LANGUAGE AND POWER RELATIONS IN FURTHER EDUCATION AND TRAINING BAND IN SOUTH AFRICA

By

CELESTINE EMEKA AMAECHI

Submitted in accordance with the requirements for the degree

PHILOSOPHIAE DOCTOR (EDUCATIONIS)

In

The Department of Teacher Education

In the Faculty of Humanities At the

Central University of Technology, Free State

Promoter: Professor I M Ntshoe

Date of submission: August 22, 2018.

DECLARATION

LANGUAGE AND POWER RELATIONS IN FURTHER EDUCATION AND TRAINING BAND IN SOUTH AFRICA

I, Celestine Emeka Amaechi, do hereby declare that this research project submitted to the Central University of Technology, Free State for the Degree Philosophiae Doctor: Educationis (PhD Education) is my own independent work; and it complies with the Code of Academic Integrity, as well as other relevant policies, procedures, rules and regulations of the Central University of Technology, Free State, and has not been submitted before to any institution by myself or any other person in fulfilment or partial fulfilments for the attainment of any qualification.

22nd August, 2018.

. . . .
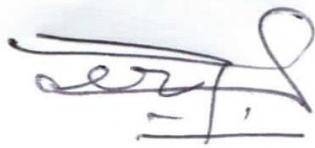
Amaechi, C. E.   Date

DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to the Almighty God, who remains my hope and sustenance all these years.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

My heartfelt gratitude goes to the following for the completion of this project.

First, I immensely appreciate my erudite promoter, Professor Isaac Ntshoe, for his advice, patience and constructive criticism in completing this research.

My lovely friends and staff of CUT library. They are Jones, Thomas, Sam, Amos and many others that space would not allow me to include here. I pray God to bless them.

I can never forget to endorse my appreciation to Carmen, a dedicated staff of the UFS library. She has been my computer literacy adviser.

I thank my family – siblings, and in-laws, particularly, my mother-in-law, who now acts as my biological mother in the absence of my late mother. She always prays for us. She remains blessed.

I lack the accurate adjectives to qualify my wife's role in this project. She has been an indescribable partner all through this academic pilgrimage. She advised, cautioned, laughed, cried and consoled me especially when night studies took hostage of me. How else do I describe her love for me? She is simply caring.

I can never ignore the NRF, for I would not have embarked on this research journey without the organisation's funding. I appreciate this love.

To crown it all, God Almighty was with me (even now), for with Him all things are possible (Luke 1:37).

Thank you, Jesus!

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix A   Consent letters

Appendix B   Semi-structured interviews

Appendix C   Classroom observation Guide

Appendix D   Classroom observation tables

Appendix E   Classroom observation photos

Appendix F   Transcripts of interviews

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

DoE   Department of Education

EFAL   English First Additional Language

FET   Further Education & Training

HL   Home Language

LiEP   Language in Education Policy

LoI   Language of Instructions

LoLT   Language of Learning and Teaching

MoI   Medium of Instruction

NDoE   National Department of Education

PanSALB   Pan South African Language Board

RSA   Republic of South Africa

SASA   South African Schools Act

ABSTRACT

In South Africa, the debate around the status of the official languages debate has remained a perennial issue among educators, academics and stakeholders, especially after the constitutional enshrinement of the 1997 multilingual language-in-education policy in the school curriculum. Using classroom observations, semi-structured interviews and document analysis, this qualitative study investigates and analyses linguistic power relations in the Further Education and Training band based on an inquiry in eight selected secondary schools in rural and urban areas in four provinces across South Africa. It aims to examine the relationship between language and economy; how language differences affect non-native speakers of English in English-medium classrooms; and how school language choice re-creates economic inequalities in South Africa. The study aims to make recommendations on which policy responses best address the inherent asymmetrical linguistic power relations in the South African education system. The inquiry is informed by Vygotsky's social constructivism theory, the notion of cultural deficit and or the articulation gap, and Bourdieu's cultural capital and concept of field. The main findings of the study indicate that English has economic value for learners' future outcomes and is preferred to African indigenous languages as medium of instruction. There is a mismatch between home language and classroom language practice. Lack of reading culture is prevalent among many learners. Findings further show that local languages can promote learning; poor academic performance is traced to poor schooling in learners' formative years; and the influence of learning styles, self-esteem and socio-economic factors on learning and performance. Most of the study participants support the use of English as a language of learning and teaching (or medium of instruction) in secondary schools although indigenous languages dominate dialogue outside the classroom, especially in rural and township schools. This demonstrates the mismatch between home language and school language practice. One of the reasons for English-only classroom discourses is informed by the schools' language policy. Lastly, recommendations suggest that national and provincial governments should incorporate teachers in education policymaking decisions and train or re-train language teachers to align with constitutional multilingualism. This may close the existing gap in the language power relations in FET band in particular and in the South African education system in general.

S   T   U   D   Y

‘‘When we read a book, the *intrinsic* and the *extrinsic* rules govern our study. The intrinsic concurrently involves *understanding*, *interpreting* and *evaluating* the book. The intrinsic rules of study, however, are in themselves inadequate.

To read successfully, we need the extrinsic aids of *experience*, *other books*, and *live discussion.* Experience is the only way we can interpret and relate to what we read. Books have meaning only when we read them in relation to other writings. Live discussion refers to the ordinary interaction that occurs among human beings as they pursue a particular course of study.’’

RICHARD FOSTER
CELEBRATION OF DISCIPLINE:
THE PATH TO SPIRITUAL GROWTH

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

The choice of language of learning and teaching (LoLT), alternatively known as medium of instruction, in the South African education system generates debate at various managerial levels. In most cases English is the preferred LoLT at all levels of the system. At the centre of these debates is the learners' poor proficiency in English; in addition, the teachers' proficiency in English affects the quality of teaching. Even in higher education where the use of English predominates, critical communication skills are lacking because students are not receiving the quality of teaching they are supposed to get as they are being taught by unqualified teachers in the job.

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (RSA 1996:6(4)) accorded eleven languages official status according to the *principle of equity and parity of esteem*. However, the indigenous official languages lag behind in terms of status in the economy and LoLT in schools. The Bill of Rights' clause also in the language-in-education policy (LiEP) gives learners the right to receive education in the official language(s) of their choice in public schools where such is practicable; the ambiguity of this clause needs clarification for its proper implementation (RSA, 1996:B-32).

English and to a lesser degree, Afrikaans, are associated with economic power whereas the other nine indigenous official languages are not, due to historical and political reasons. The languages predominantly used in the marketplace, particularly English, unlike the indigenous official languages, are also developed scientifically and technologically. Therefore, full use of the indigenous languages presents challenges in terms of LoLT.

Furthermore, the diverse South African linguistic landscape, cultures and economic development make it difficult to accommodate all eleven official languages in the education system. Teachers who come from the different provinces of South Africa and beyond are not proficient in some of these official languages even at a personal conversational level (Wright, 2014:2).

Some uneducated parents and even the educated ones who make decisions in government, pay lip service to the notion of multilingualism. Research indicates that children learn best in their

mother tongue (Ball, 2010; Foley, 2010). However, researchers and academics enrol their children in English-only institutions in spite of the rhetoric of multilingualism. They are actually aware of the inherent advantages of their children's acquisition of English as the language of prestige, which opens doors to employment and careers in science and technology. Thus, there exists an articulation gap in the education system which requires investigation.

1.2 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

My main research question derived from the review of literature, problem statement, work-related issues and theoretical frameworks is formulated as: How do language and power relations in the FET band in South Africa influence education and society?

The four subsidiary research questions are as follows:

1. What is the relationship between linguistic power and economic power in post-apartheid South Africa?
2. How do linguistic power relations affect learners who are non-native speakers of English in the English medium classroom?
3. How does language choice re-create economic inequalities in South Africa?
4. What policy responses are needed to address inequalities and inequities in linguistic power relations in the education system in general and in the FET band in particular?

1.3 PURPOSE OF STUDY

This study investigated and analysed linguistic power relations in the Further Education and Training (FET) band (Grades 10 -12) in the light of the current language-in-education policy.

1.3.1 Objectives

1. To give an overview of the language-in-education policy in the context of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act, No. 108 of 1996 and the South African Schools Act (SASA).

2. To investigate how linguistic power relations exist in the schools with particular reference to the FET band.

3. To analyse the linguistic power relations in the education system in general and in FET band.

4. To identify implications for policy and practice relating to language and power relations in education and in the economy in South Africa.

1.4   PROPOSITIONS

According to Creswell and Poth (2018:318), propositions are hypotheses written in a directional form that relate categories in a study. Propositions are written from a paradigm, which may suggest why a cause affects the core phenomenon that also affects the use of a particular strategy. Four propositions derived from this research were:

1. The relationship between language and economic power in post-apartheid South Africa reflects socio-economic inequities nationally.
2. Non-native speakers of English who use English as LoLT generally lack cultural capital and do not benefit maximally in the classroom.
3. Inequalities and inequities in linguistic power relations in schools undermine the notion of language choice in schools.
4. The realisation of a sustainable policy response to the language-in-education issue is a concern for the South African education system and the FET band in particular.

1.5   STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The South African Constitution's *principle of equity and parity of esteem* Section 6(4) about official languages raises the issue of the status of indigenous African languages in relation to economic development and the LoLT in schools (RSA, 1996:6fF). The problem inherent in this provision of the Constitution is that certain of the eleven official languages (English and Afrikaans) have always been associated with economic power due to historical and political development in South Africa. On the contrary, indigenous African languages have not developed to a stage where they can function as languages of economy, and to some extent, as media

of instruction, for historical and political reasons. Limitations include the seeming lack of scientific and technical terms in these languages which hinder their use in academe and the economy. Secondly, the diverse nature of South African society and schools in terms of language, culture and economic development make it difficult to accommodate all eleven official languages as media of instruction. Thirdly, most teachers cannot use all the official languages as media of instruction due to a lack of proficiency in these languages.

Furthermore, the language-in-education clause in the Bill of Rights states:

> *"Everyone has the right to receive education in the official language, or languages of their choice in public educational institutions where that education is practicable"* (RSA, 1996: B-32).

Thus, although theoretically, parents from disadvantaged communities reserve their right of choice of any of the official indigenous languages for instruction for learners, the following undermine this right:

i. The underdevelopment of African languages for academic instruction; and
ii. The perceived advantages of using English as medium of instruction and language of economy (De Wet, 2002:119)

1.6   REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Language is power and central to human activity; indeed, it is one of the things that make us human (Richardson, 2007:10). The role of language and the social conditions in which it is used is important both in defining the classroom and the practices that take place therein. The sort of talk therefore, creates the context and classroom discourses in which the teacher and learners engaged (Makoe, 2007:56). South Africa, on attainment of democracy in 1994, constituted its policy of multilingualism in which nine indigenous African languages plus English and Afrikaans were recognized as official languages. The policy had a major objective: to correct the historical disproportionate policy by advancing the esteem and use of former marginalised languages (Scott, Straker & Katz, 2009:329). The language protections provided in the constitution after apartheid does not tally with the apartheid language policy in which only English and Afrikaans enjoyed entrenched protection by the previous constitution to the exclusion of the indigenous languages. The policy (1953) was embedded in the Bantu Education Act (Scott *et al*., 2009:331), which symbolised, almost in all cases, domination of one group by

another. However, the full implementation of the clause "Equity and parity of esteem" still remains problematic.

From the constitutional provision of the linguistic rights of learners to study in any official language of their choice, if practicable, the drafters of the 1996 Constitution realised the difficulty, if not the impossibility, of realising this right as it was formulated under the Interim Constitution. The question persists: How do we envisage the end of unequal linguistic power relations in the schools?

1.7 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The theoretical framework of this study draws on Vygotsky's (1978) social constructivism. "Social constructivism often described as interpretivism is a worldview" (Creswell, 2013; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Mertens, 2010). It challenges the scientific-realist assumption of post-positivism that asserts that reality is reducible to its different components (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2012:28). ''Social constructivists believe that individuals seek understanding of the world in which they live and work; that they develop subjective meanings of their experiences – meanings directed toward certain objects or things'' (Creswell, 2014:8). Thus, this research relies much more on the participants' views of the phenomenon being investigated; in this study, language and power relations in Further Education and Training band.

Vygotsky's social constructivist approach to learning explains the link between culture (language being a part), learning and cognition. Thus, Vygotsky (1978:90) argues that it is through activities that individuals / learners come face-to-face with culture and that activities influence the way people think.

Certain concepts as briefly discussed below also support the above theoretical framework. Such include Bourdieu's (1987) cultural capital and the cultural deficit model, among others.

Cultural capital consists of familiarity with the dominant culture in a society, and especially the ability to understand and use ''educated'' language. The possession of cultural capital varies with social class, yet the education system assumes the possession of cultural capital. This accounts for the difficulty encountered by the lower-class learners to succeed in the education system (Sullivan, 2002).

The cultural deficit model otherwise referred to as the articulation gap in the South African context is a discontinuity in the transition from one educational phase to the next educational phase (SANGONeT, 2016). There is widespread underachievement among black learners especially those from lower socioeconomic backgrounds (Igbo, Okafor, Rita & Eze, 2014:1).

Many teachers, administrators and stakeholders in education attribute the problem to the learners, their families and the communities (Irizarry, 2009: Online). The cultural deficit model puts the learners' lack of success down to characteristics found in their cultures and environments. Because of this, proposed remedies to reduce underachievement and failure often do not succeed to address the school problems as well as that of the society.

With cultural deficit / articulation gap, society often exonerates schools from their responsibility to render quality education to the learners thereby defeating the aims of education. This is one of the causes of uneven language power relations in the classroom discourses in South Africa's secondary schools.

1.8   RESEARCH DESIGN

1.8.1   Paradigm

Creswell (2013:18) defines a research paradigm as "a fundamental set of beliefs which direct action in the research process". An interpretive paradigm guided the approach to this qualitative research. It is interpretive because of the different contexts in which the research data were collected. Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009:36) define the interpretive paradigm as "a philosophical position that is concerned with understanding the way we as humans make sense of the world around us". The interpretive approach, which emerged in response to the drawbacks of positivism, seeks to understand people's lived experience from the perspective of the actors themselves (Hennink, Hutter, & Bailey, 2011:14).

1.9   METHOD

This section details the method undertaken for the study including the sources of data, sampling, data collection and analysis.

1.9.1   Sampling of schools and participants

Eight (8) public secondary schools were purposefully sampled in four provinces (Free State, Northern Cape, North West and Eastern Cape): These comprised School A, a former Model C English-medium school and School B, a former Model C Afrikaans-medium school in Bloemfontein, Free State; School C, a former Model C English-medium school and School D, a former Model C Afrikaans-medium school in Kimberley, Northern Cape; School E, a rural secondary school at Letlhabile and School F, a township secondary school at Mmakau, North West Province; and School G, an urban school and School H, a township school at Aliwal North, Eastern Cape.

Purposeful sampling is used by researchers to select cases which are most likely to be informative about the phenomena under investigation (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:319). In this study, these schools were purposefully chosen due to their socio-cultural and linguistic backgrounds. Learners in the schools represented black and white communities and others (coloureds, Indians and foreigners) that constitute South African society. Thus, they provided rich data for the study.

The following participants who provided the research data included the following:

1. Eight principals (interviews);
2. Eight experienced teachers of English in the FET band (interviews);
3. Eight other experienced Grade 10 – Grade 12 English language teachers (classroom observations).

Sampling was purposive. The principals were chosen based on their long years (five years and above) in the administration of schools; the teachers of English were also chosen on the basis of their long experience in their field of study and teaching (all had five years' experience or more) and therefore, could provide appropriate information concerning classroom teaching and learning. The above two categories of teachers as interviewees and also teachers for the classroom observations are all university graduates who ensured the best provision of information on the topic under investigation.

1.9.2 Data collection and instrumentation

An instrument in academic research is simply anything used to collect data (Shreiber & Asner-Self, 2011:126). 'In qualitative research, the researcher is the main data collection instrument' (Creswell & Poth, 2018:148-149); in this study I collected the data by means of interviews, observations using field notes and carrying out document analysis.

1.9.2.1 Classroom observation

In classroom observation, I observed the activities of the classrooms of experienced teachers of English and took notes with regard to the learners' responses and non-responses to the classroom events. The key consideration for selecting from Grade 10 was that by the time learners enter Grade 10, they should be reasonably proficient in their First Additional Language (English) with regard to both interpersonal and cognitive academic skills' (DBE, 2012: Online). However, observation indicated that many of these learners were not fluent in their First Additional Language at this stage. CAPS (2012) advocates learner support and devised a curriculum to meet the standards required in Grade 12 in preparation for further or higher education or the world of work. Observation was aimed at capturing how learners use English to interact with their instructors and fellow learners in classroom discourse. That aimed mainly to record language usage in the classroom for data analysis. The observations were conducted according to a schedule which suited the teachers.

1.9.2.2 Semi-structured interviews

Semi-structured interviews allowed the researcher to gather rich data that served the purpose of the qualitative research on the phenomenon under investigation. Interviews allow the participants freedom of expression and may "also include specific, tailored follow-up questions within and across interviews" (Ravitch & Carl, 2016:154). The interviews afforded me the chance to explore principals' and English language teachers' views and interaction concerning English language classroom discourse.

The interviews were based on two sets of five and six questions respectively. These were audiotaped and transcribed. Before this exercise of duty, appointment schedules for interviews were made according to what was suitable to participants.

1.9.2.3 Document analysis

'The most common use of documents is to verify or support data obtained from interviews or observations' (McMillan, 2012:295). In this study I also reviewed and analysed relevant documents, including government gazettes, school diaries and memos, which served as primary sources. Such documents were information-rich and led to greater depth of description and understanding.

1.9.3 Data reduction and analysis

Data collected from the above process (feedback from the interviews, classroom observations and document analysis) were coded and categorised and put into themes for analysis.

1.9.4 Procedures for credibility and trustworthiness

Four aspects and accompanying procedures ensure the credibility of a qualitative study: credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). These are discussed in full in Chapter 4.

1.9.4.1 Credibility

Credibility refers to whether the participants' perceptions match up with the researcher's portrayal of them (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2012:112). It refers to the sufficiency and depth of data presented from the study. Credibility in qualitative research is directly related to research design and the researcher's instruments and data (Ravitch & Carl, 2016:188). To ascertain the credibility of this research, I triangulated with three different tools, namely, classroom observation, two sets of semi-structured interviews, and document analysis. The observation involved a systematic watching, recording (with audiotape) and taking notes in form of field notes as each educator interacted with the learners in the teaching and learning situation. These different methods strengthened the credibility of this research especially as both audio recording of classroom observation and principals/educators' interviews provided adequate reference to the findings. Thus, the participants could reasonably judge the credibility of the results.

1.9.4.2 Transferability

"Transferability refers to the fit or match between the research context and other contexts as judged by the reader" (Bloomberg *et al*., 2012:113The interviews and classroom observations indicated the processes and context of those activities during my field work. By replaying the recordings and scrutinising the transcriptions and field notes, it was possible to cross-check the correspondence of the interviews with classroom observations. This consolidated transferability and averted researcher bias.

1.9.4.3 Dependability

Dependability is more or less same as transferability. It "refers to whether one can track the processes and procedures used to collect and interpret the data" (Bloomberg *et al*., 2012:113). This can be accounted for through the standard of the research process and analysis presented. The procedure in collecting data followed a detailed report to aid other researchers to replicate the inquiry and attain similar results as well as understand the methods and their effectiveness. In this study I described data collection procedures by observations, interviews and document analysis.

1.9.4.4 Confirmability

Confirmability helps to keep a journal which "serves to offer the reader an opportunity to assess the findings of the study" (Bloomberg *et al*., 2012:126). Put differently, the reader evaluates the degree to which the findings are free from the researcher's values without shifting from the focus of the enquiry. This must be considered due to the assumption that qualitative research allows the researcher to bring a unique perspective to the study. Chapter four details in full detail how confirmability was ensured. To ascertain confirmability in this study, I presented the findings as "the result of the research rather than an outcome of biases and subjectivity" (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2012:126). Further reflexivity – keeping a research journal and memo, writing field notes and transcripts of interviews and classroom observations - gives readers an opportunity to evaluate the findings of this research.

1.10   ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethical considerations guided the study. Permission was obtained for research in the schools and participants were assured of anonymity, confidentiality and privacy. All participated voluntarily (McMillan, 2012:18).

1.11   DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

The scope of the study was limited to the realities in the language-in-education policy of South Africa about language and power relations in the FET band according to the interpretive paradigm. As the researcher, I selected the scope of the problem statement, time and location (settings) of the study and the sample. In other words I delimited the boundaries of my study, (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2012:114).

1.12   LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

"Limitations of a dissertation / thesis are potential weaknesses in the study that are mostly out of one's control, given limited funding, choice of research design, statistical model constraints, or other factors. In addition, a limitation is a restriction on one's study that cannot be reasonably dismissed and can affect the design and results" (PhDStudent, 2015:Online).

This study was confined to a few selected high schools in four provinces of South Africa. Only two public high schools were sampled per province. Even in those schools, only a small number of the qualified FET band English language teachers and the principals participated in the study. However, useful lessons can be adapted for the same contexts to the one in which this study was carried out.

1.13   CONTRIBUTION TO KNOWLEDGE

This study contributes to propositional knowledge about the hidden forms of power relations in society and in education with particular reference to the FET band in South Africa. It also contributes to procedural knowledge on the pedagogical practices in education in the FET band and consequently at higher levels of education.

1.14   ORGANISATION OF THE CHAPTERS

Chapter one: Introduction and Overview of the study introduced this research by way of an overview of what it takes to carry out the project from the beginning to its completion. It described briefly the contents of the study, such as background of the study, purpose, objectives, propositions, research questions, problem statement, literature review, theoretical frames and design.

Chapter two: Literature Review provided a review of literature relevant to the phenomenon under investigation. I critically commented on the works and established the gap in the literature reviewed.

Chapter three: Theoretical Framework. This chapter situated Vygotsky's social constructivism as the theoretical framework of this research. The theory emphasises the importance of culture and context in understanding society which leads to created and shared meaning. It views language as an important element and the most essential system through which humans construct reality. Social constructivists deem culture provides learners with cognitive tools needed for development. It avails scaffolding by which teachers provide necessary help to struggling learners. This entails and underscores the importance of the activity-oriented approach to learning. This study chose Vygotsky's social constructivism because of its epistemological undertones and bearing on interpretivism. The chapter also incorporated other educational-oriented concepts, such as, articulation gap, cultural capital, habitus, social and capital realism, structuralism/post-structuralism and reflexivity.

Chapter four: Research Design and Methodology stated the research paradigm as an intellectual window to view the world and the framework based on philosophies and assumptions about the social world and nature of knowledge. The chapter used an interpretive paradigm, which emerged from the drawbacks of positivism. This sought to understand lived experiences of people from their own perspectives. It studies subjective meanings that people attached to their experiences rather than focused on facts. It also sought to produce descriptions and analyses that emphasised deep, interpretive understandings of social phenomenon. The chapter also provided the research design, including the qualitative method, sampling, instruments, data gathering and analysis, data procedures to ensure trustworthiness and ethical consideration.

Chapter five: Findings chapter presented a summary of the biographical data of the participants and the main findings as themes that emerged from semi-structured interviews, classroom observations and document analysis of the schools' records.

Chapter six presented the four research questions, a summary of the theoretical framework, literature review and the research findings. Implications of the research were indicated and the conclusion.

1.15   CONCLUSION

Chapter one presented background of the study, purpose and objectives, propositions and research questions. The chapter also presented the problem statement, literature review, theoretical framework, research design, methods used, data reduction and analysis, procedures for credibility and trustworthiness, ethical considerations, delimitation, limitations of the research, contribution to knowledge and organization of the chapters.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The present chapter situates the study within the context of previous research and literature relating to language and power relations in the FET band of the South African school system. In doing so, it reviews previous reports of research as well as reports of casual observations and opinions related to the planned project. The chapter determines the limitations, gaps and contradictions within the literature on power relations in language. According to Seale (2012:599), a systematic review of literature aims to retrieve all available evidence published on a subject, evaluate the quality of the studies that have produced that evidence, and summarize the accumulated findings of the higher quality studies to support (whatever) decisions taken, rendering them evidence-based. The conclusion ends the chapter.

2.2 LANGUAGE DISTRIBUTION OF SOUTH AFRICA

South Africans speak many languages among which are the eleven recognized as official ones: these are African, European, and Asian languages due to the geographical location at the crossroads of southern Africa. The languages include the Khoi, Nama and San languages, sign language, German, Greek, Gujarati, Hebrew, among others. There also exist creoles and pidgin languages that are indigenous in nature. Although English serves as the main economic language, government and the media (referred to as *lingua franca)*, it is a joint fifth language with Setswana (Stats SA, 2012:Online).

The linguistic diversity of South Africa indicates that all the eleven official languages have an interrelated effect on one another. According to the Census 2011 (Stats SA, 2012: Online), isiZulu is the number one mother tongue of most South Africans, followed by isiXhosa, Afrikaans, English, Setswana, and Sesotho. The other languages spoken at home make up an insignificant number of the population.

Table 2.1: South African languages 2011

Language	Number of speakers	% of total
Afrikaans	6 855 082	13.5%
English	4 892 623	9.6%
isiNdebele	1 090 223	2.1%
isiXhosa	8 154 258	16%
isiZulu	11 587 374	22.7%
Sepedi	4 618 576	9.1%
Sesotho	3 849 563	7.6%
Setswana	4 067 248	8%
Sign language	234 655	0.5%
SiSwati	1 297 046	2.5%
Tshivenda	1 209 388	2.4%
Xitsonga	2 277 148	4.5%
Other	828 258	1.6%
TOTAL	50 961 443	100%

Census 2011 (Source: Stats SA, 2012 : Online)

Most South Africans are multilingual although many who speak English and Afrikaans lack proficiency in indigenous languages. These two groups are only fairly fluent in each other's language. As pointed out above, most South Africans speak English which consequently play a hegemonic role in government and the economy. This presupposes that for one to belong to the workforce of South Africa, English proficiency, at least at a conversational level, is required.

Another strong economic language of South Africa is Afrikaans. It is mostly spoken by the coloured and white South Africans. A population of 6 855 082 people identify with it according to Census 2011, (Stats SA, 2012: Online). The language originated in 17th century Dutch. That was because of the influence of people who came from England, Malaysia, Germany, Portugal, France, and some other African countries. Afrikaans was first called Cape Dutch because it mainly belonged to the Cape inhabitants; their formal and written language was called Dutch (Beukes, 2004:3).

Both Afrikaans and English became official languages of South Africa with the inception of the Union of South Africa in 1910. The status of Afrikaans was enhanced with Afrikaner nationalism. It was a significant linguistic instrument in the apartheid era. The apartheid National Government's proposal to impose the language in rural / township schools triggered off that 1976 Soweto uprising which ended many lives.

Today various sections of the South Africa's society speak Afrikaans. Afrikaans is not South African, yet many who use it as their home language today are Africans. The Western Cape hosts a good number of Afrikaans speakers; the language is also common in Gauteng, where an insignificant number of that society regards Afrikaans as their common mother tongue. More than fifty percent of the inhabitants of the Northern Cape speak Afrikaans, while a few in the Free State, Eastern Cape and North West also speak it as their home language' (Stats SA, 2012: Online).

English on the other hand, has become South Africa's educational and economic language. As a popular language in South Africa it has been adopted by different communities. At least half of South Africa's population can speak English currently.

Dutch, the Cape Colony's official language was replaced in 1822 by English. The Cape and Natal colonies were amalgamated with the Transvaal's Boer Republics and Orange Free State. Thereafter, English and Dutch were assigned official status as important languages. Subsequently in 1925 Afrikaans took the place of the Dutch language.

English established as the primary spoken and written language of government, economy and international relations enjoys its position in the language-education-policy where it features as the language of instructions (LoI) in many schools.

An estimated 5 million of South Africa's population can communicate in English as a common language. Those of them of Asian origin, for example, Indian South Africans, always speak English, although many still retain their original languages. There are also South Africans of Chinese descent, who speak English fluently and yet do not disregard Chinese original home languages especially in their public gatherings' (Stats SA, 2012: Online).

South African English is strongly influenced by Afrikaans and many other indigenous African languages brought from an admixture of other unique world Englishes. English is a common language in Gauteng, where most English-speaking South Africans and other foreign nationals

such as Nigerians, Ghanaians, Senegalese, Egyptians, Malawians and others are found in considerable numbers. English is indeed at the centre of almost all the activities of South African society including politics, religion and the economy (Figone, 2012:56).

2.3 SOCIOLINGUISTIC PROFILE OF SOUTH AFRICA: BRIEF HISTORICAL OVERVIEW

I consider it important to contextualise South Africa's language diversity first before discussing her language policy. According to Beukes, (2004:3), the southern end of the continent of Africa was host to a good number of languages with a variety of culture groups. The variety was because of influx of different immigrants in this part of the continent during those periods. The original inhabitants of this southern African region for ages was the Khoe and San people. About the 12th century, the first Bantu people set out across the great continent to the southern end. Later in about the next five centuries, others began to travel toward the extremes from other European territories. These included the Portuguese, Dutch, French, Germans, and British. People also emerged from countries such as Malaysia, Indonesia and India to settle down. This accounts for South Africa's diversity of cultures and languages. This is the ''rainbow nation'' (South Africa) the former President Nelson Mandela referred to (Beukes, 2004:3).

The Dutch occupied South Africa in 1652. The Union of South Africa, the subsequent establishment of the Republic of South Africa and the apartheid regime came because of the continuous rule by Britain. That resulted in the government language policy and the powers that be not recognizing the features of language diversity within. With democracy in place in 1994 the entire situation was reversed and the new government consequently made the constitutional provisions on official multilingualism (RSA, 2003:8).

As it was then, more than 44, 8 million South Africans used about 25 languages daily (Statistics South Africa, 2003). A majority of the people used one local language or another as mother tongue.

The main home languages of South Africa according to the latest available census statistics of 2011 are as follows:

Table 2.2: Home language by population group – Census 2011 (Statistics South Africa)

Language	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Afrikaans	253 282	3 173 972	19 266	2 536 906	5 983 426
English	183 631	756 067	145 845	1 687 661	3 673 203
IsiNdebele	703 906	1 882	3 522	2 511	711 821
IsiXhosa	7 888 999	12 172	703	5 279	7 907 153
IsiZulu	10 659 309	11 397	2 406	4 193	10 677 305
Sepedi	4 204 358	2 706	289	1 627	4 208 980
Sesotho	3 544 304	8 566	250	2 065	3 555 186
Setswana	1 191 015	2 360	255	801	1 194 430
SiSwati	3 657 796	16 532	373	2 315	3 677 016
Tshivenda	1 020 133	852	114	658	1 021 757
Xitsonga	1 989 062	1 595	142	1 409	1 992 207
Other	120 369	6 406	42 302	48 216	217 293
Total	35 416 166	3 994 505	1 115 467	4 293 640	44 819 778

(Source: Stats SA, 2012: Online)

Percentage of speakers per home language in South Africa (1996, 2001 and 2011)
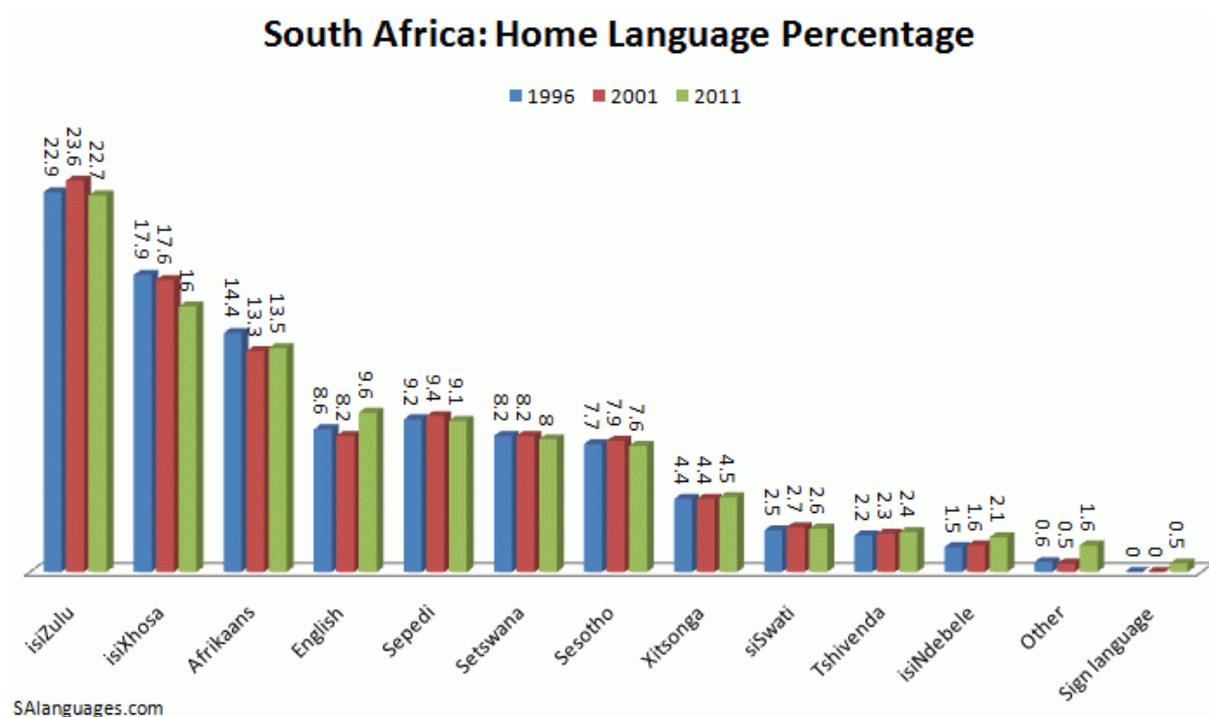
Figure 2.1: South Africa – Home Language percentage

Table 3: Number of speakers per language in South Africa (1980, 1991, 1996, 1998, 2001 and 2011)

LANGUAGE	1980	1991 (a)	1996	1998 (b)	2001 (c)	2011 (d)
isiZulu	6 064 480	8 343 587	9 200 144	10 194 787	10 677 305	11 587 374
isiXhosa	2 879 360	6 729 281	7 196 118	7 610 435	7 907 153	8 154 258
Afrikaans	4 925 760	5 685 403	5 811 547	5 945 805	5 983 426	6 855 082
English	2 815 640	3 422 503	3 457 467	3 692 157	3 673 203	4 892 623
Sepedi	2 431 760	n/a	3 695 846	3 832 645	4 208 980	4 618 576
Setswana	1 444 908	3 368 544	3 301 774	3 613 925	3 677 016	4 067 248
Sesotho	1 877 840	n/a	3 104 197	3 539 261	3 555 186	3 849 563
Xitsonga	888 140	1 439 809	1 756 105	1 776 505	1 992 207	2 277 148
siSwati	650 600	952 478	1 013 193	1 068 733	1 194 430	1 297 046
Tshivenda	169 740	673 538	876 409	1 227 824	1 021 757	1 209 388
isiNdebele	459 880	n/a	586 961	654 304	711 821	1 090 223
Other	292 360	640 277	228 275	157 767	217 293	828 258
Sign language	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	234 655
Unspecified	n/a	n/a	355 538	10 868	n/a	n/a
TOTAL:	26 271 060	31 255 420	40 583 574	43 325 017	44 819 778	50 961 443

(Source: Stats SA, 2012: Online)

The above table (Table 3) shows the number of speakers per language of South African official languages among others. The table considers the years, 1980, 1991, 1996, 1998, 2001and 2011.

2.4 LANGUAGE AND EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA: BRIEF OVERVIEW

The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English, ninth edition, (1995:764), defines language as "the method of human communication, either spoken or written, consisting of the use of words in an agreed way". Language indeed makes us human. The role of language and its use in social conditions and classroom practices and activities cannot be over-emphasised.

South Africans speak approximately 25 different languages out of which eleven were accorded official recognition from section 6 of the Constitution (RSA, Act No. 108 of 1996), because a majority of the population can use these languages (Department of Arts and Culture, 2003:6). "The eleven official languages already mentioned above were recognized as so and accorded a place in the linguistic law of the land" (Department of Arts and Culture, 2003:6).

Apart from language use in classrooms, for a language to qualify as a language for education, it has to satisfy certain criteria among others. It should generally exist and have wide currency in the society. It must be highly acceptable in the society and capable to address any objectives of the education system. Furthermore, such a language has to possess acceptable norms and have potential to promote literacy. Lastly, a language qualifies as a language for education if it reflects major interests of the nation or any group within it, and essentially, it must be globally, regionally and nationally connected (Robertson, 2010:36).

The genesis of democracy in 1994 brought multilingualism which established the official languages has the policy objective to abrogate the historical and political inequalities that was in the language provisions (Scott *et al*., 2009:329). The language protection of these languages in the post-apartheid South African Constitutions contrasted with the apartheid policy of English and Afrikaans, which were protected by the previous constitutions. The indigenous languages were taken as dead and inferior languages. The policy then (1953) was styled "Bantu Education Act" (Scott *et al*., 2009:331). That pre-apartheid policy symbolised, almost in all cases, domination of one group by another. This brings to focus the version in which Bourdieu and Gramsci briefly touched on the issue of power (in education).

Bourdieu (in Burawoy, 2008:2) refers to this as "fields of cultural domination" while Gramsci called it the "superstructures of capitalism". However, on the positive side, both Bourdieu and Gramsci were pre-eminently concerned in what domination of culture can lead to. They tasked themselves with understanding social exertion in constraints, as could be found in educational sectors. They reflected about the order of intellectuals in politics – their opinions in the reproduction and transformation of social orders' (Burawoy, 2008:2).

On the other hand, their basic differences are 'more interesting – closely tied to the different historical contexts within which they grew up' (Burawoy, 2008:2). Bourdieu dissociated himself from Marxism, whereas Gramsci maintained a Marxist stance and engaged with questions of socialism. Whereas 'Bourdieu has greater confidence in scholastic truth generated in the academy, Gramsci grounds truth in the experience of workers in the process of production and factory councils, making way in what he calls "the organic intellectual" embedded in the working class. Bourdieu places great faith in the potential good sense of sociology, elaborated within the elaborated arena of the academy'. Contrariwise, Gramsci is sceptical that university intellectuals 'can be more than "traditional intellectuals" who, in the final analysis, reproduce domination. Each is concerned about the dangers within the whole system. For Bourdieu, markets and experts overrun social science, but for Gramsci, the party distorts working class experience instead of elaborating on it (Bourdieu in Burawoy, 2008:2)

Their opposing views as traditional and organic intellectuals are embedded in divergent views of domination: on the one hand symbolic domination in which the dominated do not recognise domination as such, and hegemony in which the dominated recognise and consent to domination. Out of this, emerge different theories of social change and transformation (Burawoy, 2008:3). This brief exposition has a connotation to what often seems to be happening in the South Africa's education where educational or rather political power determines the direction of the system. For example, the rolling out of one curriculum or another without absolute implementation has severally been criticized by some scholars.

The constitutional provision of choice of language of study 'in a public educational institution, if practicable' might be hanging. Drafters of this 1996 Constitution realised the difficulty, if not the impossibility, of realising this right as it was formulated under the Interim Constitution. Both Constitutions have the same eleven official languages. The question persists: How do we envisage the end of unequal linguistic power relations in schools if the drafters realised the difficulty?

The above discussion reflects the effects of *ideology* and *hegemony* on instructional practices in schools. Hegemony refers to "that order of signs and practices, relations and distinctions, images and epistemologies – drawn from a historically situated cultural field – that come to be taken-for-granted as the natural and received shape of the world and everything that inhabits it" (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008:438-439). Further, "the formation of hegemony cannot be separated from the production of ideology. If hegemony is the larger effort of the powerful to win

the consent of their 'subordinates', then ideological hegemony involves the cultural forms, the meanings, the rituals and the representations that produce consent to the current happenings and individuals' particular places within it" (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008:412). The concept of hegemony has to do with 'the social, cultural, ideological, and economic influence imposed by dominant groups in society' (Ravitch & Carl, 2016:536).

Foucault's works (1977) are generally insightful. First, though he does not fully expound his conception of the relation between knowledge and power, it appears to be refreshingly different from the traditional accounts by which provisions are made by the liberal philosophers of education such as Richard Peters. In embracing a structuralist viewpoint, Foucault rejects the humanist conception of the individual agent as the creator of knowledge. Foucault (1977:22) suggests:

> We should abandon the belief that power makes one mad and that the renunciation of power is one of the conditions of knowledge. We should admit rather that power produces Knowledge, that there is no power relation without the constitution of a field of knowledge, nor any knowledge that does not presuppose and constitute at the same time power relations.

Foucault (1977:23) also argues against certain theories that see power emanating from some organising entity such as the state. He contended that over-emphasis on the state leaves unexplored the hidden nature of the forms of relation called 'discipline'.

The case in point remains that power functions through interactions that place certain groups of people under lower positions. Given the focus of linguistic asymmetric power is embedded in the classroom contexts and social practices, one may put a question in a rhetoric style: what choices have teachers to oppose the existence of linguistic power differences in classrooms.

Although power struggles between the dominant and the dominated groups might be prevalent in the wider society and impact teaching in classrooms, teachers still have their choice to streamline the classroom activities and interactions. This assumption might chart a pathway towards the research on language and power relations in South Africa.

The previous apartheid's ideology of 'separate development' subordinated a majority of the black population through language and so limited their job prospects to that of low-paid manual labour (Posel & Casale, 2010:450). However, one wonders the validity of the current clause *equity and parity of esteem* in section 6(4) of the Constitution. The full implementation is yet to be real in the present dispensation (Kamwangamalu, 2004:131); even though in Section 6(5), the established Pan South African Language Board (PanSALB) has a concrete legislative task

of promoting and creating 'conditions for the development and use of all official languages as well as the Khoi, Nama and San languages and sign language' (RSA, 1996. Act No. 108).

Despite the use of nine official African languages by a majority of South Africans, 'English remains the dominant language of education, business and public life' (Posel & Casale, 2010:449). Sonntag (2003:92) also observes this by saying "there are indications that multilingualism is valued by Black South Africans in informal, private milieu", but it is also crystal clear that for purposes of public discourse, English remains not only the preference for social and economic reasons, but also continues to be commonly seen as the "language of liberation." However, the state is enjoined to 'afford all official languages *parity of esteem and equitable treatment*.' There are conflicting points of view regarding the seriousness with which the Constitution itself regards this principle of multilingualism. The differences emanate from uncertainty about the relative weight to be attributed to the principle of multilingualism on the one hand, and to competing considerations like communicative effectiveness, the promotion of national unity and financial discipline on the other hand.

The disjuncture inherent in 'language policy and practice is evident in South Africa's language-in-education policy' (Posel & Casale, 2010:450). The Constitution states that,

> [e]veryone has the right to receive education in the official language or languages of their choice in public educational institutions where that education is reasonably practicable (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, Section 29(2).

'South African Schools Act of 1996 devolves the responsibility of formulating suitable language policies to the provincial government and gives school governing bodies the right to choose the language of instruction in schools. In addition, South Africa's Language-in-Education Policy (LiEP) of 1997, considered one of the most progressive in the world (Probyn, Murray, Botha, Botya, Brooks & Westphal, 2002), advocates a policy of additive bilingualism where learners are taught in their mother tongue but at the same time acquire second language skills.'

Lastly, the link between language and economy has hardly been taken into consideration in language policy decisions. For the mother tongue to also become appealing, it must be assigned 'an economic value in the linguistic market place' (Kanwangamalu, 2004:139). Three conditions are required for this to happen. First, there is the need to vest the mother tongue education should be accorded with some of the privileges, prestige, power and material gains that have been for so long associated with English and Afrikaans. Secondly, the use of the languages can

be extended to feature prominently at higher education level, economy and in government in general. Thirdly, a certified (i.e., school-acquired) 'knowledge of the mother tongue should become one of the criteria for access to employment in the private as well as the public sector' (Kanwangamalu, 2004:139).

2.5 NATIONAL LANGUAGE-IN-EDUCATION POLICY

Language 'policy may refer to all language practices, beliefs and management decisions of a community or polity. Language policy may apply at various levels of generalisation. It might be at the level of an individual linguistic unit or refer to labelled varieties, which are clusters of units' (Spolsky, 2004:10).

Language policies whether at the national or at the classroom level, indicate relationships of asymmetrical power. In language policies, there is some dynamic tension that exists within the social sciences between an understanding of the impact of the social structure on individual choice and action, and an appreciation for the capacity of 'individuals and groups' to challenge and to alter the structure of social systems (Spolsky, 2004:10).

For the topic under investigation, language policy refers to the set of rules and regulations stipulating how language should be used in a public school. To comprehend learning opportunities, language practices in the FET band (Grade 10-12) classrooms should be examined to critically shape how language and power relations are constructed at specific moments in time. In other words, the diversity of classrooms show evidences of understanding because the rules of some 'forms of knowledge are privileged and' these display certain appropriate academic or linguistic competence (Makoe, 2007:56).

The power of language is both social and economic. In a supposedly practical multilingual setup, learning the dominant language should become an end in itself since, without this skill, individuals tend to be excluded from the 'production processes and social status that proficiency in' that language would confer on its speakers. This led me to review the literature on Section 29(2) of the Constitution of 1996 that allows learners to choose their language of study in public schools (RSA DoBE 1996).

2.6 ENGLISH AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

English is associated with economic development at any level in the current spheres of life. The *Euromonitor International* (2012:11), reports that the position of English globally makes it possible for English-speaking countries to do business with many world economies since English is used in science and technology, medicine, agriculture, engineering, education and many other spheres of human endeavours around the world. These professions constitute economic resources and are discussed hereunder. English is used as the language of most technologically advanced nations of the world. Although the world Scientist Association has not officially declared English 'as the official language of science, almost all activities in science and technology' occur through medium of English (Foyewa, 2015). In other words, ideas are basically conceived, produced and developed in science and technology through the instrumentality of English. It is the dynamic nature of the language that qualifies it to accommodate all forms of language that scientific and technological nations use. The US whose official language is English has produced the world's greatest technology companies such as Microsoft, Google, Facebook, Intel and Apple. It is also known for space exploration, space technology, the atomic bomb, a quality defence system and communication. Canada, with its diverse economy and highly educated population, has a flourishing technology, which includes highly developed biotechnology and space exploration (Erbar, 2014). A greater percentage of Canada's populations are speakers of English. Netherlands whose second 'language is English' uses it as an expressive means of' research and science. The nation's scientific researcher invented the artificial kidney, pendulum clock, compact disc, telescope and microscope. English as 'the official language of Australia is spoken by 82% of the population.' Australia occupies a front-line position in the field of biotechnology, mining and food industry. Another country that is greatly dedicated in research and development is Singapore. It has been outstanding in the field of medicine, food and military. Singapore is known to be the second most advanced nation of the world. English is a core language of' the Singaporeans and the most widely spoken (Kirkpatrick, 2011:214).

Many other countries such as Finland, Japan, China, South Korea, Germany, Israel, Russia and United Kingdom are technologically advanced with English contributing greatly as their language of research and development. Finland, popular for their high-tech projects and health care equipment, invented Nokia, a one-time world leader in mobile communications. The English-speaking population (though as a foreign language) is 70%. By the year 2027 as projected

by Leppänen, Pitkänen-Huhta, Nikula, Kytölä, Törmäkangas, Nissinen, Kääntä, Räisänen, Laitinen, Pahta & Koskela (2011) English would replace Finnish in Finland.

All these show the international use of English in the economy. They are discussed to link South Africa's case study because one way or another, be it in education, technology, medicine, sports, research, tourism and more, South Africa must engage in international relations with them to boost her economy (Sung, 2014:107).

Furthermore, the use of English-only as the medium of instruction features in all South African universities except in the University of the Free State, Stellenbosch University and University of North-West (Webb, 2006). These three universities combine English and Afrikaans as their language policy.

2.7 THE MEDIUM OF INSTRUCTION DEBATE

2.7.1   African languages as media of instruction in education

'The concept of medium of instruction (MoI) refers to the language used for teaching the basic curriculum of the educational system' (Dearden, 2014:2). Schools may have one or more languages of instruction depending on their need and the prevalence of the learners' and/or the community's language(s).

Brock-Utne (2005:563) in his debate suggests a three-language model as a solution to the language question. The model expresses that learners must first acquire proficiency in a local language and thereafter they can 'learn a regional African language', which will be in use as the LoLT at secondary and tertiary levels. Later, English, (the international language) is presented in the education system 'as a subject' simultaneously as a regional language is offered as a LoLT at secondary and tertiary levels. This model is useful in that it makes it possible for the school to adopt the home/local language as well as the language of wider communication (regional language), while introducing English (a global language) at a much later time in the learner's life when the initial literacy skills in the first language (L1) have developed fully. Brock-Utne (2005) further recommends that while African languages are being intellectualised, code-switching could be used as a teaching-learning resource. In this instance, educators could facilitate learning as they allow learners to choose to write examination and test questions in a local, regional or international (foreign) language. He compares code-switching with code-mixing in teaching asserting that the former is generally looked upon positively while the latter

is weighted negatively. The reason is that code-switching serves as a formula with which proficient teachers in either language use to facilitate comprehension of content in the course of lesson presentation. On the other hand, code-mixing presupposes that the user (the educator) lacks competence in both languages in use. Thus, Brock-Utne advocates a process of stage-by-stage language drill of learners until such a time that they acquire proficiency in the languages they have to use in their academics.

Webb (2004:148) asserts that 'using a second language as medium of instruction is, in principle, not an obstacle to the full development of a learner's potential, and that many South African learners have been successful despite having learned through the medium of a second language.' He, however, maintains 'that the use of English as medium of instruction for South Africa's' black learners often functions as a barrier, an obstacle to effective educational development, and thus constitutes a problem.

Qorro (2009) also argues 'that teaching and learning' should happen in languages in which both teachers and learners are proficient, not in a foreign language. Using an African language in a post-colonial context as medium of instruction would eliminate learner exposure to wrong English during lesson delivery, improve student understanding of content, minimise dependence on English, and reduce the stress loaded on subject teachers when they are also expected to help in the development of English language skills (Qorro in Brock-Utne, 2005).

Pandor (2012), on the use of official languages however, expressed that owing to the international nature of science, and English being the language of common use in Parliament, government departments and the public entities reported to her (former Minister of Science and Technology) in English and two other South African official languages.

2.7.2   Unequal linguistic power relations

The issue of linguistic power relations was contextualised from Bourdieuan thesis that learners 'from privileged socioeconomic backgrounds tend to acquire a background in high culture (i.e., cultural capital).' This is what they invest in education pursuits, which profits them in academic achievement and degree attainment. 'Power relations' is what enables who to do what to whom rather than who does what to whom.

Cultural capital, is never distributed equally as is the everywhere, including in South Africa. Whatever degree a learner acquires as cultural capital within their household that is an advantage accruing from the socioeconomic status of such household. The acquisition of the various forms of capital such as cultural, economic and social capitals helps dominant classes of people to assert such authority as they possess on the socioeconomic position.

The 'educational advantages of inheriting economic capital and social capital are easy to recognize' (Bourdieu, 1991:23). Those of cultural capital 'however, are relatively difficult to perceive. The educational impacts inherent in such benefits (e.g., high marks), are generally credited to individual distinction (i.e., superior inborn capability and/or greater personal diligence). Cultural capital thus works to assist the authentic confidence that educational struggle is meritocratic' (Bourdieu, 1991:23).

2.8 CONSTITUTIONAL RIGHT TO RECEIVE EDUCATION IN THE LANGUAGE OF CHOICE

This right presumably might be exercised only if it is "reasonably practicable" (RSA, 1996: B-32). It is also noteworthy that the right to language of instruction does not necessarily refer to a person's 'mother tongue' strictly. In the context of this study, 'mother tongue' would bear the following broad definition: education through the language which the learners have 'acquired in the early years and which normally has become their natural vehicle of thought and communication' (Kamwangamalu, 2010b:121). This right is vested in the person to be taught, not the parent, the teacher or the school. However, in the circumstances where the learners are not in a position to exercise this right, it will be exercised by their parents on their behalf.

The scope of the right in section 29(2) of the Constitution of 1996 is explicitly limited to public educational institutions and is not absolute. Critically, this right is a weak positive right as opposed to a strong positive right. A strong positive right is supposed to be assertive regardless of government's other budgetary imperatives that cannot be limited by virtue of scarcity of resources.

The phrase "reasonably practicable" seems to be the fulcrum around which the 'interpretation' of that section of the Constitution revolves. This phrase is not defined in the Constitution. However, there are a number of possibilities open to a school governing body to ensure multilingualism: the school may use more than one language as LoLt's (dual or parallel medium of

instruction); the school may offer additional language(s) as fully-fledged subject(s) or may adopt other means approved by the provincial head of department. The promotion of languages other than the chosen language of instruction is reinforced by the assumption in the 'Preamble to the Language-in-Education Policy that it should be a general practice and principle in our society to learn more than one language' (Msaule, 2010:244-245).

In all this, the fact remains that to use African languages as media of instruction. Bamgbose (2011:7) prescribes that we need to 'bring to the fore the question of intellectualisation of these languages.' What this means is that 'where adequate terminology does not exist, it will need to be developed so that African languages can be used in a wider range of domains.'

2.9 LANGUAGE POLICY AND GLOBALIZATION

Under this heading, the major reasons, according to Bamgbose (2011:1), why African languages have low status and restricted roles are summarised under the following rubrics: the colonial legacy, negative impression of multilingualism, language development status, national unity, modernisation and economic development, globalisation, negative language attitudes, and defective language planning (Bamgbose, 2011:1).

2.9.1 Colonial legacy

Colonial powers made it compulsory that each African country they ruled, their language must serve and take care of every activity in the land. Those colonial powers had distinct objectives. They imposed their culture on African culture through assimilation and selectively cultivated certain elite groups that related to the populace to embrace their own culture. In all that, as far as language was concerned, African languages took a subordinate role in parity of esteem and domains of use (Bamgbose, 2011:1).

The emergence of the elites from the colonial education system commanded absolute power as they monopolised the control of everything through colonial language. Even after independence, the established colonial languages continued to function as 'official languages in most countries and any' attempt to reverse the languages empowerment by rather empowering the African languages and extending their domains of use, failed. The colonial languages served as languages of education both at basic and higher education levels (Bamgbose, 2011:2).

Colonial legacy also separated some of the languages into arbitrary geographical divisions. Thus, related languages were divided leading to the emergence of cross-border languages within the African continent. The aftermath was that the territorial languages diminished, thereby affecting their right 'to enhanced status but correspondingly enhancing the hegemony of the colonial official language.' Therefore the 'cross-border language', which should have brought unity rather caused division, because another imported language was dominating it (Bamgbose, 2011:2).

2.9.2 Negative impression of multilingualism

The argument that the multiplicity of languages found in Africa does not give her any reputation especially in terms of communication and cost constitutes a reason for belittling African languages in favour of colonial languages. The argument about cost is that it is better to operate in a language for economical reason than to function in many languages. Further, the argument centres on the cost intensiveness of management of several languages in terms of translation, interpretation and production of many documents in different languages. Bamgbose (2011:2) asserts that as plausible as this may be, the real cost should focus on not infringing on a citizen's right of being given audience in own language rather than making a case of the 'so-called economy of functioning in a language in which one cannot communicate well.' He maintains that for Africa, such a language is always a colonial official language such as English, French, etcetera. Bamgbose (2011:2-3) insists that many people speak the supposedly major languages like Swahili, Hausa, Yoruba, and isiZulu. These languages could be associated with higher status and politico-economic power. Africa can economically produce materials in them. However, Africans 'believe that whatever their status may be to major languages, they still rank lower than imported official languages.' This is relegating one's self-esteem to the background.

2.9.3 Language development status

According to Bamgbose (2011:3), that African languages have low status 'is often based on what they need to be empowered to cope with domains in which they cannot be used.' While it is believable that we need language development efforts in newer domains, the common 'view that certain languages cannot express some concepts adequately in certain domains is'

not always true. Hence, Bamgbose (2011:3) claims that the question about using African languages in certain domains for the first time does not negate their possibility to 'do so, but how to bring about the necessary language development activities to make such use' possible. But Kamwangamalu (2010a:2) argues that unless African languages are seen "as a commodity in which language consumers have an interest to invest in their prospects will continue to be bleak, especially in the era of globalization."

2.9.4 National integration

There is a myth 'that one language unites and many languages divide.' 'This myth is African' and perhaps that is why African languages are held in low esteem as compared with imported official 'languages, which are believed to integrate their different ethnic groups' based on communication and government (Bamgbose, 2011:4).

He claims that the challenge of integration leads to formulation of language policies which may engender nationalism. 'The challenge has three approaches: the status quo approach; the gradualist; and the radical approaches.' The status quo approach after independence embraces, adopts and retains the 'imported colonial language as an official language.' The gradualist approach is in-between the status quo and the radical approach. It avoids constant with an imported official language, while also avoids the 'sudden change to a language for which adequate preparations' are not ensured. The radical approach, on the other hand, distances itself from the colonial language policy and 'adopts an indigenous language as an official language. A variant of this is an adoption of an indigenous national language as a symbol of nationhood, which may or may not be actively used as an official language' (Bamgbose, 2011:4).

2.9.5 Modernisation and economic development

Modernisation, associated with the quest for rapid technological and industrial development, so much preoccupied the views of most post-modern African leaders that they sacrificed the roles formerly played by their languages. Hence, modernisation became 'a strong factor that diminished the status and roles of African languages' (Bamgbose, 2011:4). The belief was that modernisation would best be attained through the use of an imported official language. 'The reason is that such a language is already widely used in science and technology and hence the experience gained in the use of the language can be copied, particularly through transfer of

technology' (Bamgbose, 2011:4). But the use of such language may be narrowly used by a small section of the educated population.

2.9.6 Globalisation

Globalisation increases co-operation between countries and regions internationally as they communicate in trade, technology, and other valuable activities. With language as a core choice, the argument becomes whether globalisation is beneficial to Africa or not. In this instance the apparent language of globalisation must qualify as a language of wider communication. English fits in since it has that currency to facilitate maximum access and participation 'in the global village' (Bamgbose, 2011:5). This role of English as a language of globalisation affects African languages in such a manner that their roles become more circumscribed. This lends credence to the doubt in certain quarters as to what would become of African languages in terms of economic value even if they are developed.

2.9.7 Negative language attitudes

The question of attitudes towards African languages rests on the power of the owners of the languages. Bamgbose (2011:5) declares that and expects that the owners African languages speakers wake up to take pride in their natural languages, but the opposite is the case as negative attitudes rather reigns toward these languages. Instances abound when we watch even African leaders praise and enhance the status of imported languages by way of preferring education in those languages for their children. Parents of low income groups also prefer similar foreign language education ignorantly perhaps. It is common everywhere in African countries to observe that English-medium private schools are more preferred to offer education to young learners. The point generally is 'that unless speakers of minority and endangered languages take pride in their own languages and show a definite desire to preserve them, no amount of external engineering can ensure any status and viable roles for them' (Bamgbose, 2011). The issue remains that prestigious mentality vested on the imported official languages has persisted and this continues to drown interest in the political will to invest adequately in the development of the indigenous languages.

2.9.8 Defective language planning

The common trend in African nations is to find language planners putting in bogus and unrealistic that can make implementation defective. The common situations include disjointed policy, coupled with an 'absence of political will.' One pertinent thing about absence of policy is that whenever there is no declared policy, a continuation of the *status quo* is indeed a policy (Bamgbose, 2011:6).

Bamgbose (2011:6) maintains that 'one major cause for failure to implement language policy is lack of political will.' It 'is the kind of political will and commitment, which many African policy-makers are not willing to demonstrate.' Moreover, 'unless they do, African languages will continue to have a lower status compared with the dominant imported official languages.' This issue bedevils the South African language policies and it affects education system seriously.

2.10   CONCLUSION

Chapter two, the review of literature, contextualised the problem according to the following sections. The introduction set out the content of the chapter. It began with language distribution of South Africa, followed by the language overview, national language-in-education policy and medium of instruction debate under medium of instruction and unequal linguistic power relations were critiqued. It also discussed the constitutional right to education in learners' own language choice. Language and globalisation also came under scrutiny in Africa in general and South Africa in particular. In conclusion, the chapter implicitly located the gap in literature in defective language planning.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 INTRODUCTION

A theoretical framework of an academic study is the way that a researcher integrates and situates the formal theories that contextualize and guide a study and this is developed through a multiphase process (Ravitch & Carl, 2016:86). This is what this chapter does to show how the theoretical framework fits into the study and merges the ideas in the discussion. The chapter also justifies the application of the framework used in terms of what it adds to the knowledge base on language and power relations, especially in the South African education context as a developing nation.

3.2 SOCIAL CONSTRUCTIVISM

The broader theoretical framework of this study draws on Lev Vygotsky's (1978) constructivist theory otherwise called social constructivism. Social constructivism underlines the significance of culture and context to understand what the societal occurrences are, which results in shared meaning created. Vygotsky's (1978) theory states that cognitive growth occurs first on a social level, and then it can occur within the individual. An important element in this theory is the belief in language as the most essential system through which humans construct reality (Leeds-Hurwitz, 2009). In this instance, learners relate themselves to circumstances as they make sense of others and construct knowledge on a social level. In other words, social constructivism is a theory that argues that groups construct knowledge for one another and so create a culture of shared meaning (O'Reilly & Kiyimba, 2015:18). They maintain that with Vygotsky culture provides the learner with the cognitive tools needed for development.' Parents and teachers provide learners with the tools of cultural history, social context, and language, in this context. Currently, we also include electronic forms of information access.

Social constructivism often described as interpretivism is another worldview (Creswell, 2013; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Mertens, 2010). It challenges the scientific-realist assumption of post-positivism that asserts that reality is reducible to its different components (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2012:28). This is not to deny the role of other institutions, especially the family. The school

creates various social contexts, (particularly the classroom, with invariably one teacher responsible for the education of a number of learners) within which individuals interact with one another, and in the process, views of reality are constructed (Jurasaite-Harbison & Rex, 2010:268). The implication is that teachers occupy a very sensitive position in the construction of learners' images of reality, and, in theory, different teachers can bring about different worldviews.

This means that we base knowledge on experience and social interactions with others (McMillan, 2012:274). Therefore, to realise the meaning of the social world, social constructivists view knowledge as a constructed concept instead of a created one. In short, the basic tenet of social constructivism is that reality is constructed historically, culturally and socially.

Social constructivism bases its assumptions on reality, knowledge and learning (Kim, 2001). These are briefly described below.

- Reality: This does not exist in advance; instead, it is constructed through human activity. Kukla (2000) argues that people in the society or a group of them invent the properties of the world or group. Moreover, social constructivism believes that since reality is not made before social invention, it is not something that can be discovered by individuals.
- Knowledge: Social constructivism represents knowledge as a human knowledge that is socially and culturally constructed (Gredler, *in* Kim, 2001).
- Learning: Social constructivism asserts that learning is a social process. Learning does not occur only within an individual, nor is it passively developed by external forces (McMahon, 1997). Meaningful learning occurs when individuals are engaged in social activities such as interaction and collaboration.

The above scenario has a bearing in this study, especially during the interview sessions where the participants (principals and teachers) had the capacity to examine their experiences and described them accurately. For example, they graphically described how and why some learners were able to express themselves well (orally and in written form) in the language of instruction (English) whereas some others were not able to do so. The same social context was evident in my study of some classroom observations as the learners constructed their own views of reality in presentation of individual academic topics and collectively/ individually responded to questions.

This study adopts the social constructive approach because of its epistemological foundation and bearing on interpretivism. This explains the reason for the choice of an interpretive paradigm for the study. Interpretivism presupposes that knowledge develops through interaction within the context, in this case, the classroom.

The approach of Vygotsky's social constructivist theory to learning describes the relationship between culture, learning and cognition. Vygotsky (1978:90) argues on how activities of individuals/learners relate to culture and these activities influence the way people think and behave.

Scaffolding also helps some teachers to assist their learners. The term 'scaffolding' is associated with the works of Wood, Bruner and Ross (1976). This describes 'the type of assistance a teacher or' a colleague (More Knowledgeable Other, MKO) offers to support learning. 'In the process', the teacher helps 'the learner master a task or concept that he/she is initially unable to understand independently.' The teacher only assists where the 'skills are beyond the learner's capability.' The important thing is that the teacher allows the learner to complete much of the task without assistance. Learners can still make mistakes, but the teacher's feedback and prompting helps the learner 'to achieve the goal.' When the learner 'takes responsibility' to master the task, 'the teacher begins' gradually to withdraw the scaffolding. Then the learner adapts to work independently. According to (Lipscomb, Swanson & West, 2015), scaffolding acts as a bridge built upon what learners 'already know to arrive at something they do not know.' Scaffolding, 'if properly administered', enables both the teacher and the learner because it helps to solve future academic problems. Scaffolding improves learning since it leads to appropriate content, ideas and opinions. It conceptualises initial learning as being culture-specific and reciprocates teaching and learning. It means that both learners and teachers must learn from one another. Discourse strategies, such as paraphrasing and constructively recapping what happened in class, improve learning.

3.2.1 Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development

The scaffolded instruction of Lev Vygotsky's (1978) embeds the idea of the zone of proximal development (ZPD). Vygotsky suggests that there are two parts of a learner's developmental level: the "actual developmental level" and the "potential developmental level". The zone of proximal development is defined as the distance between the actual developmental level as

determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance, or in collaboration with more capable peers (Vygotsky, 1978:86). It is also described as the area between what a learner can do by himself and that which can be attained with the help of a ''more knowledgeable other'' adult or peer. The more knowledgeable other, or MKO, shares knowledge with the learner to bridge the gap between the known and the unknown. Once the learner's knowledge increased, his actual developmental level also increased and the ZPD shifted. The ZPD always changes as the learner expands and gains knowledge. This means that scaffolded instruction is constantly individualized to address the changing ZPD of each learner.

Vygotsky believes that good learning occurs in the child's zone of proximal development. Teaching in the ZPD signifies what the learner can manage independently and can be allowed him to do as much as possible without any assistance. "Fading" is the process of gradually removing the scaffolding that was put into place for the child until it is completely gone. Eventually, the child internalizes the information and becomes a self-regulated, independent learner.

It is only when learners can demonstrate task mastery of new or difficult tasks that they can be free from getting more assistance or support from a teacher or a more knowledgeable other (MKO). As learners approach mastery, gradually assistance or support is decreased to shift the responsibility for learning from the MKO to the learners. In the end, if a learner is unable to complete a task after an intervention by the MKO, then he or she is immediately given a more specific directive. All these are the practical implications of Vygoskyan social constuctivism.

Activities are socially and culturally designed. In this way learning becomes a mediated experience which comes through the use of schema and scaffolding. ''Scaffolding'' refers to improves learning since it leads to appropriate content, ideas and opinions. It conceptualises initial learning as being culture-specific and reciprocates teaching and learning. It means that both learners and teachers learn from one another.

Vygotsky's theory emphasises the importance of an activity-oriented approach using language in education as a focus. The focus reverses as the learner takes over the performance of the activity. Schools should play the role of ensuring that learners' cultural experiences align with their language use in social environments and so adapt to the classroom discourse. This indicates the dynamic nature of culture and learning in knowledge acquisition. Although Vygotsky

(1978) attracted criticism for underpinning all kinds of wholesome cooperative learning strategies, directed class discussions are useful as they complement teachers' methodologies. The emphasis 'on the importance of social interaction' in learning, enhancing teamwork, and highlighting the learner's active role in constructing knowledge informed the usefulness of learner-centred techniques. This is where the teacher facilitates instead of applying all his/her pedagogic expertise.

It is important to note the following about social constructivists. As Curtis and Curtis (2011:13) put it:

> Social constructivists take the political-philosophical criticism of positivism further than their social realist colleagues do, to the point where it challenges the notion of science as a legitimate concept. They do not accept social reality as an independent phenomenon, or a straightforward idea of truth or of science.

In other words, social constructivists do not believe that science as a project can produce any acceptable universal laws, rules or theorems. Social constructivists also trust that "it is impossible to differentiate truth-claims based in social science, or folklore or common sense or metaphysics because individuals or actors create the social world and at the same time all the possible measures of that social world" (Curtis & Curtis, 2011:232). They further stress the uselessness of attaining objectivity outside data and analysis as positivists, or to control reflexivity in social realism.

Curtis and Curtis (2011:232) assert that these epistemologies are not just abstract notions in so far as each carries with it a set of political assumptions about what does and do not constitute doing (social) science.

COGNITIVE   CONSTRUCTIVISM

How individual learners understand things   SOCIAL CONSTRUCTIVISM
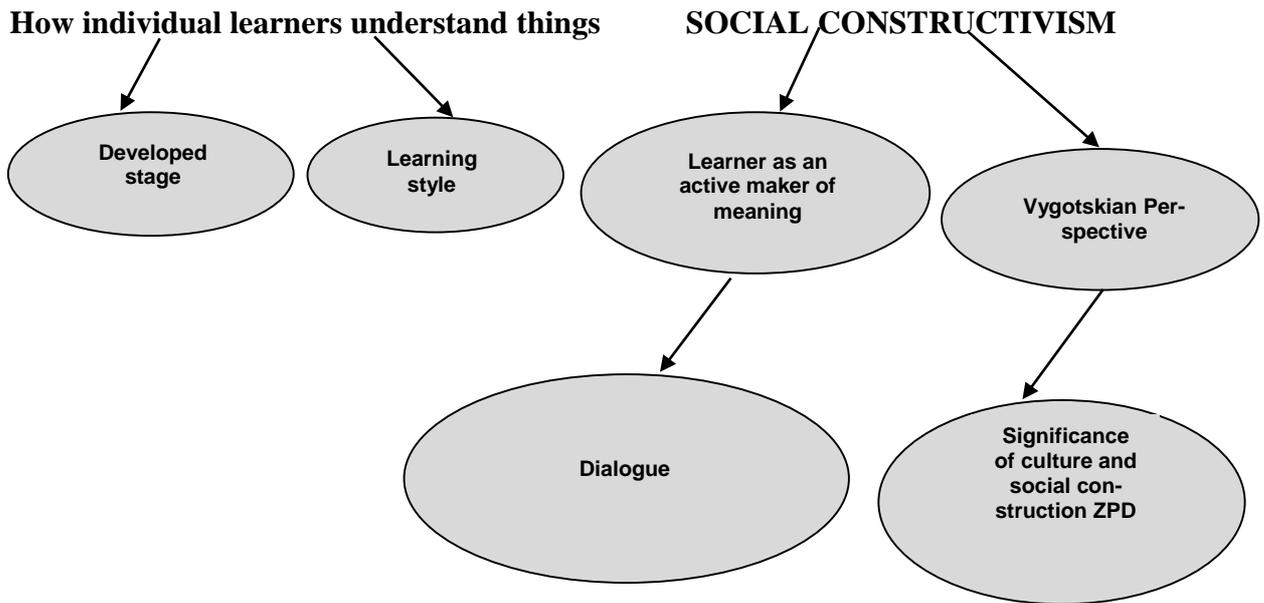
Figure 2: Social Constructivism – How individual learners understand things

In the 1980s, Dewey and Vygotsky combined their projects with that of Piaget in developmental psychology to synthesize the approach to constructivism. The basic tenet of constructivism is informed by learners practice instead of their mere observation (Matthews, 2003:53). They employ previous knowledge in a current learning and examine and re-evaluate their comprehension thereof. This process of interpretation, articulation, and re-evaluation is repeated until they can demonstrate their comprehension of the subject (Vygotsky *et al*., 1980).

Vygotsky rejected Piaget's notion of separation of learning from the social context. His social constructivism views learning as an active process through which the participants actively construct knowledge.

We cannot have absolute knowledge because of knowledge acquisition an individual needs to acknowledge a firsthand information received. They have to construct the interpretation presented to them from their experiences, individual views and cultural background. This is what happens even while conducting a qualitative study such as this one particularly in analysis and discussion.

Learners construct their own meaning as they build on their previous knowledge and experience. Novel ideas and experiences compare with existing knowledge, while they build on the new one and adapt this set of knowledge to make sense of the world. In such a setting, the

teacher is no more in control of the classroom learning, because the learners' individual views of reality vary so much that they now already possess their own constructs of the world. In other words, learners' 'conceptions of knowledge are a function of a meaning-making search in which they construct individual interpretations of their experiences.' This teaching-learning approach therefore encourages a conscious move from the old traditional didactic method and memory-oriented transmission models to a more learner-centered method (Amineh & Asl, 2015:9). This helps the inquirer to interpret the environment through interaction of the 'teacher and the learners as well as the learners' and learners in the classroom. Therefore, social constructivism considers the classroom as a learning environment where teachers' discursive interactions with learners enable the learners to construct their own knowledge (Eggen & Kauchak, 2010:409).

3.2.2 Language and culture

In this section I will briefly discuss the relationship between language and culture with a view to see why the teaching of culture should constitute an integral part of the language curriculum.

First, language is a social institution as it both shapes and shaped by society. Since language plays such an important role, as a cultural practice, then, without any doubt, culture has a link with language in society. This is in line with what Fairclough (1989:vi) had to say:

> *Language is not an autonomous construct, but social practice both creating*
> *and created by the structures and forces of the social institutions within*
> *which we live and function.*

Language does not exist in a vacuum; cultural activities anywhere in the world functions through the medium of language. We, as human beings become part of our culture by sharing the propositional knowledge and the rules of inference we need to understand whether certain propositions are true or not. To that (propositional knowledge), we might incorporate the procedural knowledge to do our tasks such as, farming, cooking, sporting, attending lecture classes, presenting conference talks, applying for good jobs, answering phone calls, etcetera (Duranti, 1997:28-29).

Think of any social, academic, political, religious, name it interactions, there must be bits of language and culture within. Soccer has its culture which cannot be separated from its vocabulary (language); funerals internationally have a language register which are expressed and

celebrated in different cultures. We can never divorce culture from language; both are like stool and urine. This is why teachers are encouraged to stimulate learners' interests in language classrooms through merging cultural stories and readings in their lessons.

Social constructivism assumes that knowing comes from associating and interacting with other human beings within culture and society (Amineh, & Asl, 2015:10). This means that association and environmental contact influence knowledge. It emphasises the collaborative nature of learning and the significance attached to cultural and social context. Learning means more than learners' understanding of new knowledge; the process rather integrates them into a knowledge community.

Social constructivism considers the whole language approaches, which tend to underline the written text about the learner's previous knowledge and what s/he can explain verbally. For example, the teacher might write down somewhere on paper what a learner described about his or her habitation or community.

In social constructivism learners actually negotiate meaning as they share background knowledge and participate in their mutual collaborative and cooperative activities. This indicates that a group shares knowledge not an individual. Another view of social constructivism is that learning is situated. Situated learning tackles problems through coordinated instruction as a strategy.

Social constructivism activates the active role that the learner plays in acquiring knowledge. Learners by situating instruction and engaged in an interesting lesson build knowledge. With this, the teacher designs the classroom activities around an anchored topic, or situation that revolves around solving some task or some issues of interest to the learners. Teachers must make available to learners rich resourced instructional materials they may struggle to make an effort to unravel a particular issue. Most teachers in the selected schools in this study (chapter four) applied this type of anchored and situated instruction that produced interesting results. The role of instruction is to constrain learners' activities; the question of how much guidance is optimal for learning is a separate issue (Kintsch, 1998:223).

Theorists of the perspective are John Dewey, Bruner, Piaget and Vygotsky. Generally, (social) constructivism according to Gredler (1997) share these key points:

- Reality is constructed through human activity. It is a 'cognitive tools perspective that focuses on the learning of cognitive skills and strategies.' Together learners produce a product and construct meaning on it through a social learning process.

- Humans collaboratively discover possessions of the world.

- Meaning is constructed by people through when they interact with one another and with environmental objects. This is transactional or situated cognitive perspectives.

- Learning as a social process takes place when individuals engage in community activities.

- Pragmatic and emergent social constructivists maintain that implementation of social constructivism in the classroom can be spontaneous in times of emergency. They view knowledge, meaning and understanding in society being possibly addressed within the classroom from the individual learner's views and the entire class members' views.

The implication is that a group of learners who have difficulty in working out grammar/sentence transformation items can use their previous knowledge and backgrounds to support one another. The learners can solve such piece of problem easily and more effectively together than if they should work as individuals.

Vygotsky's (1978) constructive perspective is preferred to others because it emphasises the role of language and culture in cognitive development, our perception of the world. It x-rays the whole frameworks for experiencing, communicating and understanding reality. This is appropriate for this study as it pertains to classroom language discourse and interaction. Vygotsky believes that people master their behaviour through psychological tools (Amineh & Asl, 2015:10).

3.2 ARTICULATION GAP

Articulation gap (in South African context) formerly referred to as the cultural deficit asserts that the gap from secondary to higher education is a serious matter for concern in South Africa. Fisher & Scott (2011:10) defined articulation gap 'as a mismatch or discontinuity between the learning requirements of higher education programmes and the actual knowledge and competencies of first-time entering students.' They assert that the number of academically ready learners for the university education is far less 'than the number of students who qualify for the statutory requirements for admission.' The cultural deficit model originated from the neg-

ative beliefs and assumptions about the ability, hopes and aspirations, and work ethic of systematically marginalised peoples. In reference to South Africa, it particularly asserts that black learners, especially those in the low socio-economic group often perform poorly because of perceived cultural deprivation or lack of familiarity with cultural models that are associated with school success. It assumes that poor performance and widespread underachievement of learners is blamed on this.

The Council on Higher Education (CHE, 2013: 60) describes the articulation gap as a discontinuity in the transition from one educational phase to the next educational phase (SANGONeT, 2016). High rate of learners' failure is associated with their unpreparedness for entry into higher institutions. Unpreparedness refers to a situation whereby learners are not academically ready, particularly in areas such as literacy. This is more evident in learners whose second language is English. The Council on Higher Education (2013:60) stating the nature of articulation gap reports that:

> [i]n South Africa, the significance of this systemic fault has increased not only because of enrolment growth . . . but also because of a major increase in the diversity of the student body in terms of educational, social and linguistic background. Diversity can be enriching, but in South Africa key forms of diversity are rooted in inequalities, and are an obstacle to equity and development.

This study uses the articulation gap in consideration of the grades under investigation, that is, the FET band (Grades 10 – 12). These learners are close to making their entry into higher institutions of learning anywhere in the world. Consequently, as they enter schooling unprepared due to lack of cultural capital, they perform poorly compared with their peers who possess cultural capital. This indicates that articulation gap has a bearing on the concept of cultural capital of the French realist, Pièrre Bourdieu.

The cultural deficit concept followed the genetic deficit theory and Darwinian concepts of evolution, a controversial but acknowledged system of thought at the dawn of the 20th Century (Bolima: n.d). They justified the belief that certain species of individuals were intelligently inferior to others, especially to the ones in highly dignified circumstances. Later in the 1960s, certain cultural deficit Theorists such as Hess, Shipman, Engelmann, and Deutsch, overrode the beliefs of the genetic theorists. Most of these theories emerged to respond to some historical issues or educational problems, which previous studies evoked. Whereas proponents of articulation gap lay blame on the social, cultural and economic environment of the child as being

devoid of the required behaviour to succeed academically, (Hess & Shipman, 1965:870), underscored the way cultural deficit concepts rather backed the idea that emotional deficiencies of society undermined learners' brilliant attainment in the educational system. To reach a solution to deficiencies in learners' academic progress would be difficult, if not impossible, if these differences (power relations) in cultural deprivation remained unattended. There is a need to check what schools and their teachers are doing, whether they are actually teaching or failing to teach and if nobody finds fault with them, but blames the learners only. This makes a case in my study as the discipline in teaching and learning determines a school's rate of performance. Whether the learners' social, cultural and economic circumstances or teachers' failure to teach well causes schools' poor academic performance or not, there should be a solution to these matters. The issue is to close the gap of the language power relations of the classrooms to bring about the much-needed academic success.

In furtherance to a search for what educational institutions do, there is the suggestion that an indiscriminate rise in learners' desire for access to tertiary education has caused the lowering of quality/standards among entrants (Sosibo & Katiya, 2015:274). Schools do not directly link to the power of economic elite, but seen to contribute wholly symbolically but not openly imposing submission and oppression. They rather bring back existing power struggles more tactfully 'through the production and distribution of a dominant culture that tacitly confirms what it means to be educated' (Bourdieu, 1979). Addition to how the above theoretical frames and the articulation gap concept have shaped this study, the following concepts also are of benefit to the theoretical framework.

3.4 CULTURAL CAPITAL

Cultural capital entails forms of knowledge, skill, education and any advantages people have which lifts them above others in society. Learners can acquire cultural capital through their parents. It could include attitudes and knowledge that make educational system a conducive environment for their academic success.

Bourdieu's (1978:1) cultural capital centres on familiarity with dominant culture, which emphasises communication ability and possession of the elements of such dominant culture. There is no equal share of culture and nobody possesses it easily. It therefore presupposes that the possessors of such capital put those who lack it in a disadvantageous position. The fact remains that the possession of cultural capital varies with social class, yet the education system assumes

the possession of cultural capital. This makes it difficult for lower-class learners to attain success in academics. The interviewees of this study (in chapter four) expressed the issue and the classroom observations also indicated the same. The rural schools compared with the schools in the city did not perform well in classroom language discourse. That indicated the existence of language power relations in schools.

Bourdieu can be criticized for not being precise about exactly which of the resources are converted into educational credentials among the forms of capital.

Bourdieu (1987) distributed three states of cultural capital as is explained in the following sections.

3.4.1   Embodied state

This is the type of dispositions, knowledge, ideas, values and skills that are acquired by agents in the course of their socialisation, and which cannot be accumulated beyond their capacity (Sanchez, 2007:7). This refers to the wealth of knowledge incorporated by the student during the course of his academic pursuit, which will enable him to adapt to his academic life. The embodied state of cultural capital emphasises the spaces, interests and the meaning the student has incorporated to distinguish his/her level and type from person to person.

3.4.2   Objectified state

This state includes all objectified cultural goods such as books, magazines and theories that can be appropriated. The tendency to consume this is important for acquiring new knowledge that will increase the embodied cultural capital. It is a value in the field, since its possession and consumption are important for education (Sanchez, 2007:7).

3.4.3   Institutionalised state

This is obtainable in academic rewards such as degrees and diplomas, which confer recognition on the institutionalised cultural capital and provide a different type of consecration in accordance with the prestige of the issuing institution.

The possession of capital in any of these states depends on the position a student occupies in the social space s/he operates. It might also constitute the legitimate character or lack of it one acquires. A learner gains position in terms of the variety of his/her distinguished level. The level of cultural capital a learner has legitimately qualifies him/her as brilliant and capable to have greater opportunities to integrate and develop. When a learner possesses insufficient cultural capital, there is the possibility of his/her experiencing difficulties in education that limit their participation in the games of the field (Sanchez, 2007:8). The study participants (interviewees) highlighted this and the classroom observations showed same especially in schools at the rural communities.

Bourdieu's (1991:167) theories of capital are parts of his general theory of symbolic power, which is the power to legitimate what are essentially arbitrary distinctions in fields characterised by social hierarchies. Again, the dominant culture contributes to the real integration of the dominant class (by facilitating the communication between all its members and by distinguishing them from other classes). It also contributes to the fictitious integration of society as a whole, and thus to the apathy (false consciousness) of the dominated classes; and finally, it contributes to the legitimation of the established order by establishing distinctions (hierarchies) and legitimating these distinctions.

The dominant culture produces this ideological effect by concealing what harm division could do over the communicative functions: the medium of communication is also the instrument of distinction and this legitimates distinction through the forces of other cultures that define themselves differently from the dominant culture. This means that language interactions indicate the participants' perspectives in social space. Their different understandings seem to reproduce the objective structures of the social field. This determines who has a right of audience, or questioning, and to what degree. In a way, this is tantamount to a kind of hegemony.

Although Bourdieu did not specifically write about South Africa's education policy, his theoretical ideas and methods of approach can add to any cutting-edge research and knowledge of education policy and its relation to globalized economy (Rawolle & Lingard, 2008:729). Bourdieusan (1991:163) power of language is symbolic. This has to do with the power to justify what might ordinarily be out of order in domains characterised by social ladders. The ruling culture unifies the ruling body that facilitates co-operation among members. This classifies and contributes to a false merging of a people as a unit and the false awareness of the dominated classes.

Finally, it legitimises the laid down order by constituting hierarchies that consolidate this legitimacy. The ruling culture ensures the effect of the dominant ideology hides the function of separation upon communicative functions. That culture that unifies is also the culture that separates. This legitimacy forces all other sub-cultures to be revealed distinctly from the ruling culture. It means that language interactions are informed by the participants' distinctive roles in social space. It classifies understanding and tends to duplicate the intended structures in the social domain. This determines who has a right to be listened to, to interrupt, to ask questions, to instruct and to what degree. In a way, this is tantamount to a kind of hegemony and a kind of power relations. Hegemony, according to Gramsci refers to 'the combination of force and consent, which balance each other reciprocally, without force predominating excessively over consent. Indeed, the attempt is always made to ensure that force will appear to be based on the consent of the majority' (Gramsci, 1971:80).

With cultural deficit / articulation gap, society often exonerates schools from their responsibility to render quality education to the learners thereby defeating the aims of education. This is one of the causes of uneven language power relations in the classroom discourses in South Africa's secondary schools.

Bernstein's (1971) relative programme of power is a search for a system of rules, which regulates relations between the external configurations of power and the internally shaped means of recognition and realisation of such configurations as a semiotic system. At different levels, power is inseparable from physical and symbolic boundaries of experience, meanings, and the contexts of interaction, in which realisations of meanings take place. For Bernstein, power is a force that structures spaces, relations, and positions. It is external, but also internal and unconscious to the individual. The main feature of power in Bernstein is the structuring

Foucault's works (1977) are insightful. He does not fully explain his conception of the relation between knowledge and power because it is different from the traditional accounts that liberal philosophers of education provide. In embracing a structuralist viewpoint, Foucault (1977:25) rejects the humanist conception of the individual agent as the creator of knowledge by suggesting that we should ignore the belief that power intoxicates and that the surrendering of power is a condition of knowledge. Foucault (1977:27-28) argues:

> *We should admit rather that power produces Knowledge, that there is no power relation without the Constitution of a field of knowledge, nor any knowledge that does not presuppose and constitute at the same time power relations.*

Foucault (1997:23) also argues against certain theories that see power emerging from certain organising entities such as the state. He contends that over-emphasis on the state leaves unexplored the hidden nature of the forms of relation called "discipline."

Thus, people exercise their rhetoric power through discourses that subordinate individuals and groups' relationships. Given the centrality of linguistic power relations embedded in the contexts and social practices of the classroom, one may frame the issue in terms of the rhetorical question: What options do teachers have to resist and challenge the operation of linguistic power relations in the classroom? Although power relations between dominant and subordinated groups may occupy the social space in the wider society and directly influence pedagogical spaces created within classrooms, teachers are still free to exercise their choice about how they orchestrate classroom interactions. This assumption might chart a pathway toward the new research on language and power relations in South Africa.

3.5 HABITUS

Habitus is 'a system of dispositions' arranged by agents. 'It is a set of durable', natural plans, constituting the bedrock of people's judgement, perception and action. This points to an 'historical' issue which is of a genetic mode of thought, instead of an essentialist mode of thought. Sanchez, (2007:8) refers to this as one of its features that endows the subject with the skills and values needed for entry into a group. This makes movement and action possible. According to Rawolle and Lingard (2008:731):

> *…concept of habitus does not imply that all practices are generated in an irrational manner, or without conscious thought, but that agents are differently positioned to be reflexive about their practice, and in the process of producing many practices, wholly rational choices are not possible.*

3.6 BOURDIEUSIAN LANGUAGE

The approach and use of language form the epicentre of Bourdieu's theory of practice. It provides not only the instruments of analysis through his conceptual terms but the basis for the reflexive method which is also central to his project. When talking about language, Bourdieu has in mind not only everyday usage but technical terms used by researchers. In fact, one of the principal phenomena of the post-modernist age is the way language has been colonised;

that is conquered and put to use on behalf of the dominant discourse. More reason, perhaps, social inequality has been redefined as social inclusion, and social capital has become a byword for a range of social policy. For this research, as it were, social inequality emanates from asymmetrical language power in the classroom. The point is that learners' cultural capital plays an influential role in what happens in the classroom.

3.6.1 Teacher Education

The case of teacher education offers an example of the way language can shape our thinking about process. For Bourdieu, the issue at stake is the way professionalisation is defined. There is an extensive research literature of the professionalization (qualification) of teachers. Much of this takes its lead either from objectivist or subjectivist approaches to the topic. Here I am concerned about the teachers' training, professionalisation, and education. In contrast, a study using Bourdieu's theory of practice approaches the topic in its epistemological sense and examine the very language we use to talk and write about teachers and professions. Bourdieu, (1989:37-38) writes:

The notion of profession is dangerous because it has all the appearance of false neutrality in its favour. Profession is a folk concept which has been uncritically smuggled into scientific language and which imports with it a whole social unconscious. It is the product of a historical work of construction and representation of a group which has slipped into the very science of this group. This is why this concept works so well, or too well: the category of profession refers to realities that are, in a sense, too real to be true, since it grasps at once a *mental* category and a *social* category, socially produced only by superseding or obliterating all kinds of differences and contradictions.

Because of this, the very term profession itself needs to be treated as an object of analysis rather than instrument of analysis, and reconfigured in terms of Bourdieu's own conceptual tools. Bourdieu's approach reveals a *field* mechanism and a structural position all whilst recognizing the actual experiences of teachers and trainees.

This Bourdieusian view may not be comfortable but it offers a broader and more realistic vision than many who take professionalisation as an idealised end in itself.

The approach is a way to incorporate Bourdieu's conceptual thinking tools to the themes on educational research. One language is replaced with another: the first based on common sense,

forced neutrality and thus historical constitutive recognitions; the second coming from an epis-temology which integrates subject and object into a dynamic structural method of analysis for educational practice. The move is therefore more than simply linguistic, or a technical modification, and involves a fundamental shift in understanding of knowledge formation and practice in actual real-life contexts.

3.6.2 Classroom Discourse

I studied the term scaffolding from a Bourdieusian perspective. Scaffolding is derived from Vygotskyan psycho-linguistics and relates to the Zone of Proximal development (see Vygotsky, 1978). It refers to the social construction of knowledge within a pedagogic discourse; in particular, the way learners are assisted at the point of hand-over where they are able to handle knowledge. The research task is then to identify and explain what constitutes this scaffolding and hand-over in order to understand how to maximise its effectiveness in pedagogic discourse. Much of this has been used to guide teachers on how to teach. However, from a Bourdieusian perspective, to engage in scaffolding might indeed be to indulge in a kind of scholastic fallacy, which confuses the things of logic with the logic of things. In attempting to showcase a mental and social process, scaffolding becomes more real than the thing it is expected to represent, and follows its own logic of practice. Authors in the Vygotskyan fashion agree that continuity, co-operation and sharing are emphasised over conflict and dis-functionality (Mercer 1995:121). However, it is difficult not to see two world views two *habitus* often colliding at critical points within classroom discourses, as teachers talk learners through according to their own (legitimate) way of thinking based on the official pedagogy. The point is that by pursuing the learners' own method, a more enhanced interpretative understanding might result rather than the exclusion of one way of thinking by another.

3.6.3 Capital

The concept of *capital* is a good example of the relationship between Bourdieu′s theory and his empirical data. He argued repeatedly that he never theorises as such, and any project to construct theory was anathema to him. Rather, he saw theory and the concepts it implicated as necessary to an explanation of the links he found in his immersion in and analysis of the data

collected. However, by the time he came to undertake his research on education, this under-standing was developing into the fully fledged concept of *cultural capital.* This is probably what put him in the limelight in the English speaking world, at least during the emergence of the new sociology of education in the 1970s (*ref.* Young 1971). Cultural capital signifies the way various forms of cultural knowledge (mental know-how, linguistic style, actual familiarity with cultural history) could impact on scholastic achievement because of the implicit culture of schooling. This is embedded in curricula, scholastic ways of thinking, and classroom lan-guage. For Bourdieu, there were three apparent forms of *cultural capital*: an embodied state for example, a person who has a certain accent and moves in a certain way according to lasting dispositions; an objective state paintings, books, dictionaries, machines, instruments, etc.; and an institutional state certificates, diplomas, success in competitive selection (see Bourdieu, 1979b).

Note that Vygotsky's social constructivism believes in positive abilities of learners whereas articulation gap believes that learners are incapable of succeeding academically because of the circumstances around them; that is, certain species of people are intelligently inferior to others just as cultural capital does with the domination of the less privileged.

3.7 SOCIAL REALISM

Realism is a philosophy of education, which argues how we live in an objectively ordered world of reality we know.

We can organize knowledge through the discovery of truth about this reality. This knowledge is our best guide to action (Gutek, 2004:40). In other words, we can only manage and discover truth about reality through organised knowledge that leads to action. This discovery of truth about reality was realised as learners at the sampling schools worked together during the class-room observation sessions as they organised their knowledge to produce the expected outcomes from the oral and written exercises.

Realists commit themselves to certain domains to ensure the existence and objectivity of such domains. As such, they manage any disputed entities in that domain, to realise the certainty of statements about such entities. Realism trades on the distinction between appearance and real-ity. Conversely, those who do not believe in realism disagree that disputed entities exist. For this group, there is no truth in any statements about any given domain.

However, these anti-realist camps dispute what they term as unwarranted conditions posed by the realist points of view in any given domain. They rather appraise the relevant statements or the existence of the disputed entities depending on the mental activities of human beings.

Plato laid the foundations of realism while Aristotle, his student, developed the concept, realism (Gutek, 2004:41). Both were leading founders of Western philosophy and education.

Social realism is an epistemological position. Social realists believe in provable reality, and that exists when we mediate through perceptions and actions. Comparatively, social realists and positivists are at variance as they argue about the revelation of the social world's huge problems. Science activities is an authentic objective for social realists but they believe the inherent limiting factor cannot be controlled. Objectivity is for positivists whereas social realists welcome subjectivity; the latter 'appreciate power, meaning and the need for researcher reflexivity' (Curtis and Curtis, 2011:289).

The ways researchers and institutions impose bias always becloud their search for truth. As such, institutional and researcher bias control becomes an important component of socialist realist efforts at doing science as opposed to positivists' narrow focus on methods – positivists tend to discount political underpinnings of science. On the contrary, social realists tend to make explicit the political assumption about epistemology and its influences on method (Curtis& Curtis, 2011:289).

3.8 CRITICAL REALISM

Critical realism (CR) as a school of philosophy is introduced as realism that is applied critically to produce an arranged knowledge of the world. It separates reality from the empirical, 'the structures and mechanisms, which produce events or phenomena, from the events themselves' (Archer, Bhaskar, Collier, Lawson & Norrie, 2013). This philosophical movement originated in the writings of Roy Bhaskar in the 1970s, but subsequently developed by him and a growing number of social scientists, particularly in the field of business studies. Critical realism is made up of different reality levels, including the empirical domain which consists of experiences by sense knowledge. Put differently, the actual domain exists, observation notwithstanding. Within it lies the real domain which refers to the underlying mechanisms and processes

(Ormston, Spencer, Barnard & Snape, 2014). Critical realism is applied in this research to survey and critique the occurrences in the application of the language-in-education policy of South Africa.

3.9 STRUCTURALISM AND POST-STRUCTURALISM

Structuralism and post-structuralism were intellectual movements that developed in France from the late 1950s to the 1970s (Ashenden, 2005:196). Broadly defined, structuralism is an attempt to provide a unified method for the social sciences through the development of a methodology drawn from the structural linguistics of the early twentieth-century French linguist, Ferdinand de Saussure (Ashenden, 2005:197). Saussure proposed a science of signs called "semiology" – commonly called "semiotics." That 'was to study both linguistic and non-linguistic ways of creating meaning.' Structuralism "studied the (assumed) underlying laws and generalities (structures) of language, rather than what people subjectively thought about language" (Curtis & Curtis, 2011:289). The analytical concepts from linguistics, psychology, anthropology, economics, politics, are used in other fields to interpret those structures. Structuralism broadly considered, then, includes assumptions about structures and methods of analysis.

Contemporary educators also display structuralist assumptions in their investigations and prescriptions for policy and practice. Logical and scientific nature of its results are emphasised. Structuralism can also be described as being 'decentred', meaning structuralists did not study individuals or groups thought of the social world, but how their actions were shaped by various rules (of language or of capitalism, for instance). It is about perceptive and descriptive structures, sought internally, and observed from real research. The observer sees the evidence and the product of the structure rather than mere structure.

Just the way native speakers of a language have no need of knowledge of the structure of their own tongue in order to be able to use it, so it is needless to persuade people to be wary of any of its structures, but to mind the evident indications of the structures. Social structure, then, cannot be directly observed but must be deductively constituted.

In educational practice, meaning is not determined by what teachers or learners think, say, or do, but, by relationships among what teachers and learners think, say, and do. That is, meaning is located in structures, not in individuals. In other words, structural analysis, whether used to study classrooms, schools, curricula, organisation of knowledge, or language, emphasises wholeness and totality, not units and parts.

According to Cherryholmes (1988:30), structuralism is an approved manner of thinking that is capable of influencing education in its entirety. It encourages excellence in organisation, and ensures certainty in implementation. 'Structuralism in education also promises accountability, efficiency, and control. Structuralism is consistent with teaching for objectives, standardised

educational assessment, quantitative empirical research, systematic instruction, rationalised bureaucracies, and scientific management' (Cherryholmes, 1988:30).

Post-structuralism is a major subdivision of contemporary western philosophy. Although it is historically the continuation of structuralism, these two philosophical movements are epistemologically and methodologically different. In other words, whereas Structuralism was the dominant philosophical attitude of various cultural, critical and even linguistic analyses of the middle part of the twentieth century, the effects of post-structuralism were to be felt only after the early 1970s.

Post-structuralism directs the study of knowledge and critiques structuralism. It forwards the argument that history and culture determine the study of structures. A post-structuralist argument has it that an object (e.g., a text) can be understood if one initiates the study of both the object itself and the systems of knowledge that birthed it.

While structuralism was decentred in its theory and practice, post-structuralism is a form of hyper-decentring. In both cases research is not centred on individuals or actors or agents (as with almost all other approaches), but on the ways rules of language or discourses or simulacra play across different sites, of which humans are, but one example (Curtis & Curtis, 2011:256). In essence, the difference between structuralism and post-structuralism is about truth-claims. Originators of semiotics had it that decentring the focus of research provided the basis for science. However, for the post-structuralists the logic of decentring, of subordinating the individual, provides a further rationale for the abandonment of science as a privileged truth-claim. In a conceptual concern, Curtis and Curtis (2011:257) state it thus:

  i.   Semiotic analysis has structural and post-structural variants. Structuralism 'decentres.'
 ii.   Research and emphasises universalistic factors, including the rules of human language.
iii.   Post-structuralism extends the decentralised research focus of structuralism to produce a hyper-decentralisation that challenges the privileged position of science in making truth-claims.

Post-structuralism has an interdisciplinary nature. To discuss the main premises of post-structuralism as a philosophical movement of the recent years, one needs to go back to the origin of structuralism, which functioned effectively for the development in other academic fields. However, the structure and scope of the present study limit me from delving into that.

3.10 REFLEXIVITY

Reflectivity is an iterative process, and in its basic form means that researchers make visible their impact on the research process and the impact of the research process on them (O'Reilley & Kiyimba, 2015). The researcher acknowledges his/her role in qualitative research, and sorts through biases and taking cognisance of how they affect various aspects of the research, especially in interpretation of meanings. The qualitative researchers aim to be reflexive and sensitive to their role as that influences the beliefs and behaviours of the process. According to Bloomberg and Volpe (2012:35), the constant reflexive and self-critical processes is an essential component of data collection and data analysis. In other words, reflexivity becomes essential since the researcher is the primary "instrument" of data collection and analysis. Jensen & Laurie (2016:281-282) concurs thus:

> *"You can achieve this reflexivity by periodically evaluating and writing down your assumptions, feelings and other ways in which your research participants and situation might affect how you collect and analyse your data."*

Through reflection, the seeming difficult aspects of the fieldwork of this project were minimised. It entailed careful consideration of the phenomenon under study, and the ways my own assumptions and behaviour influenced the inquiry. O'Reilley & Kiyimba (2015:174) further asserts that… "*[r] esearcher reflexivity is a mechanism for evaluating the process, which in turn manifests itself as a way of learning, which will inform future decisions."*

As such, reflectivity enables the research process to be cyclical and iterative as well as developmental (O'Reilley & Kiyimba, 2015:174). Reflexivity addresses the social relation of knowledge rather than the epistemic relation. That applies to the researcher's relation to what he/she knows about the researched phenomenon. The phenomenon might comprise all objectified cultural goods such as books, magazines and theories that can be appropriated (Bourdieu, 1987).

Reflexivity begins with the very primitive assumption that theory is made by the praxis of men in all their wholeness and is shaped by the lives they lead (Robbins, 2016).

Reflexivity has a link with power (Adkins, 2004). Through reflexivity, qualitative researchers can question certain practices, especially those related to postmodern ideologies. Reflexivity is not only recognition of the self; it is also recognition of the other. But the researcher must move away from the comfortable uses of reflexivity toward uncomfortable practices that enable us

to recognise the complexities and intricacies of the qualitative (Lichtman, 2006:207). Any particular field of research occupied with aspects of knowledge processes in general may reflexively study other such fields yielding to an overall improved reflection on the conditions for creating knowledge. Simply put, sociological reflexivity addresses the social relation of knowledge rather than its epistemic relation.

Bourdieu abhors the "self" of reflexivity as it comes short of identifying the key filters that alter sociological perception. It ignores those limits of knowledge specifically associated with the analyst's membership and position in the intellectual field.

To be precise, according to Hanna (2016:18), Bourdieu suggests that three types of biases may blur the sociological gaze thus:

- The social origins and coordinates (class, gender, ethnicity, etc.) of the individual researcher.
- The link to the position the analyst occupies, not in the social structure, but in the microcosm of the academic field.
- The intellectual bias which entices us to construe the world as a spectacle.

The third bias is most original to Bourdieu's understanding of reflexivity because it can lead the researcher to miss entirely the specific difference of the logic of practice (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992:39).

3.11   THE CONCEPT OF FIELD

The concept of field in Bourdieu's perspective is relative. Bourdieu defines the concept of field as a set of power relations between agents or institutions in the struggle for specific forms of domination and monopoly of efficient type of capital (Gutiérrez, 1997 cited *in* Sanchez, 2007:6). The space is characterised by the members relating among themselves in an alliance. They obtain the most benefit from the alliance and impose as legitimate that, which defines them as a group; from such relationship the groups and individuals search for improvement of their positions and / or exclude other groups. The position depends on the type, volume and legitimacy of the capital and the *habitus* that the subjects have acquired over the course of their lives, and how these vary over time (Bourdieu, 1993). Hence, 'field, *capital* and *habitus* are concepts that are connected. The question of the location of actors within social space is redefined in terms of the more subtle issue of their relational positions within their specific field(s)

of practice.' Bourdieu (1993:74) describes this as game and the participants as players when he writes… "The new players have to pay an entry fee, which consists in recognition of the value of the game and in (practical) knowledge of the principles of the functioning of the game."

The field is explicitly a place where action takes place with boundaries where existing power brokers can block entry. Within the enclave, players take positions and play roles that befit their status. However, their roles and status may encounter challenges unexpectedly. There is a network of negotiated actions and relations between positions, and the players (be they individuals or institutions) vie for possession of, or influence over, the object at stake (for example, control of educational policymaking or curriculum content). Invite players to participate and allow them access through the concept of "capital." Such capital is for the field and could be any of the forms of capital. In the academic field, Bourdieu argues that who has what capital, and in what amounts, sets up the hierarchically distributed power structure. Bourdieu (1993:73) explains:

> "The structure of the field is a state of the power relations among the agents or institutions engaged in the struggle, or, to put it in another way, a state of the distribution of the specific capital which has been accumulated in the course of previous struggles and which orients subsequent strategies."

Fields consist of producers, consumers, distributors of goods and law enforcement bodies, whose characteristics, rules and conformation vary according to their history and relation to the field of power (Sanchez, 2007:6).

Therefore, the *academic field* serves as a complex space composed of producers (researchers and academics), distributors (professors and disseminating bodies)' consumers (learners, researchers and scholars), legitimating entities and distributors of goods (universities and research institutes). The efficient capital is the cultural capital that can be acquired by learners and legitimated through degrees and diplomas. Moreover, this cultural capital can be transformed into capital that is symbolic of recognition when it accumulates and the groups in power acknowledge it; then the individuals ascend to an elevated position and acquire the recognition and capacity to define what is *legitimate* and *valuable* in the circle in which they operate (Dromundo, 2007:6).

3.12   CONCLUSION

Chapter three located the theoretical framework, which was situated in Vygotsky's social constructivism. Discussion of social constructivism in which Vygotsky's social constructivist approach to learning explained the link between culture, learning and cognition.

The chapter discussed other concepts to support the chosen framework. They were the articulation gap, cultural capital with its forms of state.

Furthermore, reflexivity as a conscious experiencing of the self as both inquirer and respondent enabled the identification of biases and their effect on various aspects of the research, especially, interpretation of meanings.

This chapter also discussed the concept of fields. Fields consist of producers, consumers, distributors of goods and legitimating and regulatory bodies, whose characteristics, rules and confirmation vary according to their history and relation to the field of power. Hence, the chapter brought into focus the notion of cultural capital. The focus on cultural capital in this study presupposed that learners from high socio-economic backgrounds tend to perform better than others from low socio-economic families could perform.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1   INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes the research design of the study. Aspects of research design covered are the assumptions and beliefs of the interpretivist paradigm, presentation of the qualitative approach used and the procedures for qualitative method design. They include sampling, data collection and instrumentation, data analysis and ethical considerations.

The following are the research questions that guided this study.

- What is the relationship between linguistic power and economic power in the post-apartheid South Africa?
- How do linguistic power relations affect learners who are non-native speakers of English in the English medium classroom?
- How does language choice re-create economic inequalities in South Africa?
- What policy responses are needed to address inequalities and inequities in linguistic power relations in the education system in general and in the FET band in particular?

4.2   RESEARCH PARADIGM

Kuhn, the originator of the idea paradigm, fundamentally defined "paradigm as a basic set of beliefs or assumptions adopted by a scientific community, which define the nature of the world and the place of individuals within it" (O'Reilly & Kiyimba, 2015:3). Put differently, Kuhn (1970) asserts that a research paradigm is a lens through which we perceive phenomenon as we define the nature of enquiry through analysis of the nature of reality. A *paradigm* is an intellectual window through which the researcher views the world (Pandya, 2010:40). It is a frame of reference or a perspective for analysing or examining the social including the educational world consisting of a set of concepts and assumptions. It is a way of researching phenomena. In the same vein, according to De Vos *et al.* (2011:513), 'a paradigm is a framework, viewpoint or worldview based on people's philosophies and assumptions about the social world and the nature of knowledge; it is how the researcher views and interprets material about reality and guides the consequent action to be taken.' Jonker and Pennink (2010:25) define a research

paradigm "as a set of fundamental assumptions and beliefs as to how the world is perceived which then serves as a thinking framework that guides the behaviour of the researcher." Denzin and Lincoln (2008b:31), based on Kuhn's (1970) view, state that a paradigm is a *"net that contains the researchers' epistemological, ontological and methodological premises."*

The main reason for using interpretive paradigm is to understand the subjective world of human experience. It is useful for making cross-case comparisons and analysis (Pandya, 2010:45). The interpretive paradigm also retains the integrity of the phenomena under investigation, as the researcher made efforts to get inside the participants and understood them from within. In other words, interpretive approaches focus on understanding actions and meanings as well as investigating the taken-for-granted phenomena. The interpretive inquiry here assumes that reality 'is socially constructed, that is, there is no single, observable reality. Rather, there are multiple realities, or interpretations, of a single event.' The realities manifested as I carried out the classroom observations and administered the interviews on principals and teachers of sampled schools across South Africa. "Researchers do not 'find' knowledge; they construct it" (Merriam, 2009:8-9). I used an interpretive paradigm to guide the research and with it, I was able to draw subjective meanings, which focused on the situation that compared multiple interpretations from different schools at different locations. This certified that there were no preconceived opinions, and continued reflection on the findings clarified this as indicated in the following section.

4.2.1   Interpretivism

"Interpretivism is a major anti-positivist stance that looks for culturally derived and historically situated interpretations of the social life-world" (Gray, 2014:23). There is no direct one-to-one relationship between the world (object) and us (subjects). We interpret the world through "the classification schemas of the mind." 'In terms of epistemology, interpretivism has a close link with constructivism.' Interpretivism asserts that natural reality and social reality are different and therefore require different kinds of methods. "While the natural sciences are looking for consistencies in the data in order to deduce laws, the social sciences often deal with the actions of the individual" (Gray, 2014:23). This was why this study used the qualitative method, which involved different individuals as sources and different instruments as data collection tools. The experienced school principals and senior English language teachers who participated in semi-structured interviews and classroom observations subjectively allowed for multiple realities.

Document analysis was also employed in which case the schools' language policy documents were analysed. This constituted triangulation (Okeke & van Wyk, 2015:26).

Investigations in qualitative studies are usually based on an interpretivist paradigm (Maree & Hansen, 2011: 211) as guided in this study. The interpretive approach, which emerged in response to the drawbacks of positivism, seeks to understand lived experience of people from the perspective of people themselves (Hennink *et al.*, 2011:14). "It involves studying the subjective meanings that people attach to their experiences rather than focusing on facts as in the positivist paradigm." It does not search for applicable laws and rules, but rather seeks to produce descriptive analyses that emphasise "deep, interpretive understanding of social phenomena."

The interpretive approach also recognises the importance of the broader contexts on people's lives and questions whether we can really study the behaviour of people outside the context in which they live (Hennink *et al.*, 2011:15). Certain specific research questions govern the choice of research design and methodology. These concern the "focus of the research in order to answer the research questions, the main methodology of the research and how credibility or trustworthiness will be addressed."

Researchers must recognise that their own background contributes to shape individual interpretation. Therefore, researchers position themselves by acknowledging how "personal, cultural and historical experiences can influence their interpretation" (Creswell, 2009).

4.2.2 Assumptions of the interpretivist paradigm

"The interpretive paradigm assumes that people construct and merge their own subjective and intersubjective meanings as they interact with the world around them" (Packer, 2011). These are beliefs (Lincoln, Lynham, & Guba, 2011; Mertens, 2010). According to Creswell (2013:20), the four assumptions, which are interpretivist in nature, are: *ontology*, (the nature of reality), *epistemology* (what counts as knowledge and how knowledge claims are justified), *axiology* (the role of values in research), and *methodology* (the process of research). Saunders *et al*. (2009:119) claim that interpretivists share the following fundamental assumptions and beliefs about the nature of knowing and reality:

4.2.2.1 Ontology

"Ontology is concerned with what is real or about the nature of reality." Put differently, "ontology is the study of being, that is, the nature of existence and what constitutes reality" Gray (2014:19). Reality here means what is available to the senses – that is, what can be seen, smelt, touched, etcetera. Ontology assumes that reality is socially constructed, subjective and may change; it is also multiple. Some other paradigms such as positivist and post-positivist paradigms view paradigms differently. The positivist would accept an objective reality, whereas the post-positivist views reality as only reachable in an imperfect manner but anticipates a researcher to strive to reach it (Lichtman, 2013:25). Lichtman (2013:25) states:

> *"Those espousing a critical theory paradigm consider historical realism, while those who see themselves as constructivists speak of relativism and constructed realities. Participatory paradigms speak of realities that are created by both the participants and the researcher. Therefore, the nature of reality means different things to qualitative researchers".*

4.2.2.2 Epistemology

Epistemology is the view on "what constitutes acceptable knowledge." It assumes that we cannot separate ourselves from what we know. In other words, there is some kind of "relationship between the inquirer and the known" (Lincoln & Denzin, 2008:31). Knowledge here has subjective meanings and constitutes some social phenomena. The focus is on the details of situation and the reality behind these details. According to Seale (2012:567), "epistemology also refers to philosophical ideas about knowledge, consisting of attempts to answer questions about how we can know what we know, and whether this knowledge is reliable or not. Debates about the adequacy of empiricism, for example, are epistemological debates."

4.2.2.3 Axiology

Axiology in research presupposes that we ask questions about which sorts of research are valuable, which kinds of research are useful, and which ethical assumptions we focus on when we study people, places and things (Wheeldon & Ahlberg, 2012:45). "The role of values in research and the researcher's stance matter." This means that research is value bound. Put differently, 'the researcher is part of the researched' phenomenon.

4.2.2.4 Methodology

This is the model behind the research process. In this case, the study uses interpretivism (constructivism) which is qualitative in nature. This inquires how we gain knowledge of the world we live in. Data are collected through observation, interviews and document analysis. The researcher is a participant observer working with participants and relates to the study to give 'an in-depth description of the context of the study' (Creswell, 2007). In strict relationship with my topic, I term all the above, qualitative-interpretive methods.

4.2.3 Disadvantages of the interpretive paradigm

Although the interpretive paradigm suits this qualitative research, it has some minimal drawbacks. It has the limitation of the ontological assumption being subjective instead of objective (Mack, 2010). The interpretive paradigm neglects the scientific procedures of verification thereby rendering the result contextual (Mack, 2010). Besides these limitations, research undertaken from an interpretive paradigm may still result in a change in policy and practice that may align with what education stakeholders do.

4.3 EPISTEMOLOGY

This study takes the position adopted by social constructivists: learning or knowledge construction is a social and collaborative event and language mediates learning and promotes understanding. The linguistic reality in South Africa is multilingual with the majority of the populations in all social domains speaking their particular provincial languages. Yet the education system (also noted from my fieldwork experience) operates on the use of a dominant official language of the eleven official languages - English, in which the majority of the population is not fluent.

Prior to colonisation, indigenous ways of knowing, which transmitted from generation to generation through local languages, served Africans well (Gbenga, 2008). The notion that one could be lacking in terms of proficiency and adaptability was unthinkable since learning took the medium of languages that were spoken in the wider communities. The first language (LI) was not only a survival tool but also a means of initiating one into one's own culture. The

exclusive and uncritical use of a colonial/official language (L2) as the main medium of instruction during the colonial and neo-colonial era created gaps in learner understanding and led to under-achievement. Kamwangamalu states (in Orman (2008:94) "It is clear that language practices in most of the country's institutions flout the principle of language equity enshrined in the Constitution."

'In contrast to the equitable promotion of all eleven languages envisaged in the country's constitution, there is an increasing tendency towards English monolingualism in all spheres of South African public life' (Cuvelier, Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007). This seems to account for the obvious asymmetrical linguistic power relationship in the classroom.

4.4   QUALITATIVE APPROACH

'Qualitative research methods focus on discovering and understanding the experiences, perspectives, and thoughts of participants – that is, qualitative research explores meaning, purpose, or reality' (Conrad & Serlin, 2011:148). This is a phenomenological approach. In other words, qualitative research approach allowed me to gather data in multiple ways, pursue issues in depth through probing, and meet with participants one on one. Again, questions in qualitative research studies often focus on the big picture of the main processes that are thought to shape the target phenomenon. According to Creswell (2013:76), 'a phenomenological study describes the common meaning for several individuals of their lived experiences of a concept or a phenomenon.' Accordingly, this study used three qualitative research tools, namely: classroom lesson observations, semi-structured interviews in recorded formats, and document analysis in the form of printed texts. I obtained the data from natural settings (school environment) and served as the key instrument in data collection and analysis. As a qualitative study, I viewed 'things in their natural settings, made sense of and interpreted phenomena in terms of the meanings teachers brought to them.' I focused on describing the common responses of the participants with regard to the phenomenon under investigation.

4.5   THE RESEARCH DESIGN

Research data were gathered by qualitative approaches. The approach to obtain multiple data is 'appropriate as it seeks to reveal typical ways in which things happen as well as provides for tapping on rich and expressive insights of' participants.

4.5.1   Sampling

Purposeful sampling is a type of non-probability sampling in which the units to be observed are selected on the basis of the researcher's judgment about which ones will be the most useful or representative (Babbie, 2013:557)**. P**urposeful sampling 'has two principal aims. The first is to ensure that all the key constituencies of the relevance to the subject matter are covered. The second is to ensure that, within each of the key criteria', enough 'diversity is included so that the impact of the characteristic can be explored' (Ritchie, Lewis, Nicholls & Ormston, 2014:113). For example, experience of language educators serves as a selection criterion. This is important both to ensure that all relevant experiences 'are included and that differences in perspective between' experiences are explored.

Eight (8) secondary schools from four provinces in South Africa (Free State, Northern Cape, North West, and Eastern Cape) were sampled. These comprised School A, a former Model C English-medium school and School B, a former Model C Afrikaans-medium school in Bloem-fontein, Free State; School C, a former Model C English-medium school and School D, a former Model C Afrikaans-medium school in Kimberley, Northern Cape; School E, a rural secondary school at Letlhabile and School F, a township secondary school at Mmakau, North West Province; and School G, a urban school and School H, a township school at Aliwal North, Eastern Cape.

The schools selected were chosen with a 'purpose', that is, their economic and linguistic backgrounds. Some schools are affluent; others are poor and learners not paying school fees according to the quintile system. Although the 'communities' housing most of these schools have different predominant languages – Setswana, isiXhosa and Sesotho - English remains their respective LoLT. The schools were also selected because they were informative about the phenomena under investigation (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006:319). The schools were attended by black and white learners and learners from other communities (coloureds, Indians and foreigners from African countries). This provided rich data for the study.

In addition, the following participants were purposefully chosen to provide the research data:

1. Eight principals from the eight selected schools (interviews);
2. Eight experienced teachers of English in the FET band, one from each of the selected schools (interviews);
3. Eight other experienced Grade 10 – Grade 12 English language teachers who were observed in each of the eight selected schools (classroom observations).

4.5.2   Data collection and research instruments

Data collection methods refer to the tools of research which are instruments used for gathering information of the study.

INSTRUMENTS	DESCRIPTION	PARTICIPANTS
Classroom obser-vation	Audiotape: classroom ob-servation guide indicating the schedule	8 FET band English lan-guage teachers
Semi-structured Interview	5 / 6 open-ended questions for tape recording	8 principals and other 8 FET English language teachers
Document analysis	Analyzing policies and dis-courses	Principals and teachers

Figure 4.2: Summary of data gathering instruments

In this study, the instruments used comprise the observation of English classroom lessons in Grade 10-12, semi-structured interviews conducted with experienced Grade 10-12 English Language teachers and the principals of selected schools and relevant documents for analysis.
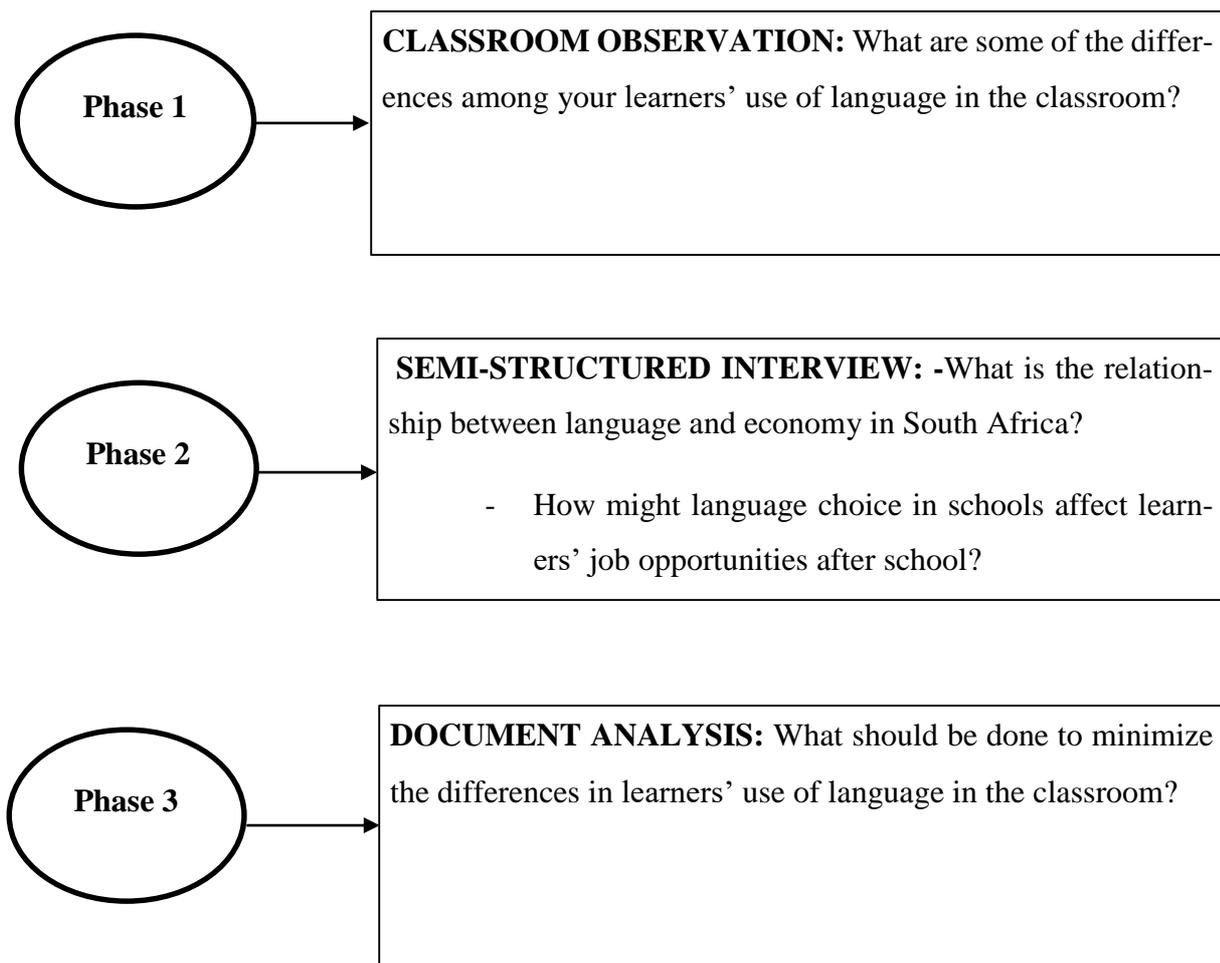
Figure 4.1 Flowchart showing phases of the research process

4.5.2.1　　　Classroom observation

Observation is a research method that enables researchers to observe systematically and record people's behaviour, actions and interactions. The method also allows researchers to obtain a detailed description of social settings or events in order to situate people's behaviour within their own socio-cultural context (Hennink *et al*., 2011:170). This means that observational methods in social science involve the systematic, detailed observation of behaviour and talk: watching and recording what people do and say. Observation was carried out to obtain complementary supportive information about the data and their contexts. Put differently, the classroom observation was included to triangulate semi-structured interviews so as to investigate the match and or mismatch of what the participants were saying. I did this together with the recording process, thus facilitating an easy understanding of every utterance within its contexts.

I observed Grade 10 - 12 English language classroom lessons of experienced language teachers. I sat at the back of the classroom and took notes with regard to learners' responses and non-responses to the classroom events and their interactions with the teachers. Classroom observations served as another lens that I used in order to understand the purposively selected teachers' language behaviour, motivations and interactions with the learners in the classroom discourses. Observational data enabled me to gain a comprehensive understanding of the pedagogical effort and communicative event described. It also helped me to understand and interpret each institution's cultural behaviour (silent norms and values) such as disciplinary issues that could influence their achievement level. In addition to audiotaping of the classroom events (discourses), I made notes and kept a diary (see (a) and (b)) below. The use of audio recording during the classroom observations (and semi-structured interviews) strengthened the qualitative integrity of the study in that the recordings were accurate and comprehensive. The field notes primarily focused on the unseen and / or unrecorded aspects of the observation events to add another dimension to the analysis. However, observations could be biased by the selective attention of the observer; participant reactivity; attention deficit; selective data entry; selective memory; interpersonal matters and counter-transference; expectancy effects; the number of observers; the problem of inference and the decision on how to record (Shaughnessy, Zechmeister & Zeichmeister, in Cohen *et al*., 2007:410). The key consideration for selecting Grade 10 was that learners in Grade 10, were expected to be proficient in their First Additional Language (English) in regard to both interpersonal and cognitive academic skills. However, those learners still could not communicate well in the LoLT, English. The Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (DBE, CAPS, 2011. Grades 10-12) maintains that the challenge at this stage is to provide support for these learners and devise a curriculum that will enable them to meet the standards required in Grade 12 (CAPS, 2011). The standards for Grade 12 if met would boost the learners' proficiency in the Additional Language in preparation for further or higher education or the world of work (CAPS, 2011). This also prompted the adoption of the articulation gap to address the persistent language problems in South African education. It is at this level of language learning that power relations manifest prominently. The choice to observe English classes is to capture how learners use English to interact with their teacher and fellow learners in the classroom discourse. This brought to focus the social constructivism concept.

a)   Field notes

Field notes are a longstanding field research practice that crosses methodological approaches. They are recordings of observations and reflections on them. During and immediately after the observations, the researcher takes field notes to record not only what he saw and heard, but also reflections on what occurred (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006:350 – 351). Researchers use field notes as data for analysis.

The field note record enabled me to be transparent about how I conducted the research. The combination of field notes, my memory, and embodied experience (and other types of evidence) together provided the material for my sense making (Schwartz-Shea & Yanow, 2013:89). My status as a researcher throughout the observations remained as 'observer as participant', that is, observation was my dominant activity in the classroom linguistic discourses.

b)   Research diary

I kept and maintained a research diary from the time I commenced the fieldwork in order to reflect on and record memorable events or occurrences during my research journey. These included informal interactions (in form of dialogues) with few head of departments, principals and educators at the schools, frustrations and delays encountered at the hands of participants who felt shy, insecure, jealous, suspicious or otherwise to help the researcher despite the ethical assurances given them. Some other educators showed enthusiasm to contribute positively on the subject of my investigation, even though they were not participants in the study. The insights I gained on the topic as I was gathering and analysing the data form part of the research diary. Nevertheless, the diary entries were not fully subjected to any form of analysis. I only gained insight into the complexity of the topic via the diary entries that enriched the interpretation and inspired me to plough through the data with a renewed sense of enthusiasm.

4.5.2.2   Semi-structured interviews

Seale (2012:594) defines a semi-structured interview as "an interview in which the researcher asks open questions relating to a pre-determined range of themes, listed in a topic guide". Such an interview is flexible to the order in which questions are asked. According to Pandya (2010:343), semi-structured interviews include partly open-ended and partly closed questions that are conducted with a fairly open framework, which allow for focused, conversational, two-way communication. In this case, one creates the majority of the questions during the interview,

to allow both the interviewer and the interviewee the flexibility to probe for details or discuss issues. Gray (2014:386) agrees thus:

> *"The semi-structured interview allows for probing of view and opinions where it is desirable for respondents to expand on their answers. This is vital when a phenomeno-logical approach is being taken where the objective is to explore subjective meanings that respondents ascribe to concepts or events''.*

Such probing may also be used to divert the interview into new pathways, which, originally was not considered as part of the interview, but consequently would help to achieve the research objectives.

An interview guide was prepared beforehand to provide a framework for the interviews. Through the participants' responses, I uncovered certain important issues of the research problem that were unknown at the initial stage of the design of the study. The participants observed in action were asked to reflect on their practice during the semi-structured interviews. Interview questions (adapted from the research questions), were as follows:

1. What challenge(s), in your view, is your school language policy posing to the school, especially, at Grade 10 level?
2. In your view, what is the relationship between language and economy in South Africa?
3. How might language choice in schools affect individuals' job opportunities in South Africa?
4. What, in your view, should be done to resolve the differences in learners' use of language?

The research questions guided me during interviews at the scheduled place and time in the school environment. The nature of the administration of semi-structured interviews allowed participants freedom of expression. On probing, they expressed how they worked and felt with what was happening in the education system. Semi-structured interviews "in qualitative studies do not have predetermined, structured choices. Rather, the questions are open-ended yet specific in intent, allowing individual responses" (McMillan, 2012:168).

The interviews lasted between 20 to 30 minutes because of the participants' crowded work schedules. The interview questions administered to the teachers captured a broader picture of the classroom events, whereas interviews to each school principal enabled the researcher to

gather qualitative data on the topic. The interviews were audiotaped for transcription, interpretation and analysis. Tape recording the interviews ensured completeness of the verbal interaction and provided material for reliability checks. The use of a tape recorder did not eliminate the need for taking notes to help reformulate questions and probes and to record non-verbal communication, which facilitated data analysis (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006:360). However, neither note taking nor the tape recording interfered with my full attention given to the interviews.

4.5.2.3   Document analysis

The most common use of documents is to verify or support data obtained from interviews or observations (McMillan, 2012:295). I studied and analysed school language documents relevant documents to this study such as government gazettes, articles, journals, school diaries memos and test scores. Such documents were information-rich and led to greater depth of description and understanding.

4.6   DATA MANAGEMENT

Data management refers to the process of making qualitative data 'manageable'; of labelling and sorting the data according to a set of themes or concepts in preparation for more interpretive analysis (Ritchie *et al.,* 2014:282). My tape recorder was stored with classroom observation lessons and interview recordings, duplicated, and saved in 'my computers' and 'memory sticks'. The recorded transcripts appeared at the Appendix F of this project.

4.7   DATA REDUCTION AND ANALYSIS

According to Ravitch and Carl (2016:220), data reduction occurs together with data reorganisation in which data are grouped and categorised or coded according to specific features, commonalities, differences, or other aspects of the data. The objective for the data reduction was to determine the main phenomena that I sought to explore within my data corpus related to my research questions and objectives.

I processed the extracts of classroom observation lessons and interviews collected from participants of the study. These extracts included tape-recorded Grades 10 - 12 English lessons and

interviews administered to principals and senior English language teachers in the eight schools. I compared codes and categories, which led me to determine themes and preliminary findings. In as much as findings from the gathered data may not be generalised across the school system in South Africa, they could establish some typical occurrences in most of the schools vis-à-vis language and power relations due to language-in-education policy and multilingualism.

4.8   TRUSTWORTHINESS OF DATA

According to Ravitch and Carl (2016:188), qualitative researchers should adhere to a set of different standards or criteria than quantitative researchers to assess validity and trustworthiness given the differences in values between the paradigms. There exist four aspects to consider when conducting qualitative research. This trustworthiness can be separated into credibility, transferability, dependability, and conformability (Schreiber & Asner-Self, 2011:117).

4.8.1   Credibility

Credibility involves establishing that the results of the research are believable. It refers to the sufficiency and depth of data presented from the study. This questions whether there is established compatibility between the 'constructed realities that exist' within the participants' minds and that attributed to them. As a qualitative data-collection process, what mattered most to me was the richness of the information gathered rather than the amount of data gathered. The certainty of the credibility of this research became evident as I triangulated with three different tools, namely: classroom observations, two sets of semi-structured interviews, and document analysis. These multiple pieces of evidence helped me to check the integrity and quality of the inferences I made (Schreiber & Asner-Self, 2011:118). The observation involved a systematic watching, while recording (with audiotape) and taking notes simultaneously as each teacher interacted with his / her learners in classroom teaching and learning situation. Again, most of the interviews feedbacks corroborated the situations in the classroom observations. These different methods strengthened the credibility of this research especially as both audio recording of classroom observations and principals / teachers' interviews provided adequate reference to the findings. This showed that the study participants' points of view only could reasonably judge the credibility of the results (Lichtman, 2013:298). However, some participants' views or instances about how some teachers use code switching in their lessons were not observed as

portrayed and expected by the researcher. Therefore, such instances disconfirmed and challenged my expectations and emergent findings (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2012:113). That was a benefit to the credibility of this study.

4.8.2   Transferability

Transferability refers to the degree in which the processes of research match other contexts as defined by examiners of the research. It means that when the processes of a research are done in place X and repeated in place Y, the results must remain the same thereby qualifying a research as transferable.

Transferability is analogous to external validity in quantitative method of research and concerns a case-to-case transfer (Schreiber & Asner-Self, 2011:117). The purposeful sampled experienced principals and teachers in their profession provided the researcher with appropriate, cogent and rich information regarding the phenomenon under investigation. This study employed purposive sampling not to generalize the findings but to have a micro-perspective of how those teachers would be of help in investigating and analyzing language and power relations in FET band in particular and South Africa's school system in general.

In my qualitative data, transferability was achieved through depth, honesty, richness and scope of the data gathered. The participants were approached in the most appropriate / ethical manner and triangulation of data applied. The audio-taped interviews and classroom observations provided an evidence of capture of the processes and context of those activities during my field work. The importance of that was informed by the possibility of replaying the tapes to cross-check the correspondence of the interviews and classroom observations with the transcriptions. Thus, this consolidates transferability and averts researcher bias.

4.8.3   Dependability

Dependability is more or less same as transferability. It ensures that the research findings are consistent and repeatable. This is measured by the standard of which the research was conducted, analysed and presented. As can be referred to, each procedure in the gathering of data was reported in detail to enable the examiner (external) to repeat the inquiry and reach similar results. This also would enable 'researchers to understand the methods and their effectiveness.' Dependability parallels reliability in quantitative approach to research, although the measurement is not by statistical procedures (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2012:112).

For this study, I gathered data through classroom observations of eight English lessons in FET band classrooms. Data collection also took the form of administering semi-structured interviews to eight experienced school principals and eight FET band English language teachers. The third and last data-gathering tool was the document analysis, which focused mainly on the schools' language policy documents.

The study used an audio tape recorder to record lessons in each of the sessions of the classroom observations. The observations focused on the classroom observation guide prepared for the classroom activities. I sat on the sidelines as a non-participant observer so as not to disrupt the lessons. I also supported my observations by making unstructured detailed field notes as these provided a rich context within which the findings of my study was interpreted (Okeke & van Wyk, 2015:287). There was much attention to teachers'-learners' language interaction on questions and responses, and teachers' strategies to ensure fair and equitable participation of learners in the lessons.

The semi-structured interviews of the participants were based on face-to-face with probes at intervals. This strategy sought clarification and elaboration on the feedbacks the interviewees gave that provided me with qualitative information about the research topic (May, 2011:134). All these strengthened the dependability of my research data.

4.8.4   Confirmability

Confirmability is often described as the qualitative equivalent of the quantitative concept of objectivity (Ravitch & Carl, 2016:189). It asserts that qualitative researchers do not claim to be objective. However, researchers' findings must be confirmed. That is, it must question how the data collected supported research findings or corroborated by other researchers. In other words, what is the degree to which the findings are free from the researcher's values without shifting from the focus of the inquiry? This consideration is due to the assumption that qualitative research allows the researcher to bring a unique perspective to the study. According to Bless, Higson-Smith and Sithole (2013:237), the researcher is also expected to present a critical evaluation of the methodology used.

To attain confirmability in my study, I presented my findings as the result of the research rather than an outcome of my biases and subjectivity (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2012:126). Again, reflexivity – keeping a research journal and memo, writing field notes and transcripts of interviews

and classroom observations - gave readers an opportunity to evaluate the findings of this research.

4.9   ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

A key concern in social research is the question of ethics. Ethics in this regard is defined as 'a set of widely accepted moral principles that offer rules for, and behavioural expectations of, the most correct conduct towards experimental subjects and respondents, employers, sponsors, other researchers, assistants and learners' (De Vos *et al*., 2011:129). In other words, there is the need to treat participants with dignity and respect in one's pursuit of new knowledge as a researcher.

Ethical considerations guided the methodology of this study. Firstly, I obtained informed consent to do research in the schools through written application to the provincial departments of education and principals of the sampling schools. Secondly, I ensured that participants remained anonymous and protected their confidentiality. Individual participants were assured that "no identifying information about them should be revealed in written or other communication" (Lichtman, 2013:52). Thirdly, the participants were informed of the nature of the study and could choose whether to participate. Therefore, I "informed subjects of all aspects of the research that might influence their willingness to participate" (McMillan, 2012:18).

4.10   DELIMITATION

Delimitations are those characteristics that the researcher can control that limit the scope and define the boundaries of one's study (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2012:114). Those limiting factors include (in my study) the choice of objectives, research questions, theoretical frameworks adopted, and choice of population studied. This research focuses on the realities in the language-in-education policy of South Africa – language and power relations in FET band in South Africa. It uses interpretive paradigm in view of the nature of data collected, which can lead to the credibility of the research project.

4.11   CONCLUSION

This chapter discussed the research paradigm (*interpretive paradigm*) and its rationale for adoption. Ontology, epistemology, axiology and methodology were discussed as assumptions and beliefs of interpretive paradigm. Though interpretive paradigm suits the qualitative method approach of this study, certain drawbacks were inherent in its use. In addition to other limitations, it has the ontological assumption being subjective instead of objective. The instruments of the study, which included observation, semi-structured interviews and document analysis, were presented. Furthermore, some ethical considerations were outlined to guide the conduct of the research. Finally, it dealt with the four aspects of data as credibility, transferability, dependability, and conformability.

CHAPTER FIVE

PRESENTATION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the key research findings as themes and issues that emerged from principals and teachers' semi-structured interviews, classroom observations of English lessons and analysis of documents. These schedules of interviews, classroom observations and document analysis were developed from the broader issues derived from the four research questions. See Figure 5.1 for the structure of presentation.
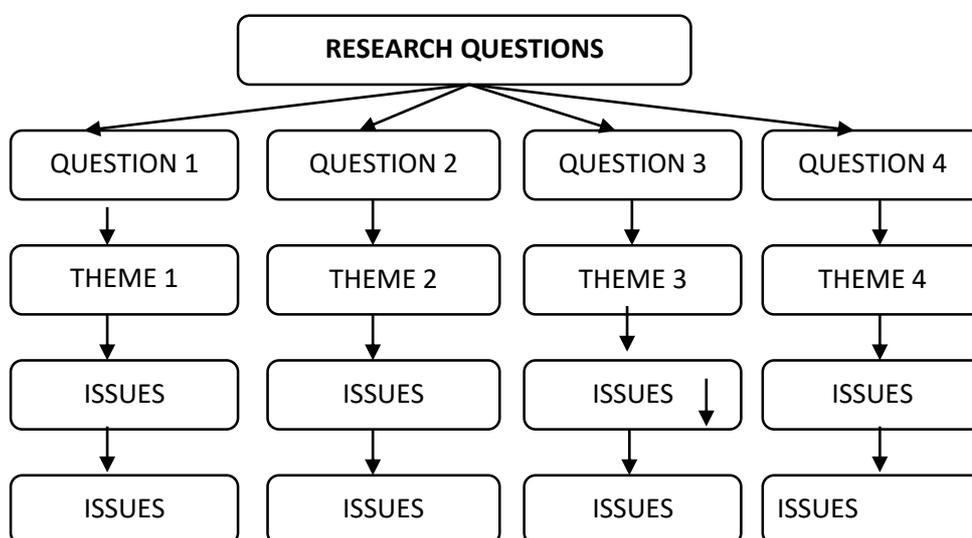
Figure 5.1 Findings by themes and issues using research questions

Figure 5.1 shows the structure of themes and issues emerging from interview data. The findings from these were used to answer the research questions. Themes emerged from interview questions in the interview schedule. The issues are different participants' responses to the questions which constitute sub-themes. Twenty-four members of staff participated in this study: eight principals, eight senior English language teachers for interviews and eight other senior English language teachers for classroom observations. The participants' biographical profiles show as in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: SUMMARY OF THE BIOGRAPHICAL DATA OF PARTICIPANTS

Participants								
PRINCIPALS **(interviews)**			**TEACHERS (interviews)**			**TEACHERS** **(classroom observations)**		
Principal 1	Male	21 years	Teacher 1	Female	18 years	Teacher 9	Female	18 years
Principal 2	Male	18 years	Teacher 2	Male	6 years	Teacher 10	Male	17 years
Principal 3	Male	23 years	Teacher 3	Male	5 years	Teacher 11	Male	19years
Principal 4	Female	20 years	Teacher 4	Female	20 years	Teacher 12	Female	23 years
Principal 5	Female	11 years	Teacher 5	Female	23 years	Teacher 13	Female	21 years
Principal 6	Male	14 years	Teacher 6	Male	20 years	Teacher 14	Male	22 years
Principal 7	Male	15 years	Teacher 7	Male	15 years	Teacher 15	Female	19 years
Principal 8	Male	22 years	Teacher 8	Female	20 years	Teacher 16	Female	16 years

All the above participants are university graduates and their five years and above administrative and or teaching experiences qualified them for participating in this research.

The themes and issues gathered as results were derived from the following four research questions of this study:

1. What is the relationship between linguistic power and economic power in post-apartheid South Africa?
2. How do linguistic power relations affect learners who are non-native speakers of English in the English medium classroom?
3. How does language choice re-create economic inequalities in South Africa?
4. What policy responses are needed to address inequalities and inequities in linguistic power relations in the education system in general and in the FET band in particular?

5.2 FINDINGS

Analysing data by coding is a process of organizing and sorting out data to label, compile and organise. Merging data gathering and interpretation forms the basis for developing the analysis. These processes of data organisation and management, engagement with data and writing and presenting them led to the findings of this study. Below are the emergent themes and issues from the school principals, classroom teachers' feedbacks, classrooms observations and analysis of documents, which were developed from the broader issues of the study questions.

5.2.1   Research Question 1: What is the relationship between linguistic power and economic power in post-apartheid South Africa?

This section aimed at finding how the participants viewed the language of learning and teaching in connection with the nation's economy in particular and with the larger society in general.

Theme 1: Relationship between language and economy

The major theme and issues reported under this research question are: relationship between language and economy; economic value of language (English) and learners' future benefits; and English for mutual understanding.

Issue 1: Economic value of language and learners' future benefits

The majority of the principals emphasised the importance of English in relation to the economy of South Africa. Interviewees' feedbacks indicated that English contributes to the future benefits of learners. Those who acquire good English proficiency will be enabled to participate and control the economy. The participants supported their responses by asserting that the ability to interact effectively with international entrepreneurs through English will shape the state of the economy since English is an international language. They felt that under the current national policy, English should be used as LoLT to prepare learners to face the realities of the marketplace outside school. These views are substantiated with the following sample responses:

P1: "*You need to use statistics to rate this relationship. You must be able to speak English to access the South African economy because English is an international language.*" He asserted, "*...the inability to communicate in English constituted a barrier to economic opportunities*

because the holders of the economy are Afrikaans and English speakers, . . . but because they deal mostly with international people they use English most of the time".

P2:.*" . . if you are unable to communicate with the holders of South Africa's economy, it is a big disadvantage even to accessing the world economy.*"

Teachers' questions were slightly different from those of the principals especially as it pertained to probes since teachers who are in the forefront of the school activities could disclose more vital information on the topic than the principals who were involved in administration.

Teachers stressed the significant role which English plays in the national economy and beyond. All the teachers asserted that English is a vehicle to boost the nation's economy, trade and investment since most stakeholders who are from Europe, Asia and the US are conversant in English. Their samples of comments support this as follows:

T1: *"Language determines everything. It influences the economy. The more fluent you are, the better you can communicate, and the more you can attract people* [investors] *from other countries."*

T3: *"Learners' access to the economy of South Africa is a function of expressing themselves confidently and freely in English. Therefore, it is generally acceptable that English is an advantage with regard to the future benefits of learners."*

T4: *"There will be a drop in the economy if learners fail to pass English and Afrikaans."*

During classroom observations, most learners exhibited their ability in English in their assignments and in the manner they expressed themselves in English in the classroom discourses, particularly in schools B, C and D. Some teachers produced photocopies of their lesson handouts for record purposes.

In School C, learners under the supervision of their teacher presented their individual oral reports in turn. Those included reports in varied subjects such as mathematics, science, history, Sex Education, Technology, Career Counselling, Life Orientation. For example, some topics dealt with: Love relationships, Astronomy, Rastafarians, All that glitters is not gold, and Law of gravity. Before presentation of topics, the teacher recapitulated the steps for presenting and readiness for entertaining and answering questions from the audience [the learners].

In School B, the teacher recapitulated the previous lesson and carefully linked it to the current one entitled: *"Sentence Transformations."* (Appendix G. 7D SENTENCE TRANSFOR-MATIONS). This provided a good introduction to the lesson. The general classroom interaction was fair.

In the classroom observation at School D, the teacher's introduction of the literature lesson based on the book, <u>*Cry The Beloved Country*</u>, by Alan Paton, was outstanding. She related the subject matter - the high rate of crime in Johannesburg - to the story line.

Oral presentations at School C included: a comparison of astronomy with modern mathematics/building constructions; every shining matter is not gold; academic legends like Galileo; married men's extra-marital relationships and false love. Each learner presented for about three minutes. Then, the audience (learners) asked two questions from the topic to the presenter. The teacher moderated the question-and-answer interludes. This created a lively and interactive discourse. Unprepared learners scrambled unsuccessfully to present impromptu. These presentations encouraged learner participation for the duration of the classroom language discourse. It was indeed an interesting and a memorable lesson.

The general classroom interaction of the English lesson at school B (April 29, 2013) was fair. Teacher-learner interaction in the classroom discourse was active with minimal interruptions. The learners, with the help of the teacher, corrected their wrong answers to questions asked by both the teacher and learners. For example, an instruction was: *Re-write the sentences below starting with the words given.*

1. She runs faster than I do.

I don't …

The class through the assistance of the teacher arrived at the sentence transformation thus:

I don't run as fast as she does.

Questions and modification techniques produced acceptable responses from learners. A variety of sentences were constructed using the same pattern. Examples were:

I don't read as fast as Jonas does.

We don't visit as often as they do.

This illustrated the teacher's strategy to ensure equal and fair learner participation in the classroom discourse although learner participants tended to be the few same *"good"* ones. Although the delivery of the lesson was effective because of the attainment of its objectives, the noisy environment detracted from quality teaching and learning as some learners asked and answered questions at random and in chorus.

The teacher at School D presented the plot of the book so clearly that the learners' understanding showed in the interaction with the teacher and among themselves in the classroom language discourse. Cry the Beloved country narrates the story of Kumalo, an elderly clergyman from a small village in Natal who went to Johannesburg to search for his son, Absalom. His problems commenced as he uncovered the horrible life his son lived. The question was: would time allow him to recover Absalom? The teacher highlighted some figures of speech as read by learners in their shared parts of the scene. For example, "There are *millions of people* at the Park Station." She explained that "*millions of people"* is *hyperbole,* defining hyperbole as "*a word or figure of speech that makes something sound bigger than it really does*." The teacher described onomatopoeia as "*a sound effect whereby words sound like what they are describing*." Example from the passage was "*the engine roared*." She explained, *"The word roared is onomatopoeia*." She asked both high and low order questions so that most learners participated equally and fairly in the discourse. For example, one learner indicated in a whisper that he understood of *characters,* from the teacher's analogy and explanation. She said, *"Characters means learners acting a drama at school."* One of the characters was Mbuli. Other words she explained in context were: **indeed, contemplating, desire, accommodation** and **destination**. She asked other questions such as, *"What is the writer trying to highlight in this scene*?" Some guessed answers close to what the teacher wanted, such as *"Johannesburg is dangerous"*, until she guided them to answer, *"The high rate of crime in Johannesburg*." "*Do you think the crime rate is more or less now*?" The learners responded, "*More!"* The teacher suggested the rate "*is now more because there is no more death sentence*." She further opined that "*some officials are now part of the game of crimes and corruption*." Although such feedback motivated the learners to participate actively in the lesson, a few gave unenthusiastic responses to the teacher's questions while others remained passive. She responded to learners' grammatical errors immediately in a non-threatening manner. By the end of the lesson, most learners wrote the *"new words"* in their vocabulary exercise books. The delivery of the lesson was outstanding. This linking of the previous lesson to the current one and provision of an agenda for the

new lesson characteristic of the three classroom observations made an excellent lesson introduction. Also, the scholarly interaction between the teachers and learners and among learners contributed to the quality of the lessons. Teachers successfully used a strategy to ensure learners' equal and fair participation in the lessons.

For the document analysis, the language-in-education policy of the selected schools had English as a common language of learning and teaching. Two schools (North-West and Eastern Cape) included Afrikaans because of their learners' predominant language backgrounds. This scenario seemed to negate the constitutional provisions on official multilingualism thus creating language inequality and dominance of English (and to a lesser degree, Afrikaans). This amounts to an unequal relationship with other African languages (RSA. DAC, 2003: Online).

This gave birth to varied linguistic, political and socio-economic policies resulting in a hierarchy of unequal languages, which reflected structures of racial and class inequality that has characterised South African society. In reference to section 6 of the Constitution (1996:6) and the South African Schools Act (SASA) Act 84 of 1996, 11 languages were accorded official recognition in respect of their usage by a majority of the total population. These include IsiNdebele, IsiXhosa, IsiZulu and siSwati (Nguni language group); Sesotho, Sepedi and Setswana (Sotho language group); Tshivenda, Xitsonga, English and Afrikaans. For South Africans this is in response to their linguistic and cultural diversity and to the challenges of constitutional multilingualism. That is the origin of the National Language Policy Framework which not only initiates a fresh approach to multilingualism in South Africa, but encourages the use of the indigenous languages as official languages to foster and promote national unity (NLPF, 2003).

The Constitution spells in the education section 29 (2) that:

> *Everyone has the right to receive education in the official language or languages of their choice in public educational institutions where that education is reasonably practicable.*

In other words, all the official languages must receive a fair and equal treatment of usage. In order to realise this, the state must take into account the equity, practicability and the need to redress the results of past racially discriminatory laws and practices (The Constitution of South Africa, 1996 [Act 108 of 1996]).

I was educated on individual school documents on language-in-education policy as they were filed in the offices to inform and structure decisions that schools make on a daily and long-

term basis. For example, to confirm that English has economic value, a majority of the sampling schools had their language policy document as English-only. For this study, the document analysis focuses on language policy of the sampled schools because of its relevance to the study investigation. Other documents appear at the appendices section.

School D is a former Model C school in the North West Province. All grades (8 to 12) provide English and Afrikaans. Afrikaans is treated as the second additional language (SAL); English is endorsed as LoLT. Setswana remains a compulsory subject due to its status as the predominant spoken language of the community, the home language.

The policy stipulates that English is compulsory for all learners, and failure in Setswana means a repeat of a grade for the learner(s) concerned. The purpose of this type of language policy is to accommodate multilingualism. In other words, the school appears to practise the language policy stipulation of "*principle of equity and parity of esteem*" (RSA 1996:6(4)).

Issue 2: English for mutual understanding

Most principals explicitly welcomed the use of English as the language policy of their schools since it is a common and universal language that unified all for mutual understanding. They explained that without mutual understanding, there would be no socio-economic relationships and even one's personality could be devalued. These responses showed in three of the principals' statements:

P3:.*" Most of the government activities are done using English; most of the people in charge of the economy are English speakers. Therefore, people must be able to speak English for . . .* [Pause] *. . . mutual understanding.*"

P4: ."*. . take the study of English more seriously regarding its place internationally.*"

P7: "*English is not just the language of South Africa's economy, it is a universal language; English has a big role to play to make it* [communication] *work."*

Most teachers also argued that English serves as the language of government, commerce, the workplace and parliament. They maintained that English proficiency spells prestige [brings mutual association]; the contrary [lack of English proficiency] hinders economic progress and causes social deprivation. This common opinion was illustrated in the following excerpts:

T4: *"Speaking English seems to be associated with prestige."*

T8: *"English is the way for communication as it is the language of the government, commerce, workplace, parliament, and etcetera."*

It was observed in the classrooms that English was the LoLT per language policy of almost all the sampled schools, following the directive of the Department of Basic Education. Some schools had learners of heterogeneous language backgrounds especially those schools in urban areas. Teachers reported that, apart from their language policy being English, the learners comprised different language speakers. Hence, teachers and learners used English [in all classroom observations] for mutual understanding. For instance, at School C, the oral presentation lesson was conducted only in English.

School C is a suburban/township school whose enrolment spans from Grade 8 to Grade 12 and accommodates boys and girls. The school's language policy document states that English is the LoLT and English serves not only as the language of mutual understanding but also a language of international importance and co-operation. However, Setswana remains the learners' environmental language because it is the home language of the school community. In addition to government language policy, the school's authorities chose English because it is the "*spine of all other subjects*" (principal and teacher). Thus, even in Maths and the Sciences, the learners receive instructions in English, hence the importance of mastering English. This aligns with the activities in the classroom observations and the interviews, although minimal instances of code-switching to Setswana were observed.

5.2.2 Research Question 2: How do linguistic power relations affect learners who are non-native speakers of English in the English medium classroom?

The above question was about classroom language interaction among learners from different language backgrounds. The result described the degree of learners' interaction and participation in their lessons using English as LoLT.

Theme 2: Challenges of language of learning and teaching in the classroom discourses

This theme focused on the language issues, which learners encountered as they engaged in their classroom discourses with the teacher and among themselves. It sought to respond to research question two using issues that emerged from interview questions, classroom observations and document analysis.

Issue 1: Mismatch between home language and school language practice.

Although many participants seemed to support local multilingualism, they appreciated parents' preference of the use of English-only in learners' studies. They indicated that a few parents could provide resources (e.g. laptops, smart phones, etc.) for their children's studies; most lacked this capacity.

The interviewees reported a gap in the learners' cognitive and psychological skills resulting in disparity of classroom discourses. In this instance, the participants at most sampled schools said only a few learners asked and answered questions freely; most did not actively participate due to a lack of English proficiency. They stressed that English as LoLT is not the learners' mother tongue. The principals agreed there was no link between home language and classroom language practices as illustrated in their comments:

P1: "*They come from other languages than English; . . . they have big challenges.*"

P4: "*The learners speak home languages all at home . . . they have problems.*"

P7: "*The fact that most learners speak only their local languages at home and struggle to use English in the classroom has made many of them passive learners in schools.*"

Teachers' experiences of teaching learners of diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds entails how the rituals of classroom life are co-constructed and negotiated by discourse participants, that is, learners among themselves and their teacher. This exposes the strengths and weaknesses in learners' linguistic discursive interactions in the classroom.

Most teachers confirmed that learners' different language backgrounds contributed to their poor reproduction of spoken and written English language in academic work. That showed in the manner in which most of them code-switched or shied away from participation in the classroom activities. In corroboration, the CAPS (2011) entitled, **Response to Literature,** stressed the need to support development of reading skills, comprehension and grammar. Lack of support in literature studies increased the use of local language(s). Two examples below show the teachers' views on the issue.

T4: "*Learners had the problem from their language backgrounds . . . – Setswana, but English remains the language policy of this school; they mispronounce words and find it difficult to express themselves in English. In school, we do not have much time to practise reading because the new CAPS programme has done away with* **Response to Literature**.*"*

T6: *"They mix 'he' and 'she' together in their sentences; they shift* [code-switch] *from the local languages to English and vice versa as they were brought up that way."*

The challenge of the LoLT was evident mainly at schools E and G where the classroom observations showed that learners' home language practice adversely affected their academic work. Many learners could neither ask nor answer questions fluently; others remained inactive because of the teachers' method of lesson delivery. The situation reduced interest and interaction during lessons.

The following description illustrates the above discussion. At School G the teacher conducted a lesson on the topic of an *obituary*. She began the lesson without reference to any previous one. Although she was confident and seemed to be well-equipped with content knowledge, she gave the learners insufficient opportunity to interact with her through questions and answers. She presented different aspects of grammar such as adjectives, adverbs, phrases, and figures of speech as preparation for writing an obituary. The learners listened passively while the teacher lectured. The teacher did not encourage learner participation in the classroom language discourse. This instance related to what some participants commented on in interviews about employment of teachers (*cf* P4's response to research question 5):

"all my educators are qualified, and that accounted to the 100% success in English, and Home Language the school has maintained. The government should employ qualified educators, retrain educators, especially those who had their training long ago and organize regular workshops to update the knowledge of educators". (See Appendix F)

 Also (*cf* P8's response to research question 5):

". . . the government should train educators well to teach learners, if we recall that there are no more training colleges since it discontinued the former ones in 1994 as the aftermath of apartheid regime". (See Appendix F)

In terms of language policy document analysis of schools, at School E in Kimberly, Northern Cape (Grades 8 to Grade 12), the language policy document approves English and Afrikaans. Some learners are taught English as First Additional Language; others are taught Afrikaans as Home Language because of their language and cultural diversity. However, the majority of the learners are Setswana-speaking. It is also a multi-racial school composed of Congolese, Nigerians, and other nationalities. English serves as the compulsory LoLT to accommodate the linguistic and cultural diversity.

At School G (Grade 8 to Grade 12), a former Model C school in Aliwal North, Eastern Cape, the language policy drafted and adopted by the school governing body has English as LoLT. This caters for the needs of the school with due consideration of the global status of English. Sesotho and isiXhosa are the Home Languages.

Issue 2: Weak foundation in learners' formative years at school

In response to learners' classroom language discourse, a minority of the principals attributed the cause of learners' differences in spoken and written language discourse to lack of a strong foundation in most primary schools. Others mentioned this 'lack of a strong foundation', but did not emphasise it as the major cause of learners' deficiency in classroom language discourses. Instead they blamed incompetent or "unqualified teachers" and the government which employed them to teach. The following statements demonstrate two principals' reactions:

P4: *"The learners do not understand the need of English for other subjects; even some educators use the local languages to teach Economics, Geography . . . and we try as much as possible to discourage that; the foundation is in the primary school where some unqualified teachers were employed."*

P8: *"They usually do not speak English; they were taught in their home language*."

Few teachers agreed with the group of principals on this issue as follows:

T1: "*If they are brought up in Sotho, Tswana, etcetera, they struggle with English in the secondary school; . . . tackle it from the foundation – primary school.*"

T3: *"Let them teach these learners at the primary schools; drill them from there to graduate to the high schools."*

Classroom observations also indicated that learners' level of English language performance was a function of teaching and learning in the lower grades (Grades eight & nine) and their previous schools. Some were probably taught in their local language(s) throughout the primary school (Grades one to seven) while some others had their studies using predominant code-switching. A certain group had their earlier education entirely in English.

According to interviews responses and affirmed by the classroom observations, the language policy of most selected schools is English-only, as earlier indicated. This presupposes that local languages were used as languages of learning and teaching in the primary schools of those

learners who could not express themselves in English. That might account to their incompetency.

Analysis of the language policy document of School H, a Grade 8 to Grade 12 former Model C Afrikaans school in Aliwal North, Eastern Cape indicated the language policy is English and Afrikaans as determined by the Department of Basic Education and the school governing body (DoBE, 1996:6). English is compulsory at the exit level (Grade 12). The mixed gender institution is multi-racial with Afrikaners and black learners. English poses a challenge because it is not the home language of Afrikaans-speaking learners nor the black learners'. This corroborates the influence of learners' home languages on performance in English studies as evidenced in interviews and observations.

Issue 3: Lack of reading culture

The majority of the interviewees (principals and teachers) said their learners lacked a reading culture. They instead engaged in the culture of social networking (writing SMS messages, chatting, etc.) during lessons. The learners neglected reading (studying) to the detriment of their academic success. A possible cause was the learners' inability to read English fluently due to their mother tongues differences and influences. The participants emphasised that such learners became unruly in the classroom. The principals and teachers regretted that their efforts to discipline unruly learners were not adequately supported by the education authorities and/or other government departments such as the police and social welfare. The statements represent the participants' views.

P3: *"Comprehension is a challenge; translating from Setswana to English. . ."*

T4: *"No home reading, new CAPS has done away with Response to Literature."*

T2: *"They do not pick up newspapers, novels, etcetera, to read; they are lacking in reading culture and this affects their academic performance adversely."*

T6: *" Bottom line, they don't read."*

T8: *"Social networking confuses them as they write incorrect spellings using short message services (SMS) language in class assignments. For example, "I lv u" stands for* "I love you."

The lesson on sentence transformations (*cf.* par 5.2.2) in the classroom observation at School B showed how learners depended on their teacher to supply the answers to the grammar exercises given in class. This represents a lack of reading culture among learners.

That classroom observation of a Grade 10 English lesson at School B included a general class-room interaction that was only fair. The teacher-learners' interaction in the classroom discourse was marred by disjointed and incorrect sentences of some learners. Those learners who attempted asking and answering questions struggled to formulate correct statements without the guidance of the teacher. The learners' lack of reading skills also affected their pronunciation and spelling. The teacher appeared to be 'spoon-feeding' them as he spelled aloud most words that the learners wrote down in their exercise books. Though learners' participation could be rated as active and fair, this was achieved by the teacher's strategic lesson plan to attain equal and fair participation in classroom language discourse. In other words, the learners made various mistakes but were willing and ready to follow their teacher's corrections. That was the fair interaction aspect of the lesson.

According to the document analysis, School B is a former Model C school, co-educational institution with enrolment of Grade 8 to Grade 12. It is located in the township area of Bloemfontein. The school authority determined the language policy of the school as English-only since English is an official language of South Africa and an international language. The teachers' use of English as the LoLT in the classrooms indicates that pedagogical practices are congruent with the language policy document of the school.

Issue 4: Influence of learning style, self-esteem and socio-economic factors on learning.

Some teachers were of the view that learners' learning styles, self-esteem and socio-economic backgrounds contributed to their poor school performance, inattentiveness in the classroom and seeming withdrawal from classroom activities. One teacher said:

T3: "*They do not learn the same way. Some socio-economic factors are responsible for that. These might be (i) pandemic problem such as sickness and disease. Parents may be sick and jobless. This affects learners' learning adversely. (ii) A learner's low self-esteem may result in his / her poor learning; . . . some feel they are ugly while others desire to be admired.*"

*C*lassroom observations indicated that some learners who did not participate actively in language discourse probably graduated from poor non-performing primary schools where they did not receive a good foundation. They also might have been affected by poor learning styles, low self-esteem and adverse socio-economic influences. This was why the general class interaction was rated fair.

This was reflected at School H during classroom observation of an English Grade 10 lesson (19 August 2013). The lesson topic was: *Grammar – comparison of adjectives.* The introduction was satisfactory (good). The teacher explained, "T*here are three degrees of comparison*: *positive, comparative and superlative.*" She wrote the following examples on the chalkboard:

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Big	bigg**er**	bigg**est**
Eager	**more** eager	**most** eager
Good	bett**er**	best

She further talked about *regular comparison* and *irregular comparison* by giving examples. She said (1) "M*ost one-syllable modifiers form the comparative degree by adding –er and the superlative degree by adding –est."* Her illustration follows in the table.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Neat	neat**er**	neat**est**
Warm	warm**er**	warm**est**
Fast	fast**er**	fast**est**
Strong	strong**er**	strong**er**

(2) "*Two-syllable modifiers may form the comparative degree by adding –er and the superlative degree by adding -est, or they may form the comparative degree by using* **more** *and the superlative degree by using* **most***."* She illustrated this below.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Gentle	gentl**er**	gentl**est**
Lively	liveli**er**	liveli**est**
Agile	**more** agile	**most** agile
Clearly	**more** clearly	**most** clearly

The teacher discontinued direct instruction and let the learners copy the examples in their workbooks because of time constraints. The lesson delivery interesting and interactive and learner participation was fair although their questions and responses in the LoLT were not fluent.

If School G is compared with School D, in School G, learners' questions and answers in the LoLT were poor, whereas those of the learners in School D were good as exemplified earlier.

Therefore, the comparison of the two classroom observations (G and D) indicated the existence of language power relations among learners in the LoLT (English) in these schools.

The earlier presentation of the document analysis of the language policies of these two schools above (Section 5.2.2) showed that the choice of English as LoLT corroborates the pedagogic practices of the teachers as described by some principals and teachers during the interviews and classroom observations.

5.2.3 Research Question 3: How does language choice re-create economic inequalities in South Africa?

The above question elicited participant views on how right or wrong choice of LoLT may widen the economic gap between individuals when they engage in work after schooling. In effect, participants could suggest how language choice(s) could further increase the gap between the rich and the poor in society.

Theme 3: Language choice and job opportunities

This section examined participant views about learners' choice of language(s) and effects on their pursuit of employment after schooling.

Issue 1: Preference for English medium instruction

Most interviewees confirmed that English plays a major role in multiple domains such as politics, academia, education and job security. They expressed how learners' choice of local languages could deepen their grip on poverty if they neglected the benefits of English as LoLT. According to this majority, the use of African languages as languages of instruction (as perceived by parents) blocks learners' access to lucrative socio-economic avenues, which are associated with competence in English. The following were some of their responses:

P1 (i*) " The learners themselves prefer to learn in English. (ii) Their perception is that English is a door to economic benefits. (iii) They must write matric in English and / or Afrikaans*; *the parents even search to admit their children in English-medium schools for future rewards."*

P4: *"It would be a problem if a learner chose Setswana here and happened to cross over to another province for schooling. This is probably why English stands as the major language of learning and teaching and therefore compulsory."*

P5: *"If you are applying for a job in South Africa you must involve English. English is an international language and so learners can apply with English at any part of the world."*

Teachers agreed about the choice of English as LoLT in schools. The majority said that illiteracy in English would perpetuate the economic inequalities in society. They emphasised how English proficiency could promote success in other subjects like mathematics, science and other literary subjects. These quotations represent some of their views:

T1: *"There is this significance of the use of English in the sciences, Mathematics, and literary works."*

T4: *"If they* [learners] *do well in English and Afrikaans, they stand the chance to be employed in the job market."*

T8: *"English is the way for communication; English is the language of the government, commerce, workplace, parliament, and etcetera."*

A few participants asserted that choosing local languages might result in locking people inside South Africa for life. They warned that wrong choice of language(s) might cause lasting negative outcomes for learners. The group felt that only mother tongue instruction would create disadvantages in the workplace. The following comments illustrate their views:

T1: "*Small regional languages restrict job opportunities."*

T2: *"However their intelligence in the local languages, they are more or less nil internationally."*

At school D, the parents' preference of English showed in the classroom observation where learners participated actively in reading, asking and answering questions in fluent English. This pertained to the lesson based on the book: Cry the beloved country which has been described in detail in section 5.2.1: Theme 1. The school's language policy document corroborated the participants' responses and the classroom observation regarding the choice of English as LoLT at School D in Aliwal North.

Issue 2: Promoting learning through local languages

Contrary to favouring English as the medium of instruction, a negligible number of participants welcomed the use of local languages as languages of learning and teaching. This issue was included because of its frequent mention by those participants who probably were biased about using local languages as languages of learning and teaching in secondary schools. Supporters

of the use of local languages argued that those learners opting for the local languages would later be available and valuable as interpreters and translators in the workplace and educational institutions. They felt that such individuals would play a positive role in the promotion of multilingualism. They further maintained that since their learners are mostly local languages speakers, they would have greater interest in and would participate more frequently in lessons when the language(s) of instruction favoured them. They concluded that the use of the learners' mother tongue in teaching bolsters their morale. Those participants said:

P2: *"Studying in one's language promotes smooth studies."*

P7: *"English is compulsory but if learners are learning in their mother tongues, they will have advantage in understanding the lessons. They understand the content better in their language. They can have the job and do it with confidence."*

T7: *"A child excelling in mother tongues could also be an interpreter in the mother tongues in a work place or be a teacher of such languages in a school; indigenous languages are expedient for learners who want to be interpreters / translators in courts, or become teachers of local languages."*

The effect of mother tongues on language discourse was observed during the classroom observations at some schools. Learners developed interest in asking and answering more questions whenever teachers allowed them to use their mother tongue. That was found in classroom observation at School E during a Grade 10 English lesson. The teacher's introduction of the lesson was good despite the arrival and departure learners as the lesson continued. They were discussing an HIV/AIDS conversation between a mother and her son.

Both the teacher-learner and learner-learner interaction in classroom discourse were fair but noisy. The teacher posed questions such as; *"Do you tell your mum that you have HIV if you have it?" "What would you do or tell your mum about your HIV status; why and how?" "What are the consequences*?" Many said they would not mind telling their mothers. She did not worry about learners' use of language in the discourse. She further inquired from the learners: *"Is it better for you to die in silence, don't you need medication?"* The class roared with laughter and one learner shouted, *"I rather die than tell her!"* Many were happy and interested in using the local languages, especially Afrikaans, the community's mother tongue.

The conclusion of the lesson was poor, as the teacher did not make any effort to ensure learners' equal and fair participation in the whole discourse within the language of learning and teaching which was English.

The document analysis of School E language policy described above shows that the policy does not corroborate the pedagogic practice in the classroom language discourse because of much code switching. The majority of the learners are Setswana-speaking and are used to speaking their mother tongue.

5.2.4 Research Question 4: What policy responses are needed to address inequalities and inequities in linguistic power relations in the education system in general and in the FET band in particular?

This question aimed to gather participants' suggestions on how to reduce the problem of unequal language power in classroom discourse and in the education system of South Africa.

Theme 4: Intervention strategies for better classroom language discourse

This theme indicates policy proposals by participants to address learners' language outputs in the education system. Their proposals ranged from building strong language foundations in primary schools, organising language debates, encouraging learners' extensive reading, treating official languages equally, allowing teachers and stakeholders to participate in decision making to training and re-training of teachers for the benefit of education system. Participants' proposals to the government and stakeholders of education follow in the ensuing sections.

Issue 1: Encouraging learners' extensive readership

Most interviewees were of the view that government (national and provincial) and stakeholders should encourage the culture of reading in schools by building libraries, providing books and facilitating access to internet for research. They maintained that *"Reading"* must have a place in the curriculum from Grade R to Grade 12 to restore the culture of reading. The participants' proposals are as follows:

P3: *"Learners must be encouraged to read English books extensively . . . develop their reading abilities / skills."*

P6: "*Reading period must increase; help learners after school."*

T1: *"Prescribing extensive reading for learners is important, as that would increase their vocabulary . . .; grammar of the language must be taught; . . . there must be rules. . ."*

T2: *"Teach vocabulary, read extensively – important; we do not prescribe but we encourage them to do extended reading . . . from newspapers, other materials."*

T3: *"Let them visit the libraries and read the magazines and newspapers freely; learners must be encouraged to read English books extensively and . . . come back to explain them."*

T6: *"The government should go back to the foundation – build libraries and provide books, access internet for researchers; let reading have a place as a subject in the primary schools."*

Even in this era of available technology in education through social networking, a minority of participants felt that learners' use of their technological devices (cell phones and iPods) was negative, even in the classrooms. They advocated that the department of education should help them by way of *"law"* to control the use of these devices for the benefit of education. However, one teacher proposed a wiser use of social media:

T7: *"Social networking confuses them as they use wrong spellings and SMS; they should make use of internets and social networking* [in their studies].*"*

Classroom observation at School F of a Grade 10 English lesson indicated what erroneous social networking can cause. The teacher gave an outstanding introduction of the lesson on *Summary*. He cited examples from everyday activities in the school, ranging from the morning assembly to the last period. He asked, *"Would anyone repeat word for word what was said at the assembly from prayer session to the principal's address?"* Learners said that was impossible. He further made three learners describe their classroom arrangement after which two members of the class individually summarised the description. He elicited a few other examples from learners (our English lesson in class, my mother's instruction for washing dishes) and the language discourse was lively and interactive although the written presentations were poor because of the learners' lack of English proficiency. Many learners used truncated SMS language because of the influence of social networking. For example, *"I gonna c u"* for "I will see you." By the end of the lesson, the teacher had managed to drill the learners in the skill of summary writing.

The language policy document of School F (Grade 8-12) states that English and Afrikaans are documented as the language policy. The predominant Afrikaans-speaking learners have their

separate classrooms and so are the Sesotho-speaking black learners. However, English is emphasised more as it is the major medium for teaching other subjects such as mathematics and physical science in the school. Learners struggle to balance their home languages with English in the classrooms. Thus, although the pedagogic practices corroborate the language policy of the school and most of the feedback of the participants, the learners are in a disadvantaged position in the classroom where English is the LoLT. In other words, both Afrikaans-speaking learners and Sesotho-speaking black ones struggle to use English in their classroom discourses.

Issue 2: Incorporating teachers in education policy-making

A minority of the participant teachers reported that both the national and provincial departments of education relegated them to the background in matters concerning education policies. The following were some of their comments in that regard:

P3: "*The government must incorporate educators in doing what they are doing at the policy level.*"

T3: "*Incorporate educators in the making of education policies.*"

T5: "*Make language of learning and teaching (English) compulsory.*"

Most participants were of the view that speaking English should be made compulsory in all classrooms for all subjects. They reiterated that English has a unifying influence on the nation, citing an instance that the Grade 12 examination is usually set in English and/or Afrikaans. Lastly, they argued that all teachers should teach English in English and avoid code switching. This call was reflected in the following comments:

T1: "*If you'll make it in the world you must use English; even the parents opt for English for them* [their children].*"*

T3: "*Multilingualism will confuse them since they must use English in the last* [Grade 12] *assessment.*"

T4: "*Encourage educators to teach English in English – do not switch-code for that could dilute the use of English.*"

T5: "*The language of teaching and learning must be made compulsory in the schools.*"

T8: "*English unites the nation but policy takes it* [in principle] *the other way round.*"

P5: *"If you're applying for job in SA, you must involve English for that . . . and so English is a must . . . English is an international language."*

The benefit of the use of English in the classroom discourse was made manifest in the classroom observation at School A (an urban school) where the learners demonstrated active participation using English.

During the classroom observation of the Grade 10 English lesson (22 April, 2013) at School A, the literature lesson was based on *Sponono*, a short story by Alan Paton. The lesson aimed to assess the learners' ability to understand a short story.

The introduction was good as the teacher first summarised the story. The topic was: "*The stolen gold watch"* and the setting was Johannesburg. The classroom interaction was lively because the teacher clearly described and explained vocabulary. For example, she explained that "*bureaucracy is simply following the rules without asking questions."* Prior to that, she had explained that a "*bureaucrat is a government official"* who follows bureaucracy.

Although a few learners gave indifferent responses, many were interested in the lesson and contributed positively in response to the teacher's questions. The teacher also gave clear illustrations of the word "*siesta"*. Consequently, a learner defined it (siesta) as "*sleep small after school."*

The lesson was interactive as the teacher used question-and-answer exchanges to encourage learners' active participation in English throughout the duration (40 minutes) of that period. Most learners participated actively in the language discourse.

The document analysis of School A, a co-educational multiracial secondary school located in the central part of Bloemfontein, indicated that the language policy is English-only as endorsed by the Department of Basic Education. The policy document analysis corroborated what happened in the classroom during observation. That is, the teacher and the learners used English only in their classroom discourse even though the learners made many grammatical errors in their sentences.

Issue 3: Training and re-training languages teachers

Opinions were divided on the issue of empowering the local languages. Those who favour it asserted that to align with the government's dictates of multilingualism in the education system, training programmes should be organised for local languages teachers from time to time.

They advised that workshops be initiated from the primary school stage. The proponents of English discouraged the deployment of teachers who did not specialise in teaching English language to teach English lessons. They stressed the teaching of grammar as follows:

T1: "*Grammar of the language must be taught . . . tackle it from the foundation – primary school . . . e m.; no accidental learning.*"

T3: "*Train enough local language teachers to teach in primary schools; drill them from there to graduate to the high schools* [since South Africa needs to promote multilingualism].*"

P4: "*The government must employ qualified teachers, retrain them and use workshops to update their knowledge and skills.*"

P8: "*Train educators well to teach . . . no more training colleges – closed down.*"

Training and re-training of teachers' issue was observed to influence teachers' delivery of lessons in the classrooms. I realised that some teachers were not well-trained English language teachers while others needed to update their skills to meet the demands of modern techniques of teaching. The effect featured especially in classroom management and interaction (distribution of questions) with the learners.

Most teachers recapitulated their previous lessons before introducing the current lesson. For example, T1 summarised and explained the passage of the literature lesson entitled: "The stolen gold watch." *(Alan Paton adapted booklet from Sponono).* Then, she quickly used the questioning technique in a situation familiar to the learners to arouse new interest to engage in the topic previously begun. These teachers demonstrated their ample experience in English language teaching.

Teachers' questioning techniques enabled them to identify learners' abilities and difficulties in their follow-up lessons. This sensitised them for necessary adjustment in further classroom interactions. Hence, the teachers-learners' interactions improved, with the result that more learners participated actively.

Generally, the participants performed well despite the common limited teaching and learning resources and facilities in their schools. For example, some schools lacked prescribed textbooks. In most cases, classrooms were overcrowded classrooms such that teachers hardly had any room for a desk and chair. Although these might not speak to the crux of the matter, they

were contributory to the existence of linguistic power relations in classrooms. Number and space were issues for concern with regard to a positive culture of teaching and learning.

In some cases, learners were inattentive: writing SMS messages to their friends or surreptitiously taking incoming calls in the classroom. This behaviour disrupted lessons and distracted teachers and the serious learners. Most teachers seemed to ignore this behaviour to the detriment of their lessons.

For document analysis about language policy, I obtained a verbal description of language policies of the selected schools from participants and consulted the South African Schools Act (RSA, SASA, 1996) and the Constitution. Data gathering also involved reading newspapers, government white papers and class assignments. The literature provided an understanding of social and organisational practices since documents have the potential to inform and structure the decisions that people make on a daily and longer-term basis (Coffey, 2014:67-68). Some of these documents appear in appendix G.

Regarding school documents about language, a majority of schools had English-only as their school language policy while a negligible number had English /Afrikaans as theirs. Indigenous languages were virtually relegated to the backgroung.

5.3 CONCLUSION

This chapter presented the findings of the analysis of data gathered by interviews, observation and document analysis. Many factors contributed to the existence of linguistic power relations in the FET band. Critical among them, according to the principals and teachers (participants), were the learners' language and socio-economic backgrounds and acute lack of reading culture. Another serious cause of language differences in the classrooms is some teachers' insufficient training and proficiency in the LoLT. The same problem experienced by learners who speak African languages are seen among some non- English speaking language teachers who teach English because such schools lacked trained teachers of English. The poor discipline exacerbates these problems and contributes to the perpetuation of inequalities in South African society.

The next chapter captures the discussion on the key findings of the research, provides a synthesis of the literature review and makes recommendation for improvement of practice.

CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS FOR POLICY AND PRACTICE

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In the preceding chapter, the findings of the qualitative inquiry were presented. This chapter concludes the entire study. This includes a review of the purpose of the study, the research methodology used, a re-statement of the research questions, and a summary of the study findings. The discussion, incorporates everything conducted in the study to answer the research questions. The limitations of the study are outlined. Lastly, the chapter presents the conclusions, recommendations for practice and implications in terms of further research.

6.2 SUMMARY

The medium of instruction in South Africa's education system has been a highly controversial issue since the apartheid era. The constitutional recognition of indigenous African languages as official languages raises an issue in terms of their relationship to economic development, use as media of instruction in schools and equal treatment among all eleven official languages. The Bill of Rights and language-in-education policy (RSA, 1996:6) states that "everyone [has the right] to receive education in the official language or languages of their choice in public educational institutions where such education is practicable".

This study problematizes the above provision in the light of research that supports English and or Afrikaans as language(s) of instructions and research that favours indigenous African languages. The debate suggests that language-in-education policy is a critical source of linguistic and power relations in schools especially at the senior secondary level. Some privileged learners occupy an advantaged position by virtue of their parents' middle or high socio-economic status. They possess symbolic capital such as social and cultural capital whereas their peers whose parents belong to the low socio-economic category are adversely affected academically. The latter could be described as indigent learners as they face unequal scholastic achievement.

Language debaters who oppose the use of indigenous African languages as LoLT maintain that using these languages means accepting a dysfunctional economy in the country. According to Wright (2014:4), there is a chronic lack of trained and proficient teachers to handle the teaching

of the languages. These languages are not yet sufficiently developed for scientific and techno-logical uses in education. They rather advance the use of English as a panacea to avoid inter-national trade / economic and educational alienation. Nevertheless, the advocates of indigenous African languages as LoLT are of the view that school language policies are politicised in favour of the elites in the government and other education stakeholders (Tshotsho, 2013:39). They view this viewpoint as a way whereby the local languages are endangered and their chil-dren pushed to a disadvantaged position academically. They question the hegemonic role of English as LoLT in many South African schools.

6.2.1 Purpose of the study

This study investigated and analysed linguistic power relations in FET band classrooms, against the background of the current language-in-education policy in South Africa.

6.2.2 Research methodology

An interpretive paradigm guided this study using a qualitative method for data collection and analysis. A paradigm is a basic set of beliefs that guides action (Creswell, 2013). The interpre-tive stance was chosen to draw subjective meanings that made the research focused on the actual situation, which allowed a comparison of multiple interpretations of realities in different schools and provinces visited to gather data. This also ensured that there were no preconceived opinions before collecting the data in natural settings. The social world could be understood only from the interpretation presented by the individuals who formed part of the action being researched.

I used the following methods of gathering data in four provinces using two secondary schools per province. Purposive sampling was used for the selection of schools from the Free State, North West, Northern Cape and Eastern Cape provinces. Eight schools were sampled for the study. The purposeful sample was chosen to provide me with appropriate information about the phenomena investigated.

Eight principals and eight senior English language teachers were interviewed using a semi-structured set of questions. The interviews were audiotaped and transcribed. Another eight ex-perienced (five years and above) English language teachers were observed while teaching

Grade 10 / 11 / 12 English language lessons. Observation was audio recorded and field notes made. Data were also gathered by document analysis. The use of these multiple sources allowed for triangulation and provided appropriate information concerning classroom teaching and learning which was related to the research topic.

To comply with ethical requirements, the following steps were taken. Written applications were given to provincial education departments and principals of sampled schools to obtain informed consent to do research in schools. Permissions were granted. 'Participants were assured of' their 'anonymity and confidentiality.' Those participants, in accordance with McMillan's (2012:18) suggestion, were informed of all aspects of the research that might influence their willingness to participate.

6.2.3 Discussion of findings

This section outlined the major research findings as issues and themes emerging from research participants' responses as administered through the instruments (interviews, classroom observations and document analysis). The research questions emerged from problem statements, practice, literature review, and theoretical framework, which were deductively realized. In the light of the research topic, *Language and power relations in FET band in South Africa*, the major findings for discussion based on the research questions included the following and are discussed under themes and issues.

- Economic value of language and learners' future benefits
- Preference for English-medium instructions
- Mismatch between home language and school language practice
- Lack of reading culture
- Promoting learning through local languages
- Weak foundation in learners' formative years
- Influence of learning style, self-esteem and socio-economic factors on learning
- Incorporating teachers in education policy making, and
- Training and re-training languages teachers

Theme 1: Relationship between language and economy Theme 1: Relationship between language and economy

Issue 1: Economic value of language and learners' future benefits

The first research question sought to establish what the participants thought about the relationship between language and economy as far as language in education is concerned.

The argument is whether the use of English as the language of instruction is more beneficial to learners or their local languages, at least in terms of future economic considerations. One critical aim of schooling is to succeed in life. To succeed in life presupposes that you will be at least be self-sufficient in financial capacity. This capacity means that on must be doing some tangible and valuable job, whether employed or self-employed to have some reasonable income regularly.

From the critical review of literature, this study found that participants valued and preferred the use of English to the use of indigenous African languages as medium of instruction in schools. According to this review, English has become South Africa's educational and economic language. The participants reasoned that English gives the learners better future benefits as it provides more opportunities for jobs. English also provides opportunities for participation in national economy as well as global exposure. The inherent problem in most of the sampling South African high schools is that the value-laden subject (English) poses as a hindrance to achieving success in the overall academic pursuit. It is perhaps the mismatch between home language practice and school language practice.

One pertinent issue that causes the disjuncture between home language and classroom language is a serious lack of, or poor reading culture among learners. The problem has a link to learners' previous language studies in the primary and / or junior secondary grade levels.

Furthermore, the professionalisation and proficiency of teachers has become a serious issue of concern to the qualitative dimension of the education system in South Africa. From my experience as a former English language teacher in the high school (South Africa and elsewhere), many teachers in the basic education department are not proficient in the job. Others require a serious updating of their teaching skills because they were trained long time ago. Regular workshops are a necessity for all teachers including the principals. It does not work when an "intel-

ligent" teacher of Physics is tipped to teach English in any of the school grades. If such happens, it means that the learners would not be learning well and that will affect their future education.

Teachers' alienation from the national decision-making body also affects the education system of South Africa. Teachers who are in the frontline of school activities are supposed to have a say in the type of academic materials suitable for the much desired quality education. On the contrary, they are relegated to the background to the detriment of the system they are expected to build.

The findings expressly confirm that English as a global language should be used as the LoLT in South Africa's classrooms in regard to the future benefits of learners and its crucial role in the nation's economy. Language is a means of communication and an essential part of human interaction and therefore indispensable in all societal endeavours. Consequently, language becomes the main instrument of power in any nation's economy. Alexander (2012:7) argues that for human beings to produce the means of subsistence, they must cooperate by means of communication. This results in the specific language in which the production processes take place and such language serves as the language of power. In educational settings, for example, teachers and learners interact in the classroom lessons / lectures by using language(s). This power of language was observed in the classroom observations where some learners exhibited their linguistic power through oral presentation of different aspects of life experiences. Others who could not speak English fluently were ashamed of themselves.

From a theoretical perspective, those learners including those from the rural areas who had probably not visited a library nor been engaged in any previous school debate, are not to blame for their inability to cope. I also realize firstly that some language teachers were ill equipped for language teaching.

Language could be any living language, but what matters most is the economic value of a language or languages. The economic value of any language is the value calculated according to its ability to produce income in the future (Ouane & Glanz, 2010:39). The economic value actually refers to the extent to which language makes it easier to get a job, and makes it easy to participate in production in the labour market. It is this value of a language that has direct impact on human development, and consequently social transformation. The quality of skilled

individuals a nation produces through education determines significantly the nature of that nation's economy. In this era of globalisation, every nation should consider the world economic dispensation while deciding on her language in education policy.

For a language to have economic value, it must be considered a living and an international language. In the context of this research, the language that merits such quality is undoubtedly English. A specific example is the case of the classroom observation where learners proudly and enthusiastically made oral presentations of their reports in English. The other learners who could not present anything felt ashamed as they could neither ask nor answer questions during the question-and-answer interludes. The latter could not express themselves in English and therefore remained inactive members in the classroom. The question is not that this second group of learners did not present, but they socially participated in their own observational way, though that negates the principles of social constructivism. This accounts for the reason why countries with a workforce which are proficient in English are able to maintain business and economic ties with other English-speaking nations more easily than nations that use other primary languages.

Issue 2: Preference for English-medium instructions

The influence of English has spread so wide that most South African schools have currently accepted it as their medium of instructions. This was supported by the language policy of the sampled schools.

Studying English early in school increases learners' confidence and competence in the language thereby boosting their opportunity for positions of power and success. The current trend in South Africa and elsewhere demands highly skilled people in almost all areas of life endeavours. These skills require English proficiency due to the influence of English in world affairs. In many places worldwide English has become the language used in the workplace. It enables communication between people of different languages and cultures. According to participants of this project, learners who do well in English stand a better chance to get employed in high-functioning organisations than those who lack proficiency (section 5.2.1, T3). Most principals and teachers prefer English-medium schools although many are still far from attaining proficiency in the language. The participants maintained that they, as educators, deserve recognition in the national education policy decision-making bodies as a matter of urgency. They pinpointed the importance of English and how it could be used appropriately in classrooms. The

teachers suggested, "Multilingualism will confuse learners" especially when they write their Grade 12 examinations in English or Afrikaans.

Many illiterate parents desire their children to acquire English. They want to see their children study the approved language of wider communication from an early age even if the children struggle at school as a consequence. These parents hope that the specific language(s) will enable their children to get employed and participate in social, economic and legal activities of the world (Ball, 2010:2).

Furthermore, the hegemonic position of English has continued because the use of its varieties is spoken internationally by the speakers of the English language (TESOL White Paper, 2012: Online).

It is also a societal belief that English as an international language (EIL) has marginalised many minority groups because knowledge and information about science and technology are widely spread through English. Nobody, whether the elite or the unknown in society, wants to be marginalised through language in politics, economy, law, business, education, science and technology. This explains why most principals and teachers abhor multilingualism (indigenous languages) as LoLT in schools despite the constitutional language-in-education policy stipulations. According to Weber and Horner (2012:76), the apartheid government, through the Bantu Education Act, made mother tongue education compulsory for the black population thereby restricting them to only their local languages. The latter was perceived as a trap to imprison their children within a second-rate education that would distance them from reaching their competence in English. With that experience and the current trend of events, South Africans, especially the blacks, prefer English to indigenous African languages "to [ensure] better educational and employment opportunities" (Weber & Horner, 2012:76). According to some participants, using the indigenous languages as the LoLT will limit South Africans to a future in South Africa only.

In contrast to the above, Qorro (2009) argues that teachers and learners should interact in the classroom discourse using the language they are proficient in, not a foreign language. Wolff, Brock-Utne, Alidou, Boly, Heugh and Diallo (2006), found that learners have better understanding of scientific concepts in their familiar language than when they are taught in English, a foreign language.

As true as this might sound, the vexed questions remain: When will the government and its agents develop the political will to develop the scientific and technological versions of these

indigenous languages? What about the cost factors surrounding all aspects of developing the languages for use in higher domains of education, medicine, energy, space transport, and so on? These questions justify the request by those at the hub of classroom events (principals and teachers) that they be involved in educational decision-making in the country. The implication is that their incorporation in the educational decision-making body will help bring about the much needed intervention strategies for better classroom language discourses, which can benefit South Africa's education system.

Theme 2: Challenges of language of learning and teaching in the classroom discourses

Issue1: Mismatch between home language and school language practice

Learners' home language practice poses a challenge to their appropriate use of LoLT. This will continue as long as most of them cease to use classroom language in communication immediately they step out of the classroom. The use of these indigenous languages is limited to their homes, shops and elsewhere, especially in the rural and township areas. The languages continue to be marginalised in the public schools leaving Afrikaans (to a decreasing degree), and especially English to enjoy their central position of use in the classrooms. We consider this a language problem connected with the constitutional language-in-education policies in the African continent in general and South Africa in particular. It is the mismatch between 'policy' and 'practice' within the language-in-education domain. For example, the South African Constitution (RSA, 1996:29) and the South African Schools Act (RSA, 1996b: 6) guarantee learners "the right to receive education in the official language or languages of their choice in public educational institutions where this is reasonably practicable." If it should happen that way, then multilingualism stipulated in the constitutional language policy would be fulfilled. However, this is ignored thereby revealing a glaring mismatch between policy and practice.

A finding of this research indicates that the above policy provision is nowhere reasonably practicable despite the fact that some sampled schools, especially those in urban areas or 'former Model C Schools, have learners from' varied linguistic, cultural and economic backgrounds. This is tantamount to a denial of learners' rights that could constitute their asymmetrical classroom language productions. In fact, English assumes a hegemonic position as LoLT which is known as "linguistics imperialism" (Sosibo & Katiya, 2015:274).

A common belief (although not empirical) holds 'that African languages are not equipped to deal with scientific and technical concepts'/terminology (Klu *et al*., 2013:37). Others argue about the exorbitant cost factor involved in converting all types of documents into South African languages. These factors may explain why English is currently playing a hegemonic role in South African classrooms and in most African countries. The popular view that English provides 'an enhanced set of opportunities for the future' of learners discredits the view of those participants who refute this position. The latter support the post-colonial language-in-education policy that aims at vernacularisation, 'defined as the use of an indigenous language as the medium of instruction in the education system' (Kamwangamalu, 2010a:1- 2).

Theme 3: Language choice and job opportunities

Issue 1: Promoting learning through local languages / culture

The theoretical framework of this study which draws on Vygotsky's (1978) social constructivism theory maintains that reality is constructed through human activity. The learners in this study were able to construct meaning on their classroom lessons through a social learning process. They were successful in doing that as they collaborated in discovering and possessing the world through interaction with one another and with environmental objects.

Social constructivism in the classroom was observed as learners viewed knowledge, meaning and understanding within the classroom as individual learners and as entire class members. All this aligns with what Vygotsky and some other social constructivists believed in that: social constructivism stimulates the active role that the learner plays in acquiring knowledge. In this instance the learner situates instruction and engages in building knowledge in an interesting lesson. With this, the teacher designs the classroom activities around an anchored topic, or situation that revolves around solving some task or some issues of interest to the learners. Some of the teachers applied this pattern of classroom facilitation and learners were well engaged in learning. This means that the education system can be revived through producing academic materials that are based on the principles and practices of social constructivism.

The concept of cultural Deficit currently referred to as the articulation gap in the South African context also plays an ancillary role to the theory. The articulation gap from basic education to higher education is a serious matter of concern in South Africa. The cultural deficit model asserts that black learners, especially those in the low socio-economic group, often perform

poorly because of perceived cultural deprivation or lack of familiarity with cultural models that are associated with school success. It assumes that poor performance and widespread underachievement of learners is their own doing. This can be contested as these learners did not cause the predicament in which they found themselves. Then, in essence learners should not take it for granted that their cultural or economic background can force them to perform below expectation. There is virtue in hard work as determination to succeed is a matter of self-resolution to march forward in whatever one is engaged in.

The above scenario has the same view of resolution as the cultural capital. These cultural deficit /cultural capital perspectives can be abandoned and those community cultural wealth be turned to culturally responsive approaches aimed at improving the educational experiences and outcomes for learners.

The debate continues that the eleven official languages must enjoy parity of esteem and be treated equitably. However, the nine indigenous official ones marginalised in the past are still relegated to the background. The question remains: Which language suits South African children particularly at the early stages of formal education?

TESOL (2012) through research asserts that the trusted way to educate children is through their home languages. However, many argue that producing learning materials in a variety of African languages is too expensive. Then there is the issue of the languages themselves. In South African context, for example, many official languages are not commonly used in highly celebrated domains of education, politics and medicine. The argument is that they lack standardised orthographies, or writing systems that can be used to produce textbooks for chemistry, physics, mathematics and technology. According to Bamgbose (2011), as early as possible, children should be taught in a language that will benefit their education at higher levels to access science and technology, do business at an international dimension, and participate actively as citizens in wider society (Calderbank, 2013). These arguments need to be guided by the use of an 'official' language for unity as one nation. For South Africa, it is surely English, especially as a language of scientific discourse or scholarship (DHET, 2015:19). The "use of English as a" language 'of instruction' by an unsure novice teacher will only produce poor learners and poor results. This resonates with what I observed in some school classrooms where English language teachers showed their inexperience in teaching the language.

TESOL (2012) supports the concept of mother tongue instruction and maintains that language plays an indispensable role for the development of individuals and societies. Therefore, learning in one's own language is a fundamental right. The same way, the South African Constitution promotes multilingualism in principle, as implementation of the realities of the ideal has been exceptionally difficult to realise since the inception of democracy in 1994. For example, there seems to be no effort made toward preparing and allowing Grade 12 learners write their examination in 'any of the official languages of their choice' other than Afrikaans and English. This brings into question the efficacy of the Pan South African Language Board (PanSALB).

An issue here is that even when a genuine policy favours indigenous languages, failure to streamline the implementation strategies and procedures and sufficient provision of funds may undermine the policy. Non-implementation has been the bane of language matters in Africa where political elites have usurped intellectual authority from the relevant scholars working in the education departments.

Calderbank (2013) supports this argument stating, "African languages should be used as the medium of instruction throughout primary level." Other scholars favour an early exit model whereby a local language could be used for instructions for the initial three or four years of' schooling and later be replaced by an official foreign language, which was previously taught as a subject. A common problem with this latter approach is that children's intellectual ability is not yet sufficiently developed to enable them to make the rigorous transition to English language instruction in the fourth or fifth year of primary school.

Issue 2: Weak foundation in learners' formative years

Although this study focused on the secondary schools, the inherent problems seemed to be located in the junior grades in primary schools where key foundational issues are neglected. In South Africa, every learner who speaks English and/or Afrikaans should study an African language as a subject in school (language-in-education policy). In Kenya, Kiswahili serves as a national language. This causes a setback for a section of learners of a different mother tongue. Therefore, many Kenyan learners use an African language which is not their mother tongue. Uganda uses an early exit model, but in all the classes of urban schools, English serves 'as the medium of instruction while' teachers teach the local 'language as an additional language' (Bamgbose, 2011).

Proponents of South African indigenous languages as languages of learning and teaching believe that these languages can function as well as English and Afrikaans in schools and in every

other sphere of life. They maintain that non-use of indigenous languages in Grade 12 exams and universities will sustain the cycle of non-participation of rural communities in major provincial and national events. This again calls to question why a majority of non-English-speaking South Africans have been denied the use of their cherished heritage languages. Such can impoverish them culturally. This accounts for how linguistic power relations develop and why a majority of 'the principals and teachers (interviewees)' seemed to renounce the choice of indigenous languages in their curriculum. In this study, participants who favoured the local languages as languages of learning and teaching called for the re-opening of closed teachers' training colleges in order to produce well-trained language teachers who would ensure effective teaching of indigenous languages in South African schools.

Issue 3: Lack of reading culture

One core finding of this research is that learners lack a reading culture. Reading at one's own volition and time requires the development of a reading habit. Reading includes study of books and other academic-related materials. Study in itself is an exacting art that involves certain complicated issues. Unfortunately, many learners and even teachers fail to grasp the technique of studying. Reading habits distinguish successful learners from others. This means that their reading habits determine their achievements. In other words, reading and academic achievements are interrelated and dependent on each other (Acheaw & Larson, 2014).

Teachers often advise learners to read but many neglect this to the detriment of their academic success. Those who read do so only for passing examination. Some learners behave this way due to their inability to read English fluently because of mother tongue differences and influence. These are linguistically challenged learners. The challenge might also result from a lack of cultural capital (low socio-economic status). Many learners rather spend time on poor materials such as blue films on their smart phones and other illicit texts in junk books (novels), magazines and newspapers (section 5.2.2, par. 3). This fact was observed during my years as a high school teacher in Bloemfontein, South Africa.

Furthermore, the *Response to Literature*, which used to support public schools' reading culture, is no longer included in the current CAPS. This has created a gap between privileged learners and disadvantaged learners. Learners have ignored the study of grammar, seemingly because teachers seldom teach it. Some learners in most of the selected schools used short message services on social media to write assignments and translate from local languages to English.

This amounts to transliteration which affects them adversely both orally and in written discourses as observed in the classrooms.

But those learners who read and followed their teachers' instructions demonstrated their academic worth as exemplified in the classroom observations.

Some participants (teachers) during the classroom observations, especially in Schools C, D and E employed a constructivist approach. For example, School C teacher prepared his learners for classroom presentations on different interesting topics, which many performed brilliantly. Another excellent performance was in School D classroom where learners acted (in reading) scenes of their prescribed drama booklet. Those lessons were well participated in and understood by learners as they constructed the knowledge by sharing. The key element for this success story was the social interaction of learners among themselves and with the teachers in the classroom presentation and discourse.

The above scenario aligns with what interviewees said about the strategies they employed to enhance learners' participation in classroom activities. They grouped learners for active learning to construct shared knowledge especially during the drama lessons. That approach – social constructivist - facilitated learning and made teachers' work easy. This reinforces the theory of social constructivism framework this research employed.

From the above also during the interview sessions the participants (principals and teachers) had the capacity to examine their experiences and described them accurately as they graphically described how and why some learners were able to express themselves well (orally and in written form) in the language of instruction (English) whereas some others were not able to do so.

Issue 4: Influence of learning style, self-esteem and socio-economic factors on learning

Closely linked to the above aspect of lack of reading culture among learners is the influence of learning style, self-esteem and socio-economic background of learners.

A few participants illustrated this issue. The effects on the academic performance of learners may not be self-inflicted, that is, they are not the cause of their failure. The controlling factor among the three influences is the socio-economic background. According to Ovute (2009:1), 'family socio-economic background includes family income, standard of house occupied or rented, family size, parental education and level of family stability.' Socio-economic back-

ground falls into three classifications thus, high, middle and low levels. In South Africa, learners of low socio-economic background are from the lowest social class. Their parents / guardians may be poverty-stricken, self-employed or struggling, jobless individuals whose monthly income ranges from R 0 – 5 000. Learners of middle socio-economic background are children who fall in the middle social class, that is, "between the low" social "class and the high" social class. The parents may be the "just comfortable" business and employed people like teachers whose monthly earnings range from R15 000 – 35 000). The last group includes learners of high socio-economic background who are from the highest social class. These may be children of highly placed political office holders, business tycoons, stakeholders of companies and so forth with a monthly income bracket of R70 000 and above.

Socio-economic background naturally affects a learner's learning style and self-esteem. If a learner's parent or s/he is afflicted with disease, the learner may be at risk academically. For instance, a learner with a sick and jobless guardian is affected psychologically, physically and academically. This situation results in poor learning and withdrawal. He or she can no longer participate maximally in lessons because of the low self-esteem. On the other hand, if a learner's parent belongs to the high socio-economic background and the learner is careful and hardworking, the chances of the learner to perform well academically are high.

Socio-economic background could also spell a school's academic situation in form of quality of teaching and learning. Some 'schools do not have facilities such as libraries' (interview participants). The few available books are in boxes and stored safely in principals' offices where they are regarded as untouchable property or assets due to the fear that they will be mislaid. Such schools, as observed at some selected schools, especially in the rural areas, also have classroom overcrowding. Some English language teachers taught 60-80 learners in one classroom, four periods weekly. That affected their classroom management and quality of teaching negatively. Those schools were composed mainly of children of parents in the low and middle socio-economic background categories.

Theme 4: Intervention strategies for better classroom language discourse

Issue 1: Training and re-training language(s) teachers

Training and re-training language(s) teachers presupposes training and updating teachers' knowledge and skills in the art of imparting knowledge to learners using the specific language(s) in their field of study. Two things are of a great concern in the South African basic education sector.

First, teachers of indigenous languages and English language teachers are scarce in schools. This means that the language teachers' ratio to the learners' own is unbalanced. For this reason, some schools handpick teachers to teach English in classes, especially in junior grades. They do not even realise the importance of foundational instructions in academics. These teachers lack proper training to deliver lessons in the current style of teaching. A reason among others might be that former public colleges of education in South Africa closed down in 2004. Instead universities and technikons were merged as part of provincial rationalisation processes to overcome the apartheid educational inequalities thereby reducing the so-called identified oversupply of primary teachers (RSA, 2011).

In addition, workshops for the teachers are insufficient. Education departments organize training workshops but these are inadequate. Frequent and systematic workshops are required for both old and newly employed teachers to equip them to apply new techniques, skills and pedagogic practices in schools. Well-equipped teachers will shift the cultural deficit perspective to ameliorate the learners' achievement levels at all grades. Occupying the learners in quality learning also addresses disciplinary aspects in the classrooms as well as the school environs.

Secondly, certain teachers trained in other fields of study (e.g., economics/ geography) teach English at any grade level, including Grade 12. The paucity of qualified English language teachers ranks higher than that of local language teachers in schools. The common belief is that if a teacher can understand and speak English, he or she qualifies to teach it.

This finding indicates that teachers' limited proficiency in English negatively affects quality of pedagogical practices in the LoLT. Classroom observations support the finding that teachers' limited proficiency actually affects education qualitatively. This study further suggests that most non-native English language teachers are under-prepared to use English as the medium of instruction. The limited proficiency consequently results in some teachers failing to meet the language-related needs of learners. Recorded interviews and reviewed literature also support the evidence from the observed lessons.

English is such a complex subject that only those who studied it, trained in teaching it, and have attained proficiency in it, can teach it well. This means that qualified teachers in other subjects other than English who present English lessons to learners, may have been directly or indirectly contributing to poor learner performance in the language.

This indicates that the government's policy of linguistic pluralism (multilingualism) is relegated to the background. It has a negative influence on both teachers and learners who have a

flair for indigenous languages and may want to specialise in them. They can easily lose interest and focus. It may contribute to a continuous dearth of indigenous languages instructors in the education department and other organisations in South Africa.

The above situation calls for a brief discussion of the impact of teachers' limited language proficiency on learners' academic performance. Language proficiency of teachers as discussed above, impacts learners in their present grades and in their future after school.

6.3 LIMITATIONS

Limitations are external conditions that restrict or constrain the study's scope or may affect its outcome (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2012:8). Financial constraint precluded repeated interviews of school principals and teachers to confirm intention and meaning during interview dialogues and classroom observations. The qualitative findings may not be generalised across the school system in South Africa; the focus is rather on transferability (Bloomberg and Volpe, 2012:103). This is because of the study's limited size. Comparing the number of participants and schools with the number of teachers and schools in South Africa there is a great gap. However, they may establish some typical occurrences in other similar schools vis-à-vis language and power relations due to language-in-education policy and multilingualism. Put differently, although I did not go back to the schools for a follow-up, the data were trustworthy and credible because of triangulation (interviews, classroom observations and document analyses) of research instruments.

6.4 IMPLICATIONS

One pertinent implication about learners' use of language in general is that those who qualify to gain access into higher institutions are unprepared for the academic literacy demands of the institutions. The weak schooling system fraught with virtual non-implementation of the language policy as intended in the national constitution and articulation gap from one grade to another and to higher education constitute a grave challenge to the South African education system.

The major challenges South African learners experience moving from one phase to another in higher education is caused by the difficulties encountered in transiting from secondary school

to tertiary education. In response, the Council on Higher Education (CHE) has not been able to maintain the standard for universities.

The articulation gap is an issue for concern as far as many learners study at poorly equipped public institutions that do not prepare them for access into the tertiary education space. Even the brightest learners, who excelled at public schools, sometimes score very low marks in their first year in the universities. This accounts to the much talked-about inequalities in the education system of South Africa.

It signifies that social investors in the higher education sector have to take the responsibility of minimizing the articulation gap in the school system. In this regard, the following matters require attention:

Consolidated intervention should start at Grade 9 level where provision of student support can have an impact before learners approach their Grade 12 examinations. Counsellors should consider learners' interests and subject strengths sufficiently while academic guidance counsellors should make adequate provision for potential higher education entrants. Instead of all learners doing mathematics and physical sciences, professional academic guidance counsellors should guide them to choose an appropriate qualification for a life-long experience. Learners should not make choices of subjects based on stereotypes and advice from lay members of their families and friends. Social investors also need to support the social sciences as well. No subject is valueless.

If a bright student manages to achieve 100 percent in mathematics, but struggles to express him/herself in English, it would be hard for him or her to cope with the conceptualisation and interpretation of ideas and high-level concepts presented in the programme in general. The staff in student support sections of the institutions should be aware of and deal with issues such as this.

It is expedient for stakeholders in education to win the confidence of learners, especially former dwellers in rural areas who were not exposed to educational facilities and different groups of people. Building confidence in learners can contribute to the formulation of cohesive society and their own development. Learners should integrate confidently as a part of their own environment.

The articulation gap is a possible challenge that learners face throughout their career journey to success. The government, stakeholders, school authorities, teachers, parents and all responsible citizens should address this issue for the common good. An example is this issue of training teachers to teach learners well to improve their academic performances.

6.5 CONCLUSION

This study entitled "Language and power relations in FET band in South Africa" investigated and analysed linguistic power relations in the FET band classrooms in regard to the current South Africa's language-in-education policy. An overview of the study was presented in chapter one of the study.

Language-in-education policy generated a debate nationwide and its full implementation has been politicised. Learners in the basic education sector are dropping out of school every day while some others are performing poorly at matric level. The inherent problem in the language provisions is the official languages' relationship with the economy of South Africa, and the relevance of the 11 official languages with regard to their constitutional principle of equity and parity of esteem. The principle and parity seem not to be working.

The critical review of literature in regard of the issues about indigenous official languages and English and or Afrikaans was done in chapter two. There was a review of the language distribution in South Africa employing the tool of Census 2011 sourced from Statistics South Africa (Stats SA, 2012:24). Socio-linguistic profile of South Africa in terms of its language diversity, which highlighted the home languages by population group, and percentage of speakers per home language was briefly discussed. What followed was a discussion of the national language-in-education policy provision to contextualise the academic language discourses of the schools.

Furthermore, the concept of 'medium of instruction in schools was' critiqued with a focus on certain remedial interventions to save African languages from drifting into extinction in favour of English and Afrikaans, the imported official languages. Selected subheadings are African 'languages as media of instruction in education', unequal linguistic power relations, learners' constitutional right of the language of choice, language policy and globalisation, colonial pol-

icy, 'negative perception of multilingualism, language development status, national integration, modernisation and economic development, globalisation, negative language attitudes, and defective language planning' (Bamgbose, 2011:134).

In chapter three, the study drew on Vygotsky's social constructivism theory. Supplementary to this is the articulation gap / cultural deficit model that asserts that South African black learners, particularly those from parents and guardians of low-economic backgrounds often perform poorly because of their perceived cultural deprivation and lack of familiarity with cultural models that are associated with school success.

In association with the above model were other contesting concepts or epistemologies such as Bourdieu's (1987) cultural capital with its three states. Cultural capital, linked to the articulation gap presupposes that those who possess the dominant culture put those who are lacking economically in a disadvantaged position and want them to remain there. Social realism was also discussed in which social realists laid emphasis on subjectivity and appreciated 'power, meaning and the need for researcher reflexivity' (Curtis & Curtis, 2011). Interpretivism was also discussed which asserts that "knowledge is based on experience and social interactions with others" (McMillan, 2012:304). The basic tenet of social constructivism is that reality is historically, culturally and socially constructed.

The theoretical framework was extended to structuralism and post-structuralism. Structuralism underscored development of unified methods 'for the social sciences through the development of a methodology from the structural linguistics of Ferdinand de Saussure.' However, post-structuralism is an extension of structuralism. All these were employed in this research for the sake of methods and methodology in educational research. I also included the concept of field (Bourdieu, 1993) in this study because of the different power relations that are at play in the education system in South Africa. The concept is defined 'as a set of power relations between agents or institutions in the struggle for specific forms of domination or monopoly of efficient type of capital.'

I presented the design and methodology chapter four, justifying the use of an interpretive paradigm – a frame of reference or a perspective for analysing or examining the social, including educational world consisting of a set of concepts and assumptions. The assumptions and beliefs of interpretative paradigm were stated. All the components of doing a qualitative study were explained which were used to collect, manage, transcribe and analyse data.

Chapter five was a presentation of findings which gave a systematic synthesis of the results of the fieldwork. Presentation included the actual words of the participants and field notes kept by the researcher.

The last chapter (Chapter six) discussed the findings in the context of the whole study conducted.

6.6 GENERAL RECOMMENDATIONS

The following general recommendations which flow from the findings and conclusions discussed above are as follows:

1. Language-in-education policy should consider developing indigenous official languages for teaching and learning science and technology to follow the global trends in modern education. This would be an added advantage to boost the nation's economy.
2. English language as a school subject should be made a critical skill, and be taught by teachers trained for teaching it. It should cut across the school curriculum.
3. Every school should have a well-equipped library to cater for both teachers and learners' academic needs to restore a reading culture in schools.
4. Learners should be allowed to write the Grade 12 examinations in their language(s) of choice since "they do better in their mother tongue."
5. Without discipline nothing works well. This should be restored by monitoring principals, teachers and learners' attitudes to teaching and learning. This should link to re-opening of teacher training colleges in the country to produce well-trained and dedicated language(s) teachers.

6.7 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Emergent research on Language-in-education policy could focus on the themes below:

1. Developing indigenous African languages for scientific and technological use.
2. Strategic planning by education authorities for classroom discipline through creating conducive teaching and learning environments.

REFERENCES

Adkins, L. 2004. Passing on feminism: from consciousness to reflexivity. *European Journal of Women's Studies,* 2(2), 427-444. Available from http://ejw.sagepub.com/cgi/content/refs/11/4/427 [Accessed on November 21, 2012].

Alexander, N. 2012. The centrality of the language question in post-apartheid South Africa: revisiting a perennial issue. *South African Journal of Science,* 108(9-10), 1-7.

Amineh, J.R. & Asl, D.H. 2015. Review of Constructivism and Social Constructivism. *Journal of Social Sciences, Literature and Languages*, 1(1), 9-16.

Archer, M., Bhaskar, R., Collier, A., Lawson, T. & Norrie, A., (Eds.). 2013. *Critical realism: Essential readings*. London: Routledge.

Ashenden, S. 2005. Structuralism and post-structuralism, 196-214. *In* Austen, H. (2nd ed.). *Modern Social Theory: An introduction.* Oxford and New York: Oxford University Publishers.

Ball, J. 2010. *Educational equity for children from diverse language backgrounds: Mother tongue-based bilingual or multilingual education in the early years*. Paris: UNESCO.

Bamgbose, A. 2011. African languages today: the challenge of and prospects for empowerment under globalisation. Selected proceedings of the 40th annual conference on African linguistics, ed. *In* Eyamba G. B., Ryan, K. S. & Bezza, T. S. (Eds.). 2011. *Selected proceedings of the 40th annual conference on African linguistics.* Somerville, MA: Cascadilla Proceedings Project. 1-14).

Bernstein, B. 1971. *Class, Codes and Control: Vol. 1, Towards sociology of language.* London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Beukes, A.M. 2004. The first ten years of democracy: Language policy in South Africa. *In Xth Linguapax Congress on Linguistic Diversity, Sustainability and Peace.* Draft document presented at Forum Barcelona.

Bless, C., Higson-Smith, C. & Sithole, S. L. 2013. *Fundamentals of social research methods: An African perspective*, (5th ed.). Cape Town: Juta & Company Ltd.

Bloomberg Dale, L. & Volpe, M. 2012. *Completing your qualitative dissertation: A road map from beginning to end.* London: SAGE.

Bourdieu, P. 1987. *Los tres estados del capital cultural* (Trans. M. Landesmmann). *Sociologica*, 2(5), 11-17.

Bourdieu, P. 1991. *Language & Symbolic Power*. London: Polity Press.

Bourdieu, P. & Wacquant, L.J.D. 1992. *An Invitation to Reflexive Sociology*. Oxford: Polity Press.

Brock-Utne, B. 2005. Language-in-Education Policies and Practices in Africa with a special focus on Tanzania and South Africa – insights from Research in Progress. *In* Zajda J. (Ed.). 2005. *International Handbook on Globalisation, Education and Policy Research: global pedagogies and policies.* Netherlands: Springer. 549-565.

Burawoy, M. 2008. *Durable Domination: Gramsci Meets Bourdieu*. Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin.

CHE (Council on Higher Education). 2013. *A proposal for undergraduate curriculum reform in South Africa: The case for a flexible curriculum structure.* Pretoria: Council on Higher Education. Available from http://www.che.ac.za/sites/default/files/publications/Full_Report.pdf [accessed August 7, 2018].

Cherryholmes, C.H. 1988. *Power and criticism post structural investigations in education.* New York: Teacher's College Press.

Coffey, A. 2014. *Analysing Documents*. *In* Flick U. (Ed.). *Qualitative Data Analysis.* London: SAGE Publications Ltd.

Creswell, J.W. 2013. *Qualitative inquiry & research design*: *Choosing among five approaches*. London: SAGE Publications Ltd.

Creswell, J.W. & Poth, C.N. 2018. *Qualitative inquiry & research design*: *Choosing among five approaches*. London: SAGE Publications Ltd.

Curtis, B. & Curtis. C. 2011. *Social research: A practical introduction*. London: SAGE Publications Ltd.

Cuvelier, P., T. Du Plessis. (Eds.). 2007. *Multilingualism and exclusion: Policy, practice and prospects.* Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Dearden, J. 2014. *English as a medium of instruction - a growing global phenomenon*. London: British Council.

Denzin, N. K. & Lincoln, Y. S. (Eds.). 2008. *The Landscape of qualitative research.* (3rd ed.). London: Sage Publications.

Department of Basic Education (DBE). 2011. *Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) Grade 10-12 English Home Language*. Pretoria: Department of Basic Education. Available from https://www.sahistory.org.za/sites/default/files/file%20up-loads%20/caps_fet_home_english_gr_10-12_web_5478.pdf [Accessed: August 27, 2018].

De Vos, A.S., Strydom, H., Fouche, C.B.& Delport, C.S.L. 2011. *Research at grass roots: For the social sciences and human service professions.* (4th ed.). Pretoria: Van Schaik.

De Wet, C. 2002. Factors influencing the choice of English as language of learning and teaching (LoLT): A South African perspective. *South African Journal of Education,* 22(2), 119-124.

Duranti, A. 1997. *Linguistic anthropology*. UK: Cambridge University Press.

Eggen, P. & Kauchak, D. 2010. *Educational psychology: windows on classroom*, (8th ed.). London: Pearson Education, Inc.

Erbar, P. 2014. The ten most technologically advanced countries in the world. Available from https://www.insidermonkey.com/blog/the-10-most-technologically-advanced-countries-in-the-world-334258/ [Accessed on May 23, 2018].

Euromonitor International. 2012. *The Benefits of the English Language for Individuals and Societies: Quantitative Indicators from Algeria, Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, Lebanon, Morocco, Tunisia and Yemen.* Great Britain: Euromonitor International.

Figone, K.E. 2012. The hegemony of English in South African Education. Claremont: Scripps College. (PhD). http//scholarship.claremont.edu/scripps_theses/43 [Accessed on August 16, 2016].

Fisher, G. & Scott, I. 2011. *Closing the skills and technology gap in South Africa. Background Paper 3: The role of Higher Education in closing the skills gap in South Africa*. University of Cape Town. Available from http://www.glenfisher.ca/downloads/files/Higher%20Education%20in%20SA.pdf [Accessed on 27 March 2018].

Foley, A. 2010. *Mother-tongue education in South Africa.* Available from https://teachenglishtoday.org/index.php/2010/06/mother-tongue-education-in-south-africa-2/?print=print [Accessed on June 13, 2017].

Foucault, M. 1977. *Discipline and Punish*. London: Penguin.

Fox, M. 2016. *Challenging the concept of cultural deficit through a framework of critical-based education.* Available from http://www.globi-observatory.org/challenging-the-concept-of-cultural-deficit-through-a-framework-of-critical-based-education/ [Accessed on December 1, 2017].

Foyewa, R.A. 2015. English: The international language of science and technology. *International Journal of English Language and Linguistics Research,* 3(6), 34-41.

Gbenga, F. 2008. African philosophy and the method of ordinary language philosophy. *African Journal of Political Science and International Relations*, 2(4), 85.

Gramsci, A. 1971. *Selections from the Prison Notebooks of Antonio Gramsci*. New York: International Publishers.

Gray, E. D. (Ed.). 2014. *Doing research in the real world,* (3rd ed.). London: SAGE Publications Ltd.

Gredler, M. E. 1997. *Learning and instruction: Theory into practice*, (3rd ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Gutek, G. L. 2004. *Philosophical and ideological voices in education.* New York: Pearson.

Hanna, S. 2016. *Bourdieu in Translation Studies: The Socio-cultural Dynamics of Shakespeare Translation in Egypt*. New York: Routledge.

Henning, E. van Rensburg. W & Smith, B. 2004. *Finding your way in qualitative research*. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Hennink, M., Hutter, I. & Bailey, A. 2011. *Qualitative research methods.* London: SAGE Publications Ltd.

Hess, R. & Shipman, V. 1965 Early development and the socialization of cognitive modes in children. *Child Development,* 34, 369-886.

Igbo, J.N., Okafor, R.A. & Eze, J.U. 2014. The role of socio-economic background on self-concept and academic achievement of in-school adolescents in Nigeria. *International Journal of Research in Humanities, Arts and Literature,* 2(2), 1-10. Available from www.impactjournals.us [Accessed on February 18, 2018].

Irizarry, J. 2009. *Cultural deficit model.* Available from http://ltc.highline.edu/cce/Cultural%20Deficit%20Model%20&%20Alternatives%20-%20Irizarry.docx [accessed on 1 December 2017].

Jensen, E.A. & Laurie, C. 2016. D*oing real research: a practical guide to social research.* London: SAGE Publications Ltd.

Jonker, J. & Pennink, B. 2010. *The essence of research methodology: A concise guide for Masters and PhD learners in Management Science*. Heidelberg: Springer.

Jurasaite-Harbison, E. & Rex, L.A. 2010. School cultures as contexts for informal teacher learning. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 26(2), 267-277.

Kamwangamalu, N.M. 2004. The Language policy / language economies interface and mother-tongue education in post-apartheid South Africa: *Language problems and language planning,* 28(2), 131-146.

Kamwangamalu, N.M. 2010a. Vernacularization, globalization, and language economics in non-English-speaking countries in Africa. *Language Problems and Language Planning,* 34(1), 2.

Kamwangamalu, N.M. 2010b. Language policy and mother-tongue education in South Africa: The case for a market-oriented approach. *Linguistics, Language and the Professions: Education, Journalism, Law, Medicine and Technology*: 119-134.

Kim, B. 2001. Social constructivism. *In* Orey, M. (Ed.). *Emerging perspectives on Learning, Teaching and Technology.* Available from http://projects.coe.aga.edu/epltt/ [Accessed on April 25, 2018].

Kintsch, W. 1998. *Comprehension: a paradigm for cognition.* New York: Cambridge University Press.

Kirkpatrick, A. 2011. English as an Asian lingua franca and the multilingual model of ELT. *Language Teaching*, 44(2), 212-224.

Klu, E.K., Neeta, N.C., Makhwathana, R.N., Gudlhuza, W.J., Maluleke, M.J., Mulaudzi, L.M.P. and Odoi, D.A., 2013. Arguments For and Against the Use of Indigenous African Languages in South African Schools. *Studies of Tribes and Tribals*, 11(1), 35-38.

Kuhn, S. T. 1970. *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions*. (2nd ed.). New York: University of Chicago Press.

Kukla, A. 2000. *Social constructivism and the philosophy of science*. New York: Routledge.

Leeds-Hurwitz, W. 2009. Social construction of reality. *In Encyclopedia of communication theory*, 892-895.

Leppänen, S., Pitkänen-Huhta, A., Nikula, T., Kytölä, S., Törmäkangas, T., Nissinen, K., Kääntä, L., Räisänen, T., Laitinen, M., Pahta, P. and Koskela, H. 2011. *National survey on the English language in Finland: Uses, meanings and attitudes.*

Lichtman, M. 2006. *Qualitative Research in Education*: *A User's Guide*. London: Sage Publications.

Lichtman, M. 2013. *Qualitative Research in Education: A User's Guide*. (3rd ed.). London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Lincoln, Y. S.; Lynham, S. A. & Guba, E. G. 2011. Contractions, and emerging confluences, revisited. *In* Denzin, N.K. & Lincoln, Y.S. (Eds.). 2008. *Journal of Social Justice 23*. *The Sage handbook of qualitative research..* (4th ed), 97–128. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Lincoln, Y.S., & Denzin, N. K. (Eds.). 2008. *The Landscape of Qualitative Research*. (3rd ed.). London: Sage Publications.

Lipscomb, L., Swanson, J., West, A. 2004. Scaffolding. *In* Orey, M. (Ed.). *Emerging perspectives on learning, teaching, and technology.* Available from "http://epltt.coe.uga.edu/index.php?title=Scaffolding&oldid=3770"TESOL [Accessed on December 20, 2017].

Mack, L. 2010. The Philosophical Underpinnings of Educational Research. *Polyglossia*. 19, 5-11.

Makoe, P. 2007. Language discourses and identity construction in a multilingual South African primary school, English Academy Review: *Southern African Journal of English Studies,* 24(2), 55-70.

Maree, J.G. and Hansen, E., 2011. Identifying and dealing with the adaptability needs of an unwed pregnant teenager. *Journal of Psychology in Africa*, 21(2), 211-219.

Martin-Rojo, L. 2010. *Constructing Inequality in Multilingual Classrooms*. Berlin: Mouton.

May, T. 2011. Social Research: *Issues, Methods and Process.* (6ᵗʰ ed.). Buckingham, UK: Open University Press.

McMillan, H, J. 2012. *Educational Research: Fundamentals for the consumer*. (6ᵗʰ ed.). Boston: Pearson Education, Inc.

McMillan, H. J. & Schumacher, S. 2006. *Research in Education: Evidence-based inquiry*. (6ᵗʰed.). Boston: Pearson Education, Inc.

Mercer, N. 1995. *The Guided Construction of knowledge*. Clevedon: Multilingual matters.

Mertens, D. M. (2010). *Research and evaluation in education and psychology: Integrating diversity with quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods*. (3ʳᵈ ed.). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications

Msaule, P.R.. 2010. The right to receive education in one's language of choice: a fundamental, but contentious right. *Stellenbosch Law Review*, 21(2), 239-264.

O'Reilly, M. & Kiyimba, N. 2015. *Advanced Qualitative Research: A Guide to Using Theory*. London: SAGE Publications Ltd.

Okeke, C., & van Wyk, M. (Eds.). 2015. Educational Research: An African approach. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Ouane, A. & Glanz, C. 2010. *Why and how Africa should invest in African languages and multilingual education.* UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning.

Ovute, A.O. 2009. The influence of family socioeconomic status on basic science attainment of junior secondary school students. *The Science Teacher Today*, 3(1), 6-14.

Owusu-Acheaw, M. & Larson, A.G., 2014. Reading habits among students and its effect on academic performance: A study of students of Koforidua Polytechnic. *Library Philosophy and Practice*, 1-22.

Packer, M.J. 2011. *The Science of Qualitative Research*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Pandor, N. 2012. Statement by Mrs Naledi Pandor. Minister of Science and Technology at the announcement of the Malaria candidate drug. University of Cape Town, 28 August 2012, 12:00. Available from http://www.uct.ac.za/usr/press/2012/Pandor_statement _malaria_candidate.pdf [Accessed May 25, 2018].

Pandya, R. S. 2010. *Educational Research*. New Delhi: A P H Publishing Corporation.

Perez-Milans, M. 2013. *Urban Schools and English Language Education in Late Modern China: A Critical Sociolinguistic Ethnography*. New York: Routledge.

PhDStudent. 2015. Stating the obvious: Writing assumptions, limitations, and delimitations. *Retrieved from PhD Student http://www. phdstudent. com/Choosing-a-Research-Design/stating-the-obvious-writing-assumptions-limitations-anddelimitations*.

Posel, D. & Casale, D. 2010. Language proficiency and language policy in South Africa: Findings from new data. *International Journal of Educational Development,* 31(2011), 449 - 457.

Prah, K.K. 2010. Language, literacy and knowledge production in Africa. *In* Street, B.V. and Hornberger, N.H. (Eds.). *Literacy: Encylopedia of Language and Education*, 2, 29-39. Berlin: Springer.

Probyn, M. J., Murray, S., Botha, L., Botya, P., Brooks, M. & Westphal, V. 2002. Minding the gaps – an investigation into language policy and practice in four Eastern Cape districts. *Perspectives in Education*, 20(1), 29-46.

Qorro, M. 2009. 'Parents' and Policymakers' insistence on foreign languages as media of education in Africa: restricting access to quality – for whose benefit?*' In* Brock-Utne, B. and Skattum, I. (Eds.). *Languages and Education in Africa: A Comparative and Transdisciplinary Analysis.* Didcot: Symposium Books.

Rantsi, T. 2016. Transitioning from secondary school to tertiary education: what social investors should know. Available from http://www.ngopulse.org/article/2016/03/09/transitioning-secondary-school-tertiary-education-what-social-investors-should [Accessed on December 1, 2017].

Ravitch, S.M. & Carl, N.M. 2016. *Qualitative research: Bridging the conceptual, theoretical, and methodological.* London: SAGE Publications Inc.

Rawolle, S. & Lingard, B. 2008. The sociology of Pierre Bourdieu and researching of education policy. *Journal of Education Policy*, 23(6), 729-741.

Republic of South Africa (RSA). 1996. *Act. No. 108. Constitution of the Republic of South Africa.* Pretoria. Government Printers.

Republic of South Africa (RSA). 1996. *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa. Act 108 of 1996.* As adopted on 8 May 1996 and amended on 11 October 1996 by the Constitutional Assembly. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Republic of South Africa (RSA). 1996. *South African Schools Act. No. 84 of 1996*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Republic of South Africa. 2003. *National Language Policy Framework*. Pretoria: Department of Arts and Culture.

Republic of South Africa. Council on Higher Education (RSA CHE). 2013. *Report of the Task Team on Undergraduate Curriculum Structure: Discussion Document*. Pretoria: Council on Higher Education (CHE).

Richardson, J. E. 2007. *Analysing Newspapers: An approach from critical discourse analysis.* New York: Palgrave MacMillan.

Ritchie, J., Lewis, J., Nicholls, C.M. & Ormston, R. (Eds.). 2014. *Qualitative Research Practice: A Guide for Social Science Students and Researchers*. CA, Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Robertson, I. E. 2010. *Language and language education policy.* Seamless Education Project Unit. Ministry of Education: Government of the Republic of Trinidad and Tobago.

Robbins, D. (Ed.). 2016. *The Anthem Companion to Pierre Bourdieu*. Paris: Anthem Press.

Sánchez, R. A. 2007. Bourdieu's field theory, as a theoretical framework for analyzing the process of degree completion in graduate education. *Revista Electrónica de Investigación Educativa,* 9(1), 1-21. Available from: http://redie.uabc.mx/vol9no1/contents-dromundo.html [Accessed on March 27, 2018].

SANGONeT. 2016. *A culture crisis – reading in post-apartheid South Africa.* Available from http://www.ngopulse.org/article/culture-crisis-%E2%80%93-reading-post-apartheid-south-africa [Accessed on March 27, 2018].

Saunders, M., Lewis, P. & Thornhill, A. 2009. *Research Methods for Business Students.* London: Pearson Education.

Shaughnessy, J. J., Zechmeister, E. B. & Zechmeister, J. S. 2007. Observation. *In* Cohen, L., Manion, L. & Morrison, K. 2007. *Research Methods in Education.* London: Routledge.

Schreiber, J. & Asner-Self, K. 2011. *Educational Research: The interrelationship of questions, sampling, design, and analysis*. New-Baskerville: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Schwandt, T.A. 2007. *The dictionary of qualitative research.* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications Ltd.

Scott, C. J., Straker, Y. & Katz, L. (Eds.). 2009. *Affirming Students' Right to Their Own Language: Bridging Language Policies and Pedagogical Practices.* New York: Routledge.

Seale, C. (Ed.). 2012. *Researching society and culture.* (3rd ed.). London: SAGE Publications Ltd.

Sonntag, S. 2003. *The Local Politics of Global English: Case Studies in Linguistic Globalisation.* Lanhan, MD: Lexington Books.

Sosibo, Z. & Katiya, M. 2015. Closing the loop between access and success: Early identification of at-risk students and monitoring as key strategies used by a South African University. *International Journal of Educational Sciences*, 8(2), 271-279.

Spolsky, B. 2004. *Language Policy.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Stats, S.A., 2012. Census 2011: Census in brief. Available from http://www.statssa.gov.za/census/census_2011/census_products/Census_2011_Census_in_brief.pdf [Accessed on May 17, 2018].

Sullivan, A. 2002. Bourdieu and education: How useful is Bourdieu's theory for researchers? *The Netherlands' Journal of Social Sciences*, 38(2), 144-166.

Sung, C.C.M. 2014. Hong Kong university students' perceptions of their identities in English as a lingua franca context: An exploratory study. *Journal of Asian Pacific Communication*, 24(1), 94-112.

TESOL White Paper. 2012. A Principles-Based Approach for English Language Teaching Policies and Practices. Available from http://s3.amazonaws.com/TESOLwebsite/docs/may_2012/TESOL_Mahoob_Tilakaratna_whitepaperr.pdf [Accessed August 15, 2018].

The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English. 1995. (9th ed.). Oxford: Clarendon Press.

Vygotsky, L. 1978. Interaction between learning and development. *In* Gauvain & Cole (Eds.). *Readings on the development of Children.* New York: Scientific American Books. 34, 40.

Webb, V. 2006. English in Higher Education in South Africa: inclusion or exclusion. In *Multilingualism and Information Development Program (MIDP) symposium on Multilingualism and Exclusion, Bloemfontein*, 24-27.

Weber, J.J. & Horner, K. 2012. *Introducing Multilingualism: A social approach*. New York: Routledge.

Wolff, H.E., Brock-Utne, B., Alidou, H., Boly, A., Heugh, K. and Diallo, Y.S. 2006. Optimizing learning and education in Africa-the language factor: a stock-taking research on mother tongue and bilingual education in Sub-Saharan Africa. Available from http://www.adeanet.org/adea/downloadcenter/Ouga/B3_1_MTBLE_en.pdf [Accessed May 17, 2018].

Wood, D., Bruner, J.S. & Ross, G. 1976. The role of tutoring in problem solving. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 17(2), 89-100.

Wright, L. 2014. Implications of the National Language Policy in the South African Classroom. Available from http://www.englishacademy.co.za/language-policy-in-south-africa/ [Accessed March 31, 2017].

Young, M. (Ed.). 1971. *Knowledge and Control*. London: Macmillan.

APPENDIX A   Consent letters

education
Department of
Education
FREE STATE PROVINCE

Enquiries: BP Mojau
Reference: 16/4/1/13– 2013

Tel: 051 404 9287
Fax: 086 725 7588
E-mail: research@edu.fs.gov.za

2013 – 03-16

Mr CE Amaech
114 Zastron Street
10 Claron Court
BLOEMFONTEIN
9300

Dear Mr CE Amaechi

REGISTRATION OF RESEARCH PROJECT

1.   This letter is in reply to your application for the registration of your research project.

2.   Research topic: **Language and power relations in the Further Education and Training band in South Africa**

3   Your research project has been registered with the Free State Education Department.

4.   Approval is granted under the following conditions:-

4.1   The name of participants involved remains confidential.

4.2   The questionnaires are completed and the **interviews are conducted outside normal tuition time**.

4.3   This letter is shown to all participating persons.

4.4   A bound copy of the report and a summary on a computer disc on this study is donated to the Free State Department of Education.

4.5   Findings and recommendations are presented to relevant officials in the Department.

5.   The costs relating to all the conditions mentioned above are your own responsibility.

6.   **You are requested to confirm acceptance of the above conditions in writing to:**

**DIRECTOR: STRATEGIC PLANNING, POLICY AND RESEARCH,
Old CNA Building, Charlotte Maxeke Street OR Private Bag X20565,
BLOEMFONTEIN, 9301**

We wish you every success with your research.

Yours sincerely

MJ MOTHEBE
DIRECTOR: STRATEGIC PLANNING, POLICY AND RESEARCH

Directorate: Strategic Planning, Policy & Research – Private Bag X20565, Bloemfontein, 9300 – Room 301, Old CNA building,
Maitland Street, Bloemfontein 9300 - Tel: 051 404 9283 ; Fax: 086 6678 678   E-mail: research@edu.fs.gov.za

education

Department of
Education
FREE STATE PROVINCE

2013-04-16

Mrs NEH Motsoeneng
Director: Motheo Education District
C/o St Andrews and Markgraaf
9300

Dear Mrs Motsoeneng

NOTIFICATION OF A RESEARCH PROJECT IN YOUR DISTRICT

Please find attached copy of the letter giving **Mr CE Amaechi** permission to conduct research in sampled schools in the Motheo Education District.

Mr Amaechi is unemployed and is studying for PhD in Language Practice with the Central University of Technology.

Yours sincerely

M. MOTHEBE
DIRECTOR: STRATEGIC PLANNING, POLICY AND RESEARCH

education and training

Lefapha la Thuto le Katiso
Departement van Onderwys en Opleiding
Department of Education and Training
NORTH WEST PROVINCE

OFFICE OF THE AREA MANAGER: MADIBENG AREA OFFICE

Inquiry: M.G.Moeng

Tel: 0731785903

Email: molefego@webmail.co.za

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Celestine Amaechi(Mr), from Central University of Technology ,Free State, is hereby granted permission to collect data at Tsogo Secondary School for his research. This permission is granted with the hope that the principal will also have a say in this.

Regards

M.G.Moeng.

DEPT. OF EDUCATION NWP
MADIBENG AREA OFFICE

2013 -05- 2 2

PRIVATE BAG 5082, BRITS 0250
TEL: 012 252 6809
FAX: 012 252 6954
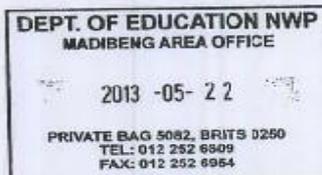
Province of the
EASTERN CAPE
DEPARTMENT OF BASIC EDUCATION

STERKSPRUIT DISTRICT: OFFICE OF THE CES-IDS&G
Luncedo Teachers' Centre, 874 Broadway Street, Aliwal North, 9750.
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA, Website: www.ecdoe.gov.za

Tel   : 051 634 2009   Fax : 051 634 2009
Enq   : P.P. Nkomana   Cell : 073 226 7817
19 August 2013

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

RE: PERMISSION TO COLLECT DATA

This serves to confirm that CELESTINE AMAECHI was granted permission to conduct research in our schools as requested by him earlier on. Permission has been granted for the sole purpose of education only.

We wish him well in his research and we will be glad to get access to his final product as it could help us improve our situation.

Yours sincerely

P.P. Nkomana
Circuit Manager

LOUIS BOTHA

HOËR TEGNIESE SKOOL
TECHNICAL HIGH SCHOOL

U Verw:
Your Ref:

Ons Verw:
Our Ref:

Datum:
Date:

22 April 2013

Re: AMAECHI:CE (Student No 212087290)

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Refer to the above and wish to advise you that the above visit the
school on 22 April 2013 at 08h00 for a interview with Mr Hendriks,Mrs
Smith and classroom observation.

MR JC HENDRIKS
HEADMASTER

We care
Ons gee om

138

Tsoseletso High School

Our Ref: ....
Your Ref: ....

06 December 2017

To whom it may concern

This serves to confirm that Mr CE Amaechi from CUT in the Free State was at this school on 29 April 2013 to collect his research data.

I hope you find this in order.

Yours faithfully

TSOSELETSO HIGH SCHOOL
BOX 23624,KAGISANONG 9309

0 6 -12- 2017

pp ....

MMV Motlolometsi
Former Principal

PRINCIPAL
TEL: 051 435 2485

ELETSA SECONDARY SCHOOL

3048 ZONE5
LETLHABILE
0264

E.S.S

P.O.BOX 1742
LETLHABILE
0264

TEL: 0716562451

THROUGH DIFFICULTY
WE SHALL PROSPER
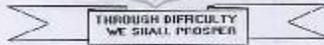
21 May 2013

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

This is to certify that Amaechi CE, a student of Central University of Technology (CUT) Free State was here to collect his research data for educational purposes.

Faithfully yours

SC Bodigelo (Principal)

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION NW
ELETSA SECONDARY SCHOOL
2013 -05- 2 1
P.O. Box 1742, Letlhabile, 0264
Principal
071 656 2451
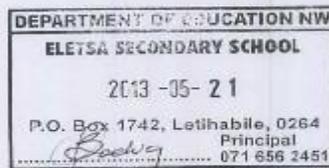
TSOGO SECONDARY SCHOOL

Physical Address	Postal Address
2396 Roma Road	P.O. Box 911350
Mmakau	Rosslyn 0200
Tel/Fax: 012 703 3127	E-mail: tsogosecondaryschool@gmail.com

LETTER OF CONFIRMATION

This is to certify that Amaechi Celestine (Mr.) from the Central University of Technology (CUT) Free State was here to collect research data for educational purposes. He was granted the permission to do so.

Yours Sincerely

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
TSOGO SECONDARY SCHOOL
2 2 MAY 2018
Site Manager
PO BOX 911 ASSIST (PRINCIPAL) 2 703 3127
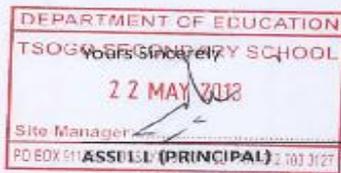
WILLIAM PESCOD HIGH SCHOOL

PRINCIPAL:
Mr. R. PRINSLOO

SECRETARY:
Mrs. MDC Alexander

FAX: (053) 8323362
TEL: (053) 8323362

P. O. BOX 1065
KIMBERLEY
8300

125 Years - 2012

Email Address: williampescod@telkomsa.net

This letter serves as confirmation that Mr Amaechi C.E. a student from Central University of Technology, Free State was here to collect data for his educational research. He did collect his data today the 12th of August 2013.

Thank you

PRINCIPAL – R. PRINSLOO

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
WILLIAM PESCOD HIGH SCHOOL
2013 -08- 1 2
Tel/Fax: 053 832 3362
Church Street, Kimberley 8301
NORTHERN CAPE PROVINCE
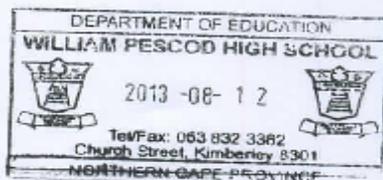
Hoërskool **FLOORS** High School

Stokroos Street
Florianville
Kimberley
8301

Stokroosstraat
Florianville
Kimberley
8301

This letter serves as comfirmation that Mr Amaechi C. E. a student from Central University of Technology, Free State was here to collect data for his educational research. He did collect his data today 12 th of August 2013.

THANK YOU

(P.P.)

PRINCIPAL
P. KOK

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION NORTHERN CAPE
HOËRSKOOL FLOORS HIGH SCHOOL
STOKROOS STREET / STRAAT
FLORIANVILLE
KIMBERLEY 8301
TEL: 053 871 1013
FAX: 053 871 4741
DEPARTEMENT VAN ONDERWYS VOORD-KAAP

143

MALCOMESS SECONDARY SCHOOL

P.O. BOX 250

TEL: (051) 633 – 2359 FAX: 051 633 2359

This serves to confirm that Mr Amaechi C.E of the Central University of Technology,Free State collected his Educational Research data on the 19th August 2013.

Yours sincerely

NGOGODO M.M (PRINCIPAL)

BISHOP DEMONT
SENIOR SECONDARY SCHOOL

P.O. Box 954
ALIWAL NORTH
9750
Tel. & Fax (051) 63 42250

This serves to confirm that Mr Amaechi C.E of the Central University of Technology, Free State collected his Educational Research data on the 19th August 2013.

Yours sincerely

BISHOP DEMONT
SENIOR SECONDARY SCHOOL
NO 3
P.O. Box 954, Aliwal North 9750
Tel. & Fax. (051) 634 2250

19/8/2013.

MA. LENTOOR
(PRINCIPAL)

APPENDIX B   SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS

Research title: Language and power relations in the Further Education and Training band in South Africa

The purpose of this interview is to collect data required for education purposes only. Please, rest assured that by all intents and purposes, your identity will remain anonymous while your confidentiality is protected.

Semi-structured interview schedule for:

School Principals

Interviewer: Researcher

Respondents: Principals of eight sampling schools – A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H.

Duration: 30mins.

1. Does your school have a language policy? If yes, what is it? What challenges, in your view, is the policy posing to the school, especially, at Grade 10 level?

2. In your view, what is the relationship between language and economy in South Africa?

3. In your view, what challenges are learners (in your school) whose first language is not English facing in the course of their studies?

4. How might language choice in schools affect individuals' job opportunities in South Africa?

5. What, in your view, should be done to resolve the differences in learners' use of language in the classroom in general and in Grade 10 in particular?

Semi-structured interview schedule for:

Eight experienced English language teachers at Grade 10 - 12 level.

Interviewer: Researcher.

Respondents: Gr. 10 - 12 English Language teachers of sampling schools – A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H.

Duration: 30mins.

1. How long have you been teaching at this grade level? What are your experiences teaching a second language to learners from different cultural and linguistic backgrounds?

2.   Is there any language policy for your school? How was it determined?

3.   What, in your view is the relationship between language and economy in South Africa?

4.   In your view, what are some of the differences among your learners' use of English in the classroom?

5. How might language choice in schools affect individuals' job opportunities in South Africa?

6. What, in your view, should be done to resolve the differences in learners' use of language in the classroom in general and in Grade 10 level in particular?

Signed:

Amaechi, C.E

Cell number: 0729020527.

APPENDIX C   CLASSROOM OBSERVATION GUIDE

Classroom observations

Classroom observations are lens I am using to investigate, understand, and interpret the purposively selected teachers' language behaviour and motivations, teacher-learners' interactions in language discourses, learners' interactions among themselves in language use, and pedagogic practices that might facilitate the process of teaching and learning in the classroom.

In observing the English classroom lesson, the observer operates as an observer participant. That is, I am identified as a researcher who does not take on the role of the participants (McMillan, 2012:289).

Classroom Observation Guide

Observation Schedule: Participants A – H.   Schools A – H.

Lesson observed: English Gr. 10 - 12   Date:

Duration:

Focus on:	Description	Comments
1. Teacher's introduction of the lesson		
2. Classroom interactions		
2.1 Teacher-learners' interactions in classroom discourses		
2.2 Learners' interactions in classroom discourses		
3. Teacher's explanation for learners' better understanding of the content of the lesson		
4. Learners' questions and answers in the language of teaching and learning (LoTL)		
4.1 Teacher's reaction / response to the learners' use of language in the language of teaching and learning (LoTL)		
5. Teacher's instructional strategies to ensure that learners participate equally and fairly in classroom discourses		

APPENDIX D   CLASSROOM OBSERVATION TABLES

SCHOOL A

TABLE 4. 2. CLASSROOM OBSERVATION, ENGLISH GR. 10: SCHOOL A.

Focus on:	Description			
	Outstand-ing	Good	Fair	Poor
1.Teacher's introduction of the lesson		X		
2.Classroom interactions		X		
3. Teacher-learners' interaction in classroom discourses			X	
4. Learners-learners' interaction in classroom discourses			X	
5. Teacher's explanation for learners' better understanding of the content of the lesson		X		
6. Learners' questions and answers in the language of teaching and learning (LoTL)			X	
7. Teacher's response to the learners' use of language in the (LoTL)		X		
8. Teacher's strategies to ensure learners' equal and fair participation in classroom discourses		X		

SCHOOL B

TABLE 4. 3. CLASSROOM OBSERVATION, ENGLISH GR. 10: SCHOOL B.

Focus on:	Description			
	Outstanding	Good	Fair	Poor
1.Teacher's introduction of the lesson			X	
2.Classroom interactions		X		
3. Teacher-learners' interaction in classroom discourses		X		
4. Learners-learners' interaction in classroom discourses			X	
5. Teacher's explanation for learners' better understanding of the content of the lesson			X	
6. Learners' questions and answers in the language of teaching and learning (LoTL)			X	
7. Teacher's response to the learners' use of language in the (LoTL)		X		
8. Teacher's strategies to ensure learners' equal and fair participation in classroom discourses		X		

SCHOOL C

TABLE 4. 4. CLASSROOM OBSERVATION, ENGLISH GR. 10: SCHOOL C.				
Focus on:	**Description**			
	Outstanding	**Good**	**Fair**	**Poor**
1.Teacher's introduction of the lesson	X			
2.Classroom interactions		X		
3. Teacher-learners' interaction in classroom discourses		X		
4. Learners-learners' interaction in classroom discourses		X		
5. Teacher's explanation for learners' better understanding of the content of the lesson		X		
6. Learners' questions and answers in the language of teaching and learning (LoTL)			X	
7. Teacher's response to the learners' use of language in the (LoTL)		X		
8. Teacher's strategies to ensure learners' equal and fair participation in classroom discourses		X		

SCHOOL D

TABLE 4. 5. CLASSROOM OBSERVATION, ENGLISH GR. 10: SCHOOL D.				
Focus on:	**Description**			
	Outstanding	**Good**	**Fair**	**Poor**
1.Teacher's introduction of the lesson	X			
2.Classroom interactions		X		
3. Teacher-learners' interaction in classroom discourses	X			
4. Learners-learners' interaction in classroom discourses		X		
5. Teacher's explanation for learners' better understanding of the content of the lesson		X		
6. Learners' questions and answers in the language of teaching and learning (LoTL)			X	
7. Teacher's response to the learners' use of language in the (LoTL)		X		
8. Teacher's strategies to ensure learners' equal and fair participation in classroom discourses	X			

SCHOOL E

TABLE 4.6. CLASSROOM OBSERVATION, ENGLISH GR. 10: SCHOOL E.				
Focus on:	**Description**			
	Out-stand-ing	**Good**	**Fair**	**Poor**
1.Teacher's introduction of the lesson	X			
2.Classroom interactions		X		
3. Teacher-learners' interaction in classroom discourses		X		
4. Learners-learners' interaction in classroom discourses		X		
5. Teacher's explanation for learners' better understanding of the content of the lesson	X			
6. Learners' questions and answers in the language of teaching and learning (LoTL)		X		
7. Teacher's response to the learners' use of language in the (LoTL)	X			
8. Teacher's strategies to ensure learners' equal and fair participation in classroom discourses	X			

SCHOOL F

TABLE 4. 7. CLASSROOM OBSERVATION, ENGLISH GR. 10: SCHOOL F.				
Focus on:	**Description**			
	Out-stand-ing	**Good**	**Fair**	**Poor**
1.Teacher's introduction of the lesson	X			
2.Classroom interactions		X		
3. Teacher-learners' interaction in classroom discourses	X			
4. Learners-learners' interaction in classroom discourses		X		
5. Teacher's explanation for learners' better understanding of the content of the lesson		X		
6. Learners' questions and answers in the language of teaching and learning (LoTL)			X	
7. Teacher's response to the learners' use of language in the (LoTL)		X		
8. Teacher's strategies to ensure learners' equal and fair participation in classroom discourses		X		

SCHOOL G

TABLE 4. 8. CLASSROOM OBSERVATION, ENGLISH GR. 11: SCHOOL G.				
Focus on:	**Description**			
	Outstand-ing	**Good**	**Fair**	**Poor**
1.Teacher's introduction of the lesson			X	
2. Classroom interactions			X	
3. Teacher-learners' interaction in classroom discourses			X	
4. Learners-learners' interaction in classroom discourses			X	
5. Teacher's explanation for learners' better understanding of the content of the lesson		X		
6. Learners' questions and answers in the language of teaching and learning (LoTL)			X	
7. Teacher's response to the learners' use of language in the (LoTL)		X		
8. Teacher's strategies to ensure learners' equal and fair participation in classroom discourses			X	

SCHOOL H

TABLE 4. 9. CLASSROOM OBSERVATION, ENGLISH GR. 10: SCHOOL H.				
Focus on:	**Description**			
	Outstanding	**Good**	**Fair**	**Poor**
1.Teacher's introduction of the lesson		X		
2.Classroom interactions			X	
3. Teacher-learners' interaction in classroom discourses			X	
4. Learners-learners' interaction in classroom discourses			X	
5. Teacher's explanation for learners' better understanding of the content of the lesson		X		
6. Learners' questions and answers in the language of teaching and learning (LoTL)			X	
7. Teacher's response to the learners' use of language in the (LoTL)		X		
8. Teacher's strategies to ensure learners' equal and fair participation in classroom discourses		X		

APPENDIX E   **CLASS OBSERVATION PHOTOS**

APPENDIX F: TRANSCRIPTION OF INTERVIEWS

With semi-structured interviews administered on the participants, the researcher selected and presented "quotes that are most representative of the research findings" (Anderson, 2010:3). In the following presentation, the symbols P1 up to P8 and T1 to T8 represent principals and teachers respectively.

4.3.1 PRINCIPALS' RESPONSES

Question 1: Does your school have a language policy? Moreover, what challenges, in your view, is the policy posing to the school, especially, at grade 10?

P1: He said, *"I don't think it's the policy; learners come from different language backgrounds – they speak Sesotho, Setswana, IsiXhosa, etc. They must take English first additional language as home language and must speak English both within and outside the classroom".*

P2: He said his school has a language policy, which is *"English only"*. He pinpointed that "*learners do not have the command of English; they are not conversant with this language of learning and teaching (LoLT)".*

P3: This respondent said that her school approved English and Afrikaans as language policy. She however affirmed that the school was phasing out Afrikaans because the feeder primary schools were abolishing Afrikaans from their institutions. On the challenges her school is experiencing with the policy, the participant stated that learners had English as their first additional language (FAL). "*They interacted in Setswana and translated to English*". In other words, they used transliteration in their communication.

P4: The interviewee said that the School Governing Body (SGB) formulated English language as their medium of instruction (MoI). He however clarified that Setswana (the language of the host community) was compulsory reiterating that "*any learner that fails it must rewrite the examination; here learners offer Afrikaans as the second additional language*". Reflecting upon what challenges the school language policy is posing to his school, P6 remarked that "*learners, especially foreigners, do not pass well probably because of their inability to communicate in Setswana; most educators switch from English to Setswana and vice versa thereby plunging both foreign learners and Setswana speakers into confusion*"

P5: The participant replied, "*it is a big problem; two-thirds of the learners are Setswana speaking. That is to say, Setswana is their home language. Therefore, communicating in English as their LoLT affects their studies*". He however stressed that, learners must use English as the language of learning even though it was a big challenge stating, "*We are looking at English in relation to the future of these learners*"

P6: The respondent said the school language policy was English for non-Afrikaans speakers but Afrikaans for speakers of Afrikaans. She commented that the problem was clear. Although English language had control over the languages of learning and teaching in the school, it was not a home language to both Afrikaans speakers and speakers of other local languages. "*Therefore, these learners struggle to interact effectively in English with educators in the classroom*".

 P7: This interviewee declared that Xhosa and Sesotho were the predominant spoken languages in his school. In spite of that, English, the FAL, served as the language policy and cut across all the grades of the school. The SGB of the school determined the language policy. Speaking on what challenges the policy is posing to the school, P7 explained, *". . . interpreting English is a challenge to learners because it is not their mother tongue and so the SGB would revise the language policy to be in line with the language majority of the learners".* He added, *"The matric final examination papers should include other official languages since it is stated in the Constitution of South Africa that they must have equal treatment in use".*

P8: The experienced participant (22 years) has been in this multi-racial school since its inception in 1992. The DoE and SGB of the school determined English and Afrikaans as the school language policy. On the challenges of the policy to the school, the respondent said the following:

(i)   We have no library now because the old one is now a classroom.

(ii)   The books are stored away in boxes and nobody uses them.

Question 2: What is the relationship between language and economy in South Africa?

P1. The respondent reflected: "*You need to use statistics to rate this relationship. You must be able to speak English to access the South African economy because English is an international language.*" He asserted *"...the inability to communicate in English constituted a barrier to economic opportunities because the holders of the economy are Afrikaans and English speakers, . . . but because they deal mostly with international people they use English most of the time".*

P2: He put the inability to communicate in English as a barrier to economic opportunities stressing that *". . . if you are unable to communicate with the holders of South Africa's economy, it is a big disadvantage even to accessing the world economy".*

P3 The interviewee replied, *". . . most of the government activities are done using English; most of the people in charge of the economy are English speakers. Therefore, people must be able to speak English for mutual understanding".*

P4: He advised that learners must study Afrikaans to associate with the controllers of the economy. He however, stressed the need to "*take the study of English more seriously regarding its place internationally*".

P5: The school head emphasized the need for learners to do the basics in English and Afrikaans, as these are the economic languages of South Africa. He stressed that "*learning the basics of the two languages will encourage people to offer them employment*".

P6: The participant encouraged the use of English to understand the language of economy. The deputy maintained, "*. . . the backlog of the problem of understanding English begins in the foundational classes – the primary schools*" stressing that "*. . . language is important in economy and politics and learners need to understand the economy of their country through language.*"

P7: Responded in brief by saying that "*English is not just the language of South Africa's economy, it is a universal language; English has a big role to play to make it work*"

P8: This participant related the story to the lack of a library, by saying, "*no reading, no business*".

Question 3: What challenges are those learners whose first language is not English facing in the course of their studies?

P1: The participant stressed that "*Learners rather come from other local languages than English; they must have big challenges.*"

P2: The respondent asserted that "*…there exist a great challenge, which is caused by the foreign language; I can say . . . this creates all sorts of problems; I can say studying in one's language promotes smooth learning*".

P3: She stated that "*. . . comprehension is a challenge; they translate from Setswana to English; they speak Setswana all through at home and with their friends outside the classroom*".

P4: "*…..learners speak only their home language (Setswana) at home. Even educators in Economics and other subjects use Setswana to facilitate the learners' understanding in class; this rather causes problems*". He stressed, "*We try as much as possible to discourage such practice.*"

P5: To that, the interviewee said, "*. . . we have a diversity of learners from Congo, Nigeria, and others*". He said, "*English and Afrikaans are both first additional languages (FAL) for this school. This situation causes language differences in the classroom. Some learners speak out in the classroom while others, because of communication barrier remain silent and inattentive*".

P6: The school head emphasised the need for teachers to help learners to reason. He said ". . .

The learners do not understand the need of English for other subjects; the foundation is in the primary school".

P7: To that, he replied, *"Eh e . . . the final exam papers (Matric) are set in English and Afrikaans. There is no link between home language practice and school language practice. English serves as the second additional language".* He emphasized a point that *"when we change (the language policy), the local languages could also be accommodated in the setting of final examination papers in the Republic of South Africa."*

P8: He stated the following: *(i) 80% of the school is black learners. (ii) English is not their first language (F1). (iii) Even the Afrikaans- speaking learners struggle a lot for the same reason. (iv) They usually do not speak English because they are taught in their home language. (v) Grades 10 are more in number because they are always pushed from 8 and 9 to 10. (vi) The common papers are set only in English and Afrikaans. (vii) Indeed, the learners have challenges with the language policy because they have not, in any way been exposed to the use of English as a language of instruction."*

Question 4: How might language choice in schools affect learners' job opportunities later?

P1: He had these to say. (i*) ". . . The learners themselves prefer to learn in English. (ii) Their perception is that English is a door to economic benefits. (iii) They must write matric in English and / or Afrikaans*". He also mentioned (in passing) *"the parents even search to admit their children in English-medium schools for future rewards".*

P2: The interviewee said, *". . . until people access the holders of means of production, they will not have the chance of a job offer".*

P3: The interviewee had this to say, *". . . to express themselves in English is a problem and therefore a big challenge outside school. This challenge dissociates them from others"*

She repeated that *"the majority of the learners who have Setswana as their home language struggle to participate actively in the classroom language discourse; English also becomes a challenge to the Congolese whose mother tongue is French".*

P4: The respondent argued, *". . . it would be a problem if a learner chose Setswana here and happened to cross over to another province for schooling. This is probably why English stands as the major language of learning and teaching and therefore compulsory"*

P5: He reacted that *"if you are applying for a job in South Africa, you must involve English. English is an international language and so learners can apply with English at any part of the world".*

P6: She, the deputy principal said, *"Learners switch from Afrikaans to English. For job seeking they have to be handy with the English language"*.

P7: The respondent pointed out that *"English is compulsory but if learners are learning in their mother tongues, they will have advantage in understanding the lessons. They understand the content better in their language. They can have the job and do it with confidence"*

P8: He replied, *". . . almost everything with the government is written in English and so most schools have English as their language policy"*.

Question 5: What, in your view should be done to resolve the differences in learners' use of language in the classroom?

P1: He said, (i) *"They have to be taught in English in the primary schools. (ii) But they were educated in their local languages especially seeing them come from the rural communities. (iii) They speak Xhosa, Sotho, Setswana, etc. (iv) We do extra lessons in English for their improvement. We need to lay language foundation for learners in their formative years in school as that would help them during their secondary school studies"*

P2: This participant responded with what can be termed 'divided opinion' thus: (i) *We learn a language by speaking it. Therefore, we can put up programmes such as debate, and week of speaking only in English. (ii) Institute a specific language week in the departments, such as Sesotho Week. (iii) If we consider the Bill of Rights, we can say that learners' right of language choice is denied them; multilingualism is in principle*. He retorted, *". . . they, because of economy, force us to learn their language. This is hegemony; proffering advice to the government might meet with financial implications and material undertones; local languages are not economic languages"*

P3: She said, *"Learners must be encouraged to read English books extensively, example, newspapers to develop their reading abilities / skills. Stage debates. Teachers must make learners read books and come back to explain / discuss them"*.

P4: The respondent believed that *"all my educators are qualified, and that accounted to the 100% success in English, and Home Language the school has maintained. The government should employ qualified educators, retrain educators, especially those who had their training long ago and organize regular workshops to update the knowledge of educators"*.

P5: He recommended that the national government *"should, if possible, make funds available for these local languages to be used in learners' final assessments. He added, "Local language teachers should receive training for the effective teaching of the nine official languages as such training would help promote multilingualism"*.

P6: Lastly, the respondent advised the government to *(i) Increase reading periods. (ii) Help learners after school. (iii) I feel sorry that they force learners to answer questions only in English and Afrikaans in their final examination".*

P7: He said, *(i) Learners must sit in one classroom for their activities. (ii) The government should treat the official languages equally. (iii) We must be careful about how the SGB determines our language policies and deal with the languages appropriately.*

P8: He proffered *"the provision of language translators is a dire need"* since learners used Afrikaans in their primary schools. He asserted, *". . . the government should train educators well to teach learners, if we recall that there are no more training colleges since it discontinued the former ones in 1994 as the aftermath of apartheid regime".* The participant added that *"nobody wanted their children to be teachers; therefore, ". . . it is important to train and retrain teachers to benefit the education system".*

4.3.2 TEACHERS' RESPONSES.

Question 1: What are your experiences teaching a second language to learners from different cultural and linguistic backgrounds?

T1: She pondered over the question and rattled on thus, *". . . these learners are not exposed to English . . . they speak their mother tongues; they often watch televisions. They do not speak correctly and their written communication in the Language of learning and teaching which is English is very poor".*

T2: The teacher summarized his feedback to question one thus: *(i) Learners do not do things academic for themselves. (ii) They do not pick up newspapers, novels, etcetera, to read; they are lacking in reading culture and this affects their academic performance adversely".*

T3: Her school language policy is English. She said, *"English is the spine of all other subjects. You use English to interpret instructions in Mathematics and Science, hence the need to master English; e e e. . . learners are from different language backgrounds but predominantly Setswana speakers; at home, they speak many languages but in the classroom, they must speak English only. They are not allowed to switch-code. From first to second term, learners often have big problems but they improve from the third term".* She said, *"Afrikaans speakers learn in Afrikaans while others in the majority are taught in English. This accommodates our language policy that has Afrikaans and English approved".*

T4: She expressed regrets that *"learners had the problem from their language backgrounds . . . – Setswana, but English remains the language policy of this school; they mispronounce words and find it difficult to express themselves in English".*

T5: The teacher was open to say, *"It is difficult to teach these learners in English as they are mostly Afrikaans-speaking . . . but they improve later".*

T6: The teacher said to teach that cadre of learners was headache to him. He concluded by saying, *". . . they mix 'he' and 'she' together in their sentences; they shift (code-switch) from the local languages to English and vice versa as they were brought up that way".* He added, *"Familiarize learners with libraries".*

T7: Reflecting on her experiences teaching learners from different cultural and linguistic backgrounds (Question 1), she, in corroboration with the majority of other participants said, *"Since their home language is different, these learners find it difficult to cope in English lessons; with English taken as home language, learners no longer learn their mother tongue."*

T8: Stated his experiences in classroom interaction with learners from different cultural and language backgrounds (Question 1) thus: (i) *It is sometimes too difficult to interpret the language. (ii) They think in their home language but write essays in English. (iii) Social networking confuses them as they write incorrect spellings using short message services (SMS) language in class assignments. For example, "I lv u" for "I love you". (iv)They do not participate actively in class because they are ill-equipped to use correct grammar of the language in their sentences; they do not understand if you do not integrate the local languages; they just keep quiet in class. (v) In literature, learners find it difficult to differentiate between literal and figurative language especially the poetic language of poems. (vi)They are not fluent. (vii) Some feel shy to ask questions and I tell them to answer questions not minding if they are failing or not.*

Question 2: Is there any language policy for your school and how was it determined?

T1: She said that the National Department of Education (NDoE) determined the language-in-education framework and knowledge that schools, via provincial departments, shared with learners and teachers. *"Although we encourage our learners to speak English always, their out-of-classroom language remains the mother tongues".*

T2: He stated that English as school language policy of his school *"was established by the SGB because every learner has to embrace the international language – English to survive".*

T3: She said English was determined as school language policy *"because it is the spine of all other subjects".*

T4: The school uses English and Afrikaans as their language policy. The interviewee mentioned, *"It is a national policy of South Africa".*

T5: She replied, *"English serves as language policy of this school. They are all accommodated in their studies".*

T6: The respondent said, *"English and Afrikaans are basic in our language policy. However, the medium of instruction is English. It is not specific for our school; it's a national policy".*

T7: He considered all languages important, but English more. *"English serves as our school language policy. This was determined by the SGB because of the global aspect of the language; it's for interaction with other people even the world out there – in government, commerce, etcetera".*

T8: He asserted, *"even though English is difficult for learners to use, it is determined by the school as the language policy. We evaluate English as the Home Language of the school".*

Question 3: What, in your view is the relationship between language and economy in South Africa?

T1: The respondent said the following: *"Language determines everything. It influences the economy. The more fluent you are, the better you can communicate, and the more you can attract people from other countries. We use English to teach all subjects, as it is a world language. Most parents do not even want home languages".*

T2: He replied thus, *"English is important for international business".* He lamented that *"local languages fill no gap in the access to economy"* stressing that *"however the learners' intelligence / proficiency in the local languages, they are more or less nil internationally; learners like commonplace spoken English not the standard British kind of English".*

T3: She indicated simply, *"for you to access the economy of South Africa, you need to be able to express yourself in English confidently and freely".*

T4: She replied, *"There will be a drop in the economy if learners fail to pass English and or Afrikaans. It might be so because there would be no successors to those who monitor the economy of the nation".*

T5: This interviewee put it this way: *". . . my learners and I are more familiar with English* (international language). *English is an advantage especially with regard to the future benefits to learners.*

T6: T6 stressed, *"in fact, the economy of this country is determined mostly by the users of the English language because you must interact with other business people from outside South Africa".*

T7: The interviewee insinuated, like a majority of other respondents, that, *"English will be benefitting them (learners) to join the economy of the nation".*

T8: T8 advised, *"Learners must learn English to accommodate themselves in the economy of the nation".*

Question 4: In your view, what are some of the differences among your learners' use of English in the classroom?

T1: She explained, *"Learners lack the vocabulary to express themselves; they may not be dull anyway. You can only acquire language after eight years. It is therefore difficult for them to acquire and communicate in English as a home language. If they are brought up in Sotho, Tswana, Afrikaans, and so on, they struggle with English in the secondary school. It is not only the school's problem; parents share in the problem because they do a terrible thing not to expose their children to English".* She concluded that those *"learners who began early to learn in English distinguished themselves in the classroom discourse.*

T2: This respondent said, *"It depends on the family backgrounds; what do these learners read at home? A learner's use of language in the classroom reflects his language practice at home".*

T3: This interviewee expressed that, *"Classes are heterogeneous – some are excellent, others struggle, and yet, some are poor. Excellent ones pose a problem to those who are poor as they answer quickly and easily. They do not learn the same way. Some socio-economic factors are responsible for that. These might be (i) pandemic problem such as sickness and disease. Parents may be sick and jobless. This affects learners' learning adversely. In other words, this is a family background issue. (ii) A learner's low self-esteem may result in his / her poor learning. If a learner sees himself as a failure, he would fail. Some feel they are ugly while others desire to be admired. A mere mention of the word 'ugly' to a learner depresses him / her whereas a statement such as "You are lovely" makes them feel excited. (iii) Age also contributes to the poor performance of learners. Learners who are between fourteen and fifteen years struggle to know what or who they are".*

T4: T4 presented the following: (i) *"Some are confident while others are shy. (ii) Most of them watch and watch television at home rather than reading their books. (iii) In school, we do not have much time to practise reading because the new CAPS programme has done away with Response to Literature. Nevertheless, I make them do a book review; creative writing and comprehension afforded learners the opportunity to read".*

T5: She uttered, *". . . it is not that they do not know English, but they are used to their mother tongue".*

T6: He stated that, *"The major differences comprise the school composition. They are blacks and coloureds; different characters and cultures; different pronunciations of words. In fact, certain external factors play a role in their linguistic behaviours".*

T7: He maintained that, *"Some learners are introverted – shy to express themselves in English while others feel bold to speak in front of the class".*

T8: The participant emphasised that *"learners speak Xhosa and Sesotho at home but speak English at school. In this case there is no way the learners can thrive with such language practice".*

Question 5: How might language choice in schools affect individuals' job opportunities in South Africa?

T1: He said English is the world language and so parents opted for it for their children. He, like a majority of other participants stated the significance of the use of English in the sciences, Mathematics, and literary works. He further expressed that the obvious choice is English since the development around, necessitates the use of English. *"My class is always interactive because I motivate learners to put confidence in themselves; you do not pick on any of the learners", she said.* However, she emphasized the importance of speaking more languages than one's mother tongue only thus: *"Restricted number of people will offer you job if you can only speak Sotho. . . Tswana. The more languages you speak the more chances you have to get jobs; small regional languages restrict job opportunities."*

T2: The participant answered with a rhetoric question thus: *"Are you going to be incorporated in the wider community in South Africa and elsewhere? It is an advantage to know English in South Africa, or they strike a balance in understanding English with reference to their mother tongue but time constraint forbids us from translating from English to mother tongue for these learners."*

T3: The participant stated that, *"wrong language choice must affect learners adversely. For example, in South Africa, if you are doing law, you must know Afrikaans and English. We channel them relative to the resources we have in high schools. Actually learners are denied their rights; the law says 'if applicable' but it does not apply at all."*

T4: The interviewee claimed, *"My school has no problem as far as English is concerned. "If they do well in English and Afrikaans, they stand the chance to be employed in the job market; speaking English seems to be associated with prestige."*

T5: The respondent said, *"It is a problem when a learner studied in Afrikaans language but interviewed by an English speaking employer". It means such a job seeker will find it difficult to communicate during the job-seeking event",*

T6: He pronounced, *"English as the standard language of South Africa and it is an advantage if they (learners) are equipped with many African languages such as Afrikaans, IsiZulu, Sesotho, and others".*

T7: He said, *"A child excelling in mother tongue could also be an interpreter in the mother tongue in a work place or be a teacher of such language in a school"* stressing that, *"indigenous languages are expedient for learners who want to be interpreters / translators in courts, or become teachers of local languages".*

T8: The teacher appraised English language in relation to job opportunities in South Africa thus: *(i) . . . to look for a job, you must be able to communicate in English with the holders of the economy. (ii) English is the way for communication as it is the language of the government, commerce, workplace, parliament, and etcetera. This is a coloured school, but English brings all together".*

Question 6: What, in your view, should be done to resolve the differences in learners' use of English in the classroom in general and at Grade 10 level in particular?

T1: The participant replied, *"You need to know the extroverts and introverts to know how to deal with them. We do not expose learners; we go close to them, even pat them on the back to raise their confidence level. Assist them in every way you can".* She admitted, *"Though learners help one another in an interactive way, they do not have the trait of leadership at this stage".* She said, *"Prescribing extensive reading for learners is important, as that would increase their vocabulary. Newspapers, novels and other academic materials promote learning while short message services (sms) language and slangs do not promote spelling nor give any acceptable grammatical structure. Colloquialisms, such as, Mom and Daddy, braai, in the dark, must be avoided".*

T2: Lastly, T2 advised the government to *"make our local languages as powerful as English even as it will take much in terms of materials and money"*

T3: She proposed *(i) Familiarize learners with libraries and let them read magazines and newspapers freely (ii) They must know that they can be equal to one another in academics. (iii) Interact with all learners in the classroom and make them feel that they are trying. (iv) Engage them in debates to unleash their potentials. (v) Make use of the dictionary as you read. (vi) Drill them to make five correct sentences a week to beef up their language. If we would apply all or most of the above strategies, our schools would record a steady high rate of academic improvement".* T3 advised both provincial and national departments of education to *"train enough local language teachers to teach in primary schools since South Africa needs to promote multilingualism; but multilingualism will confuse learners if they must write the matric exam in English".* She emphasised that *". . . the government must incorporate with educators to participate at the policy-making level".*

T4: The interviewee advised the government and education stakeholders to (i) *"encourage educators to teach English in English – do not switch-code for that could dilute the use of English. (ii) The government should incorporate educators in the making of education policies".*

T5: She advised both schools and departments of education to *"make the language of learning and teaching compulsory in schools since learners must write in either Afrikaans or English".*

T6: He said these *(i) Get learners to read always to improve their language studies. (ii) While learners should engage and maintain their local languages, their parents must help to promote their learning of English in consideration of the learners' future careers. (iii) The government should go back to the foundation – build libraries and provide books, access internet for researchers; let "READING" have a place as a subject from Grade R. To improve everything entails building the foundation of reading".*

T7: He said *(i) Learners must be encouraged and exposed to English; watch television subtitles in English programmes. (ii) They should make use of the internet and social networking. (iii) We have a library they can enter to do their assignments but time constraint is a challenge. (iv) I engage my learners in debates, drama and essay writing. (v) Language-in-education policy makers need to push learners to study the content subjects in their mother tongues so that they can integrate them with English to pass well. (vi) The use of English by learners is important for international purposes in order not to lock them into South Africa. (vii) English is so competitive that it has become more accessible and understandable in the world".*

T8: Finally, T8 uniquely proposed the following as her resolution: *"Mix the learners in all activities because equal treatment of the official languages is not working; what do we do? English unites the nation but policy takes it (in principle) the other way round".*

1. **Teachers' experiences with learners of diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds**

Learners' speech and or written form of communication are poor perhaps because they lack reading culture. In other words, they are not exposed to LoLT – English language. They also code-switch and mix the pronouns, "he" and "she". This results from translating from their local languages to English. Learners lack discipline probably because government abolished corporal punishment. They (learners) have privileges / "rights" to be undisciplined. In other words, many of them do not pay attention in class.

There is virtually no link between home languages and the language of learning and teaching in schools.

Question 2 was just to ascertain the availability of a language policy in schools and the reason(s) for determination.

1. Differences among learners' use of English in classroom

Learners brought up in local languages like Sesotho, Setswana, unlike those who began in their lower grades to communicate in English, struggle to cope in classroom discourse. Learners' learning styles, self-esteem, socio-economic factors and some other family latent matters contribute to their language power relations in the classroom. Learners also do not engage in home studies because of their busyness with watching televisions. This contributes to their inability to perform well at school. That programme of "Response to Literature" is no more since the inception of CAPS programme in schools. Furthermore, learners have different linguistic behaviours because of their heterogeneity – different ethnic groups, cultures and familial traditions. Lastly, learners' extroversion or introversion affects their language capabilities in the classroom.

2. Effects of language choice on job opportunities

Development around necessitates the choice of English but speaking more languages than one's regional languages facilitates job security. Within the language policy, learners' rights seem denied them as the "if possible" clause does not apply. Most job providers are English speaking and so, an English-speaking job seeker would find it easy to communicate during the job hunting process.

It is better to be equipped with both English (standard language) and many other African languages such as Afrikaans, isiZulu, Sesotho and others. If a learner is excellent in the local language(s), s/he could be an interpreter in courts and or a teacher in schools. Finally, English is the key language of government, commerce, workplace, and parliament. It brings all together as it sounds prestigious.

3. Intervention strategies for better classroom language discourse

Do not expose a learner's weaknesses; rather, pat him / her on the back to raise their confidence level. Prescribe and encourage learners to read newspapers, novels and academic materials; discourage the writing of SMS text messaging and slangs as these

do not promote correct spelling nor give any acceptable grammatical structure. Make local languages as powerful as English even as doing that will cost much money. Let learners make use of library services in their studies. Furthermore, there is need to train and re-train teachers for local language teaching to promote multilingualism. This will minimize code switching in teaching and learning. Government and teachers must team up to participate in education policy-making matters.

Let "READING" have a place in the school curriculum. Teachers and learners must use the Internet and social networking academically. Lastly, we must emphasize the use of English in order not to lock learners into South Africa. Remember, English is a unifying standard international language. Most of the participants were of the view that "English would lead learners to be successful in future careers, furnish them with social status and lift them from poverty".

WEEKEND LUNCH

9A   SUMMARY

Read the passage below and in not more than 60 words summarise the ways in which you can train yourself to improve your self-esteem.

- Your summary must be in point form.
- List at least 7 facts.
- Number each fact and write down only one fact per line.
- Use full sentences.
- Use your own words as far as possible.
- Indicate the number of words you have used in brackets at the end of your summary.
- Do not exceed the word limit given above.

Self-esteem is how you view yourself. People with a low self-esteem tend to be unhappy, worried and afraid of new situations. They feel as if they never achieve anything. People with a high self-esteem are confident, successful and happy with themselves. You can be a person with a high self-esteem if you want to. You can train yourself to achieve it.

Make a habit of keeping your thoughts positive - a positive attitude is the key to success. Instead of thinking, "I'm no good", change it to, "I can do it." Train yourself to believe in a confident manner and you will find that people around you will begin to react positively towards you. Stop blaming others as an excuse for not achieving what you want to do. "If only I had been born into a rich family" and "It's all my parents' fault" are lame excuses which will get you nowhere.

If you wrote a good essay won a race or did a good deed, write it down. Whenever you feel low, take out your list of achievements and look at the things you do well. This will remind you that you actually achieve all the time, you just haven't noticed it.

Lastly, life does not have to be lived alone ... learn to rely on other people you respect and learn from them. You could, for example, find a positive friend who will stop you from being negative. Don't allow yourself to be influenced by the past. If yesterday was a bad idea, put it behind you and start every new day afresh. It's your life so see to it that you stay in control, keep yourself firmly in the driver's seat.

[10]

9B   MIXED EXERCISES

TENSES

Rewrite the following sentence starting with the words given. I watch every soccer game on TV.

1.1   She usually ...... (2)
1.2   Do you enjoy ......? (2)
1.3   When I was young ...... (2)

GRAPHIC LITERACY

Look at the cartoon below and answer the questions.

WIZARD OFID
by Brant Parker
and Johnny Hart

2.1   The apostrophe is used for two different reasons in the two sentences below. Explain why.
2.1.1   Hilda's licking my plate. (Does it indicate possession or does it show permission?)
2.1.2   Hilda's hair is long. (2)
2.2   Write out the full words in the place of each of the contractions used in the cartoon. (5)
2.3   Fill in the correct preposition: He hasn't talked to a woman ...... a long time. (1)
2.4   Why is bold print used in frames 1,2 and 3? (2)

[15]

169

7 D SENTENCE TRANSFORMATIONS

Re-write the sentences below starting with the words given.

1. She runs faster than I do.
   I don't ....

2. 'Andrew, please take the book to Mogale tomorrow," she begged.
   She begged ..../

3. The sponsors will hand out the prizes soon.
   The prizes ....

4. We were well prepared so we were not afraid to face the other team.
   Having ......

5. Mr Shai often takes the office keys. Sometimes the security guards take the keys.
   Either Mr Shai ......

6. The History teacher is pretty. The Physical Science teacher is just as pretty.
   Both the ....

7. The pupils cleaned the library every day.
   The library .....

8. Do you enjoy working here?
   You .... , ...you?

9. She was tired after work so she decided to buy Kentucky chicken for dinner.
   Being .....

10. Will you please take me home tomorrow, Mary?
    She asked ....

[10]

NAME : ....   GRADE :...................

Roxy has been diagnosed to be HIV positive and has been referred for counseling. Her Family members are still not aware of her status.

Write a conversation between her and her mother, where she discloses her status, by filling in the blank spaces.

Roxy : (shivering) Mom, there's something which I need to tell you .....but don't know how.

Mom : What is it , Roxy, my child ? (looking worried)

Roxy : ....
....

Mom : ....
....

Roxy : ....
....

Mom : ....
....

Roxy : ....
....

Mom : ....
....

Roxy : ....
....

Mom : ....
....

Grdde: 9
William Pescod High School. Kimberley.

6.   OBITUARIES

Writing an obituary

Unfortunately we all have to face the loss of a colleague or loved one at some stage in our lives. An obituary is a brief biography of a person who has recently died and is published as a mark of respect to that person. Below is an example.

IN MEMORIAM

Obituary

Henry George Martinsen was a member of the Lakeside Fire Department for twenty-nine years,, and during that time he was responsible for the training of many fine young firemen. He was a well-known member of the community, and served on the Town Council for a total of eight years, community affairs being his particular portfolio.

In the aftermath of the recent earthquake which devastated the Lakeside High School, Henry was active both in organising the various teams who were digging trapped pupils and teachers out of the rubble, and in calling out words of encouragement to those still awaiting assistance.

He was killed when a wall collapsed as he was checking a dangerous area for further survivors.

He died as he lived, in selfless service to his community. The people of Lakeside are proud to have known him, and offer their sincere condolences to his widow and two sons.

---

7.   THE ADVERTISEMENT

Employ any of the following **advertising techniques and attention-getting features to design a catchy, effective advertisement**

Alliteration
Assonance
Ambivalence/pun
Figurative language
(metaphor, simile, euphemism
hyperbole, personification etc.)
Repetition
Rhetorical questions
Emotive language
Rhyme and/or rhythm
Slogans/catch phrases
Distorted language
Assumptions
Flattery of the reader/viewer
Slang
Competitions

Bold writing
Stereotypes
Animals/children
Specific settings
Filmic techniques
Colour
Pictures
Specific target audience/market
Specific style
Idiomatic expressions
Foregrounding/backgrounding
Innuendo
Fact/opinion
Jargon
Lay-out

(See also notes on advertising in the unit on Reading Skills.)

ACTIVITY 1

1.   Read the advertisement below. Decide whether each sentence in the advertisement is a fact or not. Write down the sentences that you think are *facts*.

2.   Advertisements often use many adjectival and adverbial phrases (descriptive phrases). These do not add much to the basic meaning, but arouse the feelings of the reader. Here are some such phrases from the advertisement:

-    at their best
-    rich in (protein)
-    especially (important)
-    growing (children)

-    rapid (learning)
-    loved (ones)
-    nutritiously balanced (diet)

UNIT 3

If your bag has a flap, tuck it against you. Or carry your bag *under* your coat if there's room. Don't keep your keys in your bag. If someone steals it, he can get into your house and perhaps take your car.

Choose a cash machine that has people around and always put your money away immediately. You'd think sensible people would know this. But watch sometime how many people wander outside counting their notes.

When you're driving, always keep your doors locked. For a television news show, I stood at a busy intersection and pulled on the doors of 15 cars. Only two were locked.

Carjackers look for people sitting at traffic lights with a map out. Sometimes they stage collisions to entice you out of your car. If your car is hit from behind, don't get out. Instead, put on your hazard lights and roll down your window just enough to hear the other driver's voice. If someone appears saying he's a policeman, ask for ID; if he has none, drive away. You can report the accident later by phone.

13. RESTATEMENT ACTIVITIES

An effective way of testing your learners' language skills is to ask them to rewrite or paraphrase sentences. Use the example below to design your own Restatement Activities.

A. Answer the following questions. Pay particular attention to the instructions. Do not change the meaning of the original sentence.

1. I dreamed that I would play football for my country.
   Begin: I dreamed of ...
2. The motorist denied driving through the red traffic lights.
   Begin: The motorist denied that ...
3. The travellers were afraid that they would lose their way in the thick fog.
   Begin: The travellers were afraid of ...
4. He reminded me of my responsibility for looking after the money.
   Begin: He reminded me that ...
5. I have difficulty in understanding Mathematics.
   Begin: I find it difficult ...
6. My parents always insisted on our being well-dressed.
   Rewrite the sentence using a 'that' clause.
7. It looks as if the negotiations have broken down.
   Begin: It seems that ...
8. Sipho admitted to breaking the window.
   Rewrite the sentence using a 'that' clause.
9. He claims to be a qualified accountant, but I don't think he is.
   Rewrite the sentence beginning. He claims that ...
10. I warned him of the dangers of swimming in the river.
    Begin: I warned him that ...

B. The following questions all involve rewriting sentences with different verbs or verb forms.

1. We did not inform them that the match had been postponed.
   Begin: We neglected ...
2. The pilot managed to land the aircraft even though it had run out of petrol.
   Rewrite the sentence using 'succeed in'.
3. Are you a member of the Scout Club?
   Rewrite the sentence using 'belong'.
4. I encourage him not to be lazy at school
   Rewrite the sentence using 'discourage from'.
5. He said that he did not commit the crime.
   Begin: He denied ...
6. Small children seem to like bananas better than apples.
   Rewrite the sentence using 'prefer'.
7. I propose starting at once.