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An exploration of how schools and teachers interpret and implement the Language in Education Policy for their classroom practice: a case study

By

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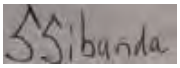
For my (grand) mother.

DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

The work, an exploration of how schools and teachers interpret and implement the Language in Education Policy for their classroom practice: a case study, herewith submitted, is my own work. Wherever I used the work of others, I have acknowledged them. This work has not been submitted to any other institution, in whole or part, for awarding of any degree.

Signature: 

Sikhumbuzo Sibanda

ABSTRACT

This case study explored how schools and teachers interpret and implement the Language in Education Policy for their classroom practices. Scholars like Alexander and Block (2012) note that the South African Language in Education Policy (LiEP) is one of the advanced policies globally. Other scholars like Perry (2015) and Ngcobo (2015) state that the policy in South Africa has failed when it comes to implementation. It is against this background that the research explored how schools and teachers interpret and implement the Language in Education Policy for their classroom practice in three primary schools in Kuruman, Northern Cape. The research methodology was qualitative and it used a case study approach. The study is informed and framed by the Language Policy framework and the CDA (Critical Discourse Analysis). The research sites were three Grade 4 classes and the participants were three teachers, three principals and three SGB Chairpersons from three different schools (one school in deep rural, another in semi-urban and the third in urban) in Kuruman. This case study, located in the interpretive paradigm, employed individual semi-structured interviews, non-participant classroom observations, document analyses and field notes for data collection.

The study revealed that teachers are not versed in LiEP and their classroom practice is therefore not based on policy but on their own perceptions. Classroom practices were incongruent with what the Language in Education Policy requires. Even other documents which support the Language in Education Policy like the school language policies, were not used as guiding documents for classroom practice. Lastly, this study revealed that, despite a plethora of literature on how practice engages and disengages with Language in Education Policy (LiEP), the deconstruction of colonial and apartheid education is still a challenge especially in language use, perceptions of mother tongue instruction and the hegemony of English.

One of the recommendations of this study is that teachers must be taught to use Languages of Learning and teaching required in their areas and they should also be given continuous professional development courses on policies so as to improve their practice. Language Policy Units should be set up within the provincial and district Departments of Education that would support the implementation of LiEP.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my dearest grandmothers, Ester and Angela and Joyce, who sacrificed mountains to see me receiving the best education and schooling. I am because you are. To my wife Mildred and children (Sikhumbuzile, Colile, Zolile, Zothile and Lwandle), you remain my life and pillar of strength.

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Finally, to my supportive wife and children for their support, love and faith in me when the chips were down and I felt like giving up.

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1. Chapter 1 – Introduction

1.1. Introduction

The main purpose of this chapter is to orientate the reader about this study. The background and context of the study are outlined followed by motivation, rationale, and the significance of the study. Research questions, informed by the goal of the study are posed then finally an overview of the chapters is outlined.

1.2. Background and context of the study

Due to the colonial and apartheid past and the fact that South Africa is a multilingual society, there has been much debate and controversy surrounding Language in Education Policy and practice. A short history of South African language policies helps us to understand the current policy. The conquest of South Africa by Britain and Holland from the 17th through 18th to the 19th centuries marked the beginning of the process of colonisation. The British took over the Cape colony from the Dutch in 1815 then replaced Dutch with English in 1822 as the only official language. Then after the resistance of the Dutch and transformation of Dutch to Afrikaans, Dutch and English were legislated to be the official languages of the Union of South Africa in 1910 before Afrikaans became an official language in 1925. After coming to power in 1948 the National Party, which was ruled by Afrikaners, identified a key role for language policy in pushing for and implementing its policy of apartheid (which means separateness). This policy of apartheid education was based on the belief in moedertaalonderwys or mother-tongue education. This belief dates back to the 19th-century taalstyd in which the Boers fought the British policies of assimilation and Anglicization so that they could be educated in their own language. Sonntag (2003) points out that the aim was to suppress blacks to whites (Afrikaner and British) while affirming Afrikaner national identity.

Education had been segregated by race under the Dutch and the British for centuries. Then in 1953, the colonial rulers introduced the Bantu Education Act (1953) which reinforced apartheid through the education system that not only segregated education by race but also divided (and ruled) black South Africans further on ethnic and linguistic lines. Schools in South Africa got different systems and qualities of education according to race so as to maintain and reproduce the colonizers' supremacy over the colonized. The 1953 Language in Education Policy ensured that English and Afrikaans were used as media of learning and teaching in black schools at the expense of indigenous languages. When South Africa

became a republic in 1961 English and Afrikaans were again designated as official languages.

The Bantu Education Act (1953) further advocated for the extension of mother tongue medium of learning in black African schools from grade 4 to grade 8. The reason behind the extension was to hinder black African learners' proficiency in Afrikaans and English (which were used for assessment) and limit their academic achievements so that they may not compete with English and Afrikaans speakers for jobs. This ironically resulted in black African learners embracing English, resisting education through their mother tongue since they associated it with backwardness, and they then shunned learning Afrikaans which they regarded as a sign of oppression.

Some of the issues of note that were the focus of the Bantu Education Act of 1953 are that the primary school curriculum was designed to prepare students for their subservient role in society, in contrast to the more academic curriculum in "white", "coloured" and "Indian" schools (Hartshorne,1992:65-68).Secondly mother tongue instruction was to end at primary phase (8 years) so as to prevent African language speaking students from developing ambitions outside their own communities (Hartshorne, 1995:309-310).Thirdly Afrikaans and English were offered as subjects in primary school and fourthly the medium of instruction in secondary school had to be switched to both Afrikaans and English (in equal proportions). Lastly secondary school curriculum similar to that in "white" schools, was given to a small proportion of students who had not already dropped out of the school system during the primary phase.

Heugh (2007) further states that Bantu Education was hated by black South African parents and learners. They hated particularly the mother tongue instruction policy because they viewed it as a means to prevent them from access to power. The poor quality of Bantu education added more resentment. The ideology of preventing natives access to power is reflected by Verwoerd (1954:83), the former South African Prime Minister who is widely regarded as the architect of apartheid , when he states that "Education must train and teach people in accordance with their opportunities in life, according to the sphere in which they live…education should have its roots entirely in the Native areas and in the Native environment and Native community…The Bantu must be guided to serve his own

community in all respects. There is no place for him in the European community above the level of certain forms of labour."

The 1976 Soweto uprising marked the rebuff of Bantu Education and the end of Afrikaans as a language of instruction in black South African schools. Heugh, (2003) states that after the 1976 uprising, the level at which mother tongue instruction would be used was reduced to Grade 6 and later to Grade 4 followed by a shift to English. This affected the proficiency of the language of learning and teaching and as a result the pass rate particularly the matriculation pass rate for black African learners declined. The 1976 uprising had several effects in language and learning. The use of African languages as medium of instruction became associated with Bantu Education and the issue of home language as a language of instruction remains tainted up to today. On the other hand, Afrikaans, which was imposed by the apartheid system to African learners as a language of instruction was associated with the oppressive apartheid system and was therefore vilified yet English was regarded as a vehicle of social prestige and mobility as well a language of liberation.

At the beginning of a democratic South Africa in 1994, the new government implemented an inclusive language policy by promoting the development and use of 11 official languages (isiZulu, Afrikaans, Xitsonga, Sepedi, Setswana, SiSwati, Tshivenda, Sesotho, isiNdebele, isiXhosa and English) and also acknowledging sign language as an official language. The Language in Education Policy (LiEP, 1997), points out that individuals have the right to choose the language of learning and teaching among the 11 official languages. Thus the policy provides for mother-tongue instruction yet at the same time it gives leeway for parents and teachers to choose English given its perceived power. The LiEP is shaped by Chapter 65 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, (1996) which besides legislating official languages elaborates on language rights, historical context of the official languages and states corrective measures in relation to indigenous languages.

The LiEP (1997) states that South Africa inherited a language in education policy that was burdened with inconsistences, sensitiveness and tensions and reinforced by discrimination through language and race. The discrimination affected learners' access to the education system or their success within it. The LiEP (1997) further states that it aims to bridge the gap between home languages and languages of instruction. Thus if implemented well, the

policy will help learners not only to have better access to education but also to succeed in education to counter past imbalances created by colonialism and apartheid

One of the reasons for the mismatch between the Language in Education Policy and practice is that parents and guardians want their children and wards to be taught in English as they think that English is the language of empowerment. Alexander (2008), argues that mother tongue education is still associated with the effects of Bantu Education and so black people prefer English as the language of learning and teaching. Trudell (2016) asserts that globalization has enhanced the role and status of English in education as it is seen as the key to socio-economic progress and global citizenship. Schools with pupils who are neither Afrikaans- nor English-speaking must figure out when and how to use English or in a minority of cases, Afrikaans, as the language of instruction as non-language subjects in are available only in English or Afrikaans and examined only in English or Afrikaans. Schools that are referred to as Straight-for-English start using English as the language of instruction from grade one. Mother-tongue schools, in contrast, choose to teach in the home language of the majority of learners in the school during grades one, two and three while they take either English or Afrikaans as a language subject to help learners prepare for the switch to English instruction in grade four, which often times is a difficult process to learners.

Another reason for the mismatch between practice and policy is as highlighted by Alexander (2008) that in South Africa the teachers who are supposed to use English as the medium of teaching and learning do not have the necessary proficiency to serve as good examples to learners because for most of them English is a second or third language. Those that chose to teach in the indigenous languages are not trained to do so and even if they do, the language of assessment is English or Afrikaans and never any other official languages.

Faced with the challenge and power of English Trudell (2016), asserts that using mother tongue instruction decreases learner dropout rates, improves classroom participation, and increases the likelihood of family and community participation in the learner's learning. Furthermore, mother tongue instruction boosts the child's cognitive learning process and learner-centred learning. Resultantly the majority of teachers, parents and School Governing Bodies (SGBs) are facing the dilemma of choosing either English or mother tongue and the path, which Alexander (2000) and Heugh (2000), that argues they use both

English and African languages (mother tongue based bilingual education) is not fully explored.

1.3. Motivation, Rationale and significance

1.3.1. Motivation, rationale and significance of the study

Thomas and Collier (2011) in DBE (2010) state that language can be described as the vehicle through which we learn to organize thoughts and experiences which is the core of many interdependent social, cognitive and affective factors that shape learning. DBE (2010) asserts that it is essential to study how language is being used for learning and teaching in schools as it can be argued to be the most important vehicle through which learning and teaching take place. Learners have to understand the language of learning and teaching in order to express their thoughts, grasp concepts and organize their experiences. Further, Christie (2013:10) notes that "Language remains the most fundamental resource with which participants negotiate and construct their meanings in classrooms." It is therefore important to study how language is actually being used in the classroom for teaching and learning purposes.

Probyn (2012) also notes that language and learning are closely intertwined and learners' language proficiency will obviously have an impact positively or negatively on their ability to learn. It can further be noted that poor language skills in the language medium contribute both to poor subject knowledge and learners' inability to communicate what they know. It is important therefore that careful consideration and research is carried out on the choice of the language used for teaching and learning through policies that are drafted and or that are practiced.

A closer look at language policies also motivated this study. Bamgbose (2015) asserts that language policies result from deliberate choices that affect the status of all languages in a multilingual situation. A decision to use a given language as a language of instruction automatically raises the status of that language while reducing the status of other languages to perhaps non-use in education or use only as a subject. In most former colonized African countries, the language of instruction in schools is a source of exclusion in several ways: firstly, the mother language or familiar language is often ignored in favour of English or Afrikaans and consequently, the child faces difficulties in understanding concepts which he/she would have understood if presented in a familiar language. Secondly, even if a

child's home language is used as a language of instruction, the widespread practice is to replace it with English after the first three years. Thirdly, because of the preference for an imported language as a language of instruction, children become less and less proficient in their languages and, psychologically, the erroneous impression tends to be created that African languages cannot be used for intellectual purposes because only the colonizers' languages can be.

Another motivation for this research has been legal battles in respect of language policy in schools because of interpretation or misinterpretation (whether deliberate or not) of policies in schools. A significant number of cases regarding language policy in schools have been taken to courts. To mention a few, in 2009 the Mpumalanga Department of Education was at loggerheads with Hoerskool Ermelo, in January 2017, two predominantly Afrikaans schools, Hoerskool Montana took the Gauteng Department of Education to court over the admission of more learners who speak English arguing that a separate school must be built for English speaking learners.

The SGB of Hoerskool Fochville adopted Afrikaans as a medium of instruction but was forced to teach in both English and Afrikaans in order to accommodate 37 black pupils. They ignored requests by the Gauteng Department of Education (GDE) to abandon a language policy that excluded English speaking pupils from attending the school. Pupils in the school were reported to be not only frustrated but also suicidal because they blamed their performance on the difficulty they experienced in learning through Afrikaans. The SGB challenged the Gauteng Education Department's power or legality to override the school's language policy. The Congress of South African Trade Unions (COSATU) and civil society organizations, like Section 27, joined the Education Department in the Constitutional Court Case on whether the language policy as implemented at Fochville, Rivonia Primary School and other schools was a violation of the constitution and policy. On the 25th of April 2014, the SGB of Vela Langa Primary School, in Uppington, Northern Cape, was found to be in violation of the South African Constitution (1996). The court declared the school's English based language policy invalid and ordered for a formulation of one that would accommodate the home languages of the learners.

On Friday 5 July 2019, parents and learners in Northern Cape, Namaqualand District, marched to the Department of Education to register their concerns of lack of English

medium schools in their area. This forced learner to be educated through Afrikaans medium which they were not well-versed in and they said it resulted in their children performing poorly at school and frustrated parents who could not help with homework. Scholars like Ngcobo, (2015), acknowledge that although the policy has been commended its implementation is still problematic. The policy is seen as a desired goal which might not be understood for it to be achieved.

Another case of LiEP and implementation conflict is a case in Gauteng. On the 21st of November 2019, the Gauteng department of Education proposed to introduce English and Afrikaans as the languages of teaching and learning in certain township schools. Unity Secondary school in Daveyton already offers six official languages, Afrikaans is about to be added as the seventh. The leadership of the school was opposed to this proposition. The principal said there is a shortage of teachers and parents would rather have other African languages like IsiZulu, Setswana and Sepedi prioritized instead of Afrikaans. The cultural and linguistic organization, the Commission for Promotion and Protection of the rights of Cultural, Religious and Linguistic Communities (CRL) entered the fray. They want languages to be treated equally. Basic Education Department Deputy Director-General Mamiki Maboya alluded that because of language, Gauteng is experiencing high repetition and dropout rates. He said that it means in terms of content, learners have to grapple with the Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT) and the content of choice.

These examples of court cases and conflicts have crucial implications for the interpretation of laws and policies on language and subsequently their implementation. These cases motivated this study because if individuals and institutions use courts of law to implement the LiEP it confirms that the language policy is fraught with ‘clauses of conditionality’ meaning that it can be interpreted differently and therefore implemented differently as the conditions therein allow or it may be that policy is either unknown to implementers or deliberately misinterpreted. This means as Ngcobo (2015) asserts that the policy can be interpreted differently many times, thereby producing and reproducing itself in actual practice. The courts in their interpretation of the LiEP are creating other texts which then makes it difficult for the policy implementers who are teachers to interpret and implement policy.

Blackledge (2010) is of the view that schools become sites of discrimination and marginalization of leaners and parents by (consciously or unconsciously) creating activities that require specific culturally based knowledge and behaviours while disregarding their everyday lives in their homes. Bamgbose (2015) concurs when he states that Language policies can be an extreme form of discrimination and exclusion. In other words, the LiEP can still perpetuate discrimination and be an instrument for neo-colonialism. The LiEP if not used properly, monitored, interpreted or practiced becomes a source of conflict. Parents and pupils are alienated, excluded and humiliated all in the name of the Language in Education Policy.

Grade 4 was chosen because it is generally the grade where learners switch from mother-tongue instruction to English or Afrikaans. Howie et al. (2017) note that the overall Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS, 2016) of Grade 4 learner achievement scale was very low, attaining the lowest score of the 50 education systems and this has been credited to the complication of South Africa's Language in Education Policy. Nomlomo (2006) states that in South Africa the shift from mother tongue medium of instruction to second language medium of instruction occurs very early in the child's schooling life (from Grade 4). The consequences of this early transition usually are that the learners are neither proficient in the mother tongue nor in the second language. Some learners experience difficulties in reading and writing as they grapple to grasp the second language if they have not acquired basic skills in their mother tongue.

This thesis shares the Teaching and Learning International Survey's 2018 (TALIS) aim which is to offer valid, opportune and comparable information in order to evaluate and define Language in Education Policy so as to develop high-quality teaching professionals. It was further motivated by the Minister of Basic Education, Mrs M.A. Motshekga's call in the 2018 TALIS report that Education policy must encourage teacher growth, inspire and enable innovation, identify and share best practice to reduce perceived gaps between professional vision and pedagogical practice.

Another motivation for the study had been calls from the government through the Minister of Basic Education in South Africa, for decolonizing Education in South Africa by looking at languages of instruction for African emancipation. Motshekga (2019) said that this decolonization of South African schools is a key priority for the government and that this

decolonization process would take place through the teaching and promotion of African languages. Motshekga further stated that learners' Home Languages should be used as Languages of Learning and Teaching (LoLT) for longer. Further, it is hoped that the findings of this research would help in navigating towards the government's call for decolonization of education through an emancipatory LiEP.

The other significance of this research is that such type of research had not been done in Northern Cape, Kuruman where results might be different from previous studies and therefore be valuable to the national discourse. As a former English First Additional Language (FAL) and Home Language (HL) lead teacher (who worked closely with Learning Area Managers), former Northern Cape Provincial Chairperson of the English Teachers' Association, current National President of the National Association of English Teachers Association(NAETSA) and classroom support lecturer in Northern Cape, the researcher has over the years noted the concerns raised by parents, teachers and subject advisors on the LiEP and practice in Northern Cape which warranted this research. The intent of South Africa's Language in Education Policy is not the country's actual language in education practice.

Furthermore, researchers like Probyn et al (2000) have already identified reasons for failure of schools to implement the LiEP as follows: schools do not clearly understand the scope of their responsibilities and powers, they do not know the policy, and they lack experience and expertise to develop their policies. The education department district officials, who should guide and advise schools, also lack knowledge of the LiEP. In addition, the ushering in of the LiEP was dwarfed by the simultaneous launch of the Curriculum 2005, so DBE officials and teachers were too engrossed with curriculum implementation to attend to the LiEP (NCCRD 2000). Taylor and Vinjevold (2003) are of the view that existing realities and practices in schools weigh against implementing the policy.

If we understand why there are gaps between policy and practice we will be better positioned to take necessary measures to address the full potential of the LiEP, and as Wright (2017: 111) states, "[u]ntil we honestly acknowledge why our Language policy is not thriving in practice, we will certainly misunderstand the dilemmas facing teachers daily in the classroom." Further, the research sought to help distinguish between what Wright (2017;

118) views as “the theoretically possible, the ideologically desirable, and the practically achievable.”

Lastly, the final motivation was as Ricento (2016) posits that the interplay between policy and practice provides language policy research with a certain vitality, unpredictability, and attractiveness as an area of research. This attracted the researcher as mentioned earlier, held various positions in Northern Cape from being a teacher through being a Head of Department to being a lead teacher and currently a classroom support lecturer. All these positions and experiences drove the researcher to seek to understand over the years the link between Language in Education Policy and Practice. Parmegiani (2012) helps me to conclude my motivation by stating that given the extreme levels of inequality that characterize the South Africa’s linguistic market, language policies and practices are really an important component in the route to transformation and a critical look at policy and practice in the South African context is very essential.

1.3.2 Rationale for choosing teachers as the main focus participants

While it is agreed that teachers are not the sole custodians or role players of LiEP and that teachers are part of a larger eco-system where language teaching and attitudes circulate, it must be acknowledged that they are the key role players. There has been a wide range of research critiquing the Language in Education Policy (LiEP) (DoE,1997), there has been little work that deals with a careful and nuanced analysis of decisions schools have made and how this impacts the teachers’ interpretation and actual classroom practice. More so, there has been little research that has dealt with Language in Education Policy and teachers’ practice in Northern Cape.

There have been calls from scholars like Hornberger & Johnson (2007), Menken &Garcia, (2010) and Valdiviezo (2013) to explore ways in which schools could be places for bottom-up reform in policy practices. Dixon and Peake (2008:75) citing Heugh, (2008) argue that “[w]ork has been done that focuses on general reasons for the failure of National Language policy. There is little work examining the construction and implementation of school policies.” Dixon and Peake (2008) then recommend that it’s time to outgrow the lament of failed national language policy and begin to examine what schools are actually propagating. This research examined how schools construct and implement Language in Education Policy by closely looking at the decisions schools made and how these decisions impacted

on the teachers' LiEP interpretation and actual practice. Further, the study explored how teachers interpret and use the Language in Education Policy in their classroom practice.

The South African Schools Act (1996:6) states that "The governing body of a public school may determine the language policy of the school subject to the Constitution, this Act and any applicable law." The SGB is composed of elected members, (who are parents, teachers at the school, members of staff who are not educators and learners who are in Grade 8 and above), the principal and co-opted members. It is important, therefore, to note that while teachers are employed by schools and are professionals, they are part of the SGB and so is the principal, this then gives them roles in determining the school policies including the school's LiEP. Further in most schools by virtue of being viewed as the educated amongst parents and non-teaching staff who are in the SGB, teachers' and principals' contributions are valued and they, therefore, play a key role in the direction of which policies go. So this makes teachers both policymakers and policy implementers, roles which no other education stakeholders have. This informed claim the researcher makes because he has noted over my many years of teaching in various schools and provinces and has been part of several SGBs.

The teacher decides to adapt, adopt, negotiate, accept, contravene or resist the imposed language policy based on his/her personal experience or experiences and some contextual factors. Hornberger (2010) in Menken & Garcia (2010) states that all teachers are policymakers in the classroom as it is the teachers' policies that support or weaken the intellectual resources and language learners bring to school. Menken & Garcia (2010) state that not much research has been carried out on the complicated process of language policy implementation within educational environment particularly in the classroom where language educational policies are negotiated, interpreted and finally (re)constructed in the course of implementation by teachers. In the whole process it is teachers who must ultimately translate education policies into practice.

Menken and Garcia (2010:3) state that "language policies are multidimensional, go beyond written statements, and can only be understood by researching actual practices." Menken &Garcia (2010) further add that policy implementation by definition entails policy making with teachers acting as policy makers and classroom teachers are the final arbiters of language policy implementation. Whatever type of language policy or educational context

policy text comes to life in the classroom. This the often results in different results in practice from those intended by policy makers. Furthermore, Menken &Garcia (2010) state that "[m]ost language policy research remains national in scope focusing on top-down policies and analysing written policy statements overlooking the central role of classroom practitioners. Policy documents are presented as static without significant attention being paid to the ways that they actually come to life in the classroom. Language policies cannot be truly understood without studying actual practices." Actual practices can therefore only be studied by looking at what teachers do in the classroom.

The researcher interviewed principals, School Governing Body (SGB) Chairpersons and teachers so as to examine how schools interpret, construct and implement Language in Education Policy. The research closely looked at the decisions schools have made and how these decisions impact on the teachers' Language in Education Policy interpretation and actual classroom implementation. The study sought to find out how teachers' practices meet or miss the requirements of Language in Education Policy. This helped to find out whether schools, in particular, classroom practice by teachers can be places for bottom-up reform in the policy. The pivot on teachers was therefore deliberate and it is also important to note that this study did not look at learner achievement in relation to LiEP practice.

1.4. Research Aim

The study aimed to explore how schools and teachers interpret and implement the Language in Education Policy for their classroom practice in three public primary schools in Kuruman, Northern Cape.

1.5. Research question

This study was framed around the following main question:

How do schools and teachers interpret and implement the Language in education Policy for classroom practice in three primary schools in Kuruman, Northern Cape?

1.6. Overview of the study

This research report comprises of six chapters. Chapter 1 introduces the study and discusses the background and context of the study. It also gives the motivation, rationale and significance of the study; it states the research aims, objectives and questions that guided the study. Chapter 2 reviews the literature and relates it to the study. Chapter 3 gives the study's theoretical framework. Chapter 4 focuses on research methodology. In addition,

the chapter discusses the content of the study data collection methods/instruments, the research site and participants involved. Validity, reliability and triangulation are discussed and as well as the ethical considerations that formed the basis of this research. Chapter 5 presents data obtained through the use of various data tools and then discusses and analyses the research findings. Chapter 6 provides conclusions, limitations and recommendations for further study.

1.7. Conclusion

This chapter orientated the reader on the research project which aimed at exploring how schools and teachers interpret and implement the Language in Education Policy in their classroom practice. A background and context of the study was articulated that informed the motivation, rationale and significance of the study. The study was outlined based on aims of the study. The research question of the study was posed linked to the aim of the study. Lastly an overview of the chapters in this study is presented.

The next chapter presents a review of literature which will be used to consolidate the study's theoretical framework.

2. Chapter 2 – Literature Review

2.1. Introduction

This chapter reviews literature that is relevant and is associated with the main areas of interest to this study. Firstly, the chapter looks at the aims of the Language Policy and Practice and links them to children's rights, then the current Language in Education Policy and its legislative context is discussed. Secondly, the chapter looks at Languages of Learning and Teaching and gives current practice of the LiEP. The chapter further critiques the current LiEP and then discusses the Department of Basic Education Implementation Plan and unpacks the Incremental Introduction of African Languages, the Language across the Curriculum and then the Strategy for Teaching English Across the Curriculum as supplements of the Language in Education Policy. Finally, the chapter looks at different teacher roles in Language in Education Policy.

2.2. Aims of LiEP, children's language rights and the Language of learning and teaching.

According to the LiEP (1997:2) there are seven aims of the Ministry of Education's policy for language in education. "The first aim is to promote full participation in society and economy through equitable and meaningful access to education. The second is to pursue the language policy most supportive of general conceptual growth among learners, and hence to establish additive multilingualism as an approach to language in education. The third is to promote and develop all official languages while the fourth is to support the teaching and learning of all other languages required by learners or used by communities in South Africa, including languages used for religious purposes, languages that are important to international trade and communication. The next one is to counter disadvantages resulting from different kinds of mismatches between home languages and languages of learning and teaching. The other one is to develop programmes for redress of previously disadvantaged languages in education. The last being to protect, promote and fulfil the individual's language rights and means of communication and education."

The study employs the aforesaid aims as a major pivot in the evaluation of LiEP practice in schools and also pays particular attention on the use of language in learning and teaching. The LiEP (1997:3) states that "The language of learning and teaching in a public school must be (an) official language(s)." It is important to emphasise that concerning the languages of learning and teaching, which is the main focus of this thesis, the LiEP (DoE,

1997a) accepts the principle of additive bilingualism and promotes multilingualism while accepting the maintenance of learners' home languages at the same time as they acquire additional languages. It also accepts any official language as a possible language of learning and teaching at all levels of study. It further stipulates that learners (in practice parents) select their language of learning and teaching on entering a school, accepting that their choice may differ from the language policy of the school concerned.

2.3. Children's language rights

As the LiEP is unpacked it is important that the LiEP is highlighted as it is designed to uphold the South African constitutional prescriptions. In that regard the LiEP's underlying principle is to maintain home languages for learning and teaching while encouraging acquisition of additional languages. The Constitution states that each of the eleven official languages should enjoy respect and equal esteem and upholds everybody's right to be educated in the official language of hers/his choice where reasonably practicable. For minors, parents or wards chose for them. Schools therefore should not differentiate on the basis of language. This means that language should not be used as a means of denying access to school.

2.4. How schools should assist children exercise their rights

It is important that schools adhere to both the South African Constitution and the LiEP. Schools should do this by keeping records of requests for instruction in a particular language. Under the protection of individual rights, the LiEP (1997:1) states that "The provincial education department must make copies of the request available to all schools in the relevant school district." The provincial education department can only make such copies if schools keep such records.

The LiEP (1997:3) states that "Where there are less than 40 requests in Grades 1 to 6, (or less than 35 requests in Grade 7 to 12) for instruction in a language already not already offered by a school in a particular district, the head of department of education will determine how needs of those learners will be met. In determining that the head of department should take into account the following: The duty of the state and the right of learners in terms of the constitution, including the need to achieve equity, the need to redress the results of past racially discriminatory laws and practices. Practicability and the advice of the governing bodies and principals of public schools concerned should also be considered."

Learners are therefore protected and have rights according to the constitution, SASA and LiEP.

2.5. The current Language in Education Policy in South Africa

The current *Language in Education Policy* postulates for languages to be offered as (1) subjects and (2) as language(s) of learning and teaching. The School Governing Body is mandated to determine the school language policy guided by the South African Schools Act, the LiEP and the Constitution and other related documents like the IIAL.

The post-apartheid era began officially in 1994.The political regime change necessitated changes in the LiEP. DBE (2010) states that the LiEP is guided by principles based on the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (RSA, 1996a) and the South African Schools Act (SASA) (RSA, 1996b). The former Department of Education adopted the LiEP in 1997 and further clarified it in the Revised National Curriculum Statement (NSC) of 2002.Hendriks (2004) states in an effort to correct the imbalances of the schooling the post-apartheid education policy reorganised and re-conceptualized the South African education system. Scholars like Wright (2012) note that the South African Language in Education Policy (LiEP) is exemplary to other African countries as they consider it to be progressive. Ngcobo (2007) concurs as he states that South Africa language policy is suitable for multilingual societies because it addresses language problems. Makoni (2003:13) also concurs as he describes the LiEP as "[t]he most "progressive and politically enlightened because of the significance it attaches to human rights and its acknowledgement of multilingualism in the African context." Kamwendo (2006: 67), also notes that "despite the fact that South Africa is travelling on a rather bumpy road towards the implementation of a language rights-oriented language policy, the country, backed by its enormous resources, still remains Africa's best model and leader in language planning". The LiEP is therefore considered to advocate for multilingualism based on mother-tongue education but practice by teachers is not always aligned to policy.

The Department of Education formally announced its language in education policy in July 1997. The two policy documents that are complementary and should read together are: Language in Education Policy in terms of Section 3(4)(m) of the National Education Policy Act, 1996 (Act 27 of 1996), and the Norms and Standards regarding Language Policy published in terms of Section 6(1) of the South African Schools Act, 1996. The post-

apartheid era was to represent a shift from the apartheid policy of Afrikaans-English bilingualism**.** The new approach which is in line with Section 29(2) of the South African Constitution (RSA Act 27 of 1996:36) states 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.” The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, further states that “The government, and thus the Department of Education, recognizes that our cultural diversity is a valuable national asset and hence is tasked, amongst other things, to promote multilingualism, the development of the official languages, and respect for all languages used in the country, including South African Sign Language and the languages referred to in the South African Constitution.” (RSA Act 27 of 1996:36).

The major strength of the LiEP is that it has remedied issues of the history of colonial oppression and the history of apartheid by giving choices to LoLT. In relation to this research, it is important to note that the LiEP states that the Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT) in a public school must be (an) official language(s). Meaning therefore it can be any of the 11 official languages.
The LiEP (1997:2) in relation to languages as learning areas (subjects) states that:

12.2. “From Grade 3 onwards, all learners shall offer their language of learning and teaching and at least one additional approved language as subjects.”

12. 3. “All language subjects shall receive equitable time and resource allocation.”

So basically the current LiEP in South Africa highlights which languages are official, which ones can be used as LoLT and which ones are offered as subjects and when.

2.6. Legislative Context

The Bill of Rights contained in the Constitution lays the foundation for the development of democratic values and forms the basis for the language legislation and a policy framework. The Constitution (Act 108 of 1996) stipulates in Section 6.4 that, “All official languages must enjoy parity of esteem and be treated equitably.” Then in Section 29(2) it specifies that, “Everyone has the right to receive education in the official language or languages of their choice in public educational institutions where education in that language is reasonably practicable.” Section 29(2) states 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. Section 30 stipulates that everyone has the right to use

the language and to participate in the cultural life of their choice, provided that they do not violate the rights of others. The Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (DBE, 2010:10) “follows an additive approach to the promotion of multilingualism and states that learners’ home language should be used for learning and teaching wherever possible.” These sections clearly demonstrate that LiEP is within legislative requirements.

2.7. The current language policy practice

The current language policy practice is muddled. Several studies (Perry, 2015; Dhunpath and Joseph 2014 and Ngcobo 2015) indicated that the policy in South Africa has failed when it comes to implementation. Orman (2008) also concurs by stating that language practices are not congruent with the written policy. Orman (2008) further declares that language policy has failed particularly in promoting indigenous languages. Furthermore, Orman (2008) states that despite having had the colonial languages for more than four hundred years, the social spreading of the English and Afrikaans remain restricted and limited to an exclusive minority elite. The majority are aware that English and Afrikaans are catalysts for socioeconomic inequalities, and that accessing these languages can change this situation. In retaining inherited apartheid and colonial languages as Languages of Learning and Teaching or giving the apartheid and colonial languages equal status to national languages the policy makers have perpetuated the colonial myth that indigenous African languages do not have the linguistic capacity to enable them to be used for learning purposes. This is a trend in former colonies in Africa where the position of African indigenous languages has remained associated with the colonizers model which perpetuated the supremacy of ex-colonial languages over the African indigenous languages. In South Africa the present demographics of a ‘rainbow’ nation present Afrikaans as a South African Language and English is a mother tongue to many South Africans. This then means that English and Afrikaans are South African languages currently.

More insight is given on the current practice as I critique the current LiEP in section below.

2.8. A Critique of LiEP and further insight

While there are good aspects of LiEP there are some short comings which are worth noting. Kamwangamalu (2004) states that in contrast with the stated promotion of all 11 official languages there is an increasing tendency towards English monolingualism. Language use in the educational sector reflects this monolingualism as the position of African languages

remains weak while English remains over dominant. Orman (2008) attributes this to the addition to policy of phrases like “where reasonably practicable.” Reasonably practicable is indeed subject to different interpretations and even deliberate misinterpretations.

Secondly the advancement of indigenous languages as media of instruction is just similar to the apartheid moedertaalonderwys policy. Moedertaalonderwys policy placed emphasis on separating blacks by implementing a divide and rule mother-tongue based education. Hence perceptions of mother tongue education are tainted by the link to apartheid education. Reagan (2001) supports this when he says “the legacy of apartheid includes suspicions about mother-tongue instruction in any form, which has led to tensions with respect to educational language policy in post-apartheid South Africa.” Resultantly there is desire for English medium instruction even at the earliest stages of primary education. English as earlier discussed is the major barrier to successful implementation of language policy because of its perceived power. English historically gained power as it was regarded as the language of liberation. Gilmartin (2005) purports that the South African education policy and practice just talks about the equity of all languages yet practically it focuses on the utility of English. Coetzee et al (2001) are critical of government practice regarding policy implementation because during public appearances the leaders speak mainly in English. This then gives the perception that those that are high in the social ladder speak English. Government officials are role models of many young and old people so by their display of English they encourage and empower the use of English. Resultantly parents, guardians and learners want teaching to take place through English. Some teachers also think that indigenous languages do not have the necessary subject terminology so they prefer using English especially for science subjects. Probyn (2005) states that the other reason why teachers prefer English as a medium of instruction especially in township schools is to retain learners. Teachers she interviewed were of the opinion that the reason parents move their children to former Model C (these are former white only affluent schools) schools was that they wanted them to be taught in English so for them not to lose learners’ enrolment they are forced to teach in English. The researcher observed schools in Johannesburg South where the secondary schools around Ennerdale and Lenasia offer English and Afrikaans as LoLT and as subjects. The neighbouring informal settlements of Finetown and Vlakfontein initially offered learners’ home languages as subjects. Schools declined in enrolment as parents were taking their children out of those schools and enrolling them in

schools that offered English and Afrikaans. Parents cited the need for children to be well prepared for secondary education as their main reason for withdrawing their children. This forced schools in the informal settlements to offer English and Afrikaans. This situation is not unique to Johannesburg South. The declaration of official languages status for a language is not necessarily an indicator of its role and preference in education. Webb (2000) concurs that LiEP is politically and ideologically functional and not practically functional.

Point (6) of LiEP (1997:2) suggests that "The individual (students or in the case of minor children's parents) have the right to choose the language of learning and teaching." This is seen as a reaction to the top-down centralized decision-making process of the apartheid era. This however can only be put into practice if the individuals are made aware and have full information concerning their roles in making such decisions. As previously argued the majority of people are not equipped to make such decisions and most school governing bodies have no ability to make decisions regarding the drafting of a language policy for schools. The policy stipulates that school governing bodies (SGBs) are responsible for developing a language policy for the schools and in doing so they "must stipulate how the school will promote multilingualism" (DoE, 1997a:3). SGBs are composed of principals, nonteaching staff, learners (Grade 8 and above) teachers of the schools and parents. Educational backgrounds have direct impact on the ability of parents to develop school language policies as required by the LiEP. There is choice only if one has the necessary information. Walker and Archung (2003:33) note that "Historically the involvement of black South African communities in the decision-making process of schools was problematic. Schools were not seen to be inviting the involvement of parents, and parents were not described as having any influence on the direction of the school." This resulted in school stakeholders like parents, guardians and learners thinking that principals and teachers should be responsible for drafting the school language policies and choose the medium of instruction because teachers and principals are viewed to be educated while the SGBs in most township and rural schools are not.

Desai (2001:330) argues that the "choice factor" is one of the most "implicit tensions that run through the document. Thus despite that fact that the Soweto uprising of 1976 serves as a grim reminder that no state can afford to impose a language policy on learners, there is an argument for saying that the new policy document errs on the side of allowing too much choice". Desai (2001:67) further argues that "Unless such individual choice is

accompanied by a public awareness campaign around language and learning issues, and a massive injection of resources, both material and human, the prejudices of the past are likely to militate against individual learners choosing African languages as languages of learning." Too much choice as stipulated in the LiEP can result in a laissez-faire approach to the language issue.

The conditional clauses (Slee in Liasidou,2008) or what Ngcobo (2014) and Webb (2002) term escape clauses in the policy make it subject to different interpretations and a source of problems in implementation. For example, the LiEP (1997) states "the state must consider all reasonable educational alternatives including single medium institutions, taking into account equity; practicability." Phrases like "where reasonably practicable' aid a single language scenario because of the contextual choice. 'Practicability' and 'reasonable' are problematic statements as Webb (2002) points out that if there is no clarity these could work against the intentions of LiEP. The policy has too many qualified rights, for example, the policy states that learners may choose their language of learning and teaching yet it also states that the LoLT must be any official language. In addition, the including single medium institutions can be used to make schools English or Afrikaans only schools owing to historic and economic reasons and perceptions of mother tongue education. The LiEP's non-prescriptive approach regarding language choice whether it is LoLT and LAS (Languages As Subjects) is therefore one of its weaknesses. LiEP should clearly state how the indigenous African languages should be promoted and practiced.

In South Africa as earlier noted there are many attempts by many institutions and individuals to use courts of law to implement the LiEP. This also hinders smooth policy implementation.

The Language-in-Education Policy Document (LiEP 1997:1) outlines that "It should be seen as part of a continuous process by which policy for language in education is being developed as part of a national language plan encompassing all sectors of society, including the deaf community." In reality the process has not been continuous and since 1997 the policy has not been reviewed. While some might argue that there are supportive documents like the IIAL which polish up the LiEP, I argue that such documents are not policy review.

Another factor that militates against the successful implementation of the Language in Education Policy might be the policy itself. The post-apartheid Language in Education Policy is highly ambitious with eleven official languages. Mesthrie (2002) notes that the decision

taken during the constitutional negotiations to recognize eleven official languages was not a linguistic choice but primarily a political settlement. The decision was meant to please ethnic groups, create a united non-sexist society that had fought against apartheid by recognizing them and empowering them. The decision for eleven official languages was taken during what Wright (2012:118) describes as “heady days during which ordinarily sober people were prepared to believe that South Africans could triumph over anything even things that looked impossible.”

Furthermore, contradictions between policies are highlighted in the South African constitution (Act 108 of 1996:67), which allows “The use of any official language on the account of practicability, regional circumstances, expense and the balance of the need and preferences of the population.” Practicability, expense and regional circumstances are subjective and can therefore be subjected to abuse to suit certain individuals or interest groups. My observation about the weakness of the policy itself being a hindrance is that while the LiEP policy document advocates for use of mother tongue and the promotion of African Languages, particularly the nine which were formally marginalised, the policy is written in English further empowering English and marginalising those who are not literate in English especially the parent component of SGBs who will need translation during which meaning might be lost or they do not fully participate in creating school policy because of language barrier.

Wright (2012) states that the other problem with the Language in Education policy is that it was a top- down rather than a bottom-up development (Wright, 2012). The ordinary people did not participate to make their language in education choices known so the policy is an imposed one which makes it difficult for people to associate with it. Wright (2012) further notes that top-down language approach usually fails, unless it expresses and supports what people on the ground want and what they see as feasible. The decision to use eleven official languages did not take into consideration the practical initiatives that show practical difficulties in administering an education system with eleven different languages. The implementation is a strenuous and expensive process. Different languages all need trained personnel, materials and relevant books for proper implementation. Wright (2012) notes that “[l]anguage development is costly, both in finance and in skills and is normally successful if undertaken only in response to strong and broad-based social demand.” The demand does not exist in South Africa as the majority of Africans are uninterested in

language matters and do not object to the current power and use of English. So without practical public support what languages specialists may wish for will remain in vain. Wright (2012:120) argues that “Languages develop from real social need, not from nice principles of cultural equity.” So despite the fact South Africa has a progressive Language in Education Policy, if there is no social need it will not be practiced as envisaged. However, Alexander (1995) argues to the contrary as he states that, because the process involved various actors at different levels of the South African society; from grassroots’ communities, Community Based Organizations (CBOs), Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs), civil society at large, as well as private and public actors the process of drafting the new language policy was as democratic and consultative. Kamwendo (2006: 62) also points out that “Contributions came both from academic and non-academic quarters such as media debates and submissions (e.g., in form of letters to the editor), deliberations and recommendations of learned societies, political party manifestos, and contributions from specialized committees such as the Language Plan Task Group (LANGTAG).” This study will hopefully get clarity on whether the LiEP was a top-down or bottom-up.

The other factor that militates against successful implementation according to Wright (2012:10) is that “[o]nly language planners, language practitioners and professional translators are rewarded for promoting the new language dispensation.” Ordinary South Africans do not see the need and desire to change the policy or let alone to read and interpret it, they are content with whatever is happening and have other pressing bread and butter issues to worry about. The other factor is that there is no legal obligation for the policy to be implemented as there is no sanction for schools to have a policy.

Although the requirements in the Language in Education Policy for School Governing Bodies (SGB) to draw up School Languages policies provides for democratic participation and responsibilities to local context Probyn (2005) observes that the SGBs are not functioning as desired because some parent components are illiterate and poor. Probyn (2005) further states that the capacity of School Governing Bodies to develop policy has been seriously overestimated by policy makers because SGB members are not always competent in policy making as some are actually illiterate. Also some SGB members are just there on paper but it is the principals who really dictate policy as parents and SGB members are not aware of what must actually happen.

The state is also accused of paying lip service to the policy (Alexander 2000). Not enough resources are channelled towards buying relevant resources like textbooks and teacher training so that policy is fully and successfully implemented. There are also no monitoring and correctional tools to equip the SGBs with knowledge on policy and policy implementation. Alexander (2002) states that the problems associated with the operationalization and implementation of policy are not simply technical ones but political in character because there is no firm commitment to policy as well as a carefully worked out implementation plan with time frames and contingency plans.

Another hindrance to the implementation of the South African language policy are attitudes to the use of the indigenous African languages as Languages of Learning and Teaching. De Klerk and Barkhuizen (2002:11) state that there is in South Africa "persistent functional deficiency and low levels of development for indigenous languages in terms of corpus, status and prestige." As noted earlier there is a dominant preference of English as a medium of instruction for almost all subjects and a disdain of Afrikaans while indigenous languages are regarded as limiting. PANSALB and other language-policy watchdogs' inability to fulfil their mandate of promoting the development of all the official languages in South Africa is yet another obstacle to LiEP practice.

Lack of materials both for teachers and learners, in the indigenous African languages is also another factor that hinders implementation. As argued by Pluddemann (2002: 334), "There is a chronic lack of classroom materials that promote multilingualism. Because of their low status in education and civil society generally, African languages have lagged far behind English and Afrikaans in terms of the number of titles published."

Makoni (2003: 139-140) notes a weakness in LiEP when he argues that "The version of multilingualism implicit in the South African Constitution is one best described as plural monolingualism.It. It is a variant and an extension of monolingualism. Instead of South Africans being encouraged to be multilingual, the policy could actually end up making each citizen merely competent in his/her own language. That is, since all the country's languages are officially recognized, all one needs to do is to become competent in the standard version of his/her own language. The South African language policy should have specified only two or three African languages as official languages. However, to propose official status for nine so-called "indigenous" African languages is to reaffirm the separateness of Black South

African ethnic groups through language. It is a false separation, linguistically and ethnically, whereby the present South African government is, paradoxically, proposing a policy which the apartheid South African government could not successfully implement... to keep each language group to itself." The researcher is also of the view that South Africa should have grouped the Nguni languages (IsiZulu, IsiXhosa, IsiNdebele and SiSwati) and the Sotho languages (Sesotho, Setswana, and Sepedi).

Apart from stipulating that "the language(s) of learning and teaching in a public school must be (an) official language(s)" (DoE, 1997a: section 4.4) the document does not specify that the language(s) of learning and teaching (LOLT) should be a home language (mother tongue) and as such undermines the "underlying principle…to maintain home language(s)" as medium of instruction (DoE, 1997 section 4.4 point 5). What is also interesting is that nowhere in the document is it stipulated that a transition from the mother tongue to English as the language of learning and teaching must take place at all. It is, however, assumed by many (teachers, principals, parents and students) that this transition must take place. Previously this switch occurred in Grade 5 and now it occurs even earlier in Grade 4. The result is that the status quo is maintained and the de facto 1979 language policy remains intact. It is worth noting and emphasising there is no official stipulation that this transition must occur at any point in the educational system. Therefore, regardless of the fact that there is no governmental stipulation that the transition must take place the reality is that only English or Afrikaans are recognized in national (and classroom) testing. This sends a powerful message not only to schools, but also to parents and students about the language issue. By leaving the matter open individuals and schools are seemingly allowed the option to choose yet it gives the Department of Education along with book publishers and others the opportunity to interpret the policy, as they deem appropriate. The assumption is that although the transition to English is not explicit, it is implied and, therefore, material available in African languages after the Grade 4 level is limited. Furthermore, Webb (1999) is sceptical concerning cases where individuals are requesting a language, no school may be offering the desired language. The clause of reasonable practicability perpetuates the hegemony of languages, which already have a sufficient number of resources available (both human and material).

2.9. Documents that support LiEP

For a full understanding of the LIEP the following five (5) documents that support or relate to it will be discussed. These are; The Department's Implementation Plan, The Official Languages Act of 2012, The Incremental Introduction of African Languages in South African schools draft policy, the language across the curriculum (LAC) document and lastly The Strategy for Teaching English across the Curriculum document.

The Policy Statement of the NLPF which was announced by the Minister of Arts, Culture, Science and Technology on 3 December 2002 and subsequently approved by Cabinet on 12 February 2003 aims at promoting the equitable use of the 11 official languages with a view to facilitating equitable access to government services, knowledge and information, as well as fostering respect for language rights.

For these aims to be achieved successfully, the promotion and development of the previously marginalised official indigenous languages have to be effected. Since language is a functional communicative tool in the lives of individuals and communities, it becomes imperative therefore, that strategies to redress past language inequalities be put in place.

The purpose of the Implementation Plan is to provide details regarding the structures and mechanisms required to operationalise the Language Policy, as well as providing its financial/budgetary implications for national and provincial departments.

The DoE (Then DE) Implementation Plan will carry out 6 duties which include monitoring the implementation of the LIEP where the national DoE will send questionnaires, then interview and offer advice to relevant role players in the provinces and schools. In addition to that, the Implementation Plan envisages to appoint provincial language managers, whose function would be to solve language related problems in communities. They will also provide relevant guidance on language matters, make people aware of their language-related rights and obligations, and facilitate the rights and fulfilment of obligations. Furthermore, the Implementation Plan intends to redress and develop previously marginalized indigenous languages through language awareness campaigns. They will also promote multilingualism and language equity, and explore means of exercising people's language rights together with supporting Home Languages.

The Implementation Plan intends to establish national committees for each of the 11 official languages, and facilitate corpus development of African languages. Finally, another role of

the Implementation Plan is to encourage co-operation between different government departments in South Africa as well as to be actively involved in the founding of regional co-operation with neighbouring countries.

The Implementation Plan also views language awareness campaigns as necessary in arousing public interest in language matters. The DAC, in collaboration with PanSALB, will run ongoing language awareness campaigns to align language policies and practices in the various spheres of government. The other plan is to popularise the NLPF and make people aware of the constitutional provisions on multilingualism, as well as encourage public servants to provide a service to clients in their own language, thereby ensuring that people use their own languages and learn other languages in the process. The other intention is to inform business and the private sector of the bottom-line benefits that can be derived from implementing multilingual policies. An awareness of the value of South Africa's linguistic diversity as part of our heritage to promote greater language tolerance in South Africa will also be created. These awareness campaigns will also highlight the benefits of living in a multilingual society as well as ensure correct understanding and interpretation of policy at all levels.

The implementation plan for the Department of Education (now Basic Education) was, according to The Implementation Plan (2003:30) envisaged as follows:

Table 1: the Implementation Plan (2003:30)

OBJECTIVES	**ACTIVITIES**	**PERFORMANCE INDICATORS**	**RESPONSIBILITY**	**TIME FRAME**
1. To adopt a Language Policy	1. Appoint a Language Policy Committee 2. Conduct a consultative workshop with staff 3. Draft Language Policy 4. Budget for incremental implementation of Policy (1st year 30%; 2nd year 60%; 3rd year 100%)	1. Policy meets requirements of NLPF 2. Staff buy in 3. Coherent Language Policy 4. Adequate financial support for Policy implementation	1. Top Management 2. Top Management 3. Top Management 4. DG	1. October 2003 2. January 2004 3. March 2004

2. To establish a language unit	1. Decide on size of Language Unit 2. Audit of language skills and capacity of staff 3. Recruitment of staff of 6 translators & 2 clerks: • Advertisements • Interviews and appointment 4. Training of Language Unit staff in Language Policy implementation	1. Proportionate to requirements of publications programme 2. Accurate data reflecting language skills, qualifications and proficiency levels of staff 3. Six professional translators for the six categories of languages (Nguni, Sotho, Tshivenda, Xitsonga, Afrikaans, English) 4. Skilled staff	1. Top Management 2. Communications 3. HR in collaboration with NLS 4. NLS	1. November 2003 2. Nov – Dec 2003 3. Jan – April 2004 4. May 2004
3. To enhance understanding of Language Policy	1. Workshops for DoE staff on the Language Policy and their responsibilities and rights under the Languages Act	1. Correct application of Language Policy 2. Sound understanding of rights and responsibilities of staff and rights of clients	Language Unit	June – July 2004
4. To translate and edit documents under the Policy	1. Translation and editing of documents phased in (1st year 30%; 2nd year 60%; 3rd year 100%) 2. Management of the outsourcing of translation to freelance translators: Quality control Contracting of freelance translators	Quality translations	Language Unit	June 2004 onwards
5. To print documents under the Policy	1. Contracting printers to print documents according to phasing in options (1st year 30%; 2nd year 60%; 3rd year 100%) 2. Proof-reading & editing of layout	Publications that meet requirements of the Language Policy	Language Unit, Communications	June 2004 onwards

6. To provide interpreting services under the Policy	Contracting interpreters for ad hoc interpreting	Accurate interpreting in languages required	Language Unit	June 2004 onwards
7. To provide language advice	Ongoing advice to managers and staff regarding language use, application of the Language Code of Conduct, translation and interpreting, promotion of multilingualism	Advice in accordance with Language Policy requirements and staff's needs	Language Unit	June 2004 onwards
8. To provide language training courses	Contracting suitable trainers to offer language learning courses	Structured course in each of the11 official language categories on rotation	Language Unit	June 2004 onwards
9. To Collaborate with NLS	1. Participate in language seminars on Policy implementation, translation and editing matters. 2. Provide terminology to NLS in support of language development and terminology coordination	1. Regularly attend seminars. 2. Terminology lists in relevant languages on a regular basis	Language Unit	June 2004 onwards

Glaring omissions in the implementation plan have however, been noted. These range from the resourcing of the policy to the models of (multilingual bilingual) education to be followed as well as teacher development as the plan does little to suggest how teachers as main implementers of policy are to be (re) trained in order to effect multilingual learning. The knowledge of the Implementation Plan and whether it has been implemented has direct impact on teachers' interpretation and use of LIEP.

After the Implementation Plan to help us understand the LIEP, the use of the Official Languages Act 12 of 2012 becomes necessary. The Official Languages Act 12 of 2012 aims to provide for the regulation and monitoring of the use of official languages by national government for government purposes. Then also to require the adoption of a language policy by a national department, national public entity and national public enterprise as well as to provide for the establishment and functioning of a National Language Unit. It also aims

to provide for the establishment and functioning of language units by a national department, national public entity and national public enterprise while providing for monitoring of and reporting on the use of official languages by national government. In addition to that, it aims to facilitate inter-governmental co-ordination of language units and to provide for matters connected therewith.

Furthermore, The Act also outlines that the Content and Form of a language policy should state its purpose, the nature of the national department, national public entity or national public enterprise describing, amongst other things, the nature of services provided by the national department, the public entity or national public enterprise, regions or geographic locations where services are provided, the official languages that the national department, national public entity or national public enterprise will use for government purposes. It will also seek to know how the national department, national public entity or national public enterprise will use the official languages selected, amongst other things to effectively communicate with members of the public, when compiling official forms in public notices and announcements, public information signs, signage, identifying facilities and services, in government reports, documents, records, transcripts and other official publications intended for public distribution and at hearings and other official proceedings.

The language policy must also state how the national department, national public entity or national public enterprise will communicate with members of the public whose language of choice is not one of selected official languages amongst other things as well as provide a procedure to enable members of the public to receive services in a language other than the official languages of the national department, national public entity or national public enterprise, which may include translation and/or interpretation services that stipulate the time periods that will apply to such procedures as well as the time periods that will apply to such procedures. They should also stipulate how the national department, national public entity or national public enterprise will communicate with members of the public whose language of choice is South African sign language by, amongst other things providing a procedure to enable members of the public to receive services in South African sign language and stipulating the time periods that will apply to such procedures and how members of the public will access the language policy. This will be done by describing which official languages the policy will be published in, provided that the language policy be published in at least the selected official languages. They should also state where the policy

will be available in hardcopy and electronically and the procedure to enable members of the public to access the policy and finally whether the policy will be available in Braille and, if so, the procedure to enable members of the public to access the policy in Braille.

Another LiEP related document that we need to familiarise ourselves with is the Incremental Introduction of African Languages- draft policy whose main aim is to improve proficiency in and utility of African languages at Home Language level, so that learners are able to use their home language proficiently. The second aim of this policy is to increase access to languages by all learners, beyond English and Afrikaans, by requiring all non-African Home Language speakers to learn an African language and finally promote social cohesion and economic empowerment and expand opportunities for the development of African languages as a significant way of preserving heritage and cultures.

The programme requires that grades 1-12 learners offer three official languages, one at HL level and the other two languages on at least FAL level. The proposed subject provisioning is illustrated thus:

Grades 1 to 3 who are currently learning 4 subjects namely, HL, FAL, Maths and Life Skills now add one more First Additional Language bringing the number of subjects they will take to 5. Meanwhile, the Grades 4 to 6 are proposed to end up with 7 subjects with the addition of another FAL to HL, FAL, Maths, LS, Natural Sciences and Technology and Social Sciences. Grades 7 to 9 who are currently learning 9subjects will also take on another FAL in addition to their Home Language, FAL, Maths, Life Orientation, Natural Sciences and Technology, Social Sciences, Economics and Management Sciences and Arts and Culture as well as 3 content subjects. Grades 10 to 13 like the lower grades, will also add one FLA and end up with 10 subjects in addition to their Maths, HL, FLA, Life Orientation, Group B - 3content subjects.

The Incremental Introduction of African Languages (IIAL) has implications on the National Policy Pertaining to the Programme and Promotion Requirements (NPPPPR) of the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12. It also implicates on the resources required for the effective teaching of the First Additional Language. The Department of Basic Education's Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements (CAPS) and the DBE workbooks are available for both the Home and the First Additional Language levels for all official languages. The National Catalogue contains textbooks and readers for Home

language in all official languages. The Department of Basic Education will work with publishers to ensure that a list of approved textbooks is available to support the incremental implementation of African languages at First Additional Language level.

The third implication for the policy to work is the provision of Teachers. The Incremental Introduction of African Languages (IIAL) will require all learners to offer an African language at First Additional Language level. This effectively means that all schools should have an African language teacher. The post provisioning norm to promote African languages will differ from one province to the other. It would be simpler in provinces with few official languages and more complex in those with more official languages. The same applies to the rural and urban (cosmopolitan) situation. It is expected that in a rural situation only one African language will be selected as a subject at FAL level. But in an urban or cosmopolitan area more than one African language can be selected for this purpose. Based on the demographics of the school population and considering the “language majority” of the learners, schools will select their languages of choice to represent that majority.

Staffing to meet this need can be achieved by using different models. The most ideal situation is to provide all schools with African language(s) teacher(s). Depending on the school context, this might mean a provision of one or more African language(s) teacher(s). However other models may be more appropriate in some situations as follows; In a cosmopolitan area wherein all languages are found, schools may be designated to offer specific languages. There would be dominant languages side to side with minority languages. Meanwhile in instances where there are very few learners for a particular language(s) scattered across a phase, the multi-grade model can be ideal. Learners from different grades can be brought into one class and taught by one teacher. The itinerant teacher model allows schools to share scarce resources. One teacher will be roving from one school to the other. Depending on the close proximity of schools. The roving teacher can teach at a minimum of two and a maximum of four schools. This model could be used in schools that are within close proximity for the itinerant teacher to reach them with ease.

The ratio 1-40 could be applied to a rural situation wherein there are few dominant languages. The ratio 1-20 could be used in the cosmopolitan, multilingual context with a mix of dominant and minority languages. The determination of the provisioning of

transformational teachers should be based on the feasibility of schools to be able to utilize African language(s) teacher(s).

The employment of additional staff to teach a third language at First Additional Language level will have implications for teacher training. Programmes will be put in place both at the Pre-set and the Inset levels to prepare new teachers and reskill existing teachers to teach in and through an African language.

The fourth implication of the policy is Funding. The provision of textbooks, readers and workbooks, the employment of additional staff to teach a third language and the provision of training/reskilling programmes all have implications for funding. Additional funds will be sought from National Treasury to support the incremental introduction of African languages.

The fifth implication is that of monitoring and evaluation which should follow a bottom-up approach from school-level to the Department of Basic Education. District reports on the phased-in implementation must be consolidated at provincial level. Consolidated reports must be provided to the Department of Basic Education in order to inform policy decisions and national planning.

The key elements in monitoring include the provision and utilization of staff and resources, implementation challenges, the effects on assessment and promotion, training effectiveness and future needs.

The next document that supports the LIEP is the Language Across the Curriculum (LAC) document of 2019. It states that because the medium of instruction is the key to understanding the subject content in school, an LAC approach will help improve students' language proficiency and understanding of academic content. An LAC approach is one that integrates language learning and content learning. Such an approach is required because language cannot be effectively learnt without a context while learning in all subjects is dependent upon language. In view of the above, language and content are closely interrelated. In fact, content subjects provide a context for language while effective language development facilitates the learning of content subjects. It is therefore necessary to integrate language and content.

An LAC Approach ensures that there is an organisational structure in the school, which helps to formulate and implement language policy across the curriculum. This enables

teachers to contribute and get support in dealing with language in learning issues as well as to work for a common target. For the teacher, using the LAC approach helps him or her to use the language to teach more effectively while simultaneously helping the students learn more effectively. To the students, the LAC Approach minimises the problems of adjusting to the new medium of instruction and helps them learn the subject content better.

The teachers of English in the LAC approach are mainly to introduce and teach skills, reinforcing them from time to time in their English lessons while the content subject teachers re-teach those skills or introduce related skills/concepts in their respective lessons thus integrating language and content.

The last of the documents that supports the comprehension of the LIEP is the Strategy for Teaching English Across the Curriculum (DBE 2013). This is a complementary document to the Language Across the Curriculum Document which posits that performance in learning outcomes is inextricably linked to proficiency in the language of learning and teaching (LoLT) and utility. A large body of research from various studies and surveys such as ANA, SACMEQ, PIRLS and TIMSS and NSC provide abundant evidence in this regard. English, which is the language of learning and teaching (LoLT) in the majority of schools in South Africa, is cited in many studies as a barrier to learning. Language difficulties do not only impact on English as a subject, but encroach into the content subjects, resulting in dismal results. Furthermore, the withdrawal of the Language Compensation policy, which compensated African learners for using a language other than their own to learn, with effect from 2014, may lead to underperformance.

The DBE introduces the teaching English Across the Curriculum as a means of strengthening LoLT from Grade 1 to Grade 12, thus addressing the barrier factor and mitigating the negative impact which is the withdrawal of the Language Compensation policy may have. The strengthening of English as a subject and as LoLT, will mitigate the negative impact that the withdrawal of the language compensation policy could have on learner performance. The successful implementation of the strategy Teaching English Across the Curriculum will enhance knowledge acquisition and improve learner attainment. Furthermore, the successful implementation of the strategy for teaching English Across the Curriculum will enforce teaching and learning in English, thus enhancing learner competence in the LoLT.

The introduction of English First Additional Language (EFAL) in the Foundation Phase, and the subsequent phases, addresses the strengthening of LoLT in the GET, which should merge with the full implementation of the strategy for Teaching English Across the Curriculum (EAC) in Grades 10-12. With the implementation of CAPS, EFAL is offered as a subject in Grade 1 in schools where LoLT changes to English in Grade 4. The DBE, in partnership with the British Council, has developed a programme called the Certificate in Primary English Language Teaching (CiPELT) and the Certificate in Secondary English Language Teaching (CiPELT) to support the implementation of EFAL.

While it is noted that these documents compliment LiEP it should be noted that the study looked into whether these documents really do so in practice.

2.10. Languages of context

Kelly (2010) quoted in Strategy for teaching English Across the Curriculum (DBE 2013:4) states that “There are three areas of language for any classroom context: subject specific language, general academic language, and peripheral language. Subject specific language can be described as information carrying words which are usually noun phrases e.g. in chemistry would be sulphuric acid or the process of acidification. General academic language is cross-curricular language and, as such is not exclusive to anyone subject e.g. sequencing phrases such as first, next and finally. Peripheral language is the language of the classroom: the language used by the teacher to manage the class and informal language between students.” This study will look at how these languages are used in the classroom context and how their use relates to the Language in Education Policy.

2.11. Who decides LoLT

Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT) – means the language chosen by a school’s governing body in consultation with parents. It is the language teachers use to instruct and assess.

Section 6 of the South African Schools Act (SASA) (RSA, 1996b) prescribes preconditions in relation to the determination of language policy in public schools. The Act confers on the school governing bodies (SGBs) the task to determine the language policy of a school. Neither the Department of Basic Education (DBE) nor the provincial departments of education can force a school to offer any specific language. The LiEP (1996) also concurs with the South African Schools Act, 1996 as Section 7.8.2 states that “The governing body

of the school in consultation with the relevant provincial authority determines the language policy of the school in accordance with the regulations promulgated in terms of section 6(1) of the South African Schools Act, 1996."

Languages of learning and teaching (LoLT) can be selected from any of the 11 official languages. DBE (2013) acknowledges that, presently African languages are mostly used as LoLT in the Foundation phase where learners learn basic critical literacies such as reading, writing and counting. Thereafter they are relegated to be learned as subjects at either First Additional Level or Home Language. Statistics published by the DBE (2010) showed that in 2007, a majority (70-80%) of Foundation Phase learners were taught through the medium of their mother-tongue, but, by Grade 4, a shift had occurred, such that English became the *chosen* language of teaching and learning for 80% of South Africa's school-going population

2.12. Languages of learning and teaching – Mother Tongue Teaching

In order to understand the choices teachers are making in their interpretation and choices they make in languages of instruction we need to explore the options they have.

Mother Tongue in this study refers\ to the first or primary language or languages in which a child has been socialized. The question of mother-tongue instruction in South Africa remains a much debated topic. As this study was based on grade 4 classes it is important to note that scholars like Pluddemann et al. (2003) are of the view that abrupt switch from mother tongue education in the foundation phase to English-medium schooling from grade four has a pernicious effect on teaching and learning. Myburgh et al. (2009) also state for effective learning and teaching to take place learners must be able to speak the language of instruction. Further Ngugi Wa Thiongó (2012) argues for harmony between mother tongue and the language of schooling by implementing mother tongue instruction. DBE (2010) also advocates for home language based education. World Bank (2005) in DBE (2010 :4) also support mother tongue LoLT when they state that "Learning in one's language holds various advantages for the learner, including increased access, improved learning outcomes, reduced chances of repetition and drop-out rates, and socio-cultural benefits."

UNESCO (1953:11) highlights psychological, sociological and educational benefits of mother tongue education as it states that "In psychological terms, the mother tongue "is the system of meaningful signs that in [the child's] mind works automatically for expression and

understanding. Sociologically, it is a means of identification among members of the community to which he belongs. Educationally, he learns more quickly through it than through an unfamiliar linguistic medium". Given these advantages and based on global research UNESCO came up with a declaration on the use of vernacular languages in education. The UNESCO declaration was based on worldwide surveys of classroom instructions where researchers found that in most cases media of instructions were dominant languages of the nation-states or former colonial languages were used and minority and indigenous languages were discarded as mere dialects or local vernaculars. . UNESCO (1953:11) states that "Mother-tongue instruction should be the best way for children to learn as it bridges the gap between home language and language of instruction. Every language is sufficient enough to give high cognitive skills to its users and there are no major or minor languages. Therefore, mother-tongue instruction should be extended as long as possible. A lingua franca or a language of wider communication cannot be a substitute for the mother-tongue, and it should be avoided until the child fully acquired their mother-tongue because a child will find it difficult to grasp any new concept which is so alien to his cultural environment that it cannot readily find expression in his mother tongue so therefore every effort should be made to provide education in the mother tongue."

While the Language in Education Policy empowers provincial education departments and school communities to provide mother-tongue instruction (Department of Education, 1997), it also empowers those who choose not to implement mother tongue instruction if they so wish. (It should be noted however that while LiEP advocates for mother- tongue instruction it is not prescriptive). Coetzee et al. (2001) also state that there can be no meaningful academic progress when learners have limited skill in the language used for teaching and learning. Further their research revealed that native Sesotho speakers participated fully and did well in classes taught through Sesotho and fared worst in classes where the medium of instruction was English and were rigid, artificial and there was minimal learner participation in English classes. Gilmartin (2004) also states that learners are disadvantaged when they learn in a language that is not their mother-tongue as learning is easier in a medium that learners are familiar with, which is mostly their mother tongue.

Those that are for mother-tongue instruction argue that for results to be improved and for meaningful learning to take place and even for a nation's economic development teaching should be in one's mother tongue. Mackenzie (2008) asserts that creativity, imagination and

teaching and learning are best achieved when one uses a language which he is comfortable with and has a strong command of. Alexander (2002: 6) further argues that "[t]here is a consensus among virtually all scholars that wherever possible, the first or home language(s) of the learner should be used as the language of teaching and learning because of the conceptual and cognitive advantages of using a language the learner already knows well." Probyn (2005) also state that learners must learn in their mother tongue because when they study their second language they tend to have difficulty articulating their answers to open-ended questions and apparently have trouble in comprehending questions. Wa Thiongó (2012) argues that the right to language is a human right, yet in most African countries the majority of indigenous people are denied access to their mother tongue as the former colonizers' languages are given more power than African languages. He further argues that to deny any child their right to mother tongue is child abuse, yet to have mother tongue and add languages to it is empowerment. In addition, Benson (2005:3) further argues that "[m]other tongue instruction is advantageous in that learning of new concepts is not postponed until learners become competent in another language of instruction." Knowledge transfer is easier when one has mastered his mother tongue first. Mother tongue instruction strengthens self-confidence of learners as they are able to express themselves with ease and can also understand their educator fully other than to be left guessing or inferring what the educator is saying.

Another argument for mother tongue instruction is that it increases and facilitates parental participation as parents can speak freely in meetings, read and comprehend print correspondence from school. Also, with the use of mother tongue parents can also help their children with their homework in languages they are comfortable with, (Clegg, 2005). Languages children use at home should be used at school for the sake of continuity and bridging between home and school. Clegg (2005) also states that one cannot learn if they do not understand the language they are being taught in and teachers cannot teach if they are not confident in the language they use to teach. So mother tongue benefits both the learner and the teacher and therefore ultimately the teaching- learning process. It will therefore make meaningful sense to start by teaching home language and then build from it.

Alexander and Block (2004:3) argue that "Black people must seek to promote African languages, especially in academic circles as one of the strategies for promoting greater

intellectual and scientific independence from the West." Koch (2016) argues that in South Africa learners generally have home language teaching in grade R to 3, with some English and so that they develop strong academic ability they need to continue in their home languages for longer. Afrikaans and English mother tongue speakers are taught through their mother tongue from grade R through university to post school years, the same should happen for African languages.

Alexander (2001) also contends that we must use mother tongue for instruction as this will make people realize that our languages are national resources, which are to be nurtured for the good of all South Africans. Mother tongue instruction also strengthens one's culture and is passed on easily without dilution (Slabbert and Finlayson, 2000). Furthermore, Rudwick's (2004) research conducted among isiZulu speaking youth in Umlazi Township in Durban Kwa-Zulu Natal that learner's link mother tongue to their culture and regard isiZulu as a cultural resource. In addition, Desai (2001) argues that primary school children have rich vocabulary to express themselves in their home language and poor vocabulary to express selves in English. It will then be prudent to use learners' mother tongue as Language of Learning and Teaching if we are to achieve more desirable results.

The Pan South Africa language Board advocates for mother tongue instruction and takes it a bit further that it must not end with instruction but mother tongue must also be used for examinations. The National Protocol for Assessment Grades R-12 (DOE 2011:9) concurs as it goes further to state that over and above mother-tongue instruction "[e]examination question papers must be set in the language of learning and teaching".

2.13. Challenges to mother tongue teaching

However, mother tongue instruction faces a number of challenges and obstacles. One is, as Winkler (2015) notes, the assumption that learners have a mother tongue or at least a dominant home language. Winkler (2015) argues that it is perhaps unhelpful to use the concept mother tongue in cases where many languages are often or always used in the home environment. Moreover, in some cases especially in urban areas where intermarriages are on the rise you find a child speaking both his/her father's language and his/her mother's language plus the language of neighbours before going to school. The other challenges are pointed out by De Klerk (2002) as lack of appropriately qualified educators, a suitable curriculum, materials and textbooks also the undeveloped African

languages, language attitudes and low status of African languages. While some researchers like Phillipson, 2000; Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000, support the right to mother tongue LoLT, others (e.g. Ricento and Wiley, 2002) argue that pro-mother tongue policies can be tactics to maintain the socio- economic and political domination by the elite. Given the South African colonial and apartheid history where mother-tongue education was the central policy of apartheid, mother-tongue education might be viewed as reversing to those dark days of apartheid and Bantu stuns wherein African languages had been abused by the apartheid regime to divide people along tribal lines so as to maintain backwardness.

Wright (2016:54) states that "Under present conditions good quality African language education is just unattainable because the challenge of developing modern education in African languages is more difficult to surmount than similar education in English. This is because not only have African language teachers have to be re-educated and empowered, but educational consensus around language modernization and development has to be secured, as well as technical agreement on lexical extension and terminology, together with the formation of skilled communities of practice to inform and drive this process. New generations of graded textbooks in all learning arears have to be written and the context in which African language education takes place has to be fed systematically into teacher development programs. Not much of this has happened, or even been attempted, in the years since 1994 when apartheid fell."

2.14. Languages of learning and teaching – The current status of English

Spolsky (2009), as stated earlier, identifies the role of English as a global language as one of the forces that drive language policy as he argues that English as the global language of communication is seen by many as a bridge to socioeconomic upward mobility and a ticket for those speaking it to have easier access to the global community and the benefits that come with it. This strong wave of English, Spolsky (2009:82) asserts, "[i]s moving into almost every sociolinguistic repertoire throughout the global language ecology."

Tsuda (1994:49; 1997:22) states that "The relationship between language education policies and the spread of English as a lingua franca can be understood in terms of the diffusion of either a dominating paradigm or an ecology of languages paradigm". Phillipson and Skutnabb-Kangas (1996:436) assert that "the diffusion of English is associated with

capitalism; science and technology; modernization; monolingualism; ideological globalization and internationalization; Americanization and homogenization of world culture; and linguistic, cultural, and media imperialism." In contrast, the ecology of languages paradigm, as Skutnabb-Kangas (2000:657) states, "favours linguistic parity: multilingualism and linguistic diversity, promotion of additive foreign/second language learning, equality in communication, maintenance and exchange of cultures, ideological localization and exchange, economic democratization; human rights perspective, holistic integrative values, sustainability through promotion of diversity, qualitative growth, protection of local production and national sovereignties and finally redistribution of the world's material resources."

Amongst many people in South Africa the post-colonial and post-apartheid perception that English is the language of prestige and power still lingers greatly. Pluddemann (2013:9) states that "[i]t is becoming increasingly evident that the pro-multilingual language-in-education policy of 1997 is being ignored in favour of an Anglo centric or English-oriented mind-set. This disposition has arisen in response to three developments: the global dominance of English in the linguistic marketplace, the lack of political will on the part of the political class, and absence of popular demand for an enhanced role for the official African languages from the speakers of these languages themselves. The proof of this assertion is that the overt policy of additive bi/multilingualism is being subverted on a daily basis in schools by the covert policy of a replacive 'straight-for-English' or 'English-as-soon-as-possible' (E-asap) language medium practice." The majority of indigenous people lack pride in their own languages and seek access to English which they view as key to participation and mobility in wider society. The preference for English as a medium of instruction at the expense of mother tongue instruction is cited by many scholars as a major challenge to the smooth implementation of the Language in Education Policy (Masteries (2004), Alexander (2002), De Klerk (2001), Granville et al. (1997) and Desai 2001; and Kachru, 1986). According to Wright (2002). Historical reasons for English preference are: the language's history as a tool for colonial conquest, its prominence as a global language, its unifying function to the opposition of apartheid, and the accumulation of wealth and power by English speakers since the mid-nineteenth century.

English and Afrikaans home language speakers use their home languages, if they so choose, from birth through school to University giving them a lucrative status to their users

whereas African languages are reduced to languages that cannot be used for science and technology and which lack sufficient vocabulary to be used as LoLT and for assessments. As Deumert, (2010) contends some schools are forced to use English so as to attract learners and boost enrolment because most non-English home language parents and guardians, prefer their children or wards to be taught in English rather than their mother tongue. More so Desai (2002) gives an example of a school in Cape Town which introduced English to curb learners' movement to schools where they are taught in English.

Parents and guardians often view English as a language of sophistication and social class mobility. Such parents then want children to learn and master English so that social, educational and economic doors may be opened to their children (Kamwangamalu, 2005; Osborn, 2007). Parents, teachers and learners tend to embrace English as they view it as functional providential, rich, noble, interesting and well established. Gilmartin (2005) further cites the belief that English is the language of social and economic development as the reason why English is often used as the medium of instruction in South African schools. Furthermore, Gilmartin (2005) noted that students view their mother tongue as less useful compared to English particularly for employment prospects.

English language is the most dominant means of communication in South Africa as it is the language of government, business, media and social advancement and progress as well as international trade, (Probyn, 2015; De-Klerk 2010; Holmes 1997). This position of English threatens to side-line other South African languages despite constitutional and policy safeguards. Wa Kivulu and Diko (2016) and Probyn (2015) also conducted research which showed that the majority of South Africans favour English language instruction. The demographic facts of languages distribution in South Africa also favour English (De Klerk 2002). English is spoken widely and has the widest and most general distribution in almost every province compared to indigenous African languages which tend to be concentrated and limited to mainly their provinces such as IsiZulu in KwaZulu Natal, Setswana in the North West.

According to Wright (2012:48), "Africa requires a language dispensation which can accommodate diverse social and cultural inheritances within national borders as well as credible participation in the globalization movement." So if one is empowered by English one can move across South Africa and the world over and be able to communicate with

relative ease. Even if learners transfer from one province to another they will not be affected whereas when one has an African indigenous language only, he/she is handicapped.

English is also sought after in South Africa because higher education institutions have English as their medium of instruction for example in universities people would rather learn in English so that they can use it later. English has become so powerful in South Africa that some would argue that South Africans are actually lucky to have been colonized by the English rather than Portuguese or the French otherwise we would be struggling to access English now (Granville et al 1997). Since we have a powerful language (English) instead of fighting it we should be cherishing it. We are also already teaching many of the other curriculum subjects in English hence English is viewed as the key to other subjects and many scientific and technological concepts. English also carries the advantage of scientific and technical communication as a tool for globalized discourse. Thus, English has over a period of time accumulated high status as maker of class affiliation and urban sophistication and contemporaneousness for many Africans in South Africa as it offers a transition from territorial speech societies to urban cosmopolitanism and internationalism, (Wright 2012).

English is also viewed by some as a language of unity. With its apartheid history and post-apartheid tribal tensions, the use of English in South Africa aids the process of defusing tribal and ethnic tensions because emphasizing on any one of the nine official African languages over any of the others at national level fuels power-plays, tribalism and ethnicism. Ngcobo (2009) argues that also most information (including cultural and religious) is available in English hence English is seen as the key to access information and resources.

In relation to the Language in Education Policy, Heugh (2001) states that the LiEP neither bars access to English nor does it prevent the learning of English as alongside mother-tongue, English is the obvious choice for additional language in education. Pluddemann (2013), asserts that it is evident that the pro-multilingual language in education policy of 1997 is being ignored in favour of English-oriented mind-set. Pluddemann (2013:61) further states that “[t]his disposition has arisen in response to three developments: the global dominance of English in the linguistic marketplace, the lack of political will on the part of political class and the absence of popular demand for an enhanced role for the official African languages from speakers of these languages themselves. The proof to this is that the overt policy of additive bi/multilingualism is being subverted on a daily basis in schools

by the covert policy of a straight for English or English as soon as possible language medium practice." The paradox however, Pluddemann (2013) notes, is that proficiency in English is necessary for individuals to succeed in the linguistic market makes it impossible for the majority to attain such proficiency because while there is demand for English there is no supply. So as long as this scenario prevails those who do not have proficiency in English and its benefits profit will remain subdued by the elite and that way class interests are maintained. Pluddemann (2013) further asserts that, the effect is that the elites with the people collude in enactment of a covert LiEP that is at odds with the official (but largely symbolic) multilingual choices of the poor are constrained by lack of choices.

Some scholars like Kachru (2014) view the spread and power of English as a positive development since it since it has attained an international status of cross-cultural global communication. Thus, English also acts as a gatekeeper to educational, social and economic progress of individuals. As the colonial masters crafted it, English developed close ties with religion, intellectual work and politics and the perception of what it meant to be educated came to be seen through the colonizers' lens that being educated was being as closest to being western as is possible, English and being intellectual became synonymous, (Pennycook,1994).

The role of English in South Africa as a medium for political opposition during apartheid conflict further entrenched its preference and hegemony as Afrikaans was loathed and African languages were seen as divisive and meant to bar access to education. For many years the ANC's preferred language policy, both internal and external, had been English only.

Lastly Cha and Ham (2008) English is often viewed as a literacy that may no longer convey Western ideologies, as computer literacy is considered as a requirement for today's global citizens. Policy makers and implementers must therefore be wary of both the benefits and challenges English instruction brings to the learners, teachers, schools and society at large.

2.15. Textbooks and materials favour English

Textbook and teaching materials also play a role in the choice of LoLT. Currently in South Africa textbook publishers have produced textbooks in indigenous languages for the Foundation Phase (grades R to 3), (Probyn 2014). Most, if not all, textbooks from grade 4

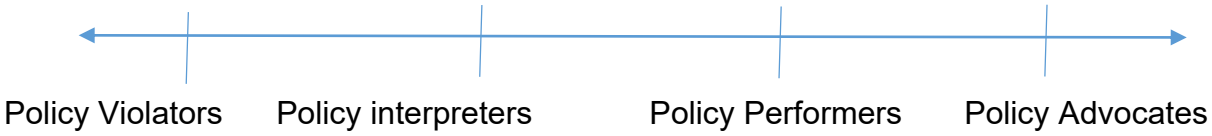
to matric are in English or Afrikaans. Moreover, the advent of other teaching and learning materials like e-books, laptops, tablets and cell phones are programmed in English making English further gain status and preference over African languages.

Lack of teaching and learning materials is not limited to the above mentioned but also to human resources. More teachers are trained to teach in English than in all African languages combined which then restricts the extent to which tuition can be offered in African languages compared to English.

2.16. A look at teacher roles in LiEP

Teachers play different roles in LiEP of which Pluddemann gives clarity. Pluddemann (2013) posits that teachers are positioned in four positions on an imaginary language policy continuum:

1. Teachers as policy violators.
2. Teachers as policy interpreters.
3. Teachers as policy performers.
4. Teachers as policy advocates.



Pluddemann (2013:34) Continuum of policy realization positions for teachers

Teachers as policy violators

Although acknowledging that this is an uncomfortable position, Pluddemann (2013:34) states that “Teachers become experts in the art of circumventing unworkable language policies, and become covert language policy violators. Hornberger and Link 2012 in Pluddemann (2013:34) argue that “In the context in which learners are denied epistemological access to the Curriculum on account of failing in language policies, committed teachers who have a language in common with all or most learners step into the breach; the improvised code-switching, code-mixing, translanguaging for a range of epistemological and regulatory functions. While these practices are welcomed by the learners they also create unintended problems. These include the learners tune-out during

the delivery in English (while waiting for delivery in home language) and what Pluddemann et.al (2004b:3) term “a disabling type of digslossia” in the classroom i.e. oral Xhosa, written English. Even inspired code switching by the teacher cannot compensate for the symbolic violence of the home language vs school language break, and is frequently accompanied by teachers initiating ‘safe talk’ classroom routines that give appearance of learning taking place (Arthur 2001) by encouragement of rote memorization as substitute cognitive linguistic comprehension and negotiation of knowledge, and by reductionist ‘teach to test’ practices (Brock-Utne, 2004).

Teachers as policy interpreters

Pluddemann (2013:46) “for teachers in position that South African schools in the post-apartheid era language policy is frequently the Conundrum that they cannot be solved by themselves individually. When teachers try to make sense of the plethora of policy texts and regulations and adapt these to their own situations as best as they can do i.e. interpret the policy. Darling Hammond (1990) in Pluddemann (2013) sees the teacher’s role as policy interpreter and adaptor. Darling-Hammond (2019:236) “To view implementation as a ‘straight-forward compliance’ is to betray a lack of understanding of how teaching works” Darling-Hammond (2019:236) states that “Where policies are poorly communicated to schools, teachers interpret the thin guidance they have received, [and] fill in the gaps with their own understanding of policy with what is already familiar to them creating [a] “mélange” of practices.”

Darling-Hammond (2019:237) criticises “top-down notions of policy implementation by which teachers are expected to change their beliefs, Knowledge, and actions this based on a change process that consists primarily of the issuance of a statement and the adoption of new texts. Such practices are antithetical to understandings of human learning. Instead policies should be better communicated to teachers and policymakers should consider the cumulative impact of previous policies and existing teacher knowledge should be the starting point for any new policy.’’

Ball (2006) in Pluddemann (2013) makes a general statement about policies and from a UK context which is different from South Africa. He asserts that policies do not normally prescribe what is to be done, they instead set conditions in which decisions can be made.

In South African context we have Language in Education Policy that gives powers to individual schools, SGBs to set their school policies.

Teachers as policy performers

Teachers are language planners with a voice. Pluddemann (2013) views classroom language use and teaching as a major part of language planning. “Teachers are not just conduits of pre-existing plans but active actors” (Lo Bianca, 2010 in Pluddemann, 2013:46). Ricento and Hornberger (1996:418) in Pluddemann (2013), state that “for their proximity to the grassroots, teachers are the primary language policy makers.” Policy implementation is not predictable as it begins from text and is interpreted differently by different role players and therefore implemented drastically differently. Teachers, therefore, can therefore put policy to practice differently.

Teachers as policy advocates

Pluddemann (2013: 48) states that teachers as policy advocates is the “most radical position and inhabited by teachers who, by virtue of their commitment to and insight into a speaker centred language transformation have moved a step ahead prevailing policies and practices. These policy advocates anticipate the future.”

In conclusion, Pluddemann (2013:48) notes that “Occupying one position on the imaginary continuum of language policy realization is not necessarily to the exclusion of other positions, it is merely to emphasize the dominant role experienced by teachers in a context constrained by a specific configuration of language regime. Thus a teacher could be conceivably vacillating between the policy violation and policy interpretation positions, and shift in the language regime, such a change in the national/provincial government, could catapult some teachers to becoming policy advocates literally overnight.”

2.17. Conclusion

This chapter reviewed literature that is relevant and is associated with the main areas of interest to this study. The chapter firstly looked at Language Policy and Practice and gave the aims of LiEP and linked them to children’s rights, then the current Language in Education Policy and its legislative context were discussed. The chapter also looked at Languages of Learning and Teaching and gave current practice of the LiEP. Further the chapter critiqued the current LiEP and then discussed the Department of Basic Education

Implementation Plan and unpacked the Incremental Introduction of African Languages, the Language across the Curriculum and then the Strategy for Teaching English Across the Curriculum as supplements of the Language in Education Policy. Finally, the chapter looked at different teacher roles in Language in Education Policy.

3. Chapter 3 –Theoretical Framework

3.1. Introduction

Henning, Gravatt and Rensburg (2014:25) state that “A theoretical framework is like the lens through which you view the world.” Henning et al (2014:25) further add that “A theoretical framework also provides an orientation into your study.” The Oxford Dictionary (2018:1074) defines a theory as “A formal set of ideas that is intended to explain why something happens or exists.” Theories therefore are used to explain situations that would otherwise be generally misunderstood by framing dialogue between research and literature. This chapter therefore reviews language policy analysis and the Critical Discourse Analysis theoretical frameworks which provide the basis for understanding and analysing the data gathered in this research.

3.2. Language Policy Analysis Framework

3.2.1. Language Policy Analysis Framework

According to Kaplan and Baldauf (1997:83), "A language policy is a body of ideas, laws, regulations, rules and practices intended to achieve the planned language change in the societies, group or system." Fairclough (1989) asserts that the school and particularly the curriculum is one area of conflict where the dominant and the dominated use to ascertain their power through language as they seek recognition of their languages. The researcher observed that this control of language and language recognition in the school curriculum is done overtly or covertly through language policies. Tollefson (1991) analyses language policy as the outcome of struggle as well as a component in the struggle, as he views an individual’s response to a language problem or to language policy being constrained by class relationships in which the individual participates. Tollefson (1991:103) then defines language policies as ‘’ [e]xpressions of natural, common-sense assumptions about language and society. Language policy concerns language regulation. This refers to what a government does officially through legislation in order to determine how languages are used to impact language skills needed to meet national priorities or to establish the rights of individuals or groups to use and maintain languages.” The research looked at these expressions and common sense assumptions made by teachers, SGB chairpersons and principals.

Policy can be interpreted differently by different stakeholders. Crockrel, Mckendall, Hall and Placier (2000:259) assert that “Policies convey intentions; and policy-making cannot be

understood without understanding actors' intentions. Policy is not a concrete text to be implemented but a transformation on intentions in which content; practices; and consequences are generated in the dynamics." From this statement policy is understood as involving various actors (from government officials though parents to teachers) who all have intentions, be they similar or different and their intentions about the text, interpretation and implementation of language policy. The researcher later analyses these intentions and transformation of intentions by teachers. Molale (2007) argues that critical attention should be paid to the forces that aid or hinder policy objectives.

Shohamy (2006:45) defines language policy as "[T]he primary mechanism for organizing, managing and manipulating language behaviours as it consists of decisions made about languages and their uses in society. It is through language policy that decisions are made with regard to the preferred languages that should be legitimized, used, learned and taught in terms of where, when and in which contexts." Shohamy (2006) further states that languages are manipulated through policies so as to control language practices. In this sense language policies are not neutral and can be used to manipulate and control society whether for emancipatory or suppressive purposes. The research analysed whether the LiEP controls language practices.

From the definitions above it can be seen that policy is not neutral and different role players like teachers transform and manipulate policy to practice. The definitions also show that policy can be interpreted differently by different individuals. The research will explore if this is the case in Northern Cape.

Policy analysis can be viewed, therefore, as a process of evaluating existing policy for continuous growth and improvement. Policy analysis can also be used to formulate new policies and to strengthen existing ones, hence policy analysis framework is relevant to this study as the framework helps us to be clear about the goals and motives of the policy, its targets and implementation strategies. It is in this regard that policy analysis should therefore be seen as a continuous process.

Policy analysis requires that the analysts be aware that it has various internal and external influencing factors and actors in its formulation and implementation. Policy implementers who are in fact teachers are one group of actors that have a major influence on policy formulation and implementation. The various actors e.g. (SGBs, Department officials,

NGOs, politicians and parents) in policy formulation and implementation are not free from bias. Schiffman (1996) sates that language policy is grounded in linguistic culture which are set of behaviours, assumptions, cultural forms, prejudices, belief systems, attitudes, stereotypes, prejudices, ways of thinking about language, religion and historical circumstances associated with a particular language and all the other cultural baggage that speakers bring to their dealings with from their background. These Schiffman (1996) sees as the obstacles of policy implementation.

Just like many teachers, the researcher mistakenly held the view that language policy is the written text (written policy) but the reality is that there is more to it than that. Lo Bianco (2009) clarifies that language policy consists of three dimensions and these are (a) language policy as a discourse, (b) language policy as a text and (c) language policy as a practice which some refer to as language practices. Language policy as a discourse refers to the contestations and debates that precede and form part of the language policy development process. Language policy as a text is the actual document while language policy as a practice is how the policy is performed. Knowing these three dimensions helped the researcher to look at different dimensions of policy in schools not just the written policy. Lo Bianco, Spolsky and Boncina-Pugh will be referred to later in this chapter.

Schiffman (1996) further expands the scope of language policy by including the immaterial and imaginary aspects that surround language practices which by dividing them into two parts: overt and covert. Overt language policy is explicit, formalized, declared, de jure. These are done through laws, statutes and written statements concerning languages. Covert language policy is implicit, informal, latent, de facto and is revealed within a framework of beliefs and also power relations of various stakeholders. Schiffman (1996) stresses that research on language policy should not be limited to what is explicit but researchers should look beyond what he terms the incompleteness of official documents in order to observe reality of community beliefs. Both overt and covert policies are paid attention in the chosen research sites i.e., the 3 primary schools in Kuruman.

Spolsky (2004) defines language policy as all language practices, beliefs and management decisions of a community or polity. Spolsky (2004, 2009, and 2012) asserts that language policy has three interrelated but independently describable components viz: practices, beliefs and language management. Practices are what people actually do with language in

their daily lives. These practices are observable behaviours and choices that members of a given community carry out. Spolsky (2009, 2012) argues that these practices represent the real language policy of a speech community although participants may be reluctant to admit it. However, while practices constitute policy to the extent that they are regular and predictable studying them is made difficult by the observer's paradox. Labov (1972) in Spolsky (2009) argues that an observer adds an extra participant and so modifies unobserved behaviour. Labov (1972:209) argues that "the aim of linguistic research in the community must be to find out how people talk when they are not being systematically observed; yet one can only obtain these data by systematic observation". The paradox is therefore the teachers and learners acting in ways they do not normally act when there is no visitor or the gadgets like cameras which do not constitute their normal classroom. This knowledge helped the researcher to find ways of observing that minimised this paradox. Spolsky (2004) further notes that language practices develop and are influenced in a large measure by external forces. Bourdieu (1981) in Spolsky (2004) states that both attitudes and practices are derived from the social background of the individual. Individual teachers' practices were viewed against their background in each of the three schools. The background of the principal and that of the SGB chairperson will be paid attention to. During observations the researcher took note of the observer's paradox and made conclusions not from observations alone but from other sources of data i.e. document analysis and interviews.

The second component according to Spolsky (2004:4) "is related to beliefs about language(s), sometimes called ideology. Beliefs represent the values attributed and assigned to languages as well as the importance given to these values." Spolsky (2009:4) further states that "the status of a language is derived from how many people use it, the importance these users and the social and economic benefits a speaker can expect in using it." Beliefs, Spolsky (2004) asserts that beliefs are about language and its use and both derive from and influence language practices. Simply put language beliefs or ideologies are what people think about language. Beliefs can be a basis for language management and language policy. In my data collection and analysis, I will look at ideology/beliefs about the language(s) used by teachers in the classroom. I will also look at the principal and the SGB's beliefs.

Language management, is the third component of language policy. Spolsky (2004, 2009, and 2012) defines language management as the conscious realisation of efforts by someone, a group, a government or by those who judge themselves as having the authority to do so in order to modify the practices or linguistic beliefs in a given social domain like family or school. Language management then becomes the attempt to modify the values or practices of someone else. Language management, Spolsky (2004:4) states that "language management refers to the formulation and proclamation of an explicit plan or policy, usually but not necessarily written in a formal document about language use." It is therefore important to note and emphasise this point that is brought by Spolsky that language policy is not necessarily only that which is written but can be verbal as well as that which can be seen in practice. Spolsky (2009) further states that management also accounts for many language choices but is not automatically successful. Unlike language beliefs which may be authorless, management presupposes a manager. The research looked at management and how this affects LiEP interpretation and implementation.

Spolsky (2009) asserts that these three components help to understand and account for language choices and practices. Spolsky (2009) further states that language choice is determined by language proficiency, the beliefs explain the language values that help to account for individual choice and the management may influence speakers to modify their practice or belief. I will look into each school whether they have language management and whether that management influences teachers' beliefs and their practice and check whether language proficiency of teachers influence their practice.

While each of these three components are relevant Spolsky (2009) argues that the strongest are language practices because in their absence there are no available models nor proficiency. Proficiency in a language, whether written or spoken sets a limit to language choice and provides strong instrument for implicit language management.

These three components proposed by Spolsky (2009, 2012) were later named by Boncina-Pugh (2012) as declared, perceived and practiced language policies. This research will look at each school's declared, perceived and practiced language policies.

Spolsky (2009) purports that language policies at national level are driven by four common co-existing forces viz: national (or ethnic) ideology or claims of identity, the role of English as a global language, a nation's sociolinguistic situation and an increasing interest in

linguistic rights within the human and civil rights framework. For document analysis, the researcher will have a brief look at whether the LiEP was influenced by the above and whether that influence affects interpretation and implementation of LiEP.

National ideology and identity, Spolsky (2009) states, refer to the infrastructure of beliefs and principles relevant to a collective psyche that may manifest in language policy. The role of English refers to what Spolsky (2004:220) calls "[ti]dal wave of English that is moving into almost every sociolinguistic repertoire" throughout the global language ecology. As a language of global communication English has come to index a cosmopolitan social and economic mobility. However, the wave can also create tensions between linguistic internalisation and local language interests. The sociolinguistic situation according to Spolsky (2004:219) refers to" [t]he number and kinds of speakers of each, the communicative value of each language both inside and outside the community being studied." For this research both Schiffman and Spolky's notions of language policy will be used but it is important to note that while Schiffman agrees that language policy is grounded in language policy and beliefs, Spolsky asserts that beliefs and ideologies are in fact language policy. The final factor, Spolsky (2004) claims is the increasing global interest in linguistic pluralism and an acceptance of the need to recognise the rights of individuals and groups to continue to use their languages. Language is positioned as an element of human rights, urging nations to offer language rights to minorities in some way such as provisions for minority language schooling. These will be looked into when we look at the South African context.

Albury (2015) summarises Spolky's language policy theory by stating that the field has accepted that language policy situation of a community is realised via the multitude of actors, contexts, processes, interpretations, negotiations and contestations of official policy directives.

SUMMARY OF LANGUAGE POLICY FRAMEWORK

Schiffman: **Overt Language** policy; Language Policy as a **reflection** of linguistic culture. **Covert Language**; Policy as a **product** of linguistic culture

As Spolsky, Boncina-Pugh and Lo Bianco are similar I have summarised and tabled them below under their similar components.

Table 2 Summary of components from Spolsky, Boncina-Pugh and Lo Bianco

	Policy	Policy	Policy
Spolsky	Management	Beliefs	Practice
Boncina-Pugh	Declared	Perceived	Practiced
Lo Bianco	Text	Discourse	Practice

3.2.2. Policy from below

Alexander (2009:12) defines language policy from below as a process "conducted semi-underground in NGOs and peoples' organizations, mobilizing constituencies around the language question consciously with a view to changing the status of the African languages." Pluddemann (2013:11) defines language policy from below as "[a] spatial metaphor that suggests a language initiative arising from the proverbial grassroots up, something done below expected level, something unofficial, possibly covert, even clandestine, something that potentially challenges or even subverts the established language order." Pluddemann (2013) further clarifies it as a move from monolithic and top down concept of policy enforcement, to a more nuanced understanding of policy as a contested process with contextual factors constraining and determining the extent of realisation in practice. I can therefore define bottom-up approach as being a process that is not initiated by the government, but one which begins at a lower level of the social. This understanding of Language policy from below will help me to look at practice by teachers as to whether within their different contexts they contest the top down language policy. However, for language policy to be effective, while it is from below it should be supported by legislation i.e. it is up to research such as this one to then recommend the positive that is happening on the ground so that it can be legislated and therefore get the necessary support. I am particularly making this reference for Policy from below so that it can be seen that since this research is looking at schools and teachers we can learn from their best practice.

3.3. Critical Discourse Analysis

Fairclough (1989:357) defines Critical Discourse Analysis thus: "CDA is a problem-oriented interdisciplinary research movement subsuming a variety of approaches, each with different theoretical models, research methods and agenda. What unites them is a shared interest in the semiotic dimensions of power, injustice, abuse, and political-

economic or cultural change in society and its critical approach to methodology." Wang (2006) in Mirzee and Hamidi (2012), asserts that it is usually agreed that CDA cannot be organized as a single method but rather regarded as an approach, which includes different perspectives and the methods for studying the relationship between the use of language and social context. According to Fairclough and Wodak (1997), critical Discourse Analysis is a quickly developing area of language study which is specifically interested in the relationship between language and power. Mirzee and Hamidi (2012) state that CDA is specifically interested in the relationship between language and power and that CDA may be described as neo-Marxist claiming that cultural and economic scopes are crucial in the generation and maintenance of power relations. Critical Discourse Analysis can therefore be defined as a way of studying the link between language use and power relations that emerge from that relationship.

Fairclough & Wodak, (1997:258) assert that "CDA analyses real instances of social interaction which take a complete or partial linguistic form as it aims to make visible, the ideological loading of particular ways of using language and the relations of power which underlie them." Chouliaraki & Fairclough, (1999) state that CDA examines social practices based on their discourse moments. Fairclough & Wodak, (1997:272) further state that CDA emphasizes the substantively linguistic and discursive nature of social relations of power and the way they are used and discussed in discourse. For the purpose of this study the use of language will be examined on choices teachers make regarding language use in their classroom practice, then this will be analysed whether it relates to the LiEP.

Van Dijk, (1993a) is of the view that CDA is used to analyse texts in order to discover what structures, strategies or other properties of text, talk, verbal interaction or communicative events play a role in production or reproduction of unequal power relations. According to Van Dijk (1998a) Critical Discourse Analysis is a field concerned with studying and analysing written and spoken texts to reveal the discursive sources of power, dominance, inequality and bias. It examines how the discursive sources are maintained and reproduced within specific social political and historical contexts .CDA assumes that language use is always social and discourse reflects and constructs the social world. Janks (1997) states that CDA stems from critical theory of language as a form of social practice as all social practices are tied to a specific historical contexts and

are the means by which existing social relations are reproduced or contested and different interests are served.

Wodak (1999: 186) states that “CDA is not a single theory but rather a research program with many facets and numerous different theoretical and methodological approaches.” Wodak and Meyer (2008:43) assert that “CDA aims to shed light on the discursive aspects of societal disparities and inequalities. CDA detects the linguistic means used by the privileged to stabilize or even intensify inequalities in society. This entails careful systemic analysis, self-reflection at every point of one’s research and distance from data which is being investigated.”

CDA is what Fairclough (1992) has referred to as a textually oriented form of discourse analysis (TODA). To develop this textual analysis Fairclough brought together the linguistic theory of systemic Functional Linguistics proposed by Halliday (Halliday and Hasan 1976, as cited in Fairclough, (1992) systemic functional linguistics (SFF) explains language use in terms of the form and function of interactions (SFI) theorists hypnotize that every interaction can be understood at 3 levels; textually, interpersonally and situated in in a wider societal context (Rodgers et al, 2005)

3.3.1. Little d and Capital D in Discourse

Gee (2004, cited in Rodgers et. al., 2005) makes a distinction between the capitalized term “Critical Discourse Analysis” and “critical discourse analysis” in lower case letters, He states that CDA refers to the kind of analysis that has been informed by Fairclough, Hodge, Kress, Wodak, Vandijk, van Leeuwen and followers. Lower case critical discourse analysis includes a wider array of approaches. Different scholars are conducting critically based forms of discourse analysis but do not exclusively call their work CDA.

Fairclough, Muddlerring and Wodak (1992) note that CDA sees itself not as dispassionate and objective social science but as engaged and committed, a form of intervention in social practice and social relationships. What is distractive about CDA compared to other approaches of research is that without compromising its social scientific objectivity and rigour, it openly and explicitly positions itself on the side of the dominated and oppressed groups and against dominating groups.

Wodak (2006) states that CDA is fundamentally interested in analysing opaque as well as transparent structural relationships of dominance, discrimination, power and control

when these manifested in language, in other words CDA aims to investigate critical and social inequality as it is expressed, constituted, and legitimised by language use. Wodak and Meyer (2006 :3) further states that “CDA is problem orientated, aims to critique ideologies of power as conveyed in language and other semiotic systems, analyses textual features in light of lager social context and is openly committed promoting social justice while being self-reflective about this.”

Huckin (2002) is of the view that CDA addresses contemporary societal issues, seeking how people are manipulated by powerful interests through the medium of public discourse, gives special attention to underlying factors of ideology; power and resistance, links together analyses of text, discursive practices and social context, combines rhetorical theory and social theory and takes into account omissions, implicates, presumptions, ambiguities, and other covert but powerful aspects of discourse such as politeness, identity and ethos, they grow their analyses in close detailed inspection of texts, encourages political activism, tries to make accessible to the general public by e.g. minimising use of technical jargon and belletrist style.CDA also explains connections between the use of social and political contexts in which it occurs, explores issues such as gender, ethnicity cultural difference, ideology and identity and how else are both constructed in texts.

Huckin (2002) outlines some of the principles of CDA as:

• Social and political issues are negotiated are constructed and reflected in discourse.

• Power relations are negotiated and performed through discourse.

• Discourse both reflects and reproduces social relations.

• Ideologies are produced and reflected in the use of discourse.

This study used CDA to check whether teachers’ interpretation and use of LiEP is influenced by historical factors. It was also used to check whether teachers’ interpretation of LiEP plays a role in the production or reproduction of unequal power relations.

3.3.2. Critical in CDA

The critical in CDA is what Fairclough (1995) states to be critical concepts that in fact show relations and causes which are unseen; it also implies intrusion, for instance providing resources for those people which may be disadvantaged through change. Atkins (2002) believes that exposure of things hidden is important, as they are not

comprehensible for the people occupied. Meaning that those that are affected usually don't know that they are. Rogers (2005) states that critical discourse analysts begin with an interest in understanding, uncovering and transforming conditions of inequality. The starting point of analysis differs depending on where the critical analyst locates and depicts power. CDA analysts locate power in the arena of language as a social practice. Power however can take on both liberating and oppressive forms. Fairclough (1995) states that critical concepts show relations and causes which are unseen. Martin & Wodak,(2003: 6) assert that "CDA approach is critical in the way that it involves having distance from the data, embedding the data in the social, making a political stance explicit, and having a focus on self-reflection as scholars doing research" Similarity, Fairclough (1995b:97) points out that his approach to discourse analysis is critical which intends "to make visible through analysis, and to criticize, connections between properties of texts and social processes and relations (ideologies, power relations) which are generally not obvious to people who produce and interpret those texts, and whose effectiveness depends upon this opacity."

3.3.3. Discourse in CDA

The discourse in CDA is defined as language use in social practice i.e. discourse moves from side to side between reflecting and constructing the social world. Discourse is understood to be a form of social practice within a socio-cultural context. By paying attention to this concept language cannot be regarded as neutral, since it is caught up in political, social, racial, economic, religious and cultural formations (Atkins, 2002). Discourses, for Foucault in Fairclough, Maldlerring and Wodak, (1992) are knowledge systems of human sciences that inform the social and governmental 'technologies' which constitute power in modern society. The power relations are therefore always there in discourses whether overtly or covertly. Mirzaee and Hamidi (2012) state that within CDA tradition, discourse has been defined as language in social practice. CDA sees discourse as a form of social practice. This implies a dialectical relationship between a particular discursive event and all the diverse elements of the situation(s), institution(s) and social structures which frame it. Van Dijk (1993) argues that within the aims of CDA mentioned above there are many types of CDA and these may be theoretically and analytically diverse critical analysis of conversation may not be like the analysis of lessons at schools

yet it is most kinds of CDA ask questions about the way specific discourse structures are developed in the reproduction of social dominance.

A dialectal relationship is a two-way relationship: the discursive event is shaped by situations, institutions and social structures, but it also shapes them. Discourse is socially constitutive as well as socially shaped: it constitutes situations, objects of knowledge and social identities of and relationships between people of groups of people. It is constitutive both in the sense that it helps sustain and reproduce the social status quo, if in the sense that it contributes to transforming it. Since the discourse is so socially influential, it gives rise to important issues of power. In a dialectical understanding, a particular configuration of the social world (e.g. Relations of domination and difference) is implicated in a particular linguistic conceptualization of the world, in language, we do not simply name things but we conceptualize things. This discursive practices may have major ideological effects, i.e. they can help produce and reproduce unequal power relations between for instance social classes, women, men and ethnic groups through the ways in which they represent things and position people. So discourse may be for, example be racist or sexist and try to pass off assumptions (often falsifying ones) about an aspect of social life as a mere common sense. Both the, ideological loading of particular ways of using language and the relations of power which underline them are often unclear to people. Using CDA the researcher aimed to make more visible these opaque aspects of discourse as a social practice.

3.3.4. Data Gathering in CDA

Most approaches do not explicitly explain or recommend data gathering procedures. Wodak and Meyer (2008) concluded that CDA does not constitute a well-defined empirical method but rather a bulk of approaches with theoretical similarities and research questions of a specific kind, but there is no CDA way gathering data, either.

Data collection is not considered to be a specific phase that must be completed before analysis begins after the first collection exercise, it is a matter of carrying out the 1st analyses, finding indicators for particular concepts, expanding concepts into categories and, on the basis of these results, collecting further data (theoretical sampling). In this mode of procedure data collection is never completely excluded and new questions

always arise which can only be dealt with if new data are collected, or earlier data are re-examined. The way data was collected for this research is explained in the next chapter.

3.3.5. Analysis in CDA

Rogers (2005) states that there are many approaches to CDA including French discourse analysis (Foucault, 1996/1972, Pecheux, 1975), social semiotics (Hodge and Kress, 1993) the discourse historical method (Wodak, 1996, Meyers, Titscher, and Venter 2000) and multi model methods (Hodge and Kres, 1988; Kress and van Leeuwen, 1996)

Critical analysis explains how discourse systematically constructs versions of the social world. Critical analysis according to Rogers (2005) positions subjects in relations to power (both liberatory and oppressive aspects of power) rather than analysing language as a way of explaining the psychological intentions, motivations, skills, and competencies of individuals. Hence this study did not look into individual competencies as a result of chosen LoLT a language practice in schools. Mirzuee and Hamidi (2012) state that through CDA teachers can achieve a better understanding of their teaching practice. Consequently, appropriate adjustments can be applied which lead to a better capacity of the classroom interactions.

Rogers believes that CDA contributes to the understanding of learning in 2 main ways. First, by analysing discourse from a critical perspective that allows a person to find at the processes of learning in more complicated ways. The analysis of the networking of language allows analyst views into elements of learning that other theories and methods might have issued. In the process of conducting CDA, is that the researchers and the and participants' learning is formed.

Secondly CDA can be fruitful if the educational setting is Critical Classroom Discourse Analysis. Discourse analysis in the classroom becomes critical classroom discourse analysis when classroom researchers take the effects such as variable contexts into account in their analysis.

Rymes (2008:1) states that analysis in CDA can be defined as "looking at language and language-in-use in a classroom context with the understanding that this context is influenced by multiple social contexts beyond and within the classroom to understand how context and talk are influencing each other for the purpose of improving future classroom

interactions and positively affecting social outcomes in the contexts beyond the classroom." As I analysed my data, I considered theses aspects.

Van Dijk (2001) states that critical discourse analysis deals with the relationship between discourse and power. According to Wodak and Meyer (2001) power is about relations of differences and particularly about effects of differences in social structures. Power does not necessarily derive from language but language can be used to challenge power to subvert it, to alter distribution of power in short and long term language provides finely articulated vehicle for differences in power in hierarchical social structures

3.3.6. Power and CDA

Vandijk (2001) states that central notion in most work on discourse is that of power and more specifically the social power of groups or institutions. Vandijk (2001) further argues that social power is defined in terms of control. Groups have (more/less) power of they are able to (more/less) control the acts and mind of (members of) other groups. There are different types of power but of note is persuasive power e.g., teachers' principal power may be based on knowledge, information and authority. Because power is seldom absolute dominated, groups may resist, accept, condone, comply with, or legitimize such power or even find it "natural". The power of dominant groups may be integrated in laws, rules and even general consensus. Groups who control most influential discourse also have more chances to control the minds and actions of others. Wodak and Meyer (2001) state that an important perspective in CDA related to the notion of power is that it is very rare that a text is the work of one person therefore the texts are often site, of struggle sowing traces of different discourses and ideologies contending and struggling for dominance.

Fairclough and Wodak (1997) summarize the main tenets of CDA as follows:

1. CDA addresses social problems
2. Power relations are discursive
3. Discourse constitutes society and culture
4. Discourse is historical
5. Link between text and society is mediated

6. Discourse does ideological work

7. Discourse analysis is interpretative, descriptive, and explanatory and uses a systematic methodology.

8. Discourse is a form of social action

9. The role of analyst is to study the relationship between texts of social practices.

The first is that CDA addresses social problems. It does not only focus on language and language use but also on linguistic characteristics of social and cultural processes. CDA interviews to make explicit power relationships which are often hidden. Its purposes are to gain results which are of fractional significance to the social, cultural, political and even economic contexts.

The second principle is that power relations are discursive, so CDA explains how social relations of power are exercised and negotiated in and through discourse.

The third is that discourse includes society and culture. This means that every case of language use makes its own contribution to reproducing and transforming society and culture, consisting of relation of power.

The fourth principle underlines that discourse is historical. It means that, according to Fairclough, (1997:276) “discourse is not produced without context and cannot be understood without taking the context into consideration.”

The fifth principle emphasizes that the link between text and society is mediated Fairclough & Wodak, (1997: 277) state that CDA is “about making connections between social and cultural structures and processes on the one hand, and properties of text on the other.” Fairclough (1993) highlighted that the link between text and society is mediated through Foucault’s notion of “orders of discourse”. Simpson & Mayr, (2010: 53) give an example as follows “the order of discourse that organizes, say a university will be characterized by a host of interrelated textual practices such as the discourses of essays, meetings, lectures, seminars, administrative texts and so on”

The sixth principle highlights that discourse does ideological work. It shows that discourse is not neutral; there are some ideologies behind it. Ideologies, according to Fairclough &

Wodak, (1997: 275) refer to “particular ways of representing and constructing society which reproduce unequal relations of power, relations of domination and exploitation.”

The seventh principle is that discourse analysis is interpretative and explanatory. CDA aims to move beyond textual analysis to the interpretation and explanation stages of analysis. Fairclough & Wodak, (1997:278) state that CDA shows that “discourse can be interpreted in very different ways, due to the audience and the amount of context information which is included” Further Fairclough & Wodak, (1997:279) argue that CDA may deconstruct a contradiction within a text to demonstrate “the different implications of different readings for social action” Fairclough and Wodak (1997:279) further state that critical analysis of a text requires “systematic approach to inherent meanings”, “scientific procedures”, and “self-reflection of the researchers”, which make the critical readings of a text different from uncritical reading by an uncritical audience. This interpretative and explanatory nature of discourse analysis is “dynamic and open, open to new contexts and new information.”

The last principle refers to discourse as a form of social action. Fairclough & Wodak, (1997:279-280) state that “CDA intends to find out opaqueness and relations of power. It refers to a socially committed scientific paradigm, and some scholars are also active in various political groups.” Van Dijk (1996:84) allude that “the focus of CDA is in the relationships between discourse and social power, and its main goal is to describe and explain how power abuse is enacted, reproduced or legitimised by the text and talk of dominant groups or institutions.” Similarly, Garret & Bell, (1998: 6) state that “CDA aims to find out unequal relations of power and to reveal the role of discourse in reproducing or challenging socio-political dominance.”

3.3.7. Fairclough’s CDA

While the researcher acknowledges that Wodak’s Discourse-historical approach and Van Dijk’s Socio-cognitive approach to CDA and their similarities to Fairclough’s socio-critical approach, I will not go into detail about them individually but would focus at Fairclough who I will mainly pivot on as my framework. Simpson & Mayr, (2010: 53) assert that “Fairclough’s socio-critical approach has been influenced by Foucault’s (1972) theory of ideology and has drawn on Foucault notion of orders of discourse covering a range of institutional discourse practices.” Fairclough (1989, 1992, and 1995) outlined 3-tired

framework which includes analysis of texts, interactions and social practices with the local, institutional and societal levels.

•The first goal of the analyst is to describe the relationships among certain texts, interactions and social practices.

•The second goal is to interpret the configuration of disclosure practices

•The third goal is to use the description of interpretation to offer explanation of why and how social practices are constituted, changed, and transformed in ways they are.

Fairclough's analytical framework is constituted by 3 levels of analysis. The text, the discursive practice and sociocultural practice.

Text can either be spoken or written. It is an instance of discourse practise involving the production of interpretation of texts and it is a part of social practice. Analysis at textual level involves use of Halliday's systemic functional linguistics and the 3 domains of ideational interpersonal and textual analysis. The ideational functions include meta-narratives that circulate in society. Analysis involves types of verbs involved in the interaction. The interpersonal functions are meanings of the social relations established between participants in the interaction which includes analysis of the mood (whether a sentence is a statement, question or declaration) and modality (the degree of assertiveness in exchange.) The textual domain involves thematic structure of text. The analysis of the text consists of the study of language structures produced in discursive event.

Fairclough's second dimension, discursive practice, involves analysis of the process of production, interpretation, distribution and consumption. This dimension is concerned with how people interpret and reproduce or transform texts. An analysis of the discursive practice is in fact paying attention to explaining the production, consumption and reproduction of the texts. The third dimension, sociocultural practice, is concerned with issues of power, power being a construct that is realised through inter-discursivity and hegemony. Analysis in this dimension includes exploration of the ways in which discourses operate in various domains in society.

Fairclough's (1997) model of Analytical Framework basing it on the 3 elements is summarised thus:

1. Description (text analysis) which above is noted as Analysis at textual level.

2. Interpretation (process analysis) which is mentioned above as discursive practice.

3. Explanation (social analysis) which is described above as sociocultural practice.

For Fairclough (1995:134) “CDA is concerned with that language use is both socially shaped and socially shaping. Language use is always simultaneously constructive of social identities and social relations.”

Link between Fairclough’s CDA and Language policy framework

As the researcher has stated that the study pivots on language policy framework and Fairclough’s CDA it is necessary to link the two. For document analysis the research used what Spolsky refers to as management policy, Boncina-Pugh calls declared policy, what Lo Bianco terms policy as text and what Fairclough named text analysis. The nexus of analysing factors that influence interpretation and practice the research used what Spolsky terms beliefs, Boncina-Pugh calls perceived policy, Lo-Bianco terms discourse and Fairclough refers to as discursive practice. To interrogate actual classroom, practice the research pivoted on what Spolsky, Boncina-Pugh, Lo Bianco refer to as practice and Fairclough calls sociocultural practice. The table below summarises the link.

	Policy	Policy	Policy
Spolsky	Management	Beliefs	Practice
Boncina-Pugh	Declared	Perceived	Practiced
Lo Bianco	Text	Discourse	Practice
Fairclough’s CDA	Text analysis	Discursive practice	Sociocultural practice

Table 4 Summary and link

3.3.8. Critique of CDA

Rogers (2015) lists the 3 most common critiques of CDA as that:

a) That political and social ideologies are read into the data

b) That there is an imbalance between social theories; on one hand, and linguistic theory and method, on the other

c) That CDA is often divorced from social contexts.

3.3.9. Criticism of Fairclough

The critics of Fairclough's theory state that it is difficult to understand and use, its literature is complicated and that it works differently from culture to culture. The critics further argue that sometimes it's about what's not being said/ written. Wodak (2006a) argues that critics of CDA state that CDA constantly sits on the fence between social research and political argumentation while others accuse some CDA studies of being too linguistic or not linguistic enough. While accepting criticism, Wodak and Meyer (2008) believe that such criticism keeps a field above because it necessarily stimulates more self-reflection and encourages new responses and new thoughts.

3.4. Conclusion

This section reviewed language Policy Analysis theory and Critical Discourse Analysis which will provide the basis for understanding and analysing the data gathered in this research. CDA and policy analysis are two frameworks that provide a complimentary view on language policy issues. Policy analysis involves the practical elements of policy, following a logical flow in the process of policy development, interpretation and implementation, while CDA interrogates the policy from the standpoint of ideology and interest. CDA and Policy Analysis frameworks therefore provide a lens for analysing language policy beyond the scope of the policy as a text, to also include policy process analysis, and social analysis.

4. Research Methodology

4.1. Introduction

This chapter discusses and explores the methods of data collection, research participants, research context and methods of data analyses. Ethical considerations, validity and limitations of the study are discussed.

4.2. Research design and methods

This explorative study sought to find out how schools and teachers interpret and implement the LiEP for their classroom practice. A qualitative research design was employed. Creswell (2017) states that research designs are plans and procedures for research that guide the conclusions from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection and analysis. Creswell (2017) points out that qualitative research gives clarity to what individuals or groups attribute to a social or human problem. Qualitative research will give the study a clear and detailed understanding of the relationship between Language in Education Policy and practice. Tapping issues around schools made this a case study. Cohen et al. *(2014)* state that case studies provide unique example of real people in real situations, enabling readers to understand ideas more clearly. Since the research dealt with real classroom and school situations a case study was suitable.

Zainal (2016) defines an explanatory case study as a study that examines data closely both on the surface and deep level in order to explain the phenomena in the data. An explanatory case study was appropriate in this research because they give a clear window through which we view people in real life situations so that we comprehend fully their situations rather than guess or imagine the situations. Zainal (2016) also notes that case studies are useful in research because they help researchers to scrutinise data at micro level and because they present data of real-life situations, and they provide better insights into detailed behaviours of the subjects of interest. Case studies have proven useful for researching on educational innovations and informing policy. In this case it helped me understand how schools and teachers interpret and implement language policy in the three public primary schools and how and why the relationship is in that state as we seek ways to better the relationship.

This study is also situated in the interpretivist paradigm. This research chose the interpretivist paradigm because it is linked to the language policy framework which takes

into consideration teachers' beliefs affecting their interpretation and practice. Interpretive researchers believe that the reality to consists of people's subjective experiences of the external world. In this case the study sought to find out whether teachers' LiEP interpretation and practice are subjective to their individual experiences to the external world. Interpretivists assume that knowledge and meaning are acts of interpretation, hence there is no objective knowledge which is independent of thinking, reasoning humans. Myers (2009) argues that the premise of interpretive researchers is that access to reality (whether given or socially constructed) is only through social constructions such as language, consciousness, and shared meanings. Teachers have to interpret and implement LiEP so an understanding of social constructions that affect their interpretation will help find ways of improving their practice. Interpretive paradigm is underpinned by observation and interpretation; thus we understand phenomena through the meanings that people assign to them. This was chosen because interpretivist paradigm is in alignment with Fairclough's CDA discursive practice which was discussed in chapter 3. Reeves and Hedberg (200: 32) note that the "interpretivist" paradigm stresses the need to put analysis in context. The interpretive paradigm is concerned with understanding the world as it is from subjective experiences of individuals. They use meaning (versus measurement) oriented methodologies, such as interviewing or observation. In addition to document analysis and field notes this research used interviews and observation which will be later discussed.

This interpretive approach aims to explain the subjective reasons and meanings that lie behind social action. Teachers' interpretation and practice are social actions which were analysed in this interpretive approach.

Walsham (2005) presents three different uses of theory in interpretive case studies: theory guiding the design and collection of data; theory as an iterative process of data collection and analysis; and theory as an outcome of a case study. The use of theory as an iterative process between data collection and analysis has been applied in this research study. In the interpretive approach the researcher engages in the activities and discerns the meanings of actions as they are expressed within specific social contexts. Table 2 below gives the illustration.

Table 5 illustration of Features and their description

Features	Description
Purpose of research	Explore how schools and teachers interpret and implement the LiEP for their classroom practice.
Ontology	There are multiple realities which can be explored and constructed through human interactions and meaningful actions. Discover how teachers make sense of their social worlds in the natural settings (classrooms and schools) by means of daily routines in teaching practice. a Different social realities exist due to varying human experience, including people's knowledge, views, interpretations and experiences.
Epistemology	Action (practice) is influenced by interpretation and individual's interaction with social contexts. Interactive mode of data collection.
Methodology	Process data collected by interviews, observations, field notes and document analysis. Research is a product of the values of the researcher.

Although the case study was chosen for this research it is also important to understand that like other methods it has its own limitations. One limitation is that it is impossible to generalize data results. The other limitation is that a researcher can interpret data in a biased manner. Other disadvantages are that there is too much data for an easy analysis, which can be difficult to represent in a simple way. Another disadvantage is that collecting data consumes a lot of time and when done on a large scale it requires a big budget. Despite these limitations the explanatory case study was still useful for this research because the researcher did the research aware of the concerns, disadvantages and advantages and

therefore was able to avoid the limitations and that as a research tool its advantages far outweigh its disadvantages.

4.3. Site and participant Selection

Purposive and convenience sampling were employed due to the qualities that the participants possessed in terms of varying qualifications and home languages. The researcher also took into consideration the participants' ability to provide information based on their knowledge and experiences. Availability and willingness to participate were also considered in selecting the participants.

Three primary schools in Kuruman, Northern Cape were selected. One is located in a deep rural area, the second in peri-urban and the last one is in a township urban area. For ethical reasons and to maintain confidentiality and anonymity the deep rural school shall be referred to as school A, the peri-urban school shall be referred to as school B and the township urban one shall be called school C. Although all the three schools are in different geographical locations, they are similar in their socio-economic set up and they under the Department of Education's feeding scheme. School A is in a deep rural area which is not easily accessible and barely has internet connectivity, as the road is very bad (the school was closed for a year in 2012 when the community protested for a better road, nothing has changed until now). Most of the children in School A live with their grandparents and some live alone as their parents are mostly working in mines and farms far from their rural homes. Others who are not working have been swallowed by rural-urban migration as they job hunt in different cities. The majority of learners only have the meal which is provided by the school per day. In the morning break they have breakfast and then they have lunch. The school is characterised by overcrowded classrooms. The grade 4 classroom was a zinc shack which is cold when cold, hot when hot and when it's raining the teaching and learning stopped because people in the classroom could not hear each other. Only the principal amongst the 3 SMT members has an office although it too is very small. The school has no staffroom for teachers. As most classrooms are overcrowded there is no provision of a library in the school and teachers don't even improvise to make reading corners mainly due to lack of space.

School B is in a peri-urban area yet poor socio-economic environment. Like school A most learners live with their grandparents and some with their relatives. School B is also

characterised by overcrowded classrooms but at least the teachers have improvised and have reading corners. The reading material is however mainly English books and old Tswana textbooks. Although most of the classrooms are brick and mortar the other classrooms are what they call “mobile classrooms” built from strong zinc. The SMT also have no offices, it’s only the principal who has a spacious one. The SMT share sitting space with teachers in the staffroom which is crowded.

School C is in an urban township area. The learners are mixed in terms of social class, with the majority being from poor socio-economic background hence the school has a feeding scheme too. Unlike School A and B most learners live with their parents and most of the households have at least one parent who is working who lives with the learners. All classrooms are mainly brick and mortar but they too have 4 blocks of the “mobile classrooms”. The school has a library which however has been turned into SMT offices.

The tables that follow highlights the areas where the schools are located. School A is in Gantatelang, School B in Ga-Segonyana and School C is located in Mothibistad. The statistics also reveal that the majority of the population are black Setswana first language speakers.

Census 2011 Demographics of Kuruman

i) Census 2011_Kuruman_Population

Table 6 Geography by Population group and Sex for Person adjusted

		Black African			Coloured			Indian or Asian			White			Other			Total	
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Kuruman	1536	1535	3071	2814	2893	5707	118	57	175	1882	2070	3952	109	44	153	6459	6598	13057
Wrenchville	733	770	1503	2517	2637	5154	63	23	86	10	10	20	33	9	42	3356	3449	6805
Kuruman SP	794	744	1538	283	246	529	48	30	78	1772	1953	3725	69	32	100	2965	3006	5971
Die Oog	9	20	29	14	10	24	7	4	10	100	107	207	8	3	11	137	144	281

ii) Census 2011_Kuruman_First language

Table 7 Geography by Language (first) for Person adjusted

Column1	Afrikaans	English	IsiNdebele	IsiXhosa	IsiZulu	Sepedi	Sesotho	Setswana	Sign language	SiSwati	Tshivenda	Xitsonga	Other	Total
Kuruman	9500	493	41	73	73	20	52	1842	13	17	24	11	194	12353
Wrenchville	5295	216	21	36	15	3	19	1116	9	0	5	2	67	6804
Kuruman SP	3980	257	20	37	58	17	33	702	4	17	18	9	118	5270
Die Oog	225	20	0	0	0	0	0	24	0	0	0	0	9	279

iii) Census 2011 Ga-Segonyana Main place Population

Table 8 Geography by Population group and Sex for Person adjusted

	Black African			Coloured			Indian or Asian			White			Other			Total		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
NC452: Ga-Segonyana	38863	42621	81483	3520	3593	7113	269	96	365	2054	2240	4294	288	107	395	44994	48658	93651
Sedibeng	1014	1137	2151	14	16	29	2	0	2	1	0	1	0	0	0	1031	1153	2184
Ga-Segonyana NU	1410	1304	2713	102	70	172	0	0	0	156	154	310	2	3	5	1670	1530	3200
Ga-Motsamai	249	281	530	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	2	251	283	533
Piet se Bos	139	158	297	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	139	158	297
Gamopedi	649	740	1389	4	2	6	0	0	0	1	0	1	3	0	3	657	742	1399
Ntsweng	458	552	1010	0	0	0	3	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	462	552	1014
Gariele	177	219	397	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	177	219	397
Ga-Lotolo	153	195	348	2	2	4	2	0	2	0	1	1	0	0	0	157	198	355
Ga-Sehubane	190	212	402	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	192	212	404
Ga-Sebolao	59	90	149	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	59	91	150
Lophala-phala	15	2	17	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	15	2	17
Maruping	10564	12118	22682	102	65	168	43	5	48	2	6	8	49	26	75	10760	12220	22981
Thamoeache	306	383	689	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	308	383	691
Ga-Ntatelang	733	860	1594	7	6	14	4	1	5	1	0	1	0	0	0	746	868	1614
Maheane	865	879	1744	10	15	24	2	0	2	2	1	3	1	0	1	880	895	1775
Mokala-Mosesane	103	99	202	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	103	99	202
Kudumane	432	459	890	0	0	0	3	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	435	459	894
Mamoratwe	1066	1132	2198	25	33	58	2	2	4	0	0	0	3	3	6	1097	1170	2266
Magobe	4313	4686	9000	16	20	36	14	9	23	2	3	5	45	2	47	4390	4721	9111
Seoding	3479	3662	7142	39	22	62	1	1	2	2	2	4	43	14	57	3565	3702	7266

Kuruman	1536	1535	3071	2814	2893	5707	118	57	175	1882	2070	3952	109	44	153	6459	6598	13057
Mothibistad	4479	5027	9506	20	37	57	22	12	34	1	0	1	15	3	18	4537	5079	9616
Bankhara	3583	3730	7313	278	333	611	26	2	28	1	1	2	10	9	18	3898	4074	7972
West Derby	1270	1373	2643	5	9	14	10	1	11	0	0	0	1	0	1	1286	1383	2669
Phakane	537	623	1161	5	4	10	3	0	3	1	1	2	1	1	2	548	630	1178
Havard	1073	1158	2231	17	24	41	11	5	16	0	1	1	5	1	6	1106	1189	2295
Longaneng	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Maditlhareng	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Ga-Tlhose	8	6	15	19	13	32	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	27	19	47
Sebilong	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Kollie	1	0	1	39	28	67	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	40	28	68
Ga-Motshwaedi	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Januariestat	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

iv) Census 2011_Ga-Segonyana_Main place First language

Table 9 Geography by Language (first) for Person adjusted

	Afrikaans	English	IsiNdebele	IsiXhosa	IsiZulu	Sepedi	Sesotho	Setswana	Sign language	SiSwati	Tshivenda	Xitsonga	Other	Total
NC452: Ga-Segonyana	11922	2711	945	730	897	238	524	73431	267	47	72	195	756	92734
Sedibeng	42	32	49	4	12	5	2	2034	2	0	0	1	1	2184
Ga-Segonyana NU	475	62	17	7	30	3	30	2544	28	1	2	1	1	3200
Ga-Motsamai	13	13	0	4	1	2	0	500	0	0	0	0	1	533
Piet se Bos	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	296	0	0	0	0	0	297
Gamopedi	18	28	9	3	13	13	3	1304	2	1	2	1	2	1399
Ntsweng	2	7	4	1	1	2	2	990	0	0	0	0	3	1014
Gariele	2	1	2	0	0	2	0	389	0	0	0	0	0	397
Ga-Lotolo	3	10	0	0	0	0	3	340	0	0	0	0	0	355
Ga-Sehubane	6	33	7	6	6	5	0	333	6	0	0	0	0	404

Ga-Sebolao	2	4	0	2	12	0	2	126	2	0	0	0	0	150
Lophala-phala	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	16	0	0	0	0	0	17
Maruping	514	942	285	154	295	57	106	20148	47	7	10	28	179	22773
Thamoeache	4	2	15	2	2	0	0	663	1	1	0	0	1	691
Ga-Ntatelang	5	20	24	2	5	1	8	1540	2	0	0	0	5	1614
Maheane	45	55	13	34	21	3	12	1564	16	0	3	6	3	1775
Mokala-Mosesane	1	4	6	0	0	0	0	191	0	0	0	0	0	202
Kudumane	4	12	3	1	15	0	3	844	6	0	0	0	5	894
Mamoratwe	45	24	11	21	6	1	3	2135	2	2	0	6	10	2266
Magobe	106	235	73	78	53	25	51	8363	48	1	6	6	64	9111
Seoding	118	241	93	91	85	13	72	6343	15	4	15	41	136	7266
Kuruman	9500	493	41	73	73	20	52	1842	13	17	24	11	194	12353
Mothibistad	131	292	161	126	138	51	99	8458	24	4	4	30	94	9611
Bankhara	653	126	98	51	112	20	61	6721	27	7	2	61	32	7972
West Derby	28	22	6	17	3	5	2	2548	24	0	0	1	12	2669
Phakane	14	5	16	7	3	2	0	1124	0	0	0	0	6	1178
Havard	84	48	13	44	11	6	11	2069	0	0	4	0	5	2295
Longaneng	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Maditlhareng	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Ga-Tlhose	39	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	0	0	0	0	0	47
Sebilong	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Kollie	66	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	68
Ga-Motshwaedi	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Januariestat	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

The breakdown in the enrolment of learners per school was as shown in Table below:

Table 10 Breakdown in the enrolment of learners per school

School	Number of learners in the school	Number of Teachers	Home language of learners	SMT Members
School A	384	10	379 Setswana and 5 Xhosa	1 Principal 2 HODs
School B	456	12	All Setswana	1 Principal 2 HODs
School C	1450	39	1378 Setswana and Xhosa 72	1 Principal ,1 Deputy Principal and 4 HODs

The break down per class that was observed was as follows:

Table 11 Break down per class

School	Class	Number of learners	Home language
School A	Grade 4A(Only grade 4 class in the school)	56	All Setswana
School B	Grade 4P (Only Grade 4 class in the school)	57	All Setswana
School C	Grade 4 M (4 Grade 4 classes)	40	All Setswana

In School A, like School B there was only one grade 4 class, and there were four Grade 4 classes and in school C there were four grade 4 classes but for the purposes of this study only one class was chosen per school. In school A and B the principals and I talked to the teachers who consented verbally and in writing to the research and in School C the teacher volunteered and also gave written consent.

The research participants were three grade 4 teachers, three principals and three SGB chairpersons in three primary schools i.e., one teacher, one principal and one SGB Chairperson per school. The SGB Chairpersons and principals gave written consent, for SGBs the researcher and the principal explained what the research entails and what

consent is. Grade 4 was chosen, as already stated in motivation for the study, because this is a transitional grade where more subjects are introduced, and learners normally switch from being taught and examined in their mother tongue to English. (Whether this is in line with policy or not will be discussed later.) This transition is often frustrating to learners, teachers and parents alike resulting in poor academic performance.

Howie, et al (2017) concur with PIRLS 2016 (Progress In International Reading Literacy Study 2016) that South Africa's poor Grade 4 learner achievement on the overall has been a result of the complexity of South Africa's Language in Education Policy. Nomlomo (2006) states that in South Africa the shift from mother tongue medium of instruction to second language medium of instruction occurs very early in the child's schooling life (from Grade 4). The consequences of this early transition usually are that the learners are neither proficient in the mother tongue nor in the second language. Some learners experience difficulties in reading and writing as they grapple to grasp the second language if they have not acquired basic skills in their mother tongue

A closer look at participants, as elaborated in the table below, will help in the discussion of data and understanding of the choice of language.

Table 12 Teachers

Participant	School	Qualification	Number of years in teaching	Home language
Teacher A	School A	BEd (UNISA)	9	IsiZulu
Teacher B	School B	BA (NWU)	3	Setswana
Teacher C	School C	Diploma in Education(NWU)	16	Setswana

Table 13 Principals

Participant	School	Qualification	Number of years in management	Number of years in teaching	Home language
Principal A	School A	Diploma in Education (NWU)	12	21	Setswana
Principal B	School B	BEd (Rhodes University)	10	17	Pedi
Principal C	School C	ACE(UP)	25	34	Setswana

Table 14 SGB Chairpersons

Participant	School	Qualification/Highest Grade Passed	Number of years in SGB	Home Language
SGB Chairperson A	School A	Standard 6	3	Setswana
SGB Chairperson B	School B	Grade 11	4	Setswana
SGB Chairperson C	School C	1 year Diploma in Administration	6	Setswana

4.4. Piloting

Piloting is also known as Trialling which is a preparatory process a researcher uses to spend time in the presence of research participants so that the participants get used to seeing the researcher and the actual data collection tools which might be unfamiliar and therefore disruptive to participants. A pilot was undertaken. Piloting particularly helped to remove the researcher paradox during observation and interviews meaning during the actual research I was not a stranger and my cameras and recording tools did not generate excitement and therefore disrupt the natural setting. During class piloting visits cameras were set up in class and sometimes left them there even during break. Piloting was undertaken to test interview questions, particularly the language that would be used and to check if there would be need for an interpreter for some research participants. One week (5

school days) was spent in each school getting into classrooms and attending extra-mural activities. The researcher attended assemblies and a farewell party in school C, while in School A he attended a soccer match. The researcher helped some learners with homework in school B. These informal meetings were important to be socialised as part of the school. All that was regarded as useful i.e. from the good aspects to those that needed improvement in preparation for the final data collection were written on the notebook as field notes.

Piloting proved fruitful for this research as will be discussed later. Scholars also agree that piloting is useful. Tashakkori & Teddlie, (2003:16) state that “Pilot studies are useful procedures as preparation of a full-scale study, regardless of paradigm.” Van Teijlingen & Hundley, (2002:133) add that “Piloting can be employed to address potential practical issues in the research and trying out the questions.”

4.5. Data collection

Cohen et al. (2014) state that there are various data collection methods that can be used in qualitative research, these include interviews, observation, field notes, audio recordings, video recordings and documents. For this research observations were made including interviews, field note taking and document analyses.

4.5.1. Observations

Observation is a way of gathering data by watching social actors making meaning on the stage of action (normally in its natural setting), (Henning et al. 2014). Non-participant observations were conducted assisted by detailed field notes. Non-participant observation was chosen because it allows the researcher to report without bias what was observed in a particular specific situation. Three grade 4 teachers in three different primary schools were chosen and each was observed for English FAL lessons and for content subject lessons. English FAL was chosen because the researcher is more proficient in English than in Setswana. Three principals, one in each school were also observed.

The advantage of observations is that they cover the real context of the event in real time. However, the disadvantage is that observations are time consuming, and the participant may act differently from everyday practice when being observed. This is sometimes referred to as the observer’s paradox. The researcher minimised this by piloting for a week. The researcher went to the schools with observation tools for principal observation and teacher observation (see Appendix 1 and 2). The ethical challenge was experienced during piloting.

As the teachers were observed teaching recording was a challenge because the teachers, principal and parents were promised that their learners' faces would not be recorded only their back would be shown so as to ensure that learners remained anonymous. But because of the nature of children, they were excited not only by having a visitor in the classroom but were also in awe to see a video camera (some for the first time as Kuruman is a poor rural area). They would turn and make effort they are recorded. After observing this trend in two different schools an agreement was brokered with the teachers that the recordings would be deleted under their watch. For the actual observations lessons were observed with no video recording. An observation tool and field notes were employed for all the other observations. Piloting helped to mitigate all these unpredictable and paradoxical circumstances.

Before observation sessions an observation tool which had a clear check list was drafted. The observation tool was then used during the observations (see Appendices 1 and 2). Field notes were taken during each observation.

Observations of teachers were divided into parts which were the particular focal point for each visit. The focal points of observation were guided by the theoretical framework and need to answer the research question. Observations of teachers, as mentioned earlier were for English and one content subject. English lessons were observed in the following order: The first observations sought to find out how, when and which languages are used for different classroom activities and also concentrated on teacher proficiency in the languages used. In brief the first observation looked at teachers' use of language when explaining concepts, when responding to questions, when helping learners who are struggling and those that are doing well, when giving individual assistance, when eliciting student responses, during group work, when managing the class and reprimanding learners, which language was used for oral and written assessment. Their use of textbooks, use of chalk board and their use of learning and teaching aids. The researcher also scrutinised language(s) teachers used to talk to learners informally outside the classroom, language(s) they used to talk to their colleagues, visitors and parents. The second observation looked at how the decisions made by the schools affected teachers' interpretation and implementation of LiEP. The third scrutinised how languages used meet the requirements of LiEP and children's rights. (See Appendix 1 and 2 for full details of focal points for observation). The same sequence was done for the content subject chosen. Focus during

classroom observation remained on teachers' language practices and not on learners. The duration of the lessons ranged from 45 minutes to an hour each. So the total observations for teachers were six per teacher per school totalling eighteen for the whole research.

During the observations the researcher sat at the back and did not interfere with the lessons and did not interact with the learners who were in any case not my focal point. The chosen sitting position positions was strategic in that it was not obstructive to both the teacher and the learners which was normally at the back of the classroom. The researcher avoided eye contact so that the teacher was not intimidated. As the researcher had spent time in the classrooms piloting the researcher's presence became natural was considered part of the school. The only challenge was in school A in teacher A's classroom which was not only overcrowded but was also made of zinc making it uncomfortable during the Northern Cape's hot season and it was also noisy when it was raining some observations had to be rescheduled.

As earlier stated, school principals in each school were also observed. During the first visits the researcher focused on languages the principals used to address teachers. Secondly the researcher observed which languages principals used to address learners at the assembly. During the third observation the language(s) the principal used to address parents and other visitors were observed. The fourth observation concentrated on looking into which language the principal used to address SGB members. On the fifth observations the language the principals used to address non-teaching staff was observed. The sixth observations looked at which language the principals used to convey messages from the Department of Education and read/talk about the circulars from the Department of Education. Six observations for principals per school were done, totalling eighteen for the whole study.

In order not to disturb the principals and teachers or unsettle them the observation dates and times were agreed upon well before the dates of the observations. This ensured that principals and teachers prepared in time and the smooth running of the schools were not. This also helped disturbed me to observe on the dates principals and teachers knew they will be present at the schools and will not be going for meetings. Teacher A and C changed some dates but because they could contact the researcher, they alerted the researcher well in advance and rescheduled without disturbing the research timeline.

4.5.2. Interviews

Interviews are considered a key source of case study information (Yin 2003). Kahn and Cannel (2015) define an interview as a purposeful discussion between two or more people. Individual face to face semi-structured interviews were employed to collect data from teachers. Yin (2003) states that semi structured interviews are commonly used because they provide questions that create opportunities for respondents to respond freely.

For interviews School A, B and C in Kuruman were visited. Interviews were conducted for teachers who interpret and implement policy, principals who are the custodians of policy and SGB Chairpersons who are mandated by law to draft school language policy. Interviews were chosen for gathering data as they help obtain data that shed light on the phenomenon under investigation. Interviews were chosen because they have room for flexibility allowing the interview to adapt to a given situation and because clarity and reasons for answers can be sought. They also allowed the researcher to get responses from people who are actually interpreting and implementing policy, those that are custodians of policy and those that are mandated to draft policy and will see meanings in real life as to what teachers actually do. Interview questions were open ended. The interviews were recorded then transcribed. During interviews notes were taken as back up and the recorder was played soon after to check whether the interview was recorded.

It should be noted that there are limitations of interviews some of which are listed by Atkins and Wallace (2011) as : bias due to poorly constructed questions, response bias, reflexivity where an interviewee gives responses that he/she thinks the interviewer wants and that transcribing and analysing an interview can be an arduous and lengthy task, These limitations were overcome by, setting well-constructed open ended questions, telling the interviewees that they must be honest and giving transcription and data analysis enough time.

a) Teachers' interviews

Interviews were divided into two. Part 1 dealt with personal information (age, place of birth, mother tongue and other languages spoken/written/understood/read) and information on professional qualifications of teachers, experience as a teacher, grades and subjects taught. The first part also sought information on teachers' language beliefs and further

looked at teachers' views and preferences of LoLT and teaching languages as subjects. In part 2, questions intended to obtain information about school language policy and views of teachers on language management. Other questions focused on teachers' language practices including teaching aids, textbooks and languages of assessment. The last questions sought data on language management and SGB functionality.

The interviews in all the three schools went smoothly as prior arrangements and appointments with the teachers were made. The introductory letters from the Head of Department which allowed the researcher to conduct research in the schools were given to teachers after the school principals introduced the researcher to the teachers. Teachers also gave consent for me to enter their classrooms and principals gave consent for me to do research in their schools.

On the days of the interviews ethical issues were also revisited to assure the teachers that they were not being tested or judged, that they would remain anonymous and would not in any way be harmed. Interviews were done on different dates for the three teachers and were also not done on the dates they were observed so as not to put pressure on them and for me to concentrate on one research tool and research participant at a time. Furthermore, the teachers were reminded about the consent obtained for recording the interviews. All the three consented to being recorded. To ensure privacy and that the teachers were relaxed a private room (In crowded schools i.e. School A and B principals agreed that we use their offices) was used for each interview. To make sure that there was no disturbance during the interviews the principals and teachers were asked to inform other staff members and children not to visit the particular rooms for the period of the interviews. In order not to disturb the smooth running of the schools, interviews were either during break or during their free periods. None of the interviews were interrupted in any manner and because of the silence and tranquillity the recordings were clear when replayed and when transcribed after the interviews. Transcribing was done on the same day after each interview (see Appendix 13) to ensure that all proceedings are properly captured and so that any follow up questions that would be needed for clarity in the second interviews were noted. Samples of the transcribed interviews are presented in the appendices section of this thesis. Teachers were also given copies of transcribed interviews for member checking. During piloting, the researcher noticed that teachers were not comfortable with personal questions like their age and place of birth, so these

were left out in the actual interviews. Interviews were recorded and transcribed and during interviews and notes were taken. The teacher interviews were scheduled as follows (see Appendix 3 for full list of questions):

Table 15 Schedule for teacher interviews.

Interview	Main focus
First	Teachers' personal and professional information. Teachers' language beliefs. Teachers' views and preferences on Languages of Learning and Teaching.
Second	School language policy and views on language management. Teachers' language Practices including language use in teaching aids, textbooks, and language of assessment. Language management and SGB functionality

b) Interviews with Principals

As earlier stated, principals were also interviewed in each school. Principals were more flexible in times of interviews and because all three had offices and secretaries to stop people from disturbing all the interviews went smoothly. The principals were interviewed to check mainly on the language management in the school and how their decision then affects teachers' interpretation and implementation of LiEP. Principals in each school were interviewed twice. The interviews were scheduled as shown in the table below. The first interviews dealt with the principals' academic and professional information. The first also focused on SGB roles and functionality and on school language management. The second sought information on the support given to the schools by the Department of Basic Education regarding language management. The second interviews further fished information on language practice by principals. Lastly, the second interviews checked parental involvement in language choices and practice. The first interviews were done in schools but the second were all done telephonically due to Covid-19 protocols based on the consent of the principals. WhatsApp video calls were made and recorded and then transcribed thereafter. Field notes were also taken during the interviews so that the main points were not forgotten.

Table 16 Interviews with principals

Interview	Question Focus
First	Principal's personal and professional information. SGB Roles and functionality School language management.
Second	Support from the Department of Education regarding school language management. Language practice. Parental involvement in language choices and practice

c) Interviews with the SGB

Three SGB chairpersons, were interviewed, one from each school. The interviews with SGBs were in three parts. The first looked at personal and professional information, while the second focused on SGB functionality and language management. In the last interviews, information on parental involvement in the school issues particularly those that are LiEP related was sought. While the interviews were mainly in English some questions were clarified in Setswana for the SGB Chairpersons. The interviews were conducted in the schools in principals' offices where privacy was guaranteed. Below is the schedule for the SGB interviews. Like the interviews with teachers and principals the interviews were recorded and transcribed. The interviews were also helped with field notes which were noted during the interviews.

Table 17 SGB Interviews

Interview	**Question Focus**
First	**Personal and Professional information**
Second	**SGB functionality and language management**
Third	**Parental involvement**

4.5.3. Field notes

Field notes were used also as a data collection tool. Two kinds of field notes i.e. descriptive field notes and reflective field notes were employed. Descriptive field notes reflected what was seen, heard and experienced while in the schools. Descriptive field notes for observations and interviews were also used to complement observation tools and interview guides as notes were written to capture not only what was on the tools but also what was

coming up from observations and interviews. Descriptive field notes were also used to describe the documents.

After taking descriptive field notes the researcher built on them using reflective field notes. Reflective field notes went beyond describing what was of concern as points that need further clarity were noted. Future plans and strategies, connections that were coming up, challenges and achievements were also noted. Reflections on whether my interviews, observations and document analysis that had been done were helping achieve the research aim and to answer the research question were done. If not, ways on how to navigate towards the direction of achieving the research aim and answer the research question were sought. For example, initially the researcher sought information on teachers alone but after piloting a need to involve principals and the SGBs as research participants arose. Further the reflective field notes helped to reflect and see whether there was any link between the data and the literature that was reviewed and the theoretical framework.

4.5.4. Document Analysis

Document analysis is a form of qualitative research in which documents are interpreted by the researcher to give voice and meaning around an assessment topic by coding content into themes .Document analysis is an important tool and is an invaluable part of most schemes of triangulation (Bowen, 2009).The advantages of using documents are: that documents are manageable and practical resources, obtaining and analysing documents is more cost efficient and time efficient, documents are also stable and non-reactive data sources meaning they can be read and reviewed multiple times and remain unchanged by the researcher's influence or research process. Document analysis can also point questions that need to be asked or situations that need to be observed, making use of document analysis is a way to ensure your research is critical and comprehensive (Bowen, 2009).

The disadvantages of using document analysis are not so much limitations as they are potential concerns to be aware of before using or choosing it. Access may be deliberately blocked. Documents are not created with data research agendas and therefore require some investigative skills. There is also potential presence of biases in a document and from the researcher. A document may only provide small amount of useful data or sometimes none at all and may not provide all information to answer a research question. (Bowel, 2009). To be prepared as a researcher to counter these concerns it is important according

to O'Leary (2014) to thoroughly evaluate and investigate subjectivity of documents and your understanding of their data in order to preserve the credibility of one's research.

The researcher considered analysis of documents important because they not only give written evidence but also allow us to compare the policies and actual practice. The researcher collected documents from the schools and scrutinized over a period of about 9 months. The following documents were collected and analysed:

(a)Language in Education Policy (LiEP)

(b) School language policies

(b)CAPS Document

(c)Lesson Plans and test/exam papers

(d)Textbooks used by the schools

(e) NCK-A1/2019 Learner admission form to public schools

(f) Other documents that are related to LiEP i.e. DoE Implementation Plan, The Incremental Introduction of African Languages in South African Schools draft policy, the Language Across the curriculum document and the Strategy of Teaching English Across the Curriculum document.

For the document analysis Bowen's guide to document analysis (2009) and Dalglish, Khalid and McMahon 's READ (Ready your data, Extract data, Analyse data and Distil findings) approach were adapted to come up with steps that suit this research. The following steps were followed:

1. Choosing the texts. (READ –Ready your material)

2. Considering what is to be accessed i.e. checked the data that was being researched and checking how this would help achieve the research aim and answer the research question. (READ-Extract and Analyse data)

3. Looking at how the documents compliment and supplement other sources of data.

4. Then documents were interpreted and analysed.

5.The the researcher sought to find out if the documents speak to each other and checked the availability and accessibility of the documents to schools and teachers.

6. Lastly, I looked at how the documents affect the school and teachers' interpretation and implementation of LiEP. (REA**D-**Distil your findings**).**

After gathering data, I then analysed it as detailed in the next section.

4.6. Data analysis

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2014) note that qualitative research involves organizing, accounting for and explaining the data (making sense of data in terms of the participants' definition of the situation, noting patterns, themes, categories and regularities) because nothing speaks for itself. Thematic analysis breaks text down into themes which are then explored and interpreted. After interviewing and observing the research participants, the researcher organized and prepared data for analysis by transcribing interviews. Then the researcher read through the transcripts, field notes and artefacts to get a sense of what was gathered and wrote notes about the findings. After that the researcher started coding the collected data. Coding is, according to Creswell (2017:86) "[t]he process of organizing the material into chunks of segments of text before bringing meaning to information." Henning (2004:88) states that coding "means that the data are divided onto small units of meaning, which are then systematically "[n]amed" per unit and then grouped together in categories that contain related codes." Using the coding process, the researcher created themes or categories that are findings. Thematic content analysis was used to break text down into themes which are then explored and interpreted. Themes /categories guided me in creating headings of the findings.

Effectively I followed Braun and Clarke's (2006) six steps for conducting thematic analysis was followed systematically. The six steps are as follows:

a. Familiarising yourself with your data.
b. Generating initial codes.
c. Searching for themes.
d. Reviewing themes.
e. Defining and naming themes.
f. Producing the report.

The following is an adapted explanation of the steps recommended by Braun and Clarke (2006):

1. Familiarising yourself with your data

This is the first step I took which provides the foundation for the analysis that follows. This involved transcribing data and listening to the recordings (for interviews) reading and rereading field notes and observation notes and documents, noting initial ideas. This helped me familiarise with all aspects of data.

2. Generating initial codes

Once familiar with the data, preliminary codes are identified, which are the features of the data that appear interesting and meaningful.

3. Searching for themes

The third step in the process is the start of the interpretive analysis of the collated codes. Relevant data extracts were sorted (combined or split) according to overarching themes.

4. Reviewing themes

A deeper review of identified themes follows where needs to question whether to combine, refine, separate, or discard initial themes.

5. Defining and naming themes

This step involves 'refining and defining' the themes and potential subthemes within the data. Ongoing analysis is required to further enhance the identified themes. At this point, a unified story of the data needs to emerge from the themes.

6. Producing the report

Finally, analysis is transformed into an interpretable piece of writing by using vivid and compelling extract examples that relate to the themes, research question, and literature. The report must relay the results of the analysis in a way that convinces the reader of the merit and validity of the analysis. It must go beyond a mere description of the themes and portray an analysis supported with empirical evidence that addresses the research question.

4.7. Validity, reliability, and trustworthiness

4.7.1. Validity

Although treated differently the questions of reliability and validity are equally important in quantitative and qualitative research. Validity refers to issues of truth and knowledge. Thus validity can be defined as the ability of the researcher to produce true knowledge about the phenomenon under investigation. In data collection validity means that an item measures or describes what it is supposed to measure or describe. Validation occurs throughout the research process. Henning et al. (2014) define validation as "[t]o check (for bias, for neglect, for lack of precision and so forth), to question, (all procedures and decisions –critically, to theorize), looking for and addressing theoretical questions that arise throughout the process not just the end and to discuss and share research actions with peers as article in-process reviewers." I validated my findings by triangulation and member checking. Triangulation involves examining evidence from sources and using the evidence to build coherent justification for themes, (Creswell, 2017). Member checking involves cross checking what the researcher has written with the participants to verify whether what is written reflects their views. Verification was done throughout the research by continuously checking and confirming data. Observation was consistent and persistent and by being a non-participant observer, the researcher was attentive in taking notes and recording. Bracketing was also used, which according to Streubel and Carpenter (1999), is putting one's beliefs, note making judgments and remaining open to data as it is revealed.

4.7.2. Reliability

Reliability pertains to the consistency of research findings. It can be described as the degree of consistency or stability of data collected by the same or similar instrument on occasions when it should theoretically produce the same results. It is the most basic feature which an instrument or procedure should possess. If an instrument is unreliable, it serves no purpose to consider other features. Yin (2003) suggests that in order to increase reliability the researcher should develop a case study database. The database should be comprised of four components: notes, documents, materials and narratives. In this study notes are comprised of field notes taken concerning general observations while in the field as well as those taken in the classrooms and during interviews. The database also includes relevant documents such as the language policy itself, copies of the Constitution of South Africa, Commission reports, draft documents, etc. Finally, narratives refer to the transcribed

interviews done with key informants. Thus, with the help of a database as described above the reliability of the study has been increased.

4.7.3. Trustworthiness

While this qualitative research relied on measures of reliability and validity to evaluate the utility of the study, this research was also evaluated by its trustworthiness which include credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. Credibility refers to how believable the data is and accountability for the entire research process includes actions in preparation of the field of research, authority of the researcher, keeping reflective journal, participants' control of the data and peer group evaluation. Transferability refers to the extent to which the results of the research can be applied in similar contexts. In dependability the researcher describes the entire research process carefully so that other researchers can follow similar steps. It means that the research method remains consistent such that if another researcher follows the same method he will come to same conclusions or findings. It answers the question: Are findings likely to apply at other times? In conformability a chain of evidence is provided of the whole research process so that an audit can be conducted. It checks whether the researcher has allowed his /her values to intrude to a high degree.

To further ensure trustworthiness, i.e., reliability and validity five measures were applied namely: sensitivity, suitability, objectivity, feasibility and ethical acceptability. For sensitivity an instrument is regarded as sensitive if it has the ability to register small changes. The instrument should be suitable for the purpose for the study for which it is used. The objectivity of an instrument is related to the degree to which it remains unaffected by the distortion of reality caused (consciously or unconsciously) by the values, feelings, desires or prejudices of the researcher or participant in the situation. Furthermore, the use of the instrument should be practicable or feasible for the researcher as well as the participant. Finally, a data collection instrument should display ethical acceptability.

4.7.4. Ethical considerations

It is essential to be ethical as researcher as Patton (2002) emphasizes that the researchers should be neutral and mindful by showing openness, sensitivity and respect. While acknowledging that neutrality is difficult in qualitative research because interpretation is based on my subjective understandings another researcher working on the same data might

interpret it differently deliberate effort to be as mindful of this weakness and be as close to neutrality as can be was made. It is important for a researcher to be guided by ethical principles, informed consent, respect for privacy and confidentiality, no harm to research participants and no deception of research participants, (Gilbert,2008). Participants were told what will happen to collect data and what the information gathered would be used for. Further, the participants were told that they were participating on their own will, they were not forced, and should they feel uncomfortable for any reason during the research they were free to withdraw without being charged or penalized, (this is informed consent).

The issue of anonymity and confidentiality was communicated to and consented by participants as this is reflected in the consent forms. Written consent was obtained from the participants. The participants were also made aware of the purpose of the research and the way in which the information would be used. Before the research commenced, the participants were made familiar with the nature of the instruments. The research did not infringe on the participants' beliefs, religion or principles and the research did not disadvantage the participants or have detrimental consequences for the participant in any way. The results of the research will be made available to the participants who desire it. Since the research sites and participants remain anonymous as pseudo names that can never be linked to the site and participants, were used in the research the research can be made public.

Written informed consent was sought from the Department of Education particularly the HOD of the province who is the one mandated to give consent and not District Directors, the school authorities (school principals) and the parents of the learners. The researcher reiterated and emphasized to the participants that the signed consent forms will be treated with utmost discretion. For participants with difficulties in signing oral consent was sought so as not to embarrass them about their illiteracy. The participants were informed about why their participation was necessary, how, and when they would participate, where their data and for how long it would be kept, and to whom the findings would be reported. Finally, the research did not expect any participant to act contrary to his/her principles. The researcher neither had any professional nor personal relationship with the participants which might have influenced the data they gave.

All data remained anonymous and confidential at all stages of the research. The pictures that were taken, of the teaching and learning process, avoided capturing faces of participants. The videos and pictures that were taken will be used only for the purposes of this research. As earlier stated, the videos for the first two observations were deleted permanently in front of the teachers concerned as the learners' faces were visible and therefore breaking the ethical issue of anonymity. So, videos were for interviews with the teachers, principals and the SGB only.

Ethical clearance was sought and granted by the university before data was collected. The participants were contacted first in person, telephonically and finally in writing, whereby, the topic, the purpose and ethical aspects were explained, and their signed consent was sought and obtained.

Data will be stored for five years. To ensure that the information is captured, transferred and stored securely, it will be kept in the administrator's office at Rhodes University and the electronic version will be stored on my laptop in a folder that is protected by a minimum of two passwords, so that no one can access it. After five years data will be destroyed.

The benefits of the research are basically academic and for academic purposes, specifically to policy makers, policy implementers and policy custodians. When the aforementioned benefit, it will have replica effects in benefiting the teaching profession and the learners. The research will help conceptualize the policy-practice nexus. Teachers will also benefit as workshops will be conducted to help improve and minimize the gap between policy and practice. The National Association of English Teachers of South Africa (NAETSA) and subject advisors will also benefit as the results and recommendations will be communicated to them.

4.8. Conclusion

This chapter discussed and explored the research design, the methods of data collection, research participants, research context and methods of data analyses. In discussing the research design of this study, qualitative data collection methods (interviews, observation, field notes and document analysis), reasons for the selection of such design and methods are given. Ethical considerations, validity and limitations of the study were discussed.

5. Chapter – 5: Research findings, Data Presentation and Analysis

5.1. Introduction

This chapter unpacks the research findings and data which then will be analysed linking them to the research aim, question, literature and the theoretical framework. It presents the presentation and the analysis of qualitative data gathered through interviews of three grade four teachers, three principals, three SGB chairpersons, classroom observations, observation of assemblies, teacher to teacher interaction, principal interactions with staff, visitors and the SGB, LiEP, school policies and documents containing information on LiEP and field notes taken from the three selected schools. It is necessary to repeat my research question which is: How do schools and teachers **interpret** and **implement** the Language in education Policy for classroom practice in three primary schools in Kuruman, Northern Cape? As earlier stated, the key terms for the purposes of this study should be understood as follows: **Interpret:** means to understand and translate the LiEP be it oral or written overt or covert. **Implement:** Implement means to put the LiEP into use be it overt or covert. Implementation therefore is the actual teachers' classroom practice and the principals' school practice.

The first part of this chapter will therefore deal with the first part of the research question which focuses on teachers', the principals' and the SGB members' understanding of LiEP and their local LiEP. This first part then provides the necessary background to examine the second part of my research question which is teachers' classroom practices and principals' school practices. The findings are described, interpreted and explanations are given where possible as to why the researcher thinks the findings are the way they are.

5.2. Observations

The focal points for observations and interviews were interpretation and implementation of Language in Education Policy by schools and teachers. The findings are as follows:

5.2.1. Language Use by teachers

Teacher A in school A uses English as his Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT). The teacher used English throughout both the English and Social Sciences lessons regardless of whether the learners understood him or not. This was revealed in interviews when the teacher asked questions leaners did not respond and he gave answers and continued with the lesson. Findings revealed that teacher A also stuck to English because of his lack of mastery of the learners' home language which is Setswana as his home language is isiZulu. Learners also informally talked to teacher A in English while they conversed with other teachers in Setswana, again maybe because they know he is not Tswana. This is although in line with the LiEP's use of any official language for teaching and learning is against LiEP principles of maintaining home languages and of redress of previously disadvantaged languages and languages of learning and teaching. The use of English also bridges the school and home link as evidenced by observing learners interpreting English communique to the SGB. The researcher then conclusively assumes that, given the similar literacy levels of parents and guardians (who are mostly grandparents) the learners interpret their termly reports to them and do not have parental support for homework. It was also observed that teacher A talked to staff members in English even when they talked to him in Setswana he responded in English.

In school B, teacher B taught English and Mathematics lessons using English for planning and assessment while for teaching the teacher used English and Setswana for both the English and Mathematics lessons. For assessment and teaching aids the teacher used English while for classroom management he used both English and Setswana. However, though the teacher used both English and Setswana most of the time he used English. The teacher plans and assesses (oral and written assessments) in English. Setswana is used mostly to discipline, to pass jokes and to praise and motivate learners. Classwork, homework, remediation and extension work are done in English. The teacher writes on the board in English. It was also noted that while the teacher asked oral (in Setswana and English) and written questions (in English) he expected learners to answer all questions in English. Termly learner progress reports and communication to parents is done in English.

Textbooks and other teaching materials are in English. Feedback, corrections, reports are all in English. Informally the teacher talks to the learners, staff members and parents in Setswana. The teacher uses both English and Setswana because his home language is Setswana and he is a fluent English speaker. When asked why he uses both he stated that he uses Setswana to reach out to learners who do not understand English fully but wants them to answer in English as assessments and exams are in English. Teacher B did not have an answer as to why he uses Setswana with his workmates both teaching and nonteaching, he just mumbled saying its natural and laughed.

In school C, Teacher C taught English and Natural Science and Technology. Classroom Observation revealed that the teacher uses Setswana only as his escape route when he can't express himself in English and therefore his code switching is not voluntary. The teacher used English and Setswana for classroom management while for planning and written assessment he uses English. Oral assessment was in Setswana, the teacher asked questions in Setswana and the learners responded in Setswana. In his lesson plans the English used was either incoherent or that of unfinished sentences. Oral English was very minimal in all his lessons. Teacher C mostly wrote dates (in English) only on the board and relied on textbooks and printed exercises for classwork and homework. It was only when learners had to write corrections and classwork that the teacher dictated English answers from his teacher's book which had the answers. Teacher C's lessons were teacher centred. For all the lessons observed the teacher had no teaching aids other than textbook photocopies which he used for classwork and homework. For praise motivation and calling leaners to order was all through Setswana.

5.2.2. Teacher Language Proficiency and Language fluency

For the purposes of this research language fluency is the ability to convey messages accurately by using the right words with ease, confidence, and accuracy in the target language. Teacher A is has got native/bilingual proficiency in English, has elementary proficiency in Setswana. Teacher A is fluent in English but not Setswana. He used Setswana only for greetings and as a mannerism phrase "akere" (meaning is that not so) yet he understands Setswana he can neither speak nor read it. Teacher B has full professional proficiency in English and native proficiency in Setswana. Teacher B is fluent in both English and Setswana. Teacher C has limited working proficiency in English and

has native proficiency in Setswana. Teacher C is fluent in Setswana yet struggles with English.

5.2.3. Language Management by teachers

Observations revealed that there are no school language management decisions that affect teacher's language use. While books and other teaching material are ordered by the school the teachers are not influenced in their use by such decisions. The languages in all the three schools meet the requirements of LiEP (1997:2) that states that "The language(s) of learning and teaching in a public school must be (an) official language(s)" and "From grade 3 onwards, all learners shall offer their language of learning and teaching and at least one additional approved language as subjects."

Spolsky (2004, 2009, and 2012) defines language management as the conscious realisation of efforts by someone, a group, a government or by those who judge themselves as having the authority to do so in order to modify the practices or linguistic beliefs in a given social domain like family or school. Language management then becomes the attempt to modify the values or practices of someone else. Spolsky (2004) states that language management refers to the formulation and proclamation of an explicit plan or policy, usually but not necessarily written in a formal document about language use. It is therefore important to note and emphasise this point that is brought by Spolsky that language policy is not necessarily only that which is written but can be verbal as well as that which can be seen in practice. Spolsky (2009) further states that management also accounts for many language choices but is not automatically successful. Unlike language beliefs which may be authorless, management presupposes a manager. In case of the three schools data revealed that there is no effort by anyone to modify values and practices of someone else. While there are written policies in two of the three schools none enforces those policies. While its government's role to manage language it does not in practice, manage nor do the government employees (Provincial officials and principals) who are supposed to do so. Observations and the following interview extracts attest to this:

R: Does anyone come to help or monitor your language use in class?

Teacher A: Class visits are prohibited by SADTU.

Teacher B: No.

Teacher C: Mmm no.

R: Are there workshops in school or district that you have attended that address LiEP?

Teacher A: We have never been to any.

Teacher B: None has been organised.

Teacher C: Nope

Documents also revealed lack of management because the school policies are either not read or their presence known. School A's policy has no date of policy adoption by the SGB, and the verification by the department is not signed either (see Appendix 9.1). The school stamps also attest to this. In school A, the date is 25 February 2005, in school B its 3 September 2020 while in school C the stamp is dated 1 February 2019.School A stamp shows the policy has never been revised, in school B the principal stamped in front of the researcher and there was no SGB meeting that day and in school C it's a date the researcher was at the school and like in school B there was no SGB meeting that day.

5.2.4. Language in Context by teachers

Teacher A, who was observed teaching English and Social Sciences uses language contextually i.e. he uses subject specific language, general academic language and his peripheral language is in English. When he taught English Teacher B used both English and for Mathematics, he used subject specific language and general academic language while he used Setswana for peripheral language. As earlier stated, Teacher C mainly used Setswana regardless of the context.

5.2.5. Principal Observations

The observations revealed that Principal A in school A used English when meeting with teachers and while reading Department of Education circulars and conveying messages from the department but would then emphasise what he thought needed emphasis in Setswana. When addressing learners at assembly he used English yet when he met them outside classrooms and during break, he used Setswana. In meetings with the SGB and parents and nonteaching staff and talking to them outside meetings he used Setswana. The principal used English to talk to visitors he did not know. During my first visits he used English but as I frequented the school he switched to Setswana.

In school B, Principal B used Setswana with teachers, learners, SGB, parents, students, and visitors. Even his staff meetings were in Setswana, but he would only read circulars in English and revert to Setswana soon after.

Principal C in school C used English in meetings with teachers, addressing learners at assembly, talking to learners informally and formally, talking to visitors, reading DoE messages and talking to some visitors, particularly those dressed formally or to the young and in Setswana to the elderly. The principal used Setswana to talk to parents and non-teaching staff although he would frequently punctuate in English.

5.3. Documents

5.3.1. Language in Education Policy

School A, School B and School C all have neither hard nor soft copies of the LiEP as documents. The principals, teachers and the SGB are not aware of LiEP.

5.3.2. School Language Policy

In School A, they have a language policy which to a large extent is in line with the LiEP. Their policy actually starts by quoting the South African Schools Act 84 of 1996 which states that schools are obliged to develop language policies. The school A policy further declares that parents have a right to collectively decide the language of instruction of the school. School A policy (Appendix 4) states that “This school has adopted the following language(s) for instructional purposes at the specified grade levels. For all learners from grade R to 3 Setswana shall be the medium of instruction and for all learners from grade 4 to 6, English shall be the medium of instruction.” The policy was written in 2005 (Evidence is the 2005 school stamp on the policy. See Appendix 4) and has not been amended reflects policy neglect and having the policy only for filling purposes.

In school B, they have what they produced as their language policy but is in fact extracts of the IIAL (Incremental Introduction of African Languages) which are incomplete and do not make sense to a reader. (see Appendix) The school has subject policies which do not talk about the LoLT. (See Appendix). In school C, they do not have the LiEP but they have a school language policy. The school language policy takes from and quotes both the SA constitution and the LiEP. The school policy states as one of its aims that it aims to be consistent with the constitution of the Republic of South Africa by promoting multilingualism and aims to raise the status of formerly disadvantaged languages by closing the gap

between home languages and learning and teaching languages. The school policy states that parents have the right to collectively decide the language of instruction of the school and therefore school C adopted Setswana as the medium of instruction for grades R to 3 and English for grades 4 to 6. (Appendix 3) perception at school A) because they can be taught in any of the 11 official languages and most preferably in their mother tongue in line with the South African constitution and the LiEP which advocate for raising the status of formerly disadvantaged languages by closing the gap between home languages and teaching languages.

5.3.3. CAPS Documents

All the three schools have the Curriculum Assessment Policy statement (CAPS) hard copy documents, which are in abundance as some teachers have more than one each per subject. All schools even have the Revised CAPS documents which were revised in 2020.It is apparently a requirement that their files have the original CAPS document and the revised one.

5.3.4. Lesson Plans

Teacher A uses mostly the ATP (Annual Teaching Plans). These are given by the Department and are written in English for the subjects observed. In addition to ATPs the teacher uses some personal plans or personal notes, all written in English. Teacher B also relies on ATPs but also has weekly lesson focus points. All again written in English. Teacher C although with scattered ATPs, also uses them but for the lessons observed he had lesson plans which are written in English. It is important to note, for later discussion, that the Setswana teachers have their Setswana HL ATPs written in Setswana.

5.3.5. Assessments

The test and exam papers in all the three schools are written in English and so is their assessment plan for both the school and that of teachers, except for the Setswana HL assessments which are written and planned in Setswana.

5.3.6. Textbooks

All textbooks and learning materials, irrespective of the publisher (ranging from government through parastatal to private) are written in English, save for Setswana HL. While Grade 4 no longer writes common exams they have what they call cluster papers. These are papers that a group of schools set and are moderated by the District. All these were written in

English except for Setswana HL. This is concurring with Alexander's (2000) assertion that the state is also accused of paying lip service to the policy because not enough resources are channelled towards buying relevant resources like textbooks and teacher training so that policy is fully and successfully implemented.

5.3.7. Other language related Documents

All the three schools have learner admission forms, the NCK-A1 form. This is a standard form fill on application for admission to ordinary and special public schools. (See appendix) These forms seek information about learners' home language and their preferred language of instruction and parent/guardian's home language.

The Department's Implementation Plan, The Incremental Introduction of African languages in South African schools – draft policy, and The Use of Official Languages Act 12 of 2012 are not only not there but are unknown to the teachers, SGBs and the principals. While the Strategy for Teaching English Across the Curriculum and the Language Across the Curriculum (LAC) are there in all schools in abundance in the three schools, they are either inboxes that are not open (school B) or have been given to teachers to navigate on their own (School A and C).

5.4. Interviews

5.4.1. Interviews with Teachers

a) Personal Information

Teachers in all the three schools are professionally qualified to be teaching Grade 4. However, none of the teachers have been trained to use an LoLT other than English as revealed in the extracts below.

Researcher (R): Which subject were you trained to teach in? /What language were you trained to use as LoLT?

Teachers A: Umm English, yes English

Teacher B: Our lecturers taught us in English, so I guess they were preparing us to teach in English.

Teacher C: English.

Interviews also revealed that Teacher B has been teacher component member of the SGB and has held the position of secretary in 3 years. Teacher A has not been part of SGB, and teacher C said he declined being an SGB member twice.

b) Language Policies (LiEP, School Policy) and views on management

Interviews revealed that teachers are all not familiar with LiEP and have neither been oriented nor inducted on school language policies. Their views on LoLT in Grade 4 were different and not based on knowledge of policy.

R: What does LiEP, and the school policy say about LoLT in Grade 4 and languages as subjects?

Teacher A: Ahh not sure about subjects but LoLT from grade 4 should be English.

Teacher B: LoLT is English from now on, I mean from grade 4 until varsity.

Teacher C: I am not sure, but I think its English

R: Does the school have a written policy? If yes, can you show me? If there is no written policy, is there an orally agreed policy?

Teacher A: Yes, we have a written policy.

R: What does it say about LoLT? What does it say about multilingualism?

Teacher A: It says the LoLT should be English from Grade 4 upwards. On multilingualism I have not quite followed it.

R: Does the school have a written policy? If yes, can you show me? If there is no written policy, is there an orally agreed policy?

Teacher B: I have never seen written policy, but ehhh let me quickly ask the principal he has the policy file where all policies are kept. (Teacher B, leaves to collect from the school file)

R: Is it your first time to see it?

Teacher B: Yes

R: What then was informing or informs you which language you use in for LoLT and Languages as subjects?

Teacher B: The CAPS document says we must use English and its official. Languages as subjects we are given timetables for all subjects taught in the school.

R: What does LiEP and the school policy say about LoLT in Grade 4 and languages as subjects?

Teacher C: LoLT Ehh.

R: Yes, what does it say about the language of instruction?

Teacher C: It says we can teach in English and teach Setswana in Setswana.

R: Have you been inducted or oriented to the school LiEP or to LiEP?

Teacher C: Ahh I don't remember but No I have not.

Is there advocacy in the school for implementation of LiEP?

Teacher A: Not that I know of.

Teacher B: No

Teacher C: No.

The above extracts show that while some schools have written policy, they are not aware of its contents and for the school that does not have there is no oral agreed policy as well. Further interviews show that schools do neither induct/orient teachers on LiEP nor do they have advocacy workshops on LiEP. Resultantly teachers rely on the CAPS document which is readily available or their own perception s of policy. Furthermore, schools have no language management in place, no support from DoE and any language advocacy NGO. Teachers B and C had nothing to be suggestions for any changes in LiEP. Teacher A wishes English should be the LoLT from grade 1.

R: What changes would you like to see in the South African LiEP and in the school LiEP?

Teacher A: Yes, the sooner they start with English the better, from Grade 1 so that in Grade 4 we do not struggle.

c) Language Beliefs

Teachers believe English is not only important for schooling but for preparing learners for work and the world at large. This is also their reason why they believe English should be

used as the LoLT. While Setswana is regarded as important for religion and other societal interactions it is taken for granted that they know it and should not be given too much attention at school. Teacher A and Teacher B are comfortable with the current status of textbooks and assessments being written in English, yet Teacher B prefers they should be written in both languages. Below are some of the extracts that confirm these findings:

R: In terms of Schooling which language(s) do you prefer to be LoLT? Why?

Teacher A: English. English is used at university and for work. If learners move out of Northern Cape, to say KZN they cannot be lost when they have English and even to other countries.

Teacher B: (laughing) Of course English. It is an international language is widely spoken. Work interviews and application forms are in English.

Teacher C: English and Setswana, both.

R: What about textbooks and assessments, which language would you prefer?

Teacher A: English.

Teacher B: English.

Teacher C: Both Setswana and English.

R: What language is useful for in society's interactions and communication? Should it be taught in school?

Teacher A: Setswana, no learners already know it.

Teacher B: Setswana. Yes, they must still learn to read and write it so should be given less time.

Teacher C: Setswana. They have already been taught by parents so, no.

d) Language Practices and LoLT preferences

While teacher B and C do not follow the language policy the written language policy, they teach English (teacher B, teacher C use mainly Setswana, and teacher uses English only). Teacher A and B use English to write on the board and for teacher C rarely writes on the board. Oral and writing feedback are given in English by all teachers. The three teachers agree that they learners are not proficient in English. Remediation praise and motivation

are done in English. The 3 teachers aware that the parents/guardians in their community are unable to assist learners with their homework when they use English. Teachers claim that parents want their children to learn in English, as they see it as a language of prestige, economic and social upward mobility. While teacher C prefers mother tongue instruction, he cities hindrances in resources and societal views as hindrances to that.

e) Language management and SGB functionality

In school A Teacher A says that the SGB is not functional and have no knowledge of LiEP. In school B Techer B says the SGB is functional but because of their lack of knowledge of policy, particularly LiEP, they don't make any meaningful contribution. This assertion is in line with Alexander's (2002) contention that there are also no monitoring and correctional tools to equip the SGBs with knowledge on policy and policy implementation.

5.4.2. Interviews with Principals

a) Personal Information

All the principals are adequately qualified and experienced principals who also have a wide range of teaching experience. All the principals alluded that they have SGBs in their schools that are functional.

b) SGB Roles, functionality, Language management and LiEP

Principal A and principal B are not aware of the role the SGB in LiEP. While principal C thinks that the SGB are the policy makers. He agrees that they do not play an active role in that regard. The three principals agree that the SGB's have never been inducted in the drafting the school LiEP. School A has LiEP, but it has not been reviewed since it was drafted. In school B the principal said that there is a written policy but on further scrutiny it was realized that it is for filing purposes and is not in line with national LiEP. In school C although they have a school policy the principal was not aware that they have it. All the three principals are not clear on what guides the choice of LoLT in their school and choice language as a subject. They attributed these choices to the Department of Education. While they all have admission policies, they do not use these as guides to choose of their school LiEP. The principals, although they have documents like English across the curriculum, they do not use them to influence the school's LiEP. All the 3 principals agreed that they did not check which languages the teachers use for teaching purpose but are aware of which

languages are taught as subjects or textbook and other teaching and learning materials the procurement is done by a chosen comity.

c) Support from DBE

All the principals stated that they did not get any support from the DBE and are not given any documents that support them in that regard. The principals confirmed that Departmental officials visit their schools and sometimes invite teachers for empowerment workshops, none of these address LiEP.

d) Language Practice

The principals' views of what the LoLT is in variance with what is actually happening in class. Principal A says its English and Setswana, but the teacher uses English only. Principal B says it is English, but the teacher uses English and Setswana. The same goes with principal C who thinks its English yet in practice its Setswana. Principals are not aware of what informs teachers' choice of language classroom practice. The choice languages as subjects are left to DBE history i.e., the principals do not change the status quo they found. While the principals stated that they use English and Setswana interchangeably. They all believe that English is a more useful language than Setswana.

5.4.3. Interviews with SGBs

a) SGB Functionality, management and Parental involvement

The three SGB persons interviewed stated that they SGBs are functional, and parents are called for meetings. They however were not aware of their roles in policy making, particularly the LiEP. They were also not aware of how and when the LoLT and languages as subjects were chosen.

5.4.4. Summary of Findings: How schools and teachers interpret and implement LiEP for their classroom practice.

Observations revealed that teacher A uses English in a way that is contrary LiEP principles of maintaining home languages and of redress of previously disadvantaged languages and languages of learning and teaching. His use of English also bridges the school and home link. Teacher A uses English not by choice but because he in neither proficient nor fluent in Setswana. Textbooks, teaching aids and materials used in lessons are in English. While teacher B uses mostly English he also uses Setswana. This is in line with LiEP but not in line with their school written policy. Teacher C uses mainly Setswana even though textbooks

are in English. Teacher C uses Setswana because he is not comfortable in using English as his proficiency and fluency is low.

In case of language management in the three schools, data revealed that there is no effort by anyone to modify values and practices of someone else. While there are written policies in two of the three schools none enforces those policies. While its government's role to manage language it does not in practice manage nor do the government employees (Provincial officials and principals) who are supposed to do so. Documents also revealed lack of management because the school policies are either not read or their presence known.

Specific focus on SGBs reveal that they are not involved in planning or any form of LiEP management. Principals use English for any function that they deem official and Setswana for clarity and to audience they assume can't understand English.

Document analysis reveal that the 3 schools neither have hard nor soft copies of the LiEP as documents. The principals, teachers and the SGB are not aware of LiEP. All the three schools have the Curriculum Assessment Policy statement (CAPS) hard copy documents, which are in abundance as some teachers have more than one each per subject. Teachers use the ATP (Annual Teaching Plans). These are given by the Department and are written in English for the subjects observed. All textbooks and learning materials, irrespective of the publisher (ranging from government through parastatals to private) are written in English, save for Setswana HL.

The findings highlight that for other documents that support LiEP, The Department's Implementation Plan, The Incremental Introduction of African languages in South African schools – draft policy, and The Use of Official Languages Act 12 of 2012 are not only not there but are unknown to the teachers, SGBs and the principals. While the Strategy for Teaching English Across the Curriculum and the Language Across the Curriculum (LAC) are there in all schools in abundance, they are either inboxes that are not open (school B) or have been given to teachers to navigate on their own (School A and C).

The test and exam papers in all the three schools are written in English and so are their assessment plans for both the school and that of teachers, except for the Setswana HL assessments which are written and planned in Setswana. While Grade 4 no longer writes common exams they have what they call cluster papers. These are papers that a group of

schools set and are moderated by the District. All these were written in English except for Setswana HL.

Interviews revealed that teachers are all not familiar with LiEP and have neither been oriented nor inducted on school language policies. Their views on LoLT in Grade 4 were different and not based on knowledge of policy. Some schools have written policy but teachers are not aware of its contents. The schools do not have oral policy as well. Further interviews show that schools neither induct/orient teachers on LiEP nor do they have advocacy workshops on LiEP. Resultantly teachers rely on the CAPS document which is readily available or their own perceptions of policy. Furthermore, schools have no language management in place. Schools have no support from DoE and any language advocacy NGO like PANSLAB. Interviews also focused on teachers' beliefs which revealed that teachers believe English is not only important for schooling but for preparing learners for work and the world at large. This is also their reason why they believe English should be used as the LoLT. While Setswana is regarded as important for religion and other societal interactions it is taken for granted that they know it and therefore it should not be given too much attention at school. Teacher A and Teacher B are comfortable with the current status of textbooks and assessments being written in English, yet Teacher B prefers they should be written in both languages.

Despite their preferences the 3 teachers aware that parents/guardians in their communities are unable to assist learners with their homework when they use English. Teachers claim that parents want their children to learn in English, as they see it as a language of prestige, economic and social upward mobility. While teacher C prefers mother tongue instruction, he cities hindrances in resources and societal views as hindrances to that.

All the three principals are not clear on what guides the choice of LoLT in their school and choice language as a subject. They attributed these choices to the Department of Education. While they all have admission policies, they do not use these as guides to choose of their school LiEP. The principals, although they have documents like English across the curriculum, they do not use them to influence the school's LiEP. All the 3 principals agreed that they did not check which languages the teachers use for teaching purpose but are aware of which languages are taught as subjects. All the principals stated that they did not get any support from the DBE and are not given any documents that

support them in that regard. The principals confirmed that Departmental officials visit their schools and sometimes invite teachers for empowerment workshops, none of these address LiEP. The three principals agree that the SGB's have never been inducted in the drafting the school LiEP. The principals' views of what the LoLT is in variance with what is actually happening in class. Principals are not aware of what informs teachers' choice of language classroom practice. The choice languages as subjects are left to DBE history i.e., the principals do not change the status quo they found. They all believe that English is a more useful language than Setswana.

SGBs are not aware of their roles in policy making, particularly the LiEP. They were also not aware of how and when the LoLT and languages as subjects were chosen.

5.5. Data Analysis and Discussions

For our analysis and discussions, it is important that we revisit the study aim and question which I reiterate below:

Aim

The study aimed to explore how schools and teachers interpret and implement the Language in Education Policy for their classroom practice in three public primary schools in Kuruman, Northern Cape.

Research question

How do schools and teachers interpret and implement the Language in education Policy for classroom practice in three primary schools in Kuruman, Northern Cape?

In order to answer the research question, I will use the theoretical frameworks and some literature reviewed earlier in this study.

	Policy	Policy	Policy
Spolsky	Management	Beliefs	Practice
Boncina-Pugh	Declared	Perceived	Practiced
Lo Bianco	Text	Discourse	Practice

Table 2 Summary of components from Spolsky, Boncina-Pugh and Lo Bianco

5.5.1. Overt or Covert policies school A, B and C

Schiffman (1996) as stated earlier talks about overt and covert policies in schools. I observed that all the schools and teachers have policies in either what they actually do or what is written. Schools policies were mainly what the teachers practiced albeit covertly. From observations I noticed that each teacher chose his or her LoLT whether the school has a written policy or not. As earlier revealed teacher A stuck to English, which is in line with point 4 of the school LiEP (see appendix 9.1) but while the school policy advocated for English LoLT it also, like LiEP, highlights the need to counter mismatches between Home Languages and LoLT. By dwelling in English, because, as evidenced by the interview "I only use English so also prepare them for exams…" he does not counter the mismatches. Teacher B also implements an overt policy, because as observed he was not even aware there is a school policy, and when the researcher did document analysis, it was realised that what they call policy is in fact extracts of IIAL (see appendix 9.2) which does not talk to LiEP. When interviewed Teacher B said he teaches in Setswana and English and cannot state what informs his decision clearly. The interviews supported this and further revealed that teacher's choice of LoLT were mainly influenced by language proficiency of teachers and learners. Documents were only followed when they favoured teacher's proficiency and fluency. It is therefore safe to conclude that teachers implement covert policies. In this case although the policies were covert, they were in line with national LiEP, that learners should be taught in any of the 11 South African official languages and to have languages as subjects. The teachers' overt policies were however not in line with the aims 1 to 4 of the national LiEP (see Appendix 6).

5.5.2. Practices in school A, B and C

Practices are what people actually do with language in their daily lives. These practices are observable behaviours and choices which represent the real language policy of a speech community although participants may be reluctant to admit it (Spolsky 2009, 2012). From my observations of what teachers and schools actually do in class, all the teachers practiced LoLT in line with national LiEP, that is that they use official languages and also had languages as subjects. This was also revealed by field notes and interviews. While in school A in can argued that the practice of teacher A was at variance with the LiEP that promotes multilingualism because teacher A promoted English mono-linguailism as he only taught in English. This however was remedied by the school which offers Setswana as a subject. In

school B the teacher taught in both Setswana and English, there by complying with aims of LiEP. While in school C observations revealed how the teacher taught mostly in Setswana with no Setswana supporting textbook and materials. This Teacher C also confirmed in the interview. This is in line with LiEP's promotion of full participation in society and supporting the other Languages required by the learners or used by communities in South Africa, and also countering disadvantages resulting from mismatches between home languages of learning and teaching. Interviews generally revealed that teachers choose their practice without really knowing that they are complying with LiEP. The admission forms that are filled with a choice of the LoLT are also in line with individuals choosing their own LoLT upon admission to a particular school. The department of Education is however found wanting in supporting the schools with regard to LiEP as teachers, principals revealed in their interviews that they have never been helped. The data from observations of the implementation of LiEP revealed that teachers' classroom practices and the principals' school practices are affected by lack of monitoring and support. The findings reveal what is supported by Roux (2002) that teachers have a major influence in policy formulation and implementation and that teachers are not free from bias.

5.5.3. Beliefs in school A, B and C

Principals' and teachers' strongly influence how schools interpret and implement policy. As Schiffman (1996) states that language policy is based in beliefs, it was affirmed by this study. Beliefs, as stated earlier according to Spolsky (2004), represent the values attributed and assigned to languages as well as the importance given to these values. Spolsky (2009:4) further states that the status of a language is derived from how many people use it, the importance these users and the social and economic benefits a speaker can expect in using it. Beliefs, Spolsky (2004) asserts that beliefs are about language and its use and both derive from and influence language practices. Simply put language beliefs or ideologies are what people think about language. Beliefs can be a basis for language management and language policy.

Schools that have teachers who believe English is powerful like school A then implement English biased LiEP. (Teacher A, school A). Those that believe in home language also do the same without consideration of LiEP (Teacher C, School C). The researcher observed that beliefs, language proficiency and fluency influence teachers and school interpretation and implementation of LiEP as was noted by Spolsky (2009).

5.5.4. Language management in school A, B and C

Teachers do their own language management of policy as those that are entitled to do so, do not do that. In most cases even if a written policy is there it is for filling purposes. Teachers therefore are the sole custodians of policy, its interpretation and its implementation as interviews, observations and field notes revealed that principals and the DOE through their provincial structures do not manage, check or are aware of what teachers actually do in class. As there is no monitoring this results in what Desai (2001) terms a laissez-faire approach to the language issue. This is evident in all the three schools. While the three schools are all located in Kuruman under the same management (Director and Subject advisors) they all have different practices and different policy documents (One has a policy document, the other considers the IIAL (Incremental Introduction of African Languages) which are incomplete as policy and the third also has one for filling purposes and it is worth noting that all the 3 documents have never been scrutinised by the Department).In all the three schools the SGBs are clearly not involved in policy formulation and they are not aware of their roles and powers in this regard mainly because they do not have information that inducts them on their role in LiEP and school language policies. This is concurring with Alexander's (2000) assertion that the state is accused of paying lip service to the policy because not enough resources are channelled towards buying relevant resources like textbooks and teacher training so that policy is fully and successfully implemented.

5.5.5. Role of English as a global language in school A, B and C

English has a huge influence in the LiEP. From interviews teachers and principals alluded to its currency and its influence on learners' access to the global world. English is well resourced as compared to the indigenous languages. Textbooks and other teaching materials also favour English. Small wonder schools do not have LiEP, IIAL and other documents that support the previously disadvantaged languages. Yet there is access of materials like teaching English across the curriculum and Language Across the Curriculum which all favour and seek to maintain English dominance. This is made even worse by the CAPS documents which all teachers have access to which alludes to the power and need for English as it states that "In South Africa, many children use their additional language (mostly English) as the LoLT. This means that they must reach a high level in competence in English. They need to be able to read and write English." Further

the CAPS documents states that in the intermediate and senior phase learners are learning through English and "[s]hould be getting more exposure to it. Greater emphasis is therefore placed using the First Additional for purposes of thinking and reasoning. This enables learners to develop their cognitive skills which they need to study subjects like Natural Sciences, Mathematics, etc. in English. They also engage more with literary texts and begin to develop aesthetic and imaginative ability in their Additional Language." This is in direct contrast with the aims of LiEP particularly section 3. 4, 5 and 6. Although the push of English by those in favour of it argue that it is in line with LiEP which advocates for "the facilitation of the nation and international communication through the promotion of bi- or multilingualism." Teachers like Teacher A use English as a refuge point from lack of proficiency and fluency of learners' home language which they are comfortable to use.

5.5.6. Roles of teachers in language and education policy

Pluddemann (2013:48) outlines the roles of teachers as policy violators, policy interpreters, policy performers and policy advocates. My study revealed that depending on the teacher's beliefs, proficiency and/or support from management and available resources, teachers can be either of them.

5.5.7. Teachers', the principals' and the SGB members' understanding of LiEP and their local LiEP.

The interviews, document analysis and field notes revealed lack of understanding or lack of knowledge of the national LiEP and their local LiEP. Information on LiEP is not availed to these key stakeholders. Those that have policy neither have the desire to read, understand and interpret it. They would rather do what they are comfortable with be it right or wrong. The power and influence of English on the choice of LiEP was also revealed. Other emerging factors that affected teachers', principals' and members of the SGB interpretation and understanding were as follows: Malfunctioning of SGBs, Historical factors, Resources and materials favour English, lack of training and information on LiEP, conditional clauses and too much choice enacted in the LiEP. Even point 6 in LiEP which states that individuals have the right to choose the LoLT is affected by lack of information and knowledge because the ability to choose can only be practiced by those with information about choices and how they go about choosing. This is in line with scholars like Web (2000) who are critical about LiEP because of the ability to of SGBs in making decisions about such complex issues like LiEP. SGBs are not functioning effectively where the parent bodies are poor and illiterate

and that SGB functionality has been overestimated because SGB members are not always competent in policy making as stipulated by SA Schools Act and the LiEP, mainly because of illiteracy (Probyn ,2005; Webb 1999). This was exactly the case in this study as the SGBs did not even know about LiEP and the related documents mainly because of illiteracy and lack of information. As will be remembered SGB chairperson in school A hFas Standard 6, in school B he is Grade 11 and in school C she has a one-year Diploma in Administration. These levels can be argued not to be literate enough to deal with policy issues but even if they were principals, as revealed in interviews, do not usually include SGBs in such decisions as revealed in the extracts below:

R: Is the SGB involved in drafting policy or in discussions about policy.

Principal A: We have not had such…yes we have not as far as I know.

Principal B: Even if you call them they do not participate, they leave that to us.

R: Who is us?

Principal B: Teachers and SMT.

Principal C: No

R: Why?

Principal C: They do not account to the Department should anything be wrong.

This exclusion can be argued to be historic as argued by Walker and Archung (2003:33) that “Historically the involvement of black South African communities in the decision making process was problematic thus schools did not invite them. Parental involvement was viewed as having no influence on the direction of the school. This resulted in students and parents often believing that schools should be responsible for decisions concerning, for example, medium of instruction.” This was evident in the schools as all had token SGBs who are not aware of their role in so far as LiEP is concerned. This assertion is in line with Alexander’s (2002) contention that there are also no monitoring and correctional tools to equip the SGBs with knowledge on policy and policy implementation.

5.5.8. Analysis: CDA

The above passages have analyses LiEP using language in education policy framework by Spolsky, Boncina-Pugh and Lo Bianco. Using their link to CDA analysis below the

research focuses on CDA, in particular Fairclough's CDA.The table below summarises the focus and links.

Table 19 of summary and links.

	Policy	Policy	Policy
Spolsky	Management	Beliefs	Practice
Boncina-Pugh	Declared	Perceived	Practiced
Lo Bianco	Text	Discourse	Practice
Fairclough's CDA	Text analysis	Discursive practice	Sociocultural practice

Fairclough's analytical framework is constituted by 3 levels of analysis. The text, the discursive practice and sociocultural practice.

Text can either be spoken or written. The analysis of the text consists of the study of language structures produced in discursive event. Fairclough's second dimension, discursive practice, involves analysis of the process of production, interpretation, distribution and consumption. This dimension is concerned with how people interpret and reproduce or transform texts. An analysis of the discursive practice is in fact paying attention to explaining the production, consumption and reproduction of the texts. The third dimension, sociocultural practice, is concerned with issues of power, power being a construct that is realised through inter-discursivity and hegemony. Analysis in this dimension includes exploration of the ways in which discourses operate in various domains in society.

Text analysis

Text analysis revealed that despite LiEP advocating for the use of any of the 11 official languages and support of the historically disadvantaged local languages the reality is that textbooks and other teaching and learning materials favour English as they are written only in English save for Home Language textbooks. The LiEP and its supporting documents like the IAAL are all written in English. The SGBs (parental component) who are mandated to draft school LiEP are mostly not English literate. So even if they wanted to be involved in the LiEP processes they could not or meaning would be lost in verbal non-standard

interpretation. This leaves the school principals and teachers abusing their power and determining the direction of policy. This is ascertained by Tollefson (1991) who states that an individual's response to language policy is constrained by class relationships in which the individual participates. Publishers and the examining boards add to these constraints by publishing textbooks in English and examining in English only.

Van Dijk (1993a) states that CDA is used to analyse texts in order to discover what structures, strategies or other properties of text, talk, verbal interaction or communicative events play a role in the production of power relations. Van Dijk (1998a) states that CDA is concerned with analysing written or spoken text to reveal the discursive sources of power, dominance, inequality and bias. CDA is concerned with social practices and how they are tied to historical contexts and are the means by which existing social relations are reproduced.

Written texts have already been analysed above. Verbal interactions also revealed inequality, dominance and bias. Inequality is produced by teachers and principals who use English for formal talk. This portrays to students that they should aspire to acquire English as it is the formal language while other languages are not. English is tied to historical contexts because even during the fight against apartheid policies English emerged as the language of unity and liberation while Afrikaans was viewed as the language of oppression. Therefore because of this historical context it understandable why teachers say parents still prefer their children to learn in English. While some teachers use Setswana for teaching and learning they still view it to be less powerful than English because they cannot use it to assess learners and the cluster exams that they write are in English.

Wodak (2006) states that CDA takes into account omissions, ambiguities in text. As earlier stated one of the weaknesses of the LiEP are its non-prescriptive nature and conditional clauses like "where reasonably practicable." This lives it open to different interpretations and misinterpretations.

Discursive practice

Fairclough (1989) highlights that CDA has interest in dimensions of power, injustice, abuse and political-economic or cultural change in society. It also looks at language use and power relations that emerge from it. In addition, CDA analyses real instances of social interaction. In this case the real cases of social interaction were the schools and the classrooms were

the teachers, principals and the SGBs interacted for classroom practice. The power dimensions that emerged was the power of English over the local language, Setswana. Teachers indicated that they use English because parents prefer it as they view it to be the language of socio-economic progression. The fact that English is used for formal and informal assessment tasks, tests and exams also leaves the teachers and schools with no choice but to use English even when the teacher is not fluent in English. Injustice is evident because the teachers acknowledged that learners struggle when English is used as the LoLT yet they have to use it because they have no choice as Setswana is not the language of assessment. Further as they prepare leaners for university and other tertiary institutions English is needed. So dominance of English is produced and reproduced. These findings also reveal bias towards English.

Sociocultural practice

Fairclough (1999) states that's that the school is an area of conflict where the dominated and the dominant use to ascertain their power through language as they seek recognition of their languages. This study revealed that teachers use their use languages they are comfortable in despite what policy dictates. This can be viewed as teachers' imposition of their power in the classroom. This is further worsened because there is no LiEP support, management, monitoring and evaluation in schools. The fact that LiEP is not supported in its implementation by government departments that are supposed to do so can be viewed as the powers that be being happy with the current status, power, dominance of English and the bias towards it. Government seems to be purposely paying lip service to LiEP. LiEP (1997) states that the LiEP document should be seen as part of a continuous process by which language in education is being developed, yet practically the LiEP has never been revised. Documents that have been developed to support LiEP are biased towards English or further entrench the power of English e.g. LAC and English Across the Curriculum documents. The IAAL which supports the redress of previously disadvantaged languages is written only in English and there is no support to implement it.

Wodak (2003) states that CDA makes visible the power relations which are not obvious to people. Particular ways of using language and the relations of power which underline them are often unclear to people. Schools and teachers are not aware of power relations they perpetuate. They are also not aware of the bias towards English textbooks by publishers as

the schools continue to order English textbooks thereby sustaining the system that maintains the dominance of English over Setswana.

5.6. Conclusion

This chapter unpacked the research findings and data which was analysed linking it to the research aim, question, literature and the theoretical framework. It presented the presentation and the analysis of qualitative data gathered through interviews of three grade four teachers, three principals, three SGB chairpersons, classroom observations, observation of assemblies, teacher to teacher interaction, principal interactions with staff, visitors and the SGB, LiEP, school policies and documents containing information on LiEP and field notes taken from the three selected schools.

6. Conclusions, limitations, and Recommendations

This research report comprises of six chapters. Chapter 1 introduced the study and discussed the background and context of the study. This chapter orientated the reader on the research project which aimed at exploring how schools and teachers interpret and implement the Language in Education Policy in their classroom practice. A background and context of the study was articulated that informed the motivation, rationale and significance of the study. The study was outlined based on aims of the study. The research question of the study was posed linked to the aim of the study. Lastly an overview of the chapters in this study were presented in Chapter 1.

Chapter 2: This chapter reviewed literature that is relevant and is associated with the main areas of interest to this study. The chapter firstly looked at Language Policy and Practice and gave the aims of LiEP and linked them to children's rights, then the current Language in Education Policy and its legislative context were discussed. The chapter also looked at Languages of Learning and Teaching and gave current practice of the LiEP. Further the chapter critiqued the current LiEP and then discussed the Department of Basic Education Implementation Plan and unpacked the Incremental Introduction of African Languages, the Language across the Curriculum and then the Strategy for Teaching English Across the Curriculum as supplements of the Language in Education Policy. Finally, the chapter looked at different teacher roles in Language in Education Policy.

Chapter 3 gave the study's theoretical framework. This section reviewed language Policy Analysis theory and Critical Discourse Analysis which provided the basis for understanding and analysing the data gathered in this research. CDA and policy analysis are two frameworks that provide a complimentary view on language policy issues. Policy analysis involves the practical elements of policy, following a logical flow in the process of policy development, interpretation, and implementation, while CDA interrogates the policy from the standpoint of ideology and interest. CDA and Policy Analysis frameworks therefore provided a lens for analysing language policy beyond the scope of the policy as a text, to also include policy process analysis, and social analysis.

Chapter 4 discussed and explored the research design, the methods of data collection, research participants, research context and methods of data analyses. In discussing the research design, qualitative data collection methods (interviews, observation, field notes

and document analysis), reasons for the selection of such design and methods were given. Ethical considerations, validity and limitations of the study were discussed.

Chapter 5 unpacked the research findings and data which was analysed linking it to the research aim, question, literature and the theoretical framework. It presented the presentation and the analysis of qualitative data gathered through interviews of three grade four teachers, three principals, three SGB chairpersons, classroom observations, observation of assemblies, teacher to teacher interaction, principal interactions with staff, visitors and the SGB, LiEP, school policies and documents containing information on LiEP and field notes taken from the three selected schools. Chapter 6 provided conclusions, limitations and recommendations for further study.

6.1. Conclusions

This thesis presented the key role schools and teachers play in interpreting and implementing the language in education policy for classroom practice. The study revealed that teachers are the sole custodians of policy, they interpret and implement policy in ways they think best covertly. The schools and teachers are however in need of support and guidance from the department for them to implement the LiEP which is in line with the national LiEP. The study also revealed that English still dominates the school system. The power dimensions that emerged were the power of English over the local language, Setswana. Teachers indicated that they use English because parents prefer it as they view it to be the language of socio-economic progression. The fact that English is used for formal and informal assessment tasks, tests and exams also leaves the teachers and schools with no choice but to use English even when the teacher is not fluent in English. Injustice is evident because the teachers acknowledged that learners struggle when English is used as the LoLT yet they have to use it because they have no choice as Setswana is not the language of assessment. Further as they prepare leaners for university and other tertiary institutions English is needed. So, dominance of English is produced and reproduced. The findings also reveal bias towards English by publishers. Schools continue to order English textbooks thereby sustaining the system that maintains the dominance of English over Setswana.

Principals do not check which languages the teachers use for teaching purpose but are aware of which languages are taught as subjects. Principals do not get any support from

the DBE and are not given any documents that support them in that regard. Principals agree that the SGB's have never been inducted in drafting the school LiEP. The principals' views of what the LoLT is in variance with what is actually happening in class. Principals are not aware of what informs teachers' choice of language classroom practice. The choice languages as subjects are left to DBE history i.e., the principals do not change the status quo they found. They all believe that English is a more useful language than Setswana.

SGBs are not aware of their roles in policy making, particularly the LiEP. They were also not aware of how and when the LoLT and languages as subjects were chosen.

The study's findings revealed that teachers are not versed with the Language in Education Policy and their classroom practice is therefore not based on policy but their own perceptions. Further the study also revealed that some schools do not have the Language in Education Policy and those that have it, have it just for filing purposes. Teachers neither have access to the policy nor are they oriented to it. Classroom practices were incongruent with what the Language in Education Policy requires. Even other documents which support the Language in Education Policy like the school language policies and the IIAL were not used as guiding documents for classroom practice. Disparities and contradictions that cause confusion amongst classroom practitioners were also revealed and that while the policy seeks to achieve social justice it actually promotes injustice and maintains an unjust segregatory system. English dominates It is hoped that the findings of this research will be useful to the SGBs, teachers, principals and their School Management Teams, researchers, scholars and Curriculum designers. It is anticipated that policymakers will find this research not only relevant but will also gain insightful current information about the gaps between policy and practice and if there are no gaps, to learn from best practice. It is also hoped that the results of the study will help policymakers design relevant practicable policies and also help policy implementers to navigate towards good practice that is meaningful to the learners. This study, it is hoped, will also help the Department of Basic Education, principals and School Management Teams to be better custodians of policy.

6.2. Limitations

A major limitation of this study was that it did not look at how the choice of LiEP influences learner's achievement. The study was limited to the exploration of how schools and teachers interpret and implement the LiEP in the 3 grade 4 classroom and schools. Another limitation

was the choice of schools. The research sites were comprised of solely black African teachers and learners. The findings might have been different if former Model C schools (these are former white only affluent schools), and coloured schools (schools that were formerly allocated to only coloured people) were chosen.

6.3. Recommendations

There is need for more studies particularly in the Northern Cape to see how LiEP can be made more accessible and the gaps between national LiEP and school language policies can be harmonized. Many studies and interventions have been done in other provinces other than the Northern Cape. It will also be beneficial if more resources are channelled to the enrichment of African languages as they are to English. There are good policies like the IIAL yet teachers and school principals are not aware of them and neither are they aware of the LiEP. The LiEP must be made popular and compulsory to have in teacher files. There is also a need to train teachers on how to use other languages other than English. SGBs must be equipped on their roles and policy. Schools must be supported in drafting and implementing policy. There must be a choice for learners to be assessed and examined in their mother tongue. It would also be beneficial for LiEP to be reviewed taking into consideration the best practices of teachers. Resources should be availed to support Languages of Learning and Teaching that are previously disadvantaged, for example to have EMS and Maths textbooks written in Setswana. Exams and other assessments should be offered in other languages so that the basket of choice of LoLT is fair. Provinces need a LiEP unit that will help SGBs draft policies and monitor its implementation like what the Eastern Cape Provincial Department has piloted.

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8. Appendices

Appendix 1: PRINCIPAL OBSERVATION TOOL

Which language does the principal use for	**ENGLISH**	**SETSWANA**	**OTHER**
Meetings with teachers?			
Address learners during assembly?			
Talking to learners generally**?**			
Meetings with SGB members?			
Talking to parents?			
Talking to visitors?			
Talking to non-teaching staff?			
Reading circulars from the Department of Education?			
Conveying messages from the Department of Education?			

Appendix 2 Observation for teachers

Observation schedule			
	English	Setswana	Other
What languages do teachers employ in their classroom?			
How do the teachers use language(s)?			
When do teachers use these languages?			
Which language is used for teaching?			
Which language is used for writing on the board?			
Which language is used for class work?			
Which language is used to answer learners orally?			
Which language is used orally?			
Which language is used for writing?			
Which language is used to answer children's questions?			
Which language do teachers use for oral assessment (questions)?			
Which language is used for written assessments?			
Which language is used to give learners written answers /assessment feedback?			
Which language is used for remediation/support activities and extension work?			
Which language are textbooks and other materials written in?			
Which language is use for giving learners Homework?			
Which language is used to praise and to motivate learners?			

Teacher Proficiency in language(s) used.			
Is the teacher proficient in the language he/she uses in class?			
Language Management			
Does school language management influence or modify practice?			
Which decisions were made by school that affect teachers' use of language?			
How does the use of language meet the requirements of LiEP?			
How are children's rights met?			
Language in Context			
Does the teacher use subject specific language (info carrying words usually nouns e.g. In chemistry sulphuric acid)? In which language is this?			
Does the teacher use general academic language (cross curricular language not exclusive to any subject e.g. First)? In which language is this general academic language?			
Does the teacher use Peripheral language (language used to manage)?In which language is this?			

Appendix 3. Teacher Interviews.

Teachers' personal and professional information

Question 1. What is your position in the school? ……

Question 2. What is your Mother Tongue? ……

Question 3. Which Language(s) is most spoken at your home? ……

Question 4. What other language are you fluent in ? …….

Question 5. What other languages do you understand?.....

Question 6. Which languages are you able to read? ……..

Question 7. What is your highest academic qualification? ……

Question 8. Which subject did you major in?.....

Question 9. Which language were you trained to teach in? / Which language were you trained to use as LoLT? ……

Question 10. When did you qualify?.....

Question 11. How many years have you actually been teaching?.....

Question 12. Which subjects and in which grades are you currently teaching?.....

Question 13. How long have you been in this school?.....

Question 14. Which positions of responsibility do you hold in the school?.....

Question 15. Have you ever been part of the SGB? If yes which position did you occupy?

……

School language policy and views on language management.

Question 16. Have you been oriented about the school LiEP? .....

Question 17. Are you familiar with the LiEP? …….

Question18. What does it say about LoLT in grade 4? ……

Question 19. What does the LiEP say about languages as subjects?.....

Question 20. What does the school LiEP say about LoLT? …….

Question 21. What does the school LiEP say about languages as subjects? Do you agree with it?.....

Question 22. Which language(s) do you use to teach?.....

Question 23. Why did you choose to use that language?.....

Question 24. Does the school have a written policy? If yes, have you seen it? Can you show me? ……..

Question 25. If there is no written policy Is there an orally agreed policy? How did you get to know about this oral policy?.....

Question 26. Who was responsible for drafting the school LiEP? When is it reviewed and by whom?.....

Question 27. Are teachers who join the school inducted on the school LiEP? From your experience which language do the majority of teachers use as LoLT? Is this in line with the school LiEP?.....

…….

Question 28. If you don't have both the written and oral policy, what informs your choice of LoLT and languages as subjects?.....

Question 29. Is there advocacy in the school for implementation of LiEP?.....

If yes how is this done?.....

Question 30. Since you joined the school and the district has there been any workshop(s) or demonstrations on implementation of LiEP?

……

Question 31. What changes would you like to see in the South African LiEP and in the school LiEP?.....

Teachers' language beliefs.

Question 32. Do you think English is important in the lives of the learners? If yes/no, why is it important or not important?.....

Question 33. Do you think Setswana is important in the lives of learners? If yes/no, why it is important or not important?.....

Question 34. In terms of schooling which language(s) do you think is important? Why?.....

Question 35. Which language do you think best prepares learners for the world at large including work?.....

Question 36. Which language is used best for religion in this society?.....

Question 37. Which language is useful in this society's interactions and communication?

…… ……Why do you think it important?

Question 38. Do learners laugh at each other when they do not speak Setswana/English properly? Why do you think this happens and in your view is this right?

……

Question 39. Which languages do you think should be added in your school? Why should they be added?.....

Question 40. Do you think the languages taught in your school are sufficient? Give reasons for your answer?.....

Question 41. What language would you prefer the textbooks to be written in? Why?

……..

Question 42. Which language would you prefer assessments to be conducted in? Why?

……

Question 43. Which language do you believe should be used as LoLT and which one should be taught as a subject? Give reasons for your answers. What do you think is opinion of other teachers on this?

……..

……..

Teachers' language Practices including language use in teaching aids, textbooks and language of assessment.

Question 44. Do you follow the school's LiEP? If you do or don't give reasons for your choice?

……

Question 45. Which language(s) do you use to teach? Why do you use it?

……..

Question 46. Which language(s) do you use to write on the board? Why do you it?

……

Question 47. Which language do you use to give learners feedback orally and in writing (in their exercise books and test papers)? Why do you use that language?

……..

Question 48. Which language do you assess your learners orally and in writing?

……

Question 49. Do you think the learners are proficient in the language you use to give feedback and for assessment?.....

Question 50. How proficient are learners in the language(s) you use as LoLT?

……

Question 51. Which language do you use for teaching aids? Is it the same with LoLT? Why?.....

Question 52. Which language are textbooks you use written in? Are you comfortable with this, give reasons?.....

Question 53. Are you part of the decision to use the current textbooks?

……

Question 54. Which language do you use for remediation? Why do you use this language?.....

Question 55. Which language do you use for disciplining learners? Why do you use this language?.....

Question 56. Which language do you use to praise learners? Why do you use this language?.....

Question 57. Which language do you use to write corrections for and with learners? Why do you use this?

……..

Question 58. Are there any difficulties you face in using English/ Setswana in the classroom? ……

Question 59. Which language do you give homework in? Why? ……..…….

Question 60. Do you think parents/guardians are able to assist leaners in the language you use for Homework?.....

Question 61. Which language do you use to praise and motivate learners? Why do you use it?.....

Teachers' views and preferences on Languages of Learning and Teaching and languages as subjects (English and Setswana)

Question 62. Do you prefer Setswana, English or both for LoLT (Or any other language)?

……..

Question 63. Which language(s) do you think the parents would like their children to learn in? Why do you think they choose this language?.....

Question 64. Which language are learners comfortable in using as LoLT?.....

Question 65. What is your view on Mother-tongue instruction?

…….

Question 66. What is your view on English instruction?

…….

Question 67. What are the challenges in implementing your preferred LoLT?

Question 68. Are there enough resources to implement your preferred LoLT?

Question 69. By the way you said which, language(s) are taught by the school as Subjects?.....

Question 70. What is your view on that? …….

Question 71. Which language would you prefer to be taught in your school as a subject? Why?.....

Language management and SGB functionality

Question 72. Is there an SGB in your school?.....

Question 73. Are teachers part of the SG? …….

Question 74. Who represents teachers in the SGB and in what capacity?

……..

Question 75. Does the teacher representative in the SGB consult teachers about SGB meetings and decisions?.....

Question 76. Was the SGB part of deciding which LoLT and which language is taught as a subject at the school? If not who to your knowledge drafted the school's LiEP?

……

Question 77. Do you agree with the decisions made by the SGB regarding the LiEP? Give reasons for your answer

…….

Question 78. What changes would you like to see regarding the SGB and its role in policy making, particularly deciding on LiEP?.....

Question 79. Does the SGB review policies particularly the school LiEP? If yes, how often?.....

Question 78. What is the position of the SMT, particularly the principal, on school LiEP?

Question 79. Any other question that arose from observations and follow up where further clarity is needed.

Appendix 4 PRINCIPAL INTERVIEWS

Principal's personal and professional information

Question 1. What is your highest qualification?.....

Question 2. What is your position in the school?.....

Question 3. What is your home language?.....

Question 4. Which other language(s) do you speak fluently?.....

Question 5. Which other language(s) do you understand?.....

Question 6. Which language(s) are you able to read?.....

Question 7. How long have you been a principal/SMT member?.....

Question 8. How long have you been a teacher?.....

Question 9. When did you qualify to be a teacher?.....

Question 10. Which language were you taught to use as LoLT?.....

Question 11. When you were appointed to be a principal were you inducted on your roles?.....

SGB Roles and functionality

Question 12. Do you have an SGB in your school?.....

Question 13. When were they elected?.....

Question 14. In your view are they functional? Give reasons for your answer.

……

Question 15. What is your role in the SGB?.....

Question 16. What is the role of the role of the SGB in LiEP? …… …… …… ……

Question 17. Was the SGB inducted on drafting school LiEP? Give a reason for this…….....

School language management and LiEP.

Question 18. Are you aware of the LiEP?.....

Question 19. Do you have a school LiEP?.....

Question 20. Is the school LiEP written or its orall?.....

Question 21. Who drafted it?.....

Question 22. When was it drafted?.....

Question 23. If there is no policy, what guides the choice of LoLT and choice of languages as subjects in your school? ……

Question 24. Do you check which language teachers use to teach in your school? Give reasons for your answer?.....

Question 25. Which other documents do you have or are aware of that help with language teaching and LoLT?.....

Question 26. Do you have an admission policy in your school?.....

Question 27. What does the admission policy say about children's choice on LoLT and languages as subjects?.....

……..

Question 28. Do your application for admission forms check on learners' Home languages and preferred LoLT?.....

Question 29. Do you then follow leaners' preferences? If yes why, if not why?

……

Support from the Department of Education regarding school language management

Question 30. Did the DBE provide your school with the LiEP?.....

Question 31. Did you get support on how to draft school LiEP?.....

Question 32. Is there anyone from DBE or any organisation who helps or helped with LiEP related issues?.....

Question 33. What do they say should be the LoLT?.....

Question 34. Which language(s) do they recommend to be taught as subjects?

…….

Question 35. Which other documents did the DBE provide to support LoLT and languages as subjects, and language teaching?

……

Question 36. Please summarise what the documents say…….

……
……

Language practice

Question 37. What is the LoLT of the school?.....

Question 38. Do all teachers use the same LoLT?.....

Question 39. In your view what informs their choices?

……

Question 40. Do you think you are exemplary in the use of LoLT? Give reasons for your answer. …….

Question 41. Which languages are taught as subjects in your school?

…….

Question 42. What informed this choice?.....

Question 43. If you had your way would you change the current language practice in your school and the school LiEP? Give reasons for your answer.

……
……..

Question 44. Which language(s) do you use for the following

(a) To talk to teachers in meetings?.....

(b) To address learners at assembly?.....

(c) When talking informally to learners, and to teachers?.....

(d) To address parents/guardians in meeting?.....

(e) To talk to school visitors?.....

(f) To write circulars to parents/guardians?.....

(g) To report learner performance to parents(reports) and to DBE?

……

(h) To talk to nonteaching staff?.....

(i) To read circulars to teachers?.....

Question 45. For each of the answers above give reasons for your choices.

……

……

……

……

……

……

Question 46. Which language is used for formal and informal assessment in your school? Why is this so?.....

Question 47. Which language are textbooks used in your school written in? Why did you make this choice?.....If you did not who did?.....

Parental involvement in language choices and practice

Question 48. What is the language spoken by the majority of parents?

……..

Question 49. Are parents aware of choices they have regarding LoLT in the school?

Question 50. What are their general preferences regarding LoLT?.....

…….

Question 51. Are they happy with the current choices practiced at the school?

……..

Question 52. What is the literacy level of parents in this community?

……..

Appendix 5 SGB interviews

Personal and Professional Qualifications First interviews:

SGB Chairperson personal and professional information

Question 1. What is your highest qualification?.....

Question 2. What is your position in the school?.....

Question 3. What is your home language?.....

Question 4. Which other language(s) do you speak fluently?.....

Question 5. Which other language(s) do you understand?.....

Question 6. Which language(s) are you able to read?.....

Question 7. How long have you been SGB chairperson?.....

Question 8. How long have you been an SGB member?.....

Question 9. How many children do you have in the school?.....

Question 10. Which language do you think is the best LoLT?.....

Question 11. When you were elected to be a chairperson were you inducted on your roles? .....

SGB functionality and management language

Question 12. How many SGB members are in your committee? What is their level of education? ……

Question 13. Where do they work and where do you work?.....

Question 14. Do you have time for SGB matters given your other commitments? ....

Question 15. In your view are you as the SGB functional? Give reasons for your answer.

……

Question 16. What is your role in the SGB?.....

Question 17. What is the role of the role of the SGB in LiEP? …… …… …… ……

Question 18. Was the SGB inducted on drafting school LiEP? Give a reason for this… ……

Question 19 Did you draft the current school LiEP?

…… …… …… ……

Question 20. Did you choose the language taught as a subject?

……..

Question. Do you have a choice/say in the textbooks that are used in the school? If yes, state reasons for your choice.

…… ……

Question 21. In which language do you conduct interviews for teachers, if you do?

……

Parental involvement

Question 22. What is the language spoken by the majority of parents?

……..

Question 23. Are parents aware of choices they have regarding LoLT in the school? .....

Question 24. What are their general preferences regarding LoLT?.....

……

Question 25. Are they happy with the current choices practiced at the school?

……..

Question 26. What is the literacy level of parents in this community?

……..

Appendix 6- Language in education policy

LANGUAGE IN EDUCATION POLICY 14 JULY 1997

1.The language in education policy documents which follow have been the subject of discussions and debate with a wide range of education stakeholders and role-players. They have also been the subject of formal public comment following their publication on 9 May 1997 (Government Notice No. 383, Vol. 17997).
2.Two policies are announced herewith, namely, the LANGUAGE IN EDUCATION POLICY IN TERMS OF SECTION 3(4)(m) OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION POLICY ACT, 1996 (ACT 27 OF 1996), and the NORMS AND STANDARDS REGARDING LANGUAGE POLICY PUBLISHED IN TERMS OF SECTION 6(1) OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN SCHOOLS ACT, 1996. While these two policies have different objectives, they complement each other and should at all times be read together rather than separately.
3.Section 4.4 of the Language in Education Policy relates to the current situation. The new curriculum, which will be implemented from 1998, onwards, will necessitate new measures which will be announced in due course.
4.LANGUAGE IN EDUCATION POLICY IN TERMS OF SECTION 3(4)(m) OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION POLICY ACT, 1996 (ACT 27 OF 1996)
5.
1.PREAMBLE
2.This Language-in-Education Policy Document should be seen as part of a continuous process by which policy for language in education is being developed as part of a national language plan encompassing all sectors of society, including the deaf community. As such, it operates within the following paradigm:
1.In terms of the new Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, the government, and thus the Department of Education, recognises that our cultural diversity is a valuable national asset and hence is tasked, amongst other things, to promote multilingualism, the development of the official languages, and respect for all languages used in the country, including South African Sign Language and the languages referred to in the South African Constitution.
2.The inherited language-in-education policy in South Africa has been fraught with tensions, contradictions and sensitivities, and underpinned by racial and linguistic discrimination. A number of these discriminatory policies have affected either the access of the learners to the education system or their success within it.
3.The new language in education policy is conceived of as an integral and necessary aspect of the new government's strategy of building a non-racial nation in South Africa. It is meant to facilitate communication across the barriers of colour, language and region, while at the same time creating an environment in which respect for languages other than one's own would be encouraged.
4.This approach is in line with the fact that both societal and individual multilingualism are the global norm today, especially on the African continent. As such, it assumes that the learning of more than one language should be general practice and principle in our society. That is to say, being multilingual should be a defining characteristic of being South African. It is constructed also to counter any particularistic ethnic chauvinism or separatism through mutual understanding.
5.A wide spectrum of opinions exists as to the locally viable approaches towards multilingual education, ranging from arguments in favour of the cognitive benefits and cost-effectiveness of teaching through one

medium (home language) and learning additional language(s) as subjects, to those drawing on comparative international experience demonstrating that, under appropriate conditions, most learners benefit cognitively and emotionally from the type of structured bilingual education found in dual-medium (also known as twoway immersion) programmes. Whichever route is followed, the underlying principle is to maintain home language(s) while providing access to and the effective acquisition of additional language(s). Hence, the Department's position that an additive approach to bilingualism is to be seen as the normal orientation of our language-in-education policy. With regard to the delivery system, policy will progressively be guided by the results of comparative research, both locally and internationally.

6.The right to choose the language of learning and teaching is vested in the individual. This right has, however, to be exercised within the overall framework of the obligation on the education system to promote multilingualism.

3.This paradigm also presupposes a more fluid relationship between languages and culture than is generally understood in the Eurocentric model which we have inherited in South Africa. It accepts a priori that there is no contradiction in a multicultural society between a core of common cultural traits, beliefs, practices, etc., and particular sectional or communal cultures. Indeed, the relationship between the two can and should be mutually reinforcing and, if properly managed, should give rise to and sustain genuine respect for the variability of the communities that constitute our emerging nation. 4.AIMS

5.The main aims of the Ministry of Education's policy for language in education are:

2

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

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

3.to promote and develop all the official languages.

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

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

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

6.POLICY: LANGUAGES AS SUBJECTS

7.

1.All learners shall offer at least one approved language as a subject in Grade 1 and Grade 2.

2.From Grade 3 (Std 1) onwards, all learners shall offer their language of learning and teaching and at least one additional approved language as subjects.

3.All language subjects shall receive equitable time and resource allocation.

4.The following promotion requirements apply to language subjects:

5.

1.In Grade 1 to Grade 4 (Std 2) promotion is based on performance in one language and Mathematics.
2.From Grade 5 (Std 3) onwards, one language must be passed.
3.From Grade 10 to Grade 12 two languages must be passed, one on first language level, and the other on at least second language level. At least one of these languages must be an official language.
4.Subject to national norms and standards as determined by the Minister of Education, the level of achievement required for promotion shall be determined by the provincial education departments.
8.POLICY: LANGUAGE OF LEARNING AND TEACHING
The language(s) of learning and teaching in a public school must be (an) official language(s).
6.NORMS AND STANDARDS REGARDING LANGUAGE POLICY PUBLISHED IN TERMS OF SECTION 6(1) OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN SCHOOLS ACT, 1996
7.
1.INTRODUCTION
2.
1.AIM OF THESE NORMS AND STANDARDS
2.
1.Recognising that diversity is a valuable asset, which the state is required to respect, the aim of these norms and standards is the promotion, fulfilment and development of the state's overarching language goals in school education in compliance with the Constitution, namely:
2.
1.the protection, promotion, fulfilment and extension of the individual's language rights and means of communication in education; and
2.the facilitation of national and international communication through promotion of bi- or multilingualism through cost-efficient and effective mechanisms,
3.to redress the neglect of the historically disadvantaged languages in school education.
3.DEFINITIONS
4.In these norms and standards, unless the context otherwise indicates, words and expressions contained in the definitions in the Act shall have corresponding meanings; and the following words and phrases shall have the following meanings:
1."the Act" means the South African Schools Act, Act 84 of 1996
2."the Constitution" means the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act 108 of 1996
3
3."school district" means a geographical unit as determined by the relevant provincial legislation, or prevailing provincial practice
4."language" means all official languages recognised in the Constitution, and also South African Sign Language, as well as Alternative and Augmentative Communication.
3.THE PROTECTION OF INDIVIDUAL RIGHTS
4.
1.The parent exercises the minor learner's language rights on behalf of the minor learner. Learners who come of age, are hereafter referred to as the learner, which concept will include also the parent in the case

of minor learners.

2.The learner must choose the language of teaching upon application for admission to a particular school.

3.Where a school uses the language of learning and teaching chosen by the learner, and where there is a place available in the relevant grade, the school must admit the learner.

4.Where no school in a school district offers the desired language as a medium of learning and teaching, the learner may request the provincial education department to make provision for instruction in the chosen language, and section 5.3.2 must apply. The provincial education department must make copies of the request available to all schools in the relevant school district.

5.THE RIGHTS AND DUTIES OF THE SCHOOL

6.

1.Subject to any law dealing with language in education and the Constitutional rights of learners, in determining the language policy of the school, the governing body must stipulate how the school will promote multilingualism through using more than one language of learning and teaching, and/or by offering additional languages as fully-fledged subjects, and/or applying special immersion or language maintenance programmes, or through other means approved by the head of the provincial education department. (This does not apply to learners who are seriously challenged with regard to language development, intellectual development, as determined by the provincial department of education.)

2.Where there are less than 40 requests in Grades 1 to 6, or less than 35 requests in Grades 7 to 12 for instruction in a language in a given grade not already offered by a school in a particular school district, the head of the provincial department of education will determine how the needs of those learners will be met, taking into account

3.

1.the duty of the state and the right of the learners in terms of the Constitution, including

2.the need to achieve equity,

3.the need to redress the results of past racially discriminatory laws and practices,

4.practicability, and

5.the advice of the governing bodies and principals of the public schools concerned.

7.THE RIGHTS AND DUTIES OF THE PROVINCIAL EDUCATION DEPARTMENTS

8.

1.The provincial education department must keep a register of requests by learners for teaching in a language medium which cannot be accommodated by schools.

2.In the case of a new school, the governing body of the school in consultation with the relevant provincial authority determines the language policy of the new school in accordance with the regulations promulgated in terms of section 6(1) of the South African Schools Act, 1996.

3.It is reasonably practicable to provide education in a particular language of learning and teaching if at least 40 in Grades 1 to 6 or 35 in Grades 7 to 12 learners in a particular grade request it in a particular school.

4.The provincial department must explore ways and means of sharing scarce human resources. It must also explore ways and means of providing alternative language maintenance programmes in schools and or

school districts which cannot be provided with and or offer additional languages of teaching in the home language(s) of learners.

9.FURTHER STEPS

10.

1.Any interested learner, or governing body that is dissatisfied with any decision by the head of the provincial department of education, may appeal to the MEC within a period of 60 days.

2.Any interested learner, or governing body that is dissatisfied with any decision by the MEC, may approach

4

the Pan South African Language Board to give advice on the constitutionality and/or legality of the decision taken, or may dispute the MEC's decision by referring the matter to the Arbitration Foundation of South Africa.

3.A dispute referred to the Arbitration Foundation of South Africa must be finally resolved in accordance with the Rules of the Arbitration Foundation of Southern Africa by an arbitrator or arbitrators appointed by the Foundation.

Appendix 7- Ethics clearance letter

RHODES UNIVERSITY

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12 March 2019

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Dear Mr S Sibanda

Research Proposal: 2019.2.04.3 HDC Minute

This letter confirms that the Higher Degree Committee has *approved* your research proposal, for the degree of Master of Education in Education in the Faculty of Education titled: *An exploration of how teachers interpret and use the Language in Education Policy in their classroom practice: a case study*.

You will need ethical clearance from the Rhodes University Ethical Standards Committee (RUESC) before you can begin your research.

Please consult with your supervisor when completing the RUESC application online, which can be accessed using the following link: https://rhodes.forms.ethicalreviewmanager.com/

Should you have any queries about your online submission please contact the Ethics Coordinator Mr Siyanda Manqele s.manqele@ru.ac.za.

Sincerely

Professor C Grant
HDC Chair: Faculty of Education

cc: Supervisor: Dr R Mawela (ISEA)

Appendix 8- Permission letters

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

Enquiries : G.D. SIBIYA
Contact No : 053 939 6703
Reference :
Date : 29 April 2019

TO: **MR SIKHUMBUZO SIBANDA**

GRANTING OF PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SELECTED PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN THE JOHN TAOLO GAETSEWE DISTRICT IN THE NORTHERN CAPE PROVINCE

The Northern Cape Department of Education has noted your request to conduct research under the topic titled 'An Exploration of how teachers interpret and use the Language in Education Policy in their Classroom Practice: a case study" in the John Taolo Gaetsewe District: Northern Cape Province.

We regard this research as important in providing the department with data regarding how teachers interpret and use the Language Policy in their classroom practice and also provide insightful information about the gaps between policy and practice. We therefore trust that your research findings will be shared with the department in the near future.

We further trust that the selected schools for this research will give you all the necessary support to complete this task.

Permission to your request is therefore granted on condition that your research does not interfere or disturb teaching and learning. we further take this opportunity to wish you all the best in your studies.

Thank you

MR. G.T. PHARASI
SUPERINTENDENT-GENERAL

Page 1 of 1

30/04/2019

TO: MR SKHUMBUZO SIBANDA

GRANTING OF PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN PRIMARY SCHOOL IN THE JOHN TAOLO GAETSWEWE DISTRICT IN THE NORTHERN CAPE PROVINCE.

Gantatelang Primary School has noted your request to conduct research under the topic titled 'An Exploration of how teachers interpret and use the language in Education Policy in their Classroom Practice: a case study' in the John Taolo Gaetsewe District: Northern Cape Province.

We regard this research as important in providing the school with data regarding how teachers interpret and use the Language Policy in their classroom practice and also provide insightful information about the gaps between policy and practice. We therefore trust that your research findings will be shared with the school in the near future.

Permission to your request is therefore granted on condition that your research does not interfere or disturb teaching and learning, we further take this opportunity to wish you all the best in your studies.

Thank you

TO: MR SIKHUMBUZO SIBANDA

SUBJECT: REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN 'RIMARY SCHOOL.

The permission to conduct research at our school is granted. We further trust that the school will give you necessary support.

Thank you

02 MAY 2019

TO : SIKHUMBUZO SIBANDA

RE : GRANDING PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN . RIMARY SCHOOL IN GRADE 4 IN LANGUAGES (ENGLISH) AND SOCIAL SCIENCES.

The aforementioned school after reading your letter from the department of education in the Northern Cape dated the 29th of April 2019, regarding your request to conduct research as stated above.

We threfore want to categorically state that we accept your request to conduct such a research as we are of the opinion that it will go a long way in contributing towards improving the standard of teaching and leraning in our school, and as such we further belief that the outcome or findings of your research will be shared with the school for enhancement and or ratification.

We wish you all the best in your research in particular and your study in general and also hope that we will be working together towrads a common goal, and we therfore commit ourselves to support you with everything that you need to complete your reserch successfully.

Thanking you in advance

Appendix 9 - School policies

Appendix 9.1 School A

SCHOOL A

Language Policy of

PRIMARY SCHOOL

School Stamp

Date of Adoption by SGB_____ Signed M. SeMMe

Date of Verification by Department Signed_____

1. Preamble

In terms of the South African Schools Act 84 of 1996 Section 6, schools are obliged to develop language policies. These must be in line with the Constitution of the country and existing National and Provincial laws.

2. Aims

a. Consistent with the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa this policy recognises our cultural diversity and therefore promotes multilingualism.
b. This policy will attempt to promote non-racialism and facilitate communication across barriers of colour, language and religion.
c. It shall also promote mutual respect for diverse cultures and languages.
d. It shall raise the status of formerly disadvantaged languages.
e. It shall close the gap between home languages and learning and teaching languages.
f. It shall promote and develop Setswana as a Home Language and English as First Additional Language.
g. Further specific aims of this policy include:
   i. to counter disadvantages resulting from different kinds of mismatches between home languages and language of learning and teaching.

3. Language of Instruction

Parents have the Right to collectively decide the language of instruction of the school. This school has adopted the following language(s) for instructional purposes at the specified grade levels.

i. All learners from grade R – 3 shall offer Setswana as a medium of instruction
ii. All learners from grade 4 – 6 shall offer English as medium of instruction

Funded by the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) Contract No. 674-0314-C-00-8009-0

iii. All learners from grade 7 – 9 shall offer English as medium of instruction
iv. All learners from 10 – 12 shall offer English as medium of instruction

4. Languages as Subjects

i. All learners from grade 1 – 3 shall offer English as a subject
ii. All learners from grade 4 – 6 shall offer English as a subject
iii. All learners from grade 7 – 9 shall offer English as a subject
iv. All learners from 10 – 12 shall offer English as a subject

5. Time allocation

a. All languages offered as subjects shall be given equitable time allocation.

SUBJECT	GRADE R (HOURS)	GRADES 1 -2 (HOURS)	GRADES 3 (HOURS)
First additional language		2/3	¾
GRADES 4 – 6			
Subject	Grade 4 (hours)	Grade 5 (hours)	Grade 6 (hours)
First additional language	5	5	5
Grade 7 – 9			
subject	Grade 7 (hours)	Grade 8 (hours)	Grade 9 (hours)
First additional language	4	4	4
Grade 10 -12			
subject	Grade 10 (hours)	Grade 11 (hours)	Grade 12 (hours)
First additional language	4,5	4,5	4,5

b. Where at least 40 learners in Grades 1 to 7, and 35 in Grades 8 to 12 require to be taught in language not offered in the school, an application to the HoD for the provision of an Educator.

6. Official languages

c. The school must select two (2) official languages, provided that one of the two official languages is offered on Home language Level, and the other, on either Home or First Additional language level, and provided that further that one of the two languages is the language of learning and teaching.

7. Promoting Multilingualism

The school will take the following steps to promote multilingual language skills:
i. Encourage learners to read books of other languages
ii. Keep books of different languages

Funded by the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) Contract No. 674-0314-C-00-8009-0

SCHOOL A

LANGUAGES POLICY

LEARNING AREA:

NAME OF INSTITUTION:
SCHOOL

GRADES: 4-7

1. AIMS

- To promote learners ability to communicate
- To make learners to love and respect the language
- To promote the following skills amongst learners:
  a) Listening skill.
  b) Speaking skill
  c) Reading and writing skill
- To promote competent learner in a global Area.

2. TEACHING METHODS

- A variety of teaching method will be used to teach and to learn language.
- The learner Area is taught in accordance with RNCS approach
- The learning Area is allocated 40 minutes per period.
- Home language 20 periods per week.
- First Additional language 15 periods per week.
- Second Additional language 15 periods per week.

3. PLANNING

- There are three levels of planning and different role player involved in each level.
- Learning programmed: it is a long term planning for a phase for a year. The role players are the phase lead, the school management team.
- Work schedule: it is the year long plan for a grade. The role player is the educators and the school management team.
- Lesson plan: it is the detailed description of activities for every learner for a day, week or month and should be done by the educators; it includes the learning outcomes, Assessment standard, Integration resources, assessment task. Etc.

4. RECORDING

- Learners to be recorded in the relevant RNCS documents.
- Educators to keep the following documents in their files
  -Policy documents
  -Time-table
  -Learning programmes.
  -Work schedules
  -Lesson plans
  -Assessment
  -Phase policy
  -Learning area policy
  -Recording books.
  -A minimum of six class test per quarter is expected

5. MEETINGS

- The phase meeting to be held twice a quarter.
- HOD is a chairperson.
- Secretary will record all the minutes.
- The chairperson, secretary and site manager to sign minutes.

6. ENRICHMENT

- School workshops will be conducted to empower educators.
- Any problem regarding Learning Area, the practitioner will not hesitate to consult the HOD.

7. RESOURCES

- Materials brought from workshop remain school properties.
- Materials like textbooks, files, experience forms will always remain school properties.

Appendix 9.2 School B

1. Language Policy

Purpose

The purpose of a language policy is to define the manner in which languages are to be used and taught in a school. Consistent with the National Constitution it is also incumbent on a school to demonstrate how it will recognise cultural diversity and promote multilingualism.

Required Content

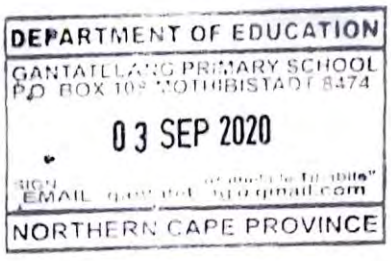
A considerable amount of required content is defined by 'Norms and Standards for Language Policy in Public Schools' (Government Gazette R 1701 of 1997). This sets out expectations of a language policy in terms of the promotion of multilingualism and development of previously neglected languages. This document clarifies the bounds within which schools may define their medium of instruction and the other languages that are taught as subjects.

Recommended Content

The scope of recommended content defined in the 'Norms and Standards' is comprehensive. The greatest scope for creative development of language policy in schools is in the strategies and activities that the school adopts to promote the diverse language skills of learners.

Illegal Content

Any statement of discrimination on the basis of language ability or disability may not be included in a language policy. Language may not be used as a criterion for the admission of learners in schools. Likewise any statement that infringes the rights of parents and learners as described in the 'Norms and Standards' may not be permitted



INCREMENTAL INTRODUCTION OF AFRICAN LANGUAGES (IIAL) SECTOR IMPLEMENTATION PLAN 2017-2020

BACKGROUND

In 2013 the Department of Basic Education (DBE) announced plans to strengthen the teaching of African languages through the Incremental Introduction of African Languages (IIAL). The IIAL is a priority programme aimed at promoting some aspects of social cohesion in our society. The IIAL intends to promote and develop the previously marginalized official African Languages as espoused in the Constitution and the National Development Plan (NDP).

The National Development Plan (NDP: 471) states that "Since a few Non-African South Africans speak any African language, a second challenge is to encourage those for whom an African language is not a mother tongue to develop at least a conversational competency in one of these languages. This will enrich the experience of the language learners. Both government and society should promote and celebrate this form of multilingualism. Knowing each other's languages can play a profound role in promoting understanding and developing social cohesion."

The IIAL will be implemented in two phases. The First Phase responds to the National Development Plan's proposal that says that "every South African should learn one of the nine official black languages in schools". Furthermore, the NDP promotes multilingualism and acknowledges the vital importance knowing each other's languages can play in promoting understanding and developing social cohesion. The First Phase of IIAL implementation will ensure that all leaners offer a previously marginalised official African language as part of their mandatory curriculum requirement.

The Second Phase of the IIAL implementation will focus on strengthening the use of the previously marginalized African Languages as LoLT beyond the foundation Phase. This is also in line with the NDP priorities which advocates for learners home language to be used as a medium of instruction for a longer period that English be introduced much earlier in the Foundation Phase.

The IIAL strategy targets all school that are currently not offering a previously marginalised official African language. In 2014 and 2015, the IIAL was piloted in Grades 1-2 in 264 school across all nine province that were not offering any previously marginalised official African language.

IIAL STRATEGY -217-2029

The Basic Education IIAL Strategy Sector plan will extend over 13 years from 2017-2029 in line with the NDP.

The purpose of the Sector plan is to;
1. Promote the blue print of the activities which will enable the implementation of IIAL from Gr.1to Gr.12
2 .Guide implementation Agencies to develop efficient and effective operational plans at National, Provincial, District, Circuit and school level

The Basic Education Strategy IIAL Sector Plan will be implemented as follows:

PHASE 1	Foundation Phase(FP)	Grades.1-3	2018-2020
PHASE 2	Intermediate Phase (IP)	Grades.4-6	2021-2023
PHASE 3	Senior Phase(SP)	Grades.7-9	2024-2026
PHASE 4	FET Phase	Grades.10-12	2027-2029

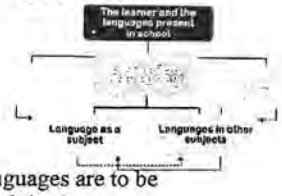
Two African languages earmarked for the Northern Cape Province are Tswana and Xhosa

Appendix 9.3 School C

SCHOOL C

School Policy for *School*

IV. Language Policy



Purpose

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Recommended Content

The scope of recommended content defined in the 'Norms and Standards' is comprehensive. The greatest scope for creative development of language policy in schools is in the strategies and activities that the school adopts to promote the diverse language skills of learners.

Illegal Content

Any statement of discrimination on the basis of language ability or disability may not be included in a language policy. Language may not be used as a criterion for the admission of learners in schools. Likewise any statement that infringes the rights of parents and learners as described in the 'Norms and Standards' may not be permitted.

Language Policy of
Segonyana Primary School

Date of Adoption by SGB_____ Signed _____

Date of Verification by Department Signed _____

DEPT OF EDUCATION NORTHERN CAPE
PRIMARY SCHOOL
01 FEB 2019
School Stamp

School Policy for Primary School

1. Preamble

In terms of the South African Schools Act 84 of 1996 Section 6, schools are obliged to develop language policies. These must be in line with the Constitution of the country and existing National and Provincial laws.

2. Aims

1. Consistent with the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa this policy recognises our cultural diversity and therefore promotes multilingualism.
2. This policy will attempt to promote non-racialism and facilitate communication across barriers of colour, language and religion.
3. It shall also promote mutual respect for diverse cultures and languages.
4. It shall raise the status of formerly disadvantaged languages.
5. It shall close the gap between home languages and learning and teaching languages

3. Language of Instruction

Parents have the Right to collectively decide the language of instruction of the school. This school has adopted the following language(s) for instructional purposes at the specified grade levels.

- **Setswana is the medium of instruction for Grades R-3**
- **English is the medium of instruction for Grades 4; 5 and 6.**

4. Languages as Subjects

a. From Grade R to 6 the school shall offer their language of learning and teaching and at least one additional language as a subject. The following languages shall be offered as subjects at the following grade levels.
   i. **Setswana is the mother tongue,**
   ii. **English is the first additional language**

b. All languages offered as subjects shall be given equitable time and resource allocation.

c. In accordance with Government Gazette R 1701 of 1997, the following shall be the promotion requirements for language subjects:
   i. **Grade R-6 promotion is based on mother language and mathematic**
   ii. **The provincial education department shall determine the level required for promotion.**

d. Where at least 40 learners in Grades R 6, require to be taught in language not offered at the school, an application to the HoD for the provision of an Educator.

Appendix 10 School C Sample of school admission policies

NCK-AT1/2019

NORTHERN CAPE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

LEARNER ADMISSION TO ORDINARY AND SPECIAL PUBLIC SCHOOLS

APPLICATION FOR ADMISSION TO A SCHOOL — YEAR 2020

SEQUENCE NUMBER: | TIME RECEIVED BY SCHOOL:

DATE RECEIVED BY SCHOOL: / / 2019

NAME OF SCHOOL

This form must be completed in full. All changes must be initialled or signed by the parent/guardian.
Note that the completion of a form does not necessarily mean that the learner has been accepted into the school.
Note that only applications that are personally hand-delivered will be considered. Faxed, e-mailed or applications submitted via e-mail will therefore be disqualified.

The following documentation must be attached to this application form:

1. Certified copy of Birth Certificate/ID
2. Parent School Report
3. Immunisation Record/Clinic Card
4. Proof of Guardian Status
5. Parents/Guardians ID
6. Proof of Parent's Residence
7. Proof of Sibling Relationship

A. LEARNER INFORMATION

GRADE APPLIED FOR: 5 | HIGHEST GRADE PASSED: 4 | YEAR WHEN GRADE WAS PASSED: 2019

SURNAME: KESHOLOFETSE | INITIALS: P K

FIRST NAME: PHEMELO | OTHER NAMES:

DATE OF BIRTH: 15 06 2011 | ID NO: 0906155456062

GENDER: MALE ✓ FEMALE | RACE: A=AFRICAN C=COLOURED I=INDIAN W=WHITE OTHER: O — A

COUNTRY OF RESIDENCE: SOUTH AFRICA | IF SA, INDICATE PROVINCE: NORTHERN CAPE

CITIZENSHIP: AFRICAN | RELIGION: CHRISTIANITY

HOME ADDRESS: LETLHAKANANENG VILLAGE

CODE: 8610

HOME TEL NO: | EMERGENCY NO:

LEARNER CELL: 0725541605

LEARNER EMAIL ADDRESS:

HOME LANGUAGE: SETSWANA | PREFERRED LANGUAGE OF TEACHING:

DECEASED PARENT: MOTHER | FATHER | BOTH | BOARDER: YES | NO

MODE OF TRANSPORT:

FOR GRADE 1 ONLY - INDICATE GRADE R EDUCATION: NONE | SEMI-FORMAL | FORMAL

B. PREVIOUS SCHOOL INFORMATION

NAME OF PREVIOUS SCHOOL: LYRSO INTERMEDIATE SCHOOL

PHYSICAL ADDRESS:

CODE: 8610

TEL NO: | FAX NO:

C LEARNER MEDICAL INFORMATION

MEDICAL AID NO: _____ NAME OF MEDICAL AID: _____

MEDICAL AID MAIN MEMBER: _____

NAME OF FAMILY DOCTOR: _____ TEL NO: _____

MEDICAL CONDITION: _____

DEXTERITY OF LEARNER: RIGHT HANDED ___ LEFT HANDED ___ AMBIDEXTROUS ___

REGISTERED FOR SOCIAL GRANT: YES ___ NO ___ RECEIVES SOCIAL GRANT: YES ___ NO ___ GRANT NO: _____

D SIBLINGS

NUMBER OF OTHER CHILDREN AT THIS SCHOOL: ___ POSITION IN THE FAMILY (e.g. first): _____

SIBLINGS CURRENTLY AT THIS SCHOOL

Surname	First Name(s)	Grade	Physical Home Address
KESHOLOFETSE	TSHEPISO INGRID	1	LETHABILE VILLAGE

E PARENT / GUARDIAN INFORMATION

ARE YOU A PARENT / GUARDIAN? PARENT ___ GUARDIAN ✓

WHO IS DECEASED? MOTHER ___ FATHER ___ BOTH ___ NONE ✓

PARENT/GUARDIAN 1

SURNAME: KESHOLOFETSE INITIALS: G I K TITLE: MRS

FIRST NAME: LIC TSEMANG INGRID OTHER NAME: _____

GENDER: MALE ___ FEMALE ✓ RACE: A=AFRICAN C=COLOURED I=INDIAN W=WHITE OTHER=O: A C I W

ID NO: 6 2 0 8 1 5 0 2 0 4 0 5 2 HOME LANGUAGE: SETSWANA

HOME ADDRESS: LETHABILE VILLAGE

CODE: 8 6 0 0

HOME TEL NO: _____ CELL NO: 0 7 2 5 5 4 1 0 0 5

WORK TEL NO: _____ EMERGENCY NO: _____

EMAIL ADDRESS: _____

PROVINCE: NORTHERN CAPE COUNTRY: _____

OCCUPATION: _____ EMPLOYER: _____

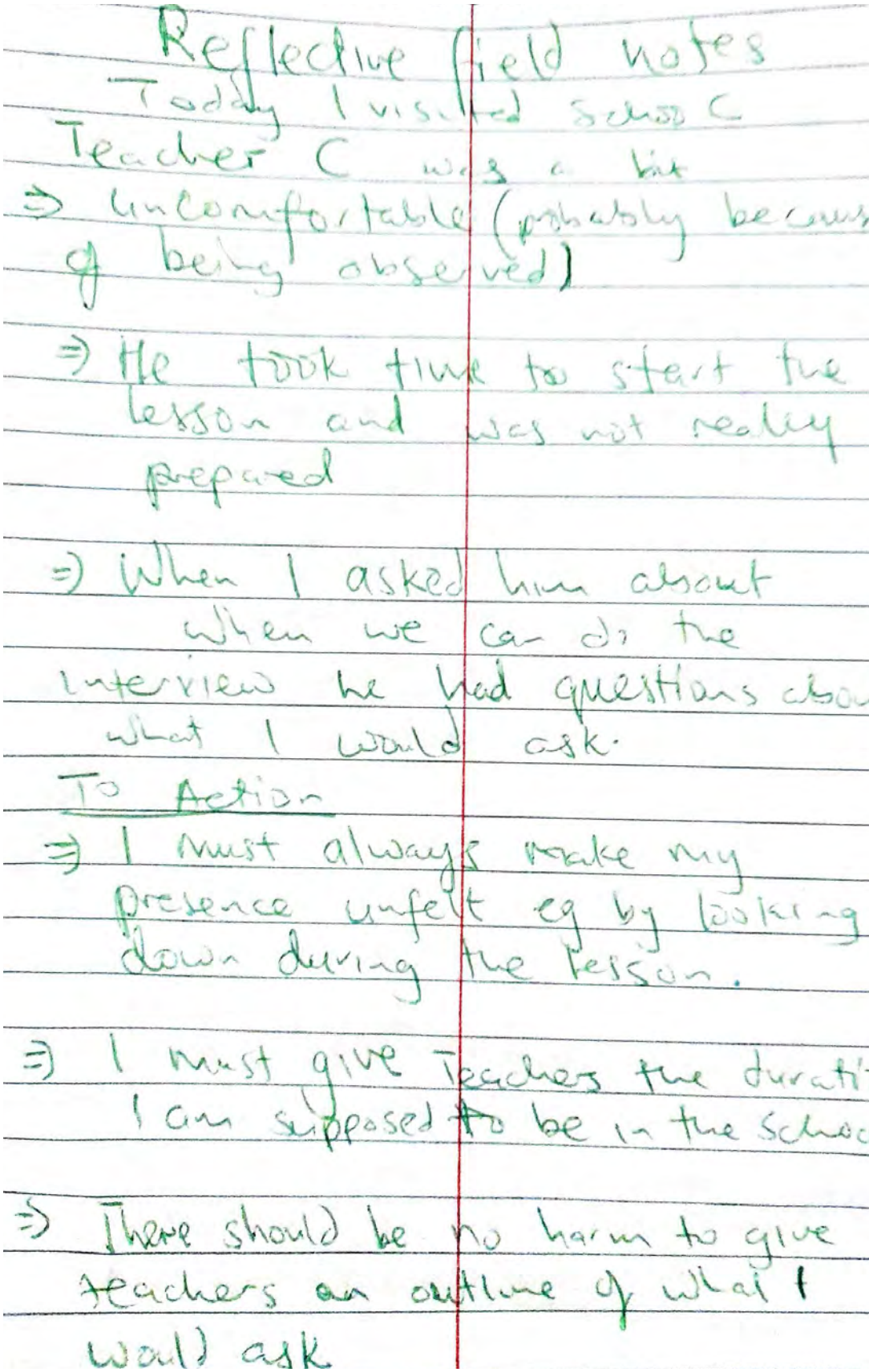
WORK ADDRESS: _____

CODE: _____

MARITAL STATUS: _____ LEARNER RESIDES WITH THIS PARENT: YES / NO

RELATIONSHIP TO LEARNER: GRANDMOTHER RESPONSIBLE FOR ACCOUNT: YES / NO

Appendix 11 – Sample of Field notes



Reflective field notes

Today I visited school C

Teacher C was a bit

⇒ uncomfortable (probably because of being observed)

⇒ He took time to start the lesson and was not really prepared

⇒ When I asked him about when we can do the interview he had questions about what I would ask.

To Action

⇒ I must always make my presence unfelt eg by looking down during the lesson.

⇒ I must give Teachers the durati I am supposed to be in the schoo

⇒ There should be no harm to give teachers an outline of what I would ask

DESCRIPTIVE FIELD NOTES

I arrived at the school and was welcomed by the principal (Principal B) who then took me to the classroom of Teacher B where I was expected.

Lesson: English FAL Grade 4

Teacher B greeted me in English Learners chorused "Good Morning Sir" as I entered.

Teacher B greeted learners in Sestwana and continued teaching in Sestwana for 10 minutes then switched to English as he read the comprehension text from the book.

He then gave instructions to answer questions in Sestwana

Group work was conducted in Sestwana but answers written in English

Teacher B maintained discipline in Sestwana

SOL PLAATJE UNIVERSITY

Dr. J. Sibanda (Senior Lecturer: English)
School of Education
Private Bag X 5008, Kimberley, 8300 North Campus, Chapel Street, Kimberley E-mail: Jabulani.Sibanda@spu.ac.za
jabulsd@gmail.com
Website: www .spu.ac.za
Tel: 27534910142
Cell: 0845252087
24 January 2020

CERTIFICATE OF LANGUAGE EDITING

To whom it may concern

I hereby confirm that I have proof read and edited the following dissertation using Windows 'Tracking' System to reflect my comments and suggested corrections for the author(s) to action:

- **Title:** An exploration of how teachers interpret and use the Language in Education Policy in their classroom practice.
- **Author(s):** Sikhumbuzo Sibanda

Although the greatest care was taken in the editing of this document, the final responsibility for the product rests with the author(s).

Sincerely

24.01.2020

SIGNATURE DATE

Consent Form

8 April 2019

Dear Participant

My name is Sikhumbuzo Sibanda and I am a student in the Education Department at Rhodes University, ISEA Department. I am conducting a research project entitled: An exploration of how schools and teachers interpret and implement the Language in Education Policy for their classroom practice: a case study

I request permission for your participation.

The study consists of you participating in interviews, observations and giving me some documents concerning Language in Education Policy. The project will be explained further verbally so that you fully can understand, and you will participate only if you are willing to do so. Only I will have access to information. At the conclusion of the study, children's responses will be reported as group results only. At the conclusion of the study it will be availed to you. If you would like a copy of the results, please contact me either via email (s.sibanda@ru.ac.za) or via cell phone: 0835859003 and then I will arrange to have a copy sent or delivered.

Participation in this study is voluntary. Your decision whether or not to participate will not affect you in any way. Your child's participation in this study will not lead to the loss of any benefits to which he or she is otherwise entitled. Even if you agree to participate, you are free to end participation at any time. You not waiving any legal claims, rights, or remedies because of your participation in this research study.

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission or as required by law. Confidentiality will be maintained by means of not disclosing the name of the school and your name will not be used in the report but you will be referred to in a pseudo name. All of the data will be kept in a secure location at all times and only I will have access to the data.

The interviews will be audio-recorded and the observations will be video-taped for the purposes of validity. These recordings will only be used for the purposes of this study and will be erased or destroyed at the conclusion and submission of the report.

Should you have any questions or desire further information, please call me or email me at s.sibanda@ru.ac.za or 0835859003. Keep this letter after completing the bottom portion and return the filled in and signed.

If you have any questions about your rights as a research subject, you may contact the Rhodes University Education High Degrees Committee ethics-committee@ru.ac.za, phone 046-603 8055.

Yours Sincerely

Sikhumbuzo Sibanda

Rhodes University Masters Student

Please indicate whether or not you wish to participate in this project by checking one of the statements below, signing your name and then returning this page to me. Sign both copies and keep one for your records.

I……. agree to participate in Sikhumbuzo Sibanda's study entitled: An exploration of how schools and teachers interpret and implement the Language in Education Policy for their classroom practice: a case study

I…….do not agree to participate in Sikhumbuzo Sibanda's study entitled: An exploration of how schools and teachers interpret and implement the Language in Education Policy for their classroom practice: a case study

Signed …….. Date……

Appendix 12 – Certificate of language editing

SOL PLAATJE UNIVERSITY

Dr. J. Sibanda (Senior Lecturer: English)
School of Education
Private Bag X 5008, Kimberley, 8300 North Campus, Chapel Street, Kimberley E-mail:
Jabulani.Sibanda@spu.ac.za
jabulsd@gmail.com
Website: www .spu.ac.za
Tel: 27534910142
Cell: 0845282087
24 January 2020

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- **Author(s):** Sikhumbuzo Sibanda

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Sincerely

24.01.2020

SIGNATURE DATE

Appendix 13 Consent form

Consent Form

8 April 2019

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pseudo name. All of the data will be kept in a secure location at all times and only I will have access to the data.

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Yours Sincerely

Sikhumbuzo Sibanda

Rhodes University Masters Student

Please indicate whether or not you wish to participate in this project by checking one of the statements below, signing your name and then returning this page to me. Sign both copies and keep one for your records.

I……. agree to participate in Sikhumbuzo Sibanda's study entitled: An exploration of how schools and teachers interpret and implement the Language in Education Policy for their classroom practice: a case study

I……do not agree to participate in Sikhumbuzo Sibanda's study entitled: An exploration of how schools and teachers interpret and implement the Language in Education Policy for their classroom practice: a case study

Signed …….. Date……..