53	62	46	268				
6	17-20	33	43	29	20	17	142		26.23	8	0.000	Yes
		23.24%	30.28%	20.42%	14.08%	11.97%					
	21-25	26	16	10	9	2	63				
		41.27%	25.40%	15.87%	14.29%	3.17%					
	26 plus	23	30	4	5	1	63				
		36.51%	47.62%	6.35%	7.94%	1.59%					
		82	89	43	34	20	268				
7	17-20	10	20	27	44	41	142		17.90	8	0.021	Yes
		7.04%	14.08%	19.01%	30.99%	28.87%					
	21-25	11	8	14	20	10	63				
		17.46%	12.70%	22.22%	31.75%	15.87%					
	26 plus	9	14	19	12	9	63				
		14.29%	22.22%	30.16%	19.05%	14.29%					
		30	42	60	76	60	268				
8	17-20	58	50	14	13	7	142		7.45	8	0.489	No
		40.85%	35.21%	9.86%	9.15%	4.93%					
	21-25	28	18	10	6	1	63				
		44.44%	28.57%	15.87%	9.52%	1.59%					
	26 plus	25	22	7	9	0	63				
		39.68%	34.92%	11.11%	14.29%	0.00%					
		111	90	31	28	8	268				
9	17-20	26	40	39	23	14	142		18.55	8	0.017	Yes
		18.31%	28.17%	27.46%	16.20%	9.86%					

	21-25	13	20	19	9	2	63				
		20.63%	31.75%	30.16%	14.29%	3.17%					
	26 plus	23	24	8	6	2	63				
		36.51%	38.10%	12.70%	9.52%	3.17%					
		62	84	66	38	18	268				
10	17-20	16	24	24	49	29	142		18.95	8	0.015	Yes
		11.27%	16.90%	16.90%	34.51%	20.42%					
	21-25	6	18	17	16	6	63				
		9.52%	28.57%	26.98%	25.40%	9.52%					
	26 plus	9	23	10	16	5	63				
		14.29%	36.51%	15.87%	25.40%	7.94%					
		31	65	51	81	40	268				
11	17-20	28	55	29	22	8	142		10.15	8	0.254	No
		19.72%	38.73%	20.42%	15.49%	5.63%					
	21-25	18	24	15	5	1	63				
		28.57%	38.10%	23.81%	7.94%	1.59%					
	26 plus	21	25	10	6	1	63				
		33.33%	39.68%	15.87%	9.52%	1.59%					
		67	104	54	33	10	268				
12	17-20	12	29	40	38	23	142		24.35	8	0.002	Yes
		8.45%	20.42%	28.17%	26.76%	16.20%					
	21-25	7	13	20	19	4	63				
		11.11%	20.63%	31.75%	30.16%	6.35%					
	26 plus	11	26	6	15	5	63				
		17.46%	41.27%	9.52%	23.81%	7.94%					
		30	68	66	72	32	268				
13	17-20	27	39	27	37	12	142		11.98	8	0.151	No
		19.01%	27.46%	19.01%	26.06%	8.45%					
	21-25	12	21	16	10	4	63				
		19.05%	33.33%	25.40%	15.87%	6.35%					
	26 plus	13	28	12	9	1	63				
		20.63%	44.44%	19.05%	14.29%	1.59%					
		52	88	55	56	17	268				
14		24	45	28	30	15	142		17.20	8	0.028	Yes
		16.90%	31.69%	19.72%	21.13%	10.56%					
		14	13	21	11	4	63				
		22.22%	20.63%	33.33%	17.46%	6.35%					
		10	29	16	6	2	63				
		15.87%	46.03%	25.40%	9.52%	3.17%					
		48	87	65	47	21	268				

15	17-20	24	55	25	25	13	142		13.30	8	0.102	No
		16.90%	38.73%	17.61%	17.61%	9.15%						
	21-25	13	21	16	8	5	63					
		20.63%	33.33%	25.40%	12.70%	7.94%						
	26 plus	14	34	9	5	1	63					
		22.22%	53.97%	14.29%	7.94%	1.59%						
		51	110	50	38	19	268					
16	17-20	19	42	30	35	16	142		29.16	8	0.000	Yes
		13.38%	29.58%	21.13%	24.65%	11.27%						
	21-25	13	15	22	10	3	63					
		20.63%	23.81%	34.92%	15.87%	4.76%						
	26 plus	13	33	11	5	1	63					
		20.63%	52.38%	17.46%	7.94%	1.59%						
		45	90	63	50	20	268					
17	17-20	21	36	31	34	20	142		28.19	8	0.000	Yes
		14.79%	25.35%	21.83%	23.94%	14.08%						
	21-25	17	16	13	15	2	63					
		26.98%	25.40%	20.63%	23.81%	3.17%						
	26 plus	19	28	9	4	3	63					
		30.16%	44.44%	14.29%	6.35%	4.76%						
		57	80	53	53	25	268					
18	17-20	38	57	27	13	7	142		22.18	8	0.005	Yes
		26.76%	40.14%	19.01%	9.15%	4.93%						
	21-25	17	22	11	10	3	63					
		26.98%	34.92%	17.46%	15.87%	4.76%						
	26 plus	3	31	21	8	0	63					
		4.76%	49.21%	33.33%	12.70%	0.00%						
		58	110	59	31	10	268					
		BEG	LPS	HPS	HS	UNI	SUB	Total				
19	17-20	112	22	3	1	1	3	142	35.29	10	0.000	Yes
		78.87%	15.49%	2.11%	0.70%	0.70%	2.11%					
	21-25	44	14	1	0	0	4	63				
		69.84%	22.22%	1.59%	0.00%	0.00%	6.35%					
	26 plus	27	20	8	1	0	7	63				
		42.86%	31.75%	12.70%	1.59%	0.00%	11.11%					
		183	56	12	2	1	14	268				
		PSBD	PSNBD	IMP	Total							
20	17-20	50	53	39	142				21.08	4	0.000	Yes
		35.21%	37.32%	27.46%								

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	21-25	36	17	10	63					
		57.14%	26.98%	15.87%						
	26 plus	41	17	5	63					
		65.08%	26.98%	7.94%						
		127	87	54	268					

Level of study

Belief state-ments	Level	SA	A	NS	D	SD	Total		Chi-square	DF	P-value	Signifi-cant?
1	YR1	36	27	24	20	14	121		29.83	12	0.002	Yes
		29.75%	22.31%	19.83%	16.53%	11.57%						
	YR2	25	23	7	9	2	66					
		37.88%	34.85%	10.61%	13.64%	3.03%						
	YR3	26	8	4	4	2	44					
		59.09%	18.18%	9.09%	9.09%	4.55%						
	PG	15	14	7	1	0	37					
		40.54%	37.84%	18.92%	2.70%	0.00%						
		102	72	42	34	18	268					
2	YR1	48	60	9	3	1	121		29.83	12	0.002	Yes
		39.67%	49.59%	7.44%	2.48%	0.83%						
	YR2	29	32	3	2	0	66					
		43.94%	48.48%	4.55%	3.03%	0.00%						
	YR3	27	13	4	0	0	44					
		61.36%	29.55%	9.09%	0.00%	0.00%						
	PG	15	19	2	1	0	37					
		40.54%	51.35%	5.41%	2.70%	0.00%						
		119	124	18	6	1	268					
3	YR1	11	33	30	35	12	121		21.07	12	0.049	Yes
		9.09%	27.27%	24.79%	28.93%	9.92%						
	YR2	8	21	16	15	6	66					
		12.12%	31.82%	24.24%	22.73%	9.09%						
	YR3	9	18	11	4	2	44					
		20.45%	40.91%	25.00%	9.09%	4.55%						
	PG	9	16	3	7	2	37					
		24.32%	43.24%	8.11%	18.92%	5.41%						
		37	88	60	61	22	268					
4	YR1	13	41	38	17	12	121		15.18	12	0.231	No
		10.74%	33.88%	31.40%	14.05%	9.92%						
	YR2	6	28	21	8	3	66					
		9.09%	42.42%	31.82%	12.12%	4.55%						
	YR3	10	17	8	7	2	44					
		22.73%	38.64%	18.18%	15.91%	4.55%						
	PG	7	18	6	5	1	37					

		18.92%	48.65%	16.22%	13.51%	2.70%					
		36	104	73	37	18	268				
5	YR1	17	16	24	37	27	121		30.04	12	0.003	Yes
		14.05%	13.22%	19.83%	30.58%	22.31%					
	YR2	9	18	15	16	8	66				
		13.64%	27.27%	22.73%	24.24%	12.12%					
	YR3	16	10	9	3	6	44				
		36.36%	22.73%	20.45%	6.82%	13.64%					
	PG	10	11	5	6	5	37				
		27.03%	29.73%	13.51%	16.22%	13.51%					
		52	55	53	62	46	268				
6	YR1	28	42	21	19	11	121		16.15	12	0.184	No
		23.14%	34.71%	17.36%	15.70%	9.09%					
	YR2	17	24	11	8	6	66				
		25.76%	36.36%	16.67%	12.12%	9.09%					
	YR3	18	14	5	5	2	44				
		40.91%	31.82%	11.36%	11.36%	4.55%					
	PG	19	9	6	2	1	37				
		51.35%	24.32%	16.22%	5.41%	2.70%					
		82	89	43	34	20	268				
7	YR1	8	21	24	40	28	121		18.68	12	0.096	No
		6.61%	17.36%	19.83%	33.06%	23.14%					
	YR2	8	11	13	16	18	66				
		12.12%	16.67%	19.70%	24.24%	27.27%					
	YR3	10	6	8	11	9	44				
		22.73%	13.64%	18.18%	25.00%	20.45%					
	PG	4	4	15	9	5	37				
		10.81%	10.81%	40.54%	24.32%	13.51%					
		30	42	60	76	60	268				
8	YR1	48	43	14	12	4	121		9.81	12	0.632	No
		39.67%	35.54%	11.57%	9.92%	3.31%					
	YR2	28	24	4	9	1	66				
		42.42%	36.36%	6.06%	13.64%	1.52%					
	YR3	18	11	8	4	3	44				
		40.91%	25.00%	18.18%	9.09%	6.82%					
	PG	17	12	5	3	0	37				
		45.95%	32.43%	13.51%	8.11%	0.00%					
		111	90	31	28	8	268				
9	YR1	26	32	32	22	9	121		13.52	12	0.332	No
		21.49%	26.45%	26.45%	18.18%	7.44%					
	YR2	10	25	16	9	6	66				

									χ²	df	p	Sig
		15.15%	37.88%	24.24%	13.64%	9.09%						
	YR3	14	14	12	3	1	44					
		31.82%	31.82%	27.27%	6.82%	2.27%						
	PG	12	13	6	4	2	37					
		32.43%	35.14%	16.22%	10.81%	5.41%						
		62	84	66	38	18	268					
10	YR1	15	25	16	46	19	121		20.92	12	0.050	Yes
		12.40%	20.66%	13.22%	38.02%	15.70%						
	YR2	5	13	18	18	12	66					
		7.58%	19.70%	27.27%	27.27%	18.18%						
	YR3	6	18	8	6	6	44					
		13.64%	40.91%	18.18%	13.64%	13.64%						
	PG	5	9	9	11	3	37					
		13.51%	24.32%	24.32%	29.73%	8.11%						
		31	65	51	81	40	268					
11	YR1	26	46	24	19	6	121		13.45	12	0.337	No
		21.49%	38.02%	19.83%	15.70%	4.96%						
	YR2	12	29	15	9	1	66					
		18.18%	43.94%	22.73%	13.64%	1.52%						
	YR3	18	14	8	2	2	44					
		40.91%	31.82%	18.18%	4.55%	4.55%						
	PG	11	15	7	3	1	37					
		29.73%	40.54%	18.92%	8.11%	2.70%						
		67	104	54	33	10	268					
12	YR1	13	29	30	35	14	121		5.23	12	0.949	No
		10.74%	23.97%	24.79%	28.93%	11.57%						
	YR2	6	15	17	17	11	66					
		9.09%	22.73%	25.76%	25.76%	16.67%						
	YR3	5	13	11	10	5	44					
		11.36%	29.55%	25.00%	22.73%	11.36%						
	PG	6	11	8	10	2	37					
		16.22%	29.73%	21.62%	27.03%	5.41%						
		30	68	66	72	32	268					
13	YR1	21	38	22	30	10	121		8.52	12	0.743	No
		17.36%	31.40%	18.18%	24.79%	8.26%						
	YR2	11	23	18	12	2	66					
		16.67%	34.85%	27.27%	18.18%	3.03%						
	YR3	9	16	8	8	3	44					
		20.45%	36.36%	18.18%	18.18%	6.82%						
	PG	11	11	7	6	2	37					
		29.73%	29.73%	18.92%	16.22%	5.41%						
		52	88	55	56	17	268					

14	YR1	20	44	22	27	8	121		14.18	12	0.290	No
		16.53%	36.36%	18.18%	22.31%	6.61%						
	YR2	10	16	22	10	8	66					
		15.15%	24.24%	33.33%	15.15%	12.12%						
	YR3	10	15	11	4	4	44					
		22.73%	34.09%	25.00%	9.09%	9.09%						
	PG	8	12	10	6	1	37					
		21.62%	32.43%	27.03%	16.22%	2.70%						
		48	87	65	47	21	268					
15	YR1	21	47	22	21	10	121		12.83	12	0.381	No
		17.36%	38.84%	18.18%	17.36%	8.26%						
	YR2	10	24	17	11	4	66					
		15.15%	36.36%	25.76%	16.67%	6.06%						
	YR3	11	20	7	2	4	44					
		25.00%	45.45%	15.91%	4.55%	9.09%						
	PG	9	19		4	1	37					
		24.32%	51.35%	10.81%	10.81%	2.70%						
		51	110	50	38	19	268					
	YR1	21	47	22	21	10	121		18.53	12	0.101	No
16		12.40%	31.40%	20.66%	24.79%	10.74%						
	YR2	10	24	17	11	4	66					
		15.15%	30.30%	30.30%	18.18%	6.06%						
	YR3	11	20	7	2	4	44					
		25.00%	38.64%	22.73%	6.82%	6.82%						
	PG	9	19	4	4	1	37					
		24.32%	40.54%	21.62%	13.51%	0.00%						
		51	110	50	38	19	268					
17	YR1	19	30	24	30	18	121		25.45	12	0.013	Yes
		15.70%	24.79%	19.83%	24.79%	14.88%						
	YR2	11	23	16	13	3	66					
		16.67%	34.85%	24.24%	19.70%	4.55%						
	YR3	17	13	5	6	3	44					
		38.64%	29.55%	11.36%	13.64%	6.82%						
	PG	10	14	8	4	1	37					
		27.03%	37.84%	21.62%	10.81%	2.70%						
		57	80	53	53	25	268					
18	YR1	29	51	25	11	5	121					
		23.97%	42.15%	20.66%	9.09%	4.13%			16.07	12	0.188	No
	YR2	14	27	14	7	4	66					
		21.21%	40.91%	21.21%	10.61%	6.06%						
	YR3	12	20	6	6	0	44					

								Total	Chi-square	DF	P-value	Significant?
		27.27%	45.45%	13.64%	13.64%	0.00%						
	PG	3	12	14	7	1		37				
		8.11%	32.43%	37.84%	18.92%	2.70%						
		58	110	59	31	10		268				
		BEG	LPS	HPS	HS	UNI	SUB	Total				
19	YR1	97	20	1	1	0	2	121	40.23	15	0.000	Yes
		80.17%	16.53%	0.83%	0.83%	0.00%	1.65%					
	YR2	43	14	4	0	1	4	66				
		65.15%	21.21%	6.06%	0.00%	1.52%	6.06%					
	YR3	30	10	2	0	0	2	44				
		68.18%	22.73%	4.55%	0.00%	0.00%	4.55%					
	PG	13	12	5	1	0	6	37				
		35.14%	32.43%	13.51%	2.70%	0.00%	16.22%					
		183	56	12	2	1	14	268				
		PSBD	PSNBD	IMP	Total							
20	YR1	44	41	36	121				19.32	6	0.004	Yes
		36.36%	33.88%	29.75%								
	YR2	33	25	8	66							
		50.00%	37.88%	12.12%								
	YR3	26	11	7	44							
		59.09%	25.00%	15.91%								
	PG	24	10	3	37							
		64.86%	27.03%	8.11%								
		127	87	54	268							

Faculties

Belief statements	Faculty	SA	A	NS	D	SD	Total		Chi-square	DF	P-value	Significant?
1	COM	23	20	11	11	8	73		25.37	20	0.188	No
		31.51%	27.40%	15.07%	15.07%	10.96%						
	EDU	33	14	4	7	1	59					
		55.93%	23.73%	6.78%	11.86%	1.69%						
	HUM	20	14	15	7	6	62					
		32.26%	22.58%	24.19%	11.29%	9.68%						
	LAW	3	4	2	0	0	9					
		33.33%	44.44%	22.22%	0.00%	0.00%						
	PHARM	8	5	1	2	0	16					
		50.00%	31.25%	6.25%	12.50%	0.00%						
	SCI	15	15	9	7	3	49					
		30.61%	30.61%	18.37%	14.29%	6.12%						
		102	72	42	34	18	268					
2	COM	37	30	3	3	0	73		28.47	20	0.099	No
		50.68%	41.10%	4.11%	4.11%	0.00%						
	EDU	14	38	5	1	1	59					

		23.73%	64.41%	8.47%	1.69%	1.69%					
	HUM	36	21	5	0	0	62				
		58.06%	33.87%	8.06%	0.00%	0.00%					
	LAW	3	4	2	0	0	9				
		33.33%	44.44%	22.22%	0.00%	0.00%					
	PHARM	8	7	1	0	0	16				
		50.00%	43.75%	6.25%	0.00%	0.00%					
	SCI	21	24	2	2	0	49				
		42.86%	48.98%	4.08%	4.08%	0.00%					
		119	124	18	6	1	268				
3	COM	4	15	24	20	10	73		39.06	20	0.007	Yes
		5.48%	20.55%	32.88%	27.40%	13.70%					
	EDU	16	24	5	10	4	59				
		27.12%	40.68%	8.47%	16.95%	6.78%					
	HUM	5	25	15	11	6	62				
		8.06%	40.32%	24.19%	17.74%	9.68%					
	LAW	2	3	3	1	0	9				
		22.22%	33.33%	33.33%	11.11%	0.00%					
	PHARM	2	4	4	5	1	16				
		12.50%	25.00%	25.00%	31.25%	6.25%					
	SCI	8	17	9	14	1	49				
		16.33%	34.69%	18.37%	28.57%	2.04%					
		37	88	60	61	22	268				
4	COM	6	24	19	14	10	73		31.41	20	0.050	Yes
		8.22%	32.88%	26.03%	19.18%	13.70%					
	EDU	11	30	10	6	2	59				
		18.64%	50.85%	16.95%	10.17%	3.39%					
	HUM	8	26	15	11	2	62				
		12.90%	41.94%	24.19%	17.74%	3.23%					
	LAW	3	2	3	1	0	9				
		33.33%	22.22%	33.33%	11.11%	0.00%					
	PHARM	2	4	8	2	0	16				
		12.50%	25.00%	50.00%	12.50%	0.00%					
	SCI	6	18	18	3	4	49				
		12.24%	36.73%	36.73%	6.12%	8.16%					
		36	104	73	37	18	268				
5	COM	8	10	17	23	15	73		37.40	20	0.010	Yes
		10.96%	13.70%	23.29%	31.51%	20.55%					
	EDU	17	22	5	6	9	59				
		28.81%	37.29%	8.47%	10.17%	15.25%					
	HUM	12	10	13	18	9	62				

		19.35%	16.13%	20.97%	29.03%	14.52%					
	LAW	3	3	2	1	0	9				
		33.33%	33.33%	22.22%	11.11%	0.00%					
	PHARM	3	3	2	3	5	16				
		18.75%	18.75%	12.50%	18.75%	31.25%					
	SCI	9	7	14	11	8	49				
		18.37%	14.29%	28.57%	22.45%	16.33%					
		52	55	53	62	46	268				
6	COM	20	19	16	13	5	73		31.18	20	0.050	Yes
		27.40%	26.03%	21.92%	17.81%	6.85%					
	EDU	22	27	3	6	1	59				
		37.29%	45.76%	5.08%	10.17%	1.69%					
	HUM	14	23	10	6	9	62				
		22.58%	37.10%	16.13%	9.68%	14.52%					
	LAW	5	1	2	1	0	9				
		55.56%	11.11%	22.22%	11.11%	0.00%					
	PHARM	8	5	1	1	1	16				
		50.00%	31.25%	6.25%	6.25%	6.25%					
	SCI	13	14	11	7	4	49				
		26.53%	28.57%	22.45%	14.29%	8.16%					
		82	89	43	34	20	268				
7	COM	4	10	10	28	21	73		29.17	20	0.085	No
		5.48%	13.70%	13.70%	38.36%	28.77%					
	EDU	8	13	18	11	9	59				
		13.56%	22.03%	30.51%	18.64%	15.25%					
	HUM	8	6	16	17	15	62				
		12.90%	9.68%	25.81%	27.42%	24.19%					
	LAW	2	2	3	2	0	9				
		22.22%	22.22%	33.33%	22.22%	0.00%					
	PHARM	3	5	0	4	4	16				
		18.75%	31.25%	0.00%	25.00%	25.00%					
	SCI	5	6	13	14	11	49				
		10.20%	12.24%	26.53%	28.57%	22.45%					
		30	42	60	76	60	268				
8	COM	31	24	7	9	2	73		19.04	20	0.519	No
		42.47%	32.88%	9.59%	12.33%	2.74%					
	EDU	24	21	6	8	0	59				
		40.68%	35.59%	10.17%	13.56%	0.00%					
	HUM	23	24	7	6	2	62				
		37.10%	38.71%	11.29%	9.68%	3.23%					
	LAW	3	3	3	0	0	9				

		33.33%	33.33%	33.33%	0.00%	0.00%						
	PHARM	6	4	1	3	2	16					
		37.50%	25.00%	6.25%	18.75%	12.50%						
	SCI	24	14	7	2	2	49					
		48.98%	28.57%	14.29%	4.08%	4.08%						
		111	90	31	28	8	268					
9	COM	10	21	23	12	7	73		28.46	20	0.099	No
		13.70%	28.77%	31.51%	16.44%	9.59%						
	EDU	23	21	7	6	2	59					
		38.98%	35.59%	11.86%	10.17%	3.39%						
	HUM	11	20	19	6	6	62					
		17.74%	32.26%	30.65%	9.68%	9.68%						
	LAW	2	3	2	2	0	9					
		22.22%	33.33%	22.22%	22.22%	0.00%						
	PHARM	5	2	6	2	1	16					
		31.25%	12.50%	37.50%	12.50%	6.25%						
	SCI	11	17	9	10	2	49					
		22.45%	34.69%	18.37%	20.41%	4.08%						
		62	84	66	38	18	268					
10	COM	7	9	16	27	14	73		35.54	20	0.017	Yes
		9.59%	12.33%	21.92%	36.99%	19.18%						
	EDU	9	21	9	16	4	59					
		15.25%	35.59%	15.25%	27.12%	6.78%						
	HUM	5	15	11	20	11	62					
		8.06%	24.19%	17.74%	32.26%	17.74%						
	LAW	1	1	5	2	0	9					
		11.11%	11.11%	55.56%	22.22%	0.00%						
	PHARM	1	5	0	4	6	16					
		6.25%	31.25%	0.00%	25.00%	37.50%						
	SCI	8	14	10	12	5	49					
		16.33%	28.57%	20.41%	24.49%	10.20%						
		31	65	51	81	40	268					
11	COM	11	30	17	13	2	73		17.25	20	0.637	No
		15.07%	41.10%	23.29%	17.81%	2.74%						
	EDU	20	23	9	6	1	59					
		33.90%	38.98%	15.25%	10.17%	1.69%						
	HUM	13	23	16	6	4	62					
		20.97%	37.10%	25.81%	9.68%	6.45%						
	LAW	3	2	3	1	0	9					
		33.33%	22.22%	33.33%	11.11%	0.00%						
	PHARM	6	5	2	2	1	16					

		37.50%	31.25%	12.50%	12.50%	6.25%					
	SCI	14	21	7	5	2	49				
		28.57%	42.86%	14.29%	10.20%	4.08%					
		67	104	54	33	10	268				
12	COM	7	13	21	24	8	73		38.75	20	0.007	Yes
		9.59%	17.81%	28.77%	32.88%	10.96%					
	EDU	11	24	5	15	4	59				
		18.64%	40.68%	8.47%	25.42%	6.78%					
	HUM	6	9	17	18	12	62				
		9.68%	14.52%	27.42%	29.03%	19.35%					
	LAW	1	4	3	1	0	9				
		11.11%	44.44%	33.33%	11.11%	0.00%					
	PHARM	2	2	3	5	4	16				
		12.50%	12.50%	18.75%	31.25%	25.00%					
	SCI	3	16	17	9	4	49				
		6.12%	32.65%	34.69%	18.37%	8.16%					
		30	68	66	72	32	268				
13	COM	10	26	8	23	6	73		32.77	20	0.036	Yes
		13.70%	35.62%	10.96%	31.51%	8.22%					
	EDU	13	26	10	10	0	59				
		22.03%	44.07%	16.95%	16.95%	0.00%					
	HUM	9	18	17	11	7	62				
		14.52%	29.03%	27.42%	17.74%	11.29%					
	LAW	3	1	4	1	0	9				
		33.33%	11.11%	44.44%	11.11%	0.00%					
	PHARM	5	4	2	4	1	16				
		31.25%	25.00%	12.50%	25.00%	6.25%					
	SCI	12	13	14	7	3	49				
		24.49%	26.53%	28.57%	14.29%	6.12%					
		52	88	55	56	17	268				
14	COM	9	22	20	16	6	73		23.73	20	0.25	No
		12.33%	30.14%	27.40%	21.92%	8.22%					
	EDU	10	25	16	6	2	59				
		16.95%	42.37%	27.12%	10.17%	3.39%					
	HUM	14	13	12	13	10	62				
		22.58%	20.97%	19.35%	20.97%	16.13%					
	LAW	2	3	3	1	0	9				
		22.22%	33.33%	33.33%	11.11%	0.00%					
	PHARM	4	6	1	4	1	16				
		25.00%	37.50%	6.25%	25.00%	6.25%					
	SCI	9	18	13	7	2	49				

		18.37%	36.73%	26.53%	14.29%	4.08%						
		48	87	65	47	21	268					
15	COM	11	30	9	15	8	73		32.73	20	0.036	yes
		15.07%	41.10%	12.33%	20.55%	10.96%						
	EDU	14	30	10	5	0	59					
		23.73%	50.85%	16.95%	8.47%	0.00%						
	HUM	10	19	13	12	8	62					
		16.13%	30.65%	20.97%	19.35%	12.90%						
	LAW	2	3	4	0	0	9					
		22.22%	33.33%	44.44%	0.00%	0.00%						
	PHARM	6	4	4	2	0	16					
		37.50%	25.00%	25.00%	12.50%	0.00%						
	SCI	8	24	10	4	3	49					
		16.33%	48.98%	20.41%	8.16%	6.12%						
		51	110	50	38	19	268					
16	COM	10	19	15	21	8	73		32.42	20	0.039	yes
		13.70%	26.03%	20.55%	28.77%	10.96%						
	EDU	13	28	13	5	0	59					
		22.03%	47.46%	22.03%	8.47%	0.00%						
	HUM	11	15	16	13	7	62					
		17.74%	24.19%	25.81%	20.97%	11.29%						
	LAW	3	2	3	1	0	9					
		33.33%	22.22%	33.33%	11.11%	0.00%						
	PHARM	2	9	1	3	1	16					
		12.50%	56.25%	6.25%	18.75%	6.25%						
	SCI	6	17	15	7	4	49					
		12.24%	34.69%	30.61%	14.29%	8.16%						
		45	90	63	50	20	268					
17	COM	9	16	17	22	9	73		33.22	20	0.032	Yes
		12.33%	21.92%	23.29%	30.14%	12.33%						
	EDU	19	25	7	6	2	59					
		32.20%	42.37%	11.86%	10.17%	3.39%						
	HUM	13	19	14	9	7	62					
		20.97%	30.65%	22.58%	14.52%	11.29%						
	LAW	4	3	1	1	0	9					
		44.44%	33.33%	11.11%	11.11%	0.00%						
	PHARM	3	5	1	4	3	16					
		18.75%	31.25%	6.25%	25.00%	18.75%						
	SCI	9	12	13	11	4	49					
		18.37%	24.49%	26.53%	22.45%	8.16%						
		57	80	53	53	25	268					

18	COM	19	27	14	8	5	73		42.64	20	0.002	yes
		26.03%	36.99%	19.18%	10.96%	6.85%						
	EDU	4	29	19	7	0	59					
		6.78%	49.15%	32.20%	11.86%	0.00%						
	HUM	21	28	7	4	2	62					
		33.87%	45.16%	11.29%	6.45%	3.23%						
	LAW	4	3	2	0	0	9					
		44.44%	33.33%	22.22%	0.00%	0.00%						
	PHARM	3	10	2	1	0	16					
		18.75%	62.50%	12.50%	6.25%	0.00%						
	SCI	7	13	15	11	3	49					
		14.29%	26.53%	30.61%	22.45%	6.12%						
		58	110	59	31	10	268					
		BEG	LPS	HPS	HS	UNI	SUB	Total				
19	COM	58	10	3	0	1	1	73	55.56	25	0.000	Yes
		79.45%	13.70%	4.11%	0.00%	1.37%	1.37%					
	EDU	27	17	8	1	0	6	59				
		45.76%	28.81%	13.56%	1.69%	0.00%	10.17%					
	HUM	42	16	0	0	0	4	62				
		67.74%	25.81%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	6.45%					
	LAW	3	5	0	0	0	1	9				
		33.33%	55.56%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	11.11%					
	PHARM	12	1	1	1	0	1	16				
		75.00%	6.25%	6.25%	6.25%	0.00%	6.25%					
	SCI	41	7	0	0	0	1	49				
		83.67%	14.29%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	2.04%					
		183	56	12	2	1	14	268				
		PSBD	PSNBD	IMP	Total							
20	COM	23	27	23	73				26.66	10	0.003	yes
		31.51%	36.99%	31.51%								
	EDU	38	17	4	59							
		64.41%	28.81%	6.78%								
	HUM	33	19	10	62							
		53.23%	30.65%	16.13%								
	LAW	7	2	0	9							
		77.78%	22.22%	0.00%								
	PHARM	5	5	6	16							
		31.25%	31.25%	37.50%								
	SCI	21	17	11	49							
		42.86%	34.69%	22.45%								
		127	87	54	268							