

**ISIZULU-SPEAKING FOUNDATION PHASE LEARNERS'
EXPERIENCES OF ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE IN ENGLISH
MEDIUM SCHOOLS**

by

RADHAMONEY GOVENDER

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SUPERVISOR: DR. M.W. MAILA

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DECLARATION

Student Number: 3164-860-6

I declare that **IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners' experiences of English as a second language in English medium schools** is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been duly acknowledged and indicated by means of complete references.

This research report has not been previously submitted in part or in full for any other degree to another university.

January 2010

Radhamoney Govender

(Researcher)

DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to

My Parents:

Mr A. Govender and Mrs S. Govender

for their continued moral support during my studies

&

My Siblings:

My brother Seelan and my sister Saras

for the financial and moral support that enabled me to accomplish my goals.

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ABSTRACT

In defining Inclusive Education, the Education White Paper 6 (South African Department of Education 2001:6) highlights a crucial factor: acknowledging and respecting, amongst other things, language differences in learners. In a developing country like South Africa, a myriad of languages exist. Despite the creation of language awareness by adopting a number of official languages, English appears to be the most common lingua franca – a language that is very often learnt as a second language and as a medium of instruction at schools. On the other hand, IsiZulu is a prominent first language for many South Africans.

Emanating from the above, this study focused on IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners' experiences of English as a second language in English medium schools. Additionally, this study examined the reasons for the parents of IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners choosing to enroll their children in English medium schools.

A literature study on second language acquisition and the factors that impact on the English second language learner in the English medium schools was undertaken. A combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches were used to obtain data from foundation phase educators, IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners, and the parents of IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners in four English medium primary schools in the Port Shepstone region. Individual interviews were conducted with learners and educators and a questionnaire was used as the main instrument for gathering data from

parents. Qualitative data was subjected to analysis by means of an eclectic approach. Quantitative data analysis was done by means of tables, frequencies and graphs.

This study found that IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners were happy to be enrolled in English medium schools. They interacted well with their peers and they coped well with conversational skills in the English language. However, educators emphasised that reading, writing, and comprehension appeared to be cognitively challenging to learners. Pronouns, pronunciation of words in English, grammar, and figurative language were seen to be problematic areas. This also contributed to speaking anxiety that was espoused by learners and educators. Reading anxiety was also seen to be prevalent.

Educators believed that learners exhibited predominantly positive attitudes which indicated that they were motivated to learn. Although integrative motivation and instrumental motivation were seen to play a dual role in learners' experiences, the parents' views were strongly influenced by instrumental motivation.

Despite the fact that integration as an acculturation process was seen to be dominant in the learners' responses, educators believed that assimilation and separation were also apparent. Learners were adapting to the cultural contexts of the schools. However, maintaining of eye contact during conversations and lessons was seen to be preventing learners from being able to optimally benefit from the lessons.

There were various reasons for the parents choosing to enroll their children in English medium schools. One of the prominent reasons advanced by parents was the fact that most of them (94,4%) enrolled their children in English medium schools because they wanted their children to speak English fluently. Evidently, the English language has impacted on all aspects of IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners' lives.

ABBREVIATIONS

❖ ESL	English Second Language
❖ BICS	Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills
❖ CALP	Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency
❖ L1	First Language/Primary Language
❖ L2	Second Language
❖ UG	Universal Grammar
❖ SLA	Second Language Acquisition
❖ TL	Target Language
❖ DST	Dynamic Systems Theory
❖ IP	Information Processing
❖ SCT	Sociocultural theory
❖ ZPD	Zone of Proximal Development
❖ ZAD	Zone of Actual Development

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CHAPTER 1

CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

English is the most widely-spoken international language and thus has a high status and role as an international language of wider communication, in the media, education, trade, science and technology, research and diplomacy (Young 1995:64). It is perceived as a language of development, one which will help transform under-developed, traditional societies into modern, educated, technologically competitive and affluent societies.

Monolingual societies are increasingly rare in today's world. As a result of colonisation, migration and international travel most countries have been transformed into bilingual or multilingual, multicultural societies. South Africa is an example of such a country.

In South Africa there are eleven official languages (Republic of South Africa 2003:1). They are English, Afrikaans, IsiNdebele, Sesotho, Sepedi, SiSwati, Xitsonga, Setswana, Tshivenda, IsiXhosa and IsiZulu (Republic of South Africa 2003:6). However, in terms of the language policy of public schools in the South African Schools Act 84 of 1996, a recognised Sign Language has the status of an official language for the purposes of learning at a public school. According to the Bill of Rights (Chapter 2, Clause 29) in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act 108 of 1997, 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.

Majority of the South African population have a full command of at least two or more languages. However, English is one of the languages learnt by most as a second language, as it is an international language and the language of instruction in most South African schools (Landsberg & Dednam 1999:180). For some South Africans, English

might be their third or even fourth language. For the purpose of this research, English will be referred to as a “second language”. As a second language, it is therefore the language many South Africans do not understand as proficiently as their primary language, for example, most South Africans who speak Afrikaans, IsiXhosa, IsiNdebele, SiSwati, IsiZulu, or other languages other than English.

1.2 ANALYSIS OF THE PROBLEM

This section will focus on the awareness of the problem and the preliminary literature investigation.

1.2.1 Awareness of the problem

Since the publication of the Education White Paper 6 (South African Department of Education 2001:20), which stipulates that the general education curriculum be made accessible to all learners, including learners with special needs, and with the increased number of English second language learners in South Africa, mainstream educators are faced with the dilemma of meeting the educational needs of diverse learners in their classrooms.

The following is an example that indicates the increased number of English second language learners in four English medium primary schools. Table 1 below (retrieved from the annual survey in 2007, 2008 and 2009 for ordinary schools, Province of Kwa-Zulu Natal, Department of Education) reflects the number and percentage of learners according to home language as at March 2007, March 2008 and March 2009:

(In order to maintain anonymity the names of the schools are not mentioned.)

Table 1: Number and percentage of learners according to home language as at March 2007, March 2008 and March 2009

NAME OF SCHOOL	HOME LANGUAGE	NO. OF LEARNERS			% OF LEARNERS		
		2007	2008	2009	2007	2008	2009
SCHOOL A	English	403	396	359	42,96	39,52	37,71
	Afrikaans	3	5	1	0,32	0,5	0,11
	IsiZulu	448	492	503	47,76	49,10	52,84
	IsiXhosa	82	102	84	8,74	10,18	8,82
	Sesotho	2	6	4	0,21	0,6	0,42
	SiSwati	0	1	0	0	0,1	0
	Other	0	0	1	0	0	0,11
	Total	938	1002	952	100	100	100
SCHOOL B	English	179	158	140	20,89	19,41	17,22
	Afrikaans	4	2	1	0,47	0,25	0,12
	IsiZulu	498	512	525	58,11	62,9	64,58
	IsiXhosa	173	139	143	20,19	17,08	17,59
	Sesotho	3	3	3	0,35	0,37	0,37
	Sepedi	0	0	1	0	0	0,12
	Total	857	814	813	100	100	100
	SCHOOL C	English	176	154	168	17,64	14,98
Afrikaans		1	0	1	0,10	0	0,09
IsiZulu		723	783	788	72,44	76,17	74,83
IsiXhosa		96	88	92	9,62	8,56	8,74
Sesotho		2	2	2	0,2	0,19	0,19
SiSwati		0	1	0	0	0,97	0
Other		0	0	2	0	0	0,19
Total		998	1028	1053	100	100	100

SCHOOL D	English	510	513	476	57,11	56,5	53,66
	Afrikaans	3	1	2	0,34	0,11	0,23
	IsiZulu	295	305	315	33,03	33,59	35,51
	IsiXhosa	82	83	89	9,18	9,14	0,23
	Sesotho	2	5	2	0,22	0,55	0,23
	SiSwati	1	0	1	0,11	0	0,11
	IsiNdebele	0	1	0	0	0,11	0
	Other	0	0	2	0	0	0,23
	Total	893	908	887	100	100	100

From the above data it can be deduced that the majority of the learners at School A (57,04 % in 2007, 60,48 % in 2008 and 62,29 % in 2009), School B (79,11 % in 2007, 80,59 % in 2008 and 82,78 % in 2009) and School C (82,36% in 2007, 85,02 % in 2008 and 84,05 % in 2009) are learning English as a second language, and as a medium of instruction.

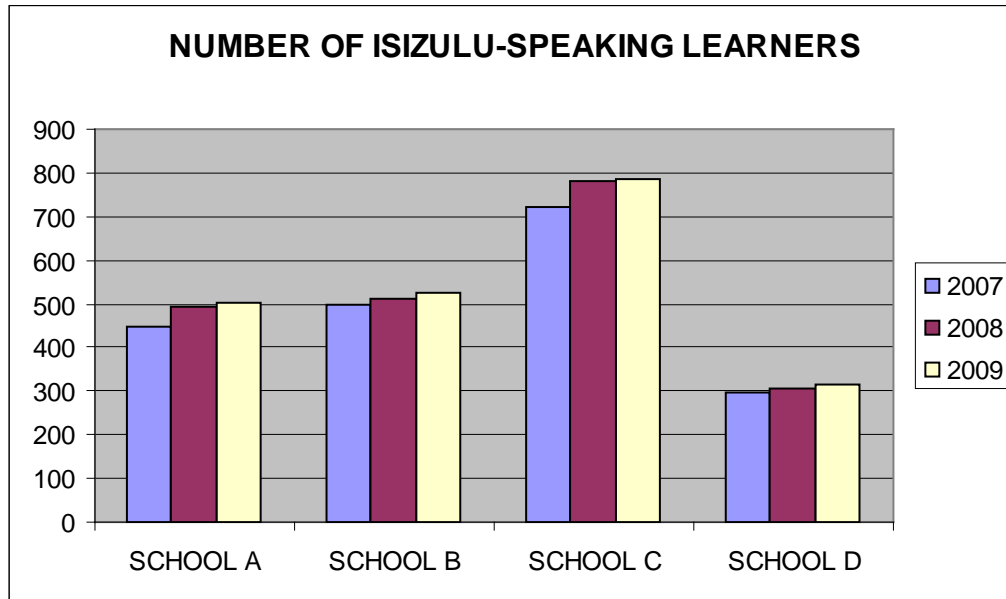
Furthermore, the schools' Education Management Information System (EMIS) statistics for 2007, 2008 and 2009 reflect that majority of the learners' home language is IsiZulu (School A – 47,76 % in 2007, 49,10 % in 2008 and 52,84 % in 2009; School B – 58,11 % in 2007, 62,9 % in 2008 and 64,58 % in 2009; School C – 72,44 % in 2007, 76,17 % in 2008 and 74,83 % in 2009).

Although School D's EMIS statistics reflect that majority of the learners' home language is English, there has been an increase in the enrollment of IsiZulu-speaking learners from 2007 to 2009 (33,03 % in 2007, 33,59 % in 2008 and 35,51 % in 2009).

Thus, it can be deduced that the number of IsiZulu-speaking learners enrolled in all of the above four primary schools from 2007 to 2009 has increased.

Figure 1 below illustrates this increase in enrollment of IsiZulu-speaking learners from 2007 to 2009.

Figure 1: Enrollment of IsiZulu-speaking learners from 2007 to 2009



Although there are also Afrikaans, IsiXhosa, Sesotho, SiSwati, Sepedi and IsiNdebele speaking learners in the schools mentioned above, this study will focus on IsiZulu-speaking learners. The reason being, as the statistics reflect, majority of the indigenous languages school population are IsiZulu-speaking learners. It is also important to note that the majority of IsiZulu-speaking learners live in Kwa-Zulu Natal. Almost all English second language learners in Kwa-Zulu Natal are Zulu first language speakers (Mahabeer 2003:3).

The researcher's awareness of the problem became evident while conducting an action research programme at School A. The focus was on assisting a group of educators so that they could provide support to learners who experience difficulties in English as a second language and as a medium of instruction. During the meetings educators described the various problems that were experienced. These included lack of interest and poor

performance by English second language learners. Educators also mentioned discipline problems. This prompted the researcher to raise the following question: How do IsiZulu-speaking learners experience English as a second language in English medium schools?

1.2.2 Preliminary literature investigation

Multilingualism is now widely recognised as a natural phenomenon which relates positively to cognitive flexibility and achievement at school (Agnihotri 1995:3). Its potential in the classroom has not, however, been fully exploited. It is ironic that as language research (Robb, 1995; Alexander, 1995; Young, 1995; to name a few) has come to appreciate the importance of multilingual competence, classroom practices generally, and language classes in particular, have become more monolingual.

Agnihotri (1995:3) affirms that the languages children speak at home and in the community are increasingly neglected at school and are often stigmatised in the classroom. Diverse languages are seen as obstacles and sources of interference in the learning of the target language (English). When different subjects are taught, they are predominantly associated with a specific language (English) and, in the language class itself, the use of any other language except the target language is generally forbidden. As a result of this, Agnihotri (1995:3) further claims that schools are simply reinforcing the negative stereotypes about the languages of children who are already socially disadvantaged and perpetuate the situation in which language contributes to exploitation.

Taking the above into consideration, one can only imagine the difficulties that young English second language learners experience while bridging the gap between two cultures. At a very young age learners are required to negotiate difficult transitions between home and school. While it is challenging for any young child to enter a new environment, this experience can be terrifying for young children whose home language differs from that of the classroom. For some learners, the resulting psychological trauma may be a more debilitating consequence than the original language issue (Sheets

2002:46). One also needs to take cognisance of the English second language (ESL) learner's reduced self-image and self-confidence on entering an English medium classroom, as well as the lack of motivation to continue (Mahabeer 2003:9). Additionally, if the learning of English results in a shift of the primary language in childhood, this cognitive and cultural disadvantage may produce feelings of anger and guilt in adolescence and/or adulthood (Sheets 2002:46).

When any child begins schooling it is therefore, not an easy transition, for the fear of entering the unknown. However, when an IsiZulu-speaking learner begins schooling in an English medium school, he/she will not only have to contend with the initial transition. His/Her problems may be compounded by other factors. These factors may include the culture of the school (Sumaryono & Ortiz 2004:16-19; Ng 1998:38-40); the medium of instruction (Washburn 2008:250); psychological factors such as emotional difficulties, loneliness, nervousness, hopelessness, isolation, anxiousness and frustration (Washburn 2008:248; Yoon 2008:497-498; Watts-Trafte & Truscott 2000:258-265). This could result in poor academic achievement and behavioural problems.

Although, as mentioned in the introduction, all children are entitled to be educated in the language of their choice, this is not the case. This is because English is regarded by many South Africans as a major international language and a very important language for every country in Africa (Madileng 2007:1). As a result, most South African parents and learners feel that it is crucial for the learners to develop the ability to read, write, listen to and speak English in order to develop their potential (Madileng 2007:1). The importance of the English language is also emphasised by Egan and Farley (2004:57). In their article they demonstrate how for people in the non-English speaking world, English language proficiency means opportunity, better jobs and higher salaries. Edwards and Newcombe (2006: 140) also reinforce that in South Africa and other African countries fluency in an international lingua franca is associated with 'being educated'; a pre-requisite for upward social mobility.

Within the overall English second language literature, studies on IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners' experiences of English as a second language in English medium schools are non-existent. However, while conducting action research it became evident that IsiZulu-speaking learners are experiencing difficulties in English medium schools. Thus, this study will investigate the experiences of IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners in English medium schools.

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

1.3.1 The general scientific problem

The central problem of this study is as follows:

- ❖ How do IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners experience English as a second language in English medium schools?

1.3.2 Subsidiary problems or sub-questions

- ❖ How does the IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learner relate to others in the English medium classroom?
- ❖ How does he/she experience academic tasks?
- ❖ To what extent does his/her English language proficiency affect his/her academic performance in the English medium classroom?
- ❖ How does the IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learner feel about being included in or excluded from the English medium classroom?
- ❖ Why do the parents of IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners enroll their children in English medium schools?

1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The literature referred to in this study will be utilised to investigate the life-world of IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners in English medium schools. The categories of both positive and negative experiences identified in the literature review will be used.

The purpose of this study was thus geared towards investigating the experiences of IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners in English medium schools. This was undertaken with specific reference to English as a second language.

1.4.1 General aim and objective

The general aim of the study is therefore:

- ❖ To investigate the life-world of IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners in English medium schools.

1.4.2 Subsidiary objectives

The subsidiary objectives are as follows:

- ❖ To understand the learner's social world.
- ❖ To understand the impact of the life-world of the IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learner on academic tasks.
- ❖ To gain knowledge of the perspectives of parents with regard to enrolling their children in English medium schools.
- ❖ To understand the psychological, affective, and cultural factors that impact on the IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learner in the English medium school.

1.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A combined qualitative-quantitative approach was used. The quantitative component was used to support or validate the qualitative study.

The qualitative component consisted of a phenomenological study. Purposeful sampling was employed to select educator and learner participants from the four English medium schools. Individual interviews were conducted with foundation phase learners and educators, using interview schedules/guides. A pilot study was conducted before the main investigation commenced. An eclectic approach was used to analyse qualitative data.

The quantitative component consisted of a survey for which a questionnaire was specifically constructed and validated through the process of a pilot study. The stratified random sampling technique was employed. The sample consisted of ten percent of the population. Quantitative data analysis was done by means of frequency distributions and percentages that were supported by pie graphs, line graphs or tables.

1.6 THE RESEARCH SETTING AND DEMARCATION OF THE RESEARCH

In the town of Port Shepstone, situated on the scenic lower south coast of Kwa-Zulu Natal, South Africa, the population consists of people from various points of origin in the world. The province of Kwa-Zulu Natal, once a renowned colony of the British Empire, has been home for centuries to South Africa's biggest ethnic group, the Zulus (Singh 2005:333). Therefore, in the media and in advertising, the province of Kwa-Zulu Natal is most often referred to as the Kingdom of the Zulu. Thus, it is not surprising, as Mahabeer (2003:3) points out, that almost all English second language learners in Kwa-Zulu Natal are IsiZulu first language speakers.

This study was undertaken at four English medium primary schools (School A, School B, School C and School D), within the Port Shepstone region in Kwa-Zulu Natal. The schools were selected because they service a large number of IsiZulu-speaking learners and the demographics were ideal for this investigation. In addition, the statistics explained above reflect an increase in the enrollment of IsiZulu-speaking learners each year.

The four English medium primary schools in the four suburbs researched were designated for Indian occupation only during apartheid under the notorious Group Areas Act of 1950; schools that were built within these precincts were for Indian enrollment only. After the first South African democratic general election on 27 April 1994, what was once Indian-dominated classrooms became increasingly Black occupied. Disparities in language, class, and culture led to the move of some Indian children to previously White-dominated schools in the neighbouring suburbs. These characteristics are similar to those of the settings in which ethnographic research was conducted by Singh (2005:333-337).

Presently, all four English medium primary schools are situated in the midst of predominantly Indian suburbs. The educators are predominantly Indian. While the learner population had changed rapidly since 1994, the Indian educator population remained fairly constant, with only a few changes incorporating educators from the other race groups. The educator-learner ratios in the schools vary from 1:35 to 1:45.

Due to the significant changes in the racial make-up of each class, learners come from myriad backgrounds educationally, linguistically, and culturally. Some learners enter school with several years of preschool supported by rich experiences with literacy and a broad base of knowledge. Others arrive at school speaking a language other than English, although some of these ESL learners have had a rich linguistic and cultural experience. Some children come to school understanding how to learn based on their specific culture, while still others attend school with little or no preschool experience, limited home literacy experiences, or little broad-based knowledge. Some children arrive

at the doorstep of education with a cultural schema, that is, an organised knowledge of the world based on their previous experiences.

Furthermore, the learners' socioeconomic backgrounds vary greatly. Some learners live in urban areas; some in rural areas; others in townships; and still others in informal settlements, such as squatter camps or temporary shelters, which are unhygienic and dangerous. The distances learners travel to school also vary. Some learners live close to school, while others travel long distances to get to school. The learners who travel long distances will have to get up very early and arrive home late in the afternoon. Many of these learners do have access to schools that are situated close to their homes but their parents prefer to enroll their children in the urban English medium schools.

The four schools researched are well resourced in terms of catering for the educational needs of the learners. They have the infrastructure and the necessary resources at their disposal. They also have very competent principals, and highly qualified and skilled educators with varying degrees of experience, not only in the foundation phase but also in the intermediate and senior phases.

1.7 CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS

This section of the research will consist of clear descriptions and explanations of the various concepts that are referred to in the investigation. The following elucidations will eliminate any ambiguities and will also provide the reader with a clear understanding of what is being investigated.

1.7.1 Inclusive Education

In order to understand the link between my research and inclusive education it is important to define the concept "Inclusive Education". Inclusive Education is seen as a process of addressing and responding to the diversity of needs of all learners through increasing participation in learning, cultures and communities, and reducing exclusion

within and from education (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization 2005:13). It involves changes, modifications in content, approaches, structures and strategies, with a common vision which covers all children of the appropriate age range and a conviction that it is the responsibility of the regular system to educate all children.

In defining inclusion, it is important to highlight the following elements: welcoming diversity, benefiting all learners and providing equal access to education. Thus, “the fundamental principle of Inclusive Education is that all children should have the opportunity to learn together” (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization 2005:29). This also includes the English second language learner. Therefore, this research aims to gain an in-depth understanding of IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners’ experiences of English as a second language in English medium schools. The aim eventually will help educators increase their understanding of the learners’ unique needs in culturally and linguistically diverse classrooms, which in turn will make the foundation phase learners’ lives and experiences at school more meaningful and enjoyable.

1.7.2 IsiZulu-speaking learners

By “IsiZulu-speaking learners” this study refers to learners whose primary language is IsiZulu. Mahabeer (2003:14) uses the term “mother tongue”. However, the researcher would prefer to use the term “primary language” or “home language” rather than the terms “vernacular”, “mother tongue” or “first language”. Although there is a degree of overlap among these terms, Heugh, Siegrühn and Plüddemann (1995:V111) view the above terms as follows: “Vernacular” has fallen into disfavour because it implies a language of low status. The term “mother tongue” is also often a misnomer since it is often the language of the father that becomes the primary language of the family. In South Africa, the term “mother tongue” has a second disadvantage in that it is associated with an inferior education of African-language speaking learners under Bantu Education.

However, the term “primary language” is used to include both the learner’s first language and the possibility of the dominant language of the immediate community.

1.7.3 Foundation phase learners

The term “learner” refers to all learners and replaces the terms pupils and students at schools (South African Department of Education 1997:vii). The term “foundation phase learners” refers to learners from grade R to grade 3 (South African Department of Education 2004:4).

1.7.4 English second language (ESL)

When focusing on the context where second language acquisition takes place, it is important to consider that the target language can be either a second language or a foreign language. Kramsch (in Cenoz & Gorter 2008:270) defines a second language as “a language other than the mother tongue (primary/home language) learned in an environment in which that language is the dominant language or where the language is an international language of commerce and industry”. In contrast, a foreign language “is a language that is learned in an instructional environment or during a temporary sojourn abroad as part of general education or for professional purposes”. Cenoz and Gorter (2008:270-271) emphasise that the role of English is special and it can be regarded as a second language rather than a foreign language in many contexts.

Mahabeer (2003:14) maintains that a second language refers to “another language used by people who are proficient in their mother tongue” (primary/home language). For the purpose of this research English second language (ESL) refers to English that is learnt as a second language by learners whose primary language is IsiZulu.

1.7.5 Barriers to learning and development

Barriers are anything that prevents or makes it difficult for the learner to learn effectively or to participate fully in the curriculum.

Barriers refer to those factors which (University of South Africa 2003:75-76):

- Lead to the inability of the system to accommodate diversity.
- Lead to exclusion from the regular education system.
- Prevent learners from accessing educational provision.
- Lead to learners “drop out” from the system.
- Lead to learning breakdown.
- Prevent learners from engaging optimally in learning – to achieve excellency.
- Prevent inclusion principles to be realised.
- Thus: prevent building an inclusive education and training system.

Barriers can be caused by, amongst other factors, inappropriate language and communication (South African Department of Education 2005:10). One of the three main barriers associated with language and communication is: learners are often forced to communicate and learn in a language which they do not usually use at home and are not competent to learn effectively (South African Department of Education 2005:11). Teaching and learning for many learners may take place through their second language. That inhibits communication in class.

In view of the above, this study views barriers as factors that impede the English literacy progress of the IsiZulu-speaking learner in the English medium classroom.

1.7.6 Communication

Communication refers to the giving and receiving of information through the use of spoken words, signs, gestures, symbols or writing (East & Evans 2006:11). Although all learners have the right to access the curriculum according to the Education White Paper 6 (South African Department of Education 2001:20), communication difficulties can prevent them from doing so. The Education White Paper 6 (South African Department of Education 2001:7) also stresses that different learning needs may arise because of, amongst other factors, inappropriate languages or language of learning and teaching and inappropriate communication.

1.7.7 Educator

An educator is one who educates, who takes the responsibility of leading the learner into adulthood and one who is concerned with the learner as a totality and not simply with the learning of a specific subject (Van Den Aardweg & Van Den Aardweg 1999:77). The South African Schools Act 84 of 1996 defines ‘educator’ as “any person, excluding a person who is appointed to exclusively perform extracurricular duties, who teaches, educates or trains other persons or who provides professional educational services, including professional therapy and education psychological services, at school”. For the purpose of this study the term educator refers to foundation phase educators at English medium primary schools.

1.7.8 Parent

In the South African Schools Act 84 of 1996 the involvement of parents is endorsed. This means that parents not only have the right but also the responsibility to be involved in the education of their children. This also includes selecting schools in which to enroll their children.

In terms of the South African Schools Act 84 of 1996, the term “parent” refers to:

- (a) the parent or guardian of a learner;
- (b) the person legally entitled to custody of a learner;
- (c) the person who undertakes to fulfill the obligations of a person referred to in paragraphs (a) and (b) towards the learner’s education at school.

This definition therefore includes any combination of adult care-givers and thereby acknowledges the reality of a society in which a variety of family types and parents are found, such as nuclear or extended families, grandparents, divorced parents and recombined families (Landsberg & Dednam 1999:32).

Thus, in terms of this research, the concept “parent” includes all of the above-mentioned care-givers.

1.7.9 English medium school

An English medium school refers to a school in which the language of instruction is English. In other words, the language of teaching and learning is English.

1.8 RESEARCH PROGRAMME

The contents of the research programme are allocated to chapters as follows:

Chapter 1

The background, analysis of the problem, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, research methods, the research setting and demarcation of the research, clarification of concepts and the research programme are discussed.

Chapter 2

Of major importance in the literature study are the approaches to second language acquisition and the psychological, affective, social, cognitive, and cultural factors that impact on the English second language learners' English acquisition in the English medium school. The origin of English and its expansion throughout the world; the critical period hypothesis; and bilingualism, multilingualism, and language immersion in schools are also discussed.

Chapter 3

This chapter concerns the empirical investigation. This includes the research design, discussion of the sample, description of the measuring instruments used in the investigation, as well as the procedures used to analyse data.

Chapter 4

This chapter reflects the findings of the study. Findings from the literature study and the empirical research are discussed in order to provide insight into the investigation.

Chapter 5

Conclusions are drawn, limitations of the study are discussed, recommendations are made and a summary of the preceding chapters are presented.

1.9 SUMMARY

English is perceived as an international language and an important language for many South Africans. However, as a result of a variety of official languages in South Africa, many South Africans are learning English as a second language.

Although all children are entitled to be educated in the language of their choice, this is not the case. Great emphasis is placed on English. English second language learners thus have to meet the demands of being in English medium schools. They face the challenges of not only being able to speak and understand English but also to compete with their English speaking peers.

The English second language learners' inability to merely speak English causes them much anguish, embarrassment, lack of motivation and feelings of being unworthy. Their difficulties are exacerbated when they are involved in academic tasks. They will also have to contend with their peers who may not play a supportive role.

An investigation of IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners' experiences of English second language in English medium schools will provide valuable information into what

interventions can be implemented to improve the experiences of these learners, if necessary.

This chapter focused attention on the orientation of the problem. The problem was analysed and a preliminary literature investigation was outlined. The statement of the problem, the objectives of the study, the research methods, the research setting and demarcation of the study, and various relevant concepts were explained. In the next chapter a literature study of English second language acquisition is explained. The psychological, social, cognitive and cultural factors that impact on the English second language learner in the English medium school are also investigated.

CHAPTER 2

SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION AND FACTORS THAT IMPACT ON THE ENGLISH SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNER IN THE ENGLISH MEDIUM SCHOOL

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter an overview of, and the rationale for undertaking the study was given. The purpose of this literature chapter is to investigate the approaches to second language acquisition, and the factors that impact on the English second language learner's (ESL) English acquisition in the English medium school. However, it is necessary to first provide a brief explanation of the origin of English and its expansion throughout the world. Attention is also given to first language acquisition; the critical period hypothesis; and bilingual, multilingual, and language immersion in schools. The aforementioned aspects are essential for this study since the review of literature emphasises the importance of first language competence as a benchmark for second language acquisition.

2.2 THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

The Wikipedia Encyclopedia (2009:1) explains the origin of English as follows:

English is a West Germanic language that originated in Anglo-Saxon England. As a result of the military, economic, scientific, political, and cultural influence of the British Empire during the 18th, 19th, and 20th centuries and of the United States since the late 19th century, it has become a lingua franca in many parts of the world. It is used extensively as a second language and as an official language in Commonwealth countries

and many international organisations, where it is often the preferred language.

The Wikipedia Encyclopedia (2009) further explains the history of English as a language originating from several dialects, now referred to as Old English, which were brought to Great Britain by Anglo-Saxon settlers beginning in the 18th century. The language was heavily influenced by the Old Norse language of Viking invaders. After the Norman Conquest, Old English developed into Middle English, borrowing heavily from the Norman (Anglo-French) vocabulary and spelling conventions. Modern English developed from there and continues to adopt foreign words especially from Latin and Greek.

Modern English, sometimes described as the first global lingua franca is the dominant international language in communications, media, education, trade, science and technology, and diplomacy (Cenoz & Gorter 2008:268-270). Its spread beyond the British Isles began with the growth of the British Empire, and by the late 19th century its spread was truly global. It is a dominant language in the United States (US), whose growing economic and cultural influence and status as a global superpower since World War 2 have significantly accelerated the spread of English throughout the world (Horne & Heinemann 2009:7).

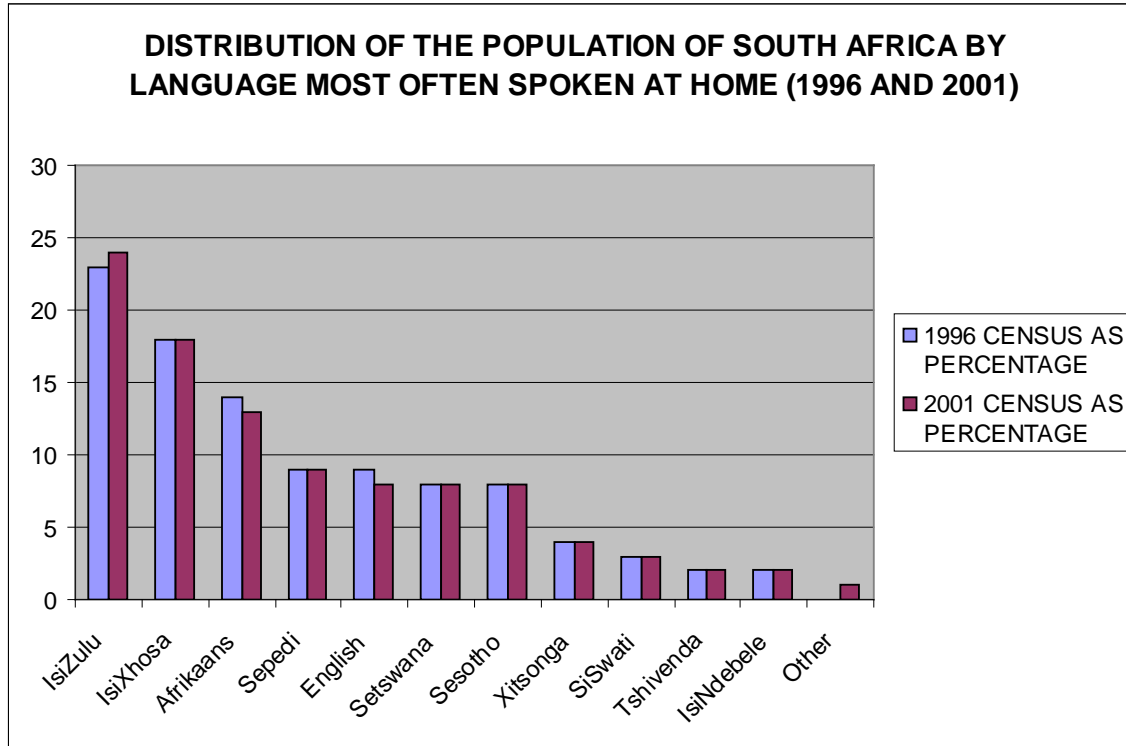
According to the Wikipedia Encyclopedia (2009:4) approximately 375 million people speak English as their first language (L1). English today is probably the third largest language by number of native speakers, after Mandarin Chinese and Spanish. However, when combining native and non-native speakers English is probably the most commonly spoken language in the world. Estimates that include English second language speakers vary greatly from 470 million to over a billion depending on how literacy or mastery is defined (Wikipedia Encyclopedia 2009:4). English is by far the most common second language (L2) (Saville-Troike 2006:9).

Following the liberation from apartheid rule with the first democratic elections in 1994, eleven languages were declared official in South Africa (Republic of South Africa 2003:1), which thereby committed the country to the promotion of multilingualism. The 1996 and 2001 South African census reflected the following numbers of home language speakers (N = 40 583 573 in 1996; and N = 44 819 778 in 2001), according to the 11 official languages (Statistics South Africa 2006:1-5; Statistics South Africa 2003:16):

Table 2: The 1996 and 2001 South African census according to home language

HOME LANGUAGE	1996 CENSUS AS A PERCENTAGE	2001 CENSUS AS A PERCENTAGE
Afrikaans	14,4	13,3
English	8,6	8,2
IsiNdebele	1,5	1,6
Sepedi	9,2	9,4
Sesotho	7,7	7,9
SiSwati	2,5	2,7
Xitsonga	4,4	4,4
Setswana	8,2	8,2
Tshivenda	2,2	2,3
IsiXhosa	17,9	17,6
IsiZulu	22,9	23,8
Other	0,0	0,5
Total	100,0	100,0

Figure 2: Distribution of the South African population by language most often spoken at home (1996 and 2001)



It is apparent, therefore, that the vast majority of South Africans (76,5% in 1996 and 77,9% in 2001) have an African language as a home language. English is spoken as a home language by less than 10% of the population. Furthermore, when comparing the distribution of the South African population by language most often spoken at home, English is fifth. It is also interesting to note that majority of the population (22,9% in 1996 and 23,8% in 2001) have IsiZulu as their home language and that the percentages of home language speakers in the various languages have remained fairly constant with some very minute changes.

In theory, English has no greater status than the other ten languages. In practice, however, the situation is different. English is far more widely used. Horne and Heinemann

(2009:2) provide the following reasons why they believe the South African government has promoted the English language to a position of dominance:

Although English is the primary language of only 8,6% in 1996, and 8,2% in 2001 of the general South African population, it is the most widely used additional language (AL), making it a lingua franca within the country. It was the language chosen for the liberation struggle as a means of uniting the different language groups and has now become the language of unity. In addition, it is also the only one of the eleven official languages that is used beyond the borders of South Africa, thus, making international and diplomatic communication possible. English is a world language, and being fluent in it has undeniable advantages. This explains why English is so highly prized by many people

Furthermore, English is a medium of instruction in many South African schools and is learnt as a second language by many South Africans.

2.3 BILINGUALISM, MULTILINGUALISM AND LANGUAGE IMMERSION – A FOCUS ON SOUTH AFRICA

Heugh (1995:44-45) identifies key clauses in South Africa's constitution to illustrate that equal access to education for all children is intended. Her subsequent critique of subtractive bilingual models, including ESL programmes in South Africa, demonstrates that these are incompatible with the constitutional goal of equal access to education. A language policy and planning chart (Heugh 1995:50) clearly spells out different policy planning and possibilities and their implications. According to this chart, only a multicultural policy which views multilingualism as a valuable resource, and which implements additive bilingual education for all, will result in equal access to meaningful education and in economic benefits beyond education.

Heugh views the attempts to improve ESL methodologies as having superficially-improved results. This researcher believes that subtractive programmes must be replaced with additive ones. Heugh's argument is that if we in South Africa continue to implement subtractive bilingual programmes in education for any group of learners, then inequality is a foregone conclusion. The above author emphasises that since subtractive bilingualism in transition-to-English programmes is linked to linguistic racism (linguistic racism) and discrimination against speakers other than English, one of the guiding principles in the constitution is violated by such programmes. Heugh also stresses that removing the L1 from the educational process, represents a drive towards monolingualism, not multilingualism, hence another constitutional provision; namely the provision of multilingualism will be violated. Agnihotri (1995:5) urges us to recognise the potential equality of all languages and to realise that stigmatisation of children's home language can leave them with irredeemable psychological scars.

Reiterating Heugh's (1995) affirmation, Plüddemann (2005:203) argues that the deficit approach (subtractive bilingual approach) to learners' home languages has for years had devastating consequences for the educational performance of African-language speakers. He states that the literacy levels in South Africa are notoriously low which is related to the failure of the educational system to cater adequately for African-language speakers and its failure to develop reading and writing capacity. Studies conducted by the Department of Education, Provincial Departments of Education as well as international bodies reflect that learners in South African schools performed poorly when tested for their ability to read at age-appropriate levels (South African Department of Education 2008:5). A systemic evaluation of language competence of intermediate phase learners in South Africa in 2005 reflected that only 14% of the learners were outstanding in their language competence, 23% were satisfactory or partially competent, but a big majority – 63% were below the required competence for their age level (South African Department of Education 2008:6). This situation is exacerbated by the relatively small number of books and environmental print available in African languages, in relation to English. The absence of a "culture of reading" is thus most apparent in under-resourced disadvantaged

areas. Clearly, the challenges facing the national and provincial education departments to upgrade literacy levels are enormous.

It is imperative that the Department of Education as well as the school management, when implementing language policies, consider the language barriers that exist in schools. Although each school is unique and languages will vary, ultimately schools will consist of a diversity of learners speaking a variety of languages. Thus, it would be important for schools to select the most appropriate language programmes for their learners. Research in schools indicates that the advantages of bilingualism seem to take effect in an additive bilingual environment; where the second language is added to the first language, which is maintained (Cummins 1996:165-168). In a subtractive bilingual environment, where the second language replaces the first, children's academic performance seems poor (De Klerk 1995:56). De Klerk states that the overwhelming evidence from all over the world is that children need to develop advanced skills in their L1 (where this language is a minority or a marginalised language) before they can function academically in a second language (where this is a majority language or a language of power, for example English). Ideally the second language should be introduced in a gradual and systematic manner. De Klerk supports the view of Young (1995:66) that submerging children in an English school, or replacing their L1 with English has never worked in helping children to perform.

Young (1995:68) propagates a widespread public educational awareness campaign which stresses the importance and value of additive bilingual education for all South Africans. He believes that such an awareness campaign needs to spell out clearly the role of the L1 in education and the long term advantages of having a solid foundation in its teaching and learning.

Supporting the views of De Klerk (1995:53-62) and Young (1995:63-69), Lockett (1995:75) also proposes an additive bilingual policy. This form of bilingualism can only develop in social contexts where both languages (and their cultures) are valued and reinforced. Most researchers agree that additive bilingualism usually has a positive effect

on a child's social and cognitive development (Cummins 1996:165-168). Subtractive bilingualism, when the L2 is learned at the expense of the child's L1 or when learners lose their L1 as it is replaced by an L2 (Adams & Jones 2005:20), often occurs when the L1 is not valued and supported by the education system. It is likewise generally agreed that subtractive bilingualism has a negative effect on a child's social and cognitive development and is believed to be culturally alienating and harmful to the child, effectively cutting off the child's traditional and cultural roots and destroying the child's sense of identity.

Cummins (in Young 1995:67; Lockett 1995:75) claims that two languages of a bilingual can develop independently of each other up to the Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) level; that is for communicating in everyday contexts. However, when it is necessary to function at the Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) level, for example, to use a language in a cognitively demanding situation then the two languages work together interdependently. This means that the level of competence a child may reach in CALP depends to some extent on the stage of development reached in his or her L1. Cummins concludes that it is therefore very important that children learn to think and function in their L1 up to the CALP level. This will enable them to reach CALP in the L2 as well because the cognitive skills that they have already acquired in their L1 are easily transferred to the L2. It can be deduced that, according to Cummins, a successful bilingual programme will ensure that the learners achieve CALP in both languages.

An impressive number of research studies have documented that cognitive processes work less efficiently through the additional language. Comprehension tasks take about twice as long in the L2 as in the L1, and production tasks (tasks that require the learner to produce creative language through speech or writing) take about three times as long. People are much worse at mental arithmetic in their L2 than in their L1. In general, the mind is less efficient in an L2 in whatever it is doing. This is sometimes referred to as "cognitive deficit" (Horne & Heinemann 2009:14).

In addition, a child taught in the L1 will learn to read in the L2 faster than a child who has to learn the oral language of the L2 and then try to read in the L2 without any reading skills to transfer from the L1 (Rodriguez & Higgins 2005:241). Since oral language skills develop faster than cognitive and academic skills, it appears that bilingual children will benefit from the use of their L1 during their education.

Luckett (1995:75) reports on South African research on the Threshold Project (1990). The research has reflected that many black learners suffer ill effects of subtractive bilingualism owing to the sudden changeover from first to second language medium of instruction. The Project found that learners could not explain in English what they already know in their L1; nor could they transfer into their L1 the new knowledge they have learnt through English. The results of the research indicated that learners had failed to achieve CALP in either language.

Crawford (1998:5) asserts that a consensus of applied linguists recognises that the following propositions have strong empirical support:

- ❖ Native-language instruction does not retard the acquisition of English.
- ❖ Well-developed skills in the native language are associated with high levels of academic achievement.
- ❖ Bilingualism is a valuable skill, for individuals and for the country.

From the above discussion it can be deduced that much educational research illuminates the importance of a child receiving, at least the foundation phase of education through the medium of his or her L1. Thus, a policy of national additive bilingualism would try to avoid the pitfalls of subtractive bilingualism by ensuring that all learners have the opportunity to operate at cognitively demanding levels in their L1. It also means that learners should not be forced to operate in the L2 (that is, use it as a medium of instruction) before they have achieved CALP using their L1 as a medium of instruction.

Only once learners can operate in CALP in their L1 should they begin to operate in an L2 at cognitively demanding levels.

Heeding these principles, Horne and Heinemann (2009:13) state that presently the South African Education policy follows the additive bilingualism model. Unfortunately, the low literacy levels in South Africa continue to persist. Thus, it makes one wonder whether schools are implementing the additive bilingual model or whether ESL learners are continuing to learn, even though they have not achieved CALP in their L1 and from as early as from Grade R, through the medium of English. Although IsiZulu is taught in some urban schools in Kwa-Zulu Natal, it is not taught as a first language or used as a medium of instruction. As a result IsiZulu-speaking learners who have not achieved CALP in IsiZulu will experience barriers to learning.

According to Rodseth (1997:215) second language teaching and learning problems often flow firstly from ideologically and politically-driven policies. Thus, it is not surprising that other African countries are also experiencing second language difficulties. Rodseth (1997:215) provides an example of learners from Southern African countries such as, Zambia, Namibia, and Botswana who have recently been faced with earlier transition to English medium following policy decisions based on the belief that earlier and more English will improve ESL standards, empower learners in the major language of social and economic mobility, and contribute to nation-building through unification. Unfortunately, for these countries the resultant neglect of CALP could lead to cognitive deficiency in learners.

2.4 SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION AND PROFICIENCY

A child acquires any natural languages within a few years, without the aid of analytical thinking and without explicit “grammar” instruction as taught in school. Sakai (2005:815) thus, ascribes the origin of grammatical rules to an innate system in the human brain. Important aspects of language are not acquired from experience; they are already present in the mind (Cook & Newson 1996:102). This is consistent with

Chomsky's theory of Universal Grammar (UG) which claims that humans are innately endowed with universal language-specific knowledge (Chomsky 1977:2, 63). The concept of UG was resorted to because it was believed that children could not learn their first language so quickly and effortlessly without the help of an innate language faculty to guide them (Mitchell & Myles 2004:55). All human beings share part of their knowledge of language; UG is their common possession regardless of which language they speak (Cook & Newson 1996:1-2).

Linguists regard speaking, signing, and language comprehension as primary faculties of language, that is, innate or inherent and biologically determined, whereas they regard reading and writing as secondary abilities (Sakai 2005:815). The above description implies that L1 is acquired during the first years of life through such primary faculties while children are rapidly expanding their linguistic knowledge. In contrast, reading and writing are learned with much conscious effort and repetition, usually at school. This ability may be influenced by cultural rather than biological factors.

Cook and Newson (1996:104) elucidate Chomsky's Universal Grammar when they maintain that "acquiring English means discovering how it fleshes out the properties of UG which are already present". Furthermore, Saville-Troike (2006:18) also adopts a Chomskyan stance of Universal Grammar when she argues that the initial state of L1 learning is composed solely of an innate capacity for language acquisition which may or may not continue to be available for L2, or may be available only in some limited ways. In addition, Mc Gilvray (2005:117) encapsulates the theory of UG by emphasising that learners acquire a grammar of the language and that the cognitive principles which learners employ is a set of universal principles collectively called Universal Grammar.

Saville-Troike (2006:2) maintains that second language acquisition (SLA) refers to both the study of individuals and groups who are learning a language subsequent to learning their first one as children, and to the process of learning that language. The additional language is called a "second language" (L2), even though it may actually be the third,

fourth, or tenth to be acquired. It is also commonly called a “target language” (TL), which refers to any language that is the aim or goal of learning (Saville-Troike 2006:2).

Ellis (2000:3) defines SLA as a way in which people learn a language other than their primary language, inside or outside of the classroom. According to the traditional definition, SLA takes place in a setting in which the language to be learned is the language spoken in the local community (De Bot, Lowie & Verspoor 2005:7). Therefore, for example, an IsiZulu speaker learning English in an English medium school is generally referred to as a second language learner.

Although there are a variety of approaches to SLA, the literature review will focus on Cummins’s Developmental Interdependence Hypothesis, Krashen’s Monitor Model, the Dynamic Systems Theory, and Vygotsky’s Sociocultural Theory of the Mind. These approaches, to the researcher’s knowledge, were found to have caused much concern and debate among linguists and researchers. Some approaches will be complementary and some contrasting.

2.4.1 Jim Cummins’s theory of second language acquisition

More than 25 years ago, Jim Cummins, a prominent researcher of SLA and bilingualism, proposed a framework that became a widely accepted explanation of how children who appear to get by quite well in conversational English, nonetheless struggle when they need to use it for academic purposes (Aukerman 2007:626; Rodriguez & Higgens 2005:237). Cummins incorporates psychological and cognitive factors in explaining the language acquisition process. He hypothesised a developmental interdependence influenced by the importance of cognitive skills in the language process. Maintaining that the level of L2 ability is related to the competence of a learner in the development of his or her L1, he argued that L1 acquisition plays an important role in L2 development because of the transfer of the cognitive skills used in the acquisition of L1 to the acquisition of L2. Applying Cummins’s theory to this research study, it would imply that an IsiZulu-speaking learner’s cognitive skills in IsiZulu are transferred to the acquisition

of English. Thus, if an IsiZulu-speaking learner is not competent in IsiZulu then this learner will experience difficulty learning English.

Cummins theory of second language acquisition consists of two major dimensions (Cummins 1996:64): Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills and Cognitive Academic Skills.

2.4.1.1 Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills

Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) refer to the informal language of conversation, often referred to the “language of the playground” in that most children learn BICS through informal interaction with their peers (Cummins 1996:64). Brown (2007:33) refers to BICS as conversational or social English. She describes conversational language as unedited speech and full of “choppy” and often incomplete sentences. In conversations, it is common for interlocutors to reiterate, repeat, or provide new information to each other to reach the “same page” in the conversation. This makes comprehension easier.

In addition, instantaneous clarification or feedback is possible in conversations. If one of the interlocutors perceives that the other person does not comprehend the conversation, more efforts to explain or clarify will be used to allow the conversation to continue. Also, vocabulary used in daily conversation is somewhat limited in scope, it is devoid of technical terms, and syntax is simpler than that used in academic language. Conversational English also includes extra-linguistic features, such as facial expressions, intonation, or gestures that could help ESL learners with cues that can assist in comprehending the conversation. Cummins (1996:75) suggested that the acquisition of this level of communication (BICS) takes approximately two years of exposure.

2.4.1.2 Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency

Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) refers to language skills that are associated with literacy and cognitive development (Rodriguez & Higgens 2005:237). A distinction is drawn between BICS and CALP. An ESL learner may appear able to handle the demands of functioning in an English medium classroom because he or she is competent in a variety of school settings, for example, talking with a friend in the corridor, playing on the playground, or speaking with a teacher one on one. It might seem natural to assume that a child learning English as a second language becomes fully fluent quickly. However, Drucker (2003:23) emphasises that ESL learners may develop peer-appropriate conversational skills in about two years, but developing academic English can take much longer. Academic proficiency here refers to the ability not only to use language for reading and writing but also to acquire information in content areas.

As opposed to BICS, the de-contextualised, cognitively demanding language (CALP) is learned most often through formal instruction at school (Aukerman 2007:627). Cummins (1996:68) asserts that mastery of academic functions of language is a more formidable task. Learners are required to step outside the familiarity of their everyday life-world and carry out tasks that are only minimally supported by familiar contextual or interpersonal cues. These tasks also require high levels of cognitive involvement for successful completion. As learners progress through the grades, they are increasingly required to manipulate language in cognitively-demanding and context-reduced situations that differ significantly from everyday conversational interactions.

There are various estimates about how long it takes to develop adequate proficiency in an L2. Ramirez (in Heugh 1995:47) estimates that it takes between six and eight years of learning under optimal conditions to become proficient in an L2. Research by Cummins (1996:75) has shown that it takes five to seven years before a child's L2 approaches academic proficiency in the L1. This

implies that it would take an IsiZulu-speaking learner as long as five to seven years to perform as well academically as their native English speaking peers.

This lag occurs because the initial gap between native speakers and ESL learners continues to persist. Native English speakers are not standing still waiting for ESL learners to catch up (Cummins 1996:75). They are continuing to make one years progress in one years time in their English language development and in every school subject. ESL learners have to gain more language proficiency each year than their native speaking peers in order to catch up and close the gap.

Although there is a conceptual difference between BICS and CALP, they are developmental in nature in that CALP is developed after BICS. Proficiency in BICS is an indicator of a learner's ability to process the language of CALP. Thus, a learner who has already acquired BICS can proceed to learn CALP skills, but a learner who does not have BICS is not ready to obtain the cognitive skills necessary for CALP acquisition (Rodriguez & Higgins 2005:237). To summarise, BICS is the foundation from which CALP develops.

Aukerman (2007:626-627) explains why she is no longer convinced that the BICS/CALP framework helps us understand ESL learners as well as we need to. Given how it is interpreted, she believes that it may do a disservice to children by categorising them as unready to learn. Aukerman (2007:629) provides an example that explains her criticism of BICS and CALP. In kindergarten, a child who spends time in buses and subway trains may find discussing means of transport easy (BICS), but another child without such experiences would find the same discussion quite cognitively challenging (CALP), yet the second child may know far more about animals, hospitals, or fairy tales. Is it fair to say that one has more CALP?

Thus, by applying Cummins's theory of BICS and CALP to IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners in English medium schools in Kwa-Zulu Natal, the following deductions can be made:

- ❖ If IsiZulu-speaking learners have not achieved BICS in English, they will most definitely experience difficulties in achieving CALP in English.
- ❖ If an IsiZulu-speaking learner has achieved BICS in English, the learner may still experience difficulty in achieving CALP in English.
- ❖ IsiZulu-speaking learners will have to gain more English language proficiency each year than their English speaking peers in order to catch up.

By comparing the views of learners, educators, and parents with regard to IsiZulu-speaking learners' abilities to converse in English, to understand oral and written English, to read and write in English, and to acquire information in content areas; this research study will describe the experiences of IsiZulu-speaking learners in relation to the BICS/CALP framework proposed by Cummins.

2.4.2 Stephen Krashen's theory of second language acquisition

Stephen Krashen, an expert in the field of linguistics, specialising in theories of language acquisition and development, has conducted research involving the study of non-English and bilingual language acquisition. Krashen's theory of L2 acquisition has had a large impact in all areas of L2 research and teaching since the 1980's.

Krashen's theory of second language acquisition consists of five main hypotheses (Krashen 1987:10-32):

- ❖ The Acquisition-learning hypothesis
- ❖ The Monitor hypothesis
- ❖ The Natural Order hypothesis
- ❖ The input hypothesis
- ❖ The Affective Filter hypothesis

a) The acquisition-learning hypothesis

There are two independent systems of L2 performance (Schütz 2005:2; Ellis 1989:261): the “acquired system” and the “learned system”. The acquired system or acquisition is the product of the subconscious process which is similar to the process children undergo when they acquire their L1. For this system to develop, a child requires significant interaction and contact with the L2. Thus, IsiZulu-speaking learners will require several opportunities to interact with English speaking learners in order to develop the acquired system.

The learned system or learning is the product of formal instruction and it comprises of a conscious process which results in conscious knowledge about language, for example, knowledge of grammar rules (Krashen 1987:10). According to Krashen learning is less important than acquisition. Thus, it is important to develop the acquired system before a learner develops the learned system.

b) The monitor hypothesis

The monitor hypothesis explains the relationship between acquisition and learning (Krashen 1987:15). The acquisition system is viewed as the utterance initiator and the learning system as performing the role of the monitor or editor (Schütz 2005:3). Monitoring aids in the planning, editing, and correcting of the new language. It is the internal voice that corrects language before the learner speaks. The role of the monitor should be minor, being used only to correct deviations from “normal” speech and to give speech a more “polished” appearance.

c) The natural order hypothesis

The Natural Order hypothesis suggests that the acquisition of grammatical structures (formal language) in an L2 follow a “natural” order which is predictable (Krashen 1987:12).

d) The input hypothesis

The Input hypothesis is Krashen's attempt to explain how a learner acquires a second language (Schütz 2005:3); which is of crucial importance in my review of literature.

The input hypothesis is only concerned with acquisition, and not learning. According to this hypothesis, the learner improves and progresses along the "natural order" when he or she receives an L2 "input" that is one step beyond his or her current stage of linguistic competence ("*i + I*"). "*i*" represents the current competence of the learner and "*I*" represents the next level (Krashen 1987:20-21). Thus, comprehensible input is "*i + I*" (Mitchell & Myles 2004:47). For example, if a learner has mastered the present tense, information can be provided in the past tense.

Comprehensible input is an essential aspect of Krashen's Input hypothesis. This hypothesis maintains that in order to acquire an L2, the learner must understand what is said to him or her. Learners should receive input that is appropriate to their age and language level. This language should be just beyond the learners' current proficiency but easy enough for them to understand. Sufficient comprehensible input is a necessary condition for acquisition of a second language (Cummins 1996:87). Educators need to develop background knowledge, deliver content that is contextualised, and use gestures and pictures to make input comprehensible. When ESL learners are assigned to mainstream classrooms and spend most of their day in this environment it is especially critical for them to receive comprehensible input from teachers and classmates. If the teacher lectures in front of the classroom, the ESL learner will not be receiving this input. The notion of comprehensible input, elaborated by Krashen (1987:20-21), is described by Cummins (1996:88) as the central casual variable that determines the extent to which the second language acquisition process is more or less successful. Research has shown that the quality and not quantity of English

exposure is a major factor in English acquisition; that is the L2 must be comprehensible (Crawford 1998:2).

e) The affective filter hypothesis

The Affective filter hypothesis embodies Krashen's view that a number of "affective variables" play a facilitative role in second language acquisition. These variables include: motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety. It is postulated that learners with high motivation, self-confidence, a good self-image and a low level of anxiety are better equipped for success in L2 acquisition (Thomson 2000:139; Schütz 2005:4). Conversely, low motivation, low self-esteem, and debilitating anxiety can contribute to raise the affective filter and form a "mental block" that prevents comprehensible input from being used for language acquisition. This implies that when the filter is "up" it impedes or obstructs L2 acquisition. Teachers of ESL learners need to remember to keep the learners' affective filters low.

Although Krashen's hypotheses have not gone unchallenged (Thomson 2000:139), they nevertheless make an insightful and useful contribution to the ESL classroom. We can assume that an English medium classroom which establishes a safe, non-threatening atmosphere and which draws on relevant, meaningful and authentic language contexts and use, will promote second language acquisition more effectively than one that is not characterised by these features. Although it may sometimes be difficult for educators to establish whether something is being "acquired" or "learned", comprehensible input is crucial to both processes.

2.4.3 The Dynamic Systems Theory and second language acquisition

A major assumption underlying a great deal of L1 acquisition research has been that the acquisition of a language has a clear beginning and end state, and a somewhat linear part of development for each individual (De Bot, Lowie & Verspoor 2007:7). Similarly, in much SLA research, an L2 learner no matter what his or her L1, is predicted to go

through highly similar stages in acquiring the L2 (Ionin 2007:27; De Bot et al. 2007:7). Such a view of language learning is often associated with an Information Processing (IP) model.

On the other hand, there have been numerous linguistic and language acquisition studies that have not adhered to the linear view. They have shown that language, language acquisition, and language attrition are much more intricate, complex, and even unpredictable than a linear position will allow. For example, Larsen Freeman (2007:35) asserted that the SLA process was more complex, gradual nonlinear, dynamic, social, and variable than had been recognised. Linguistic theories such as cognitive linguistics and functional linguistics, and acquisition theories such as the competition model recognise that there are independent variables, not only within the language system, but also within the social environment and the psychological make-up of an individual (De Bot et al. 2007:7). What these theories have in common is that they recognise the crucial role of interaction of a multitude of variables at different levels: in communication, in constructing meaning, in learning a language and among languages in the multilingual mind.

Dynamic Systems Theory (DST) developed as a branch of mathematics (Van Geert 2007:47). Dynamic systems are characterised by what is called complete interconnectedness (De Bot et al. 2007:8). This implies that all variables are interrelated, and therefore changes in one variable will have an impact on all other variables that are part of the system.

Dynamic systems are nested in the sense that every system is always part of another system. Since the development of some dynamic systems appears to be highly dependent on the initial state, minor differences at the beginning may have dramatic consequences in the long run. This is called the “butterfly effect” (De Bot et al. 2007:15). The following research evidence points towards the occurrence of the butterfly effects in SLA. It has been shown that L1 literacy is a crucial condition for the successful

acquisition of a L2 (Cárdenas-Hagan, Carlson & Pollard-Durodola 2007:255), and that phonological awareness and word recognition skills in L1 affect recognition in L2 (Durgunoglu, Nagy & Hacin-Bhatt in De Bot et al. 2007:15). From the above evidence it can be tentatively inferred that very subtle problems in early childhood, like a middle-ear infection, may have a long lasting effect at all levels of second language acquisition. Although this assumption is speculative, there is a growing body of evidence pointing to the casual relationship between problems in L1 acquisition and the acquisition of a second language which is a strong indication that difficulties in SLA are at least partly due to the initial conditions butterflying their way throughout the process of SLA (De Bot et al. 2007:15).

The “butterfly effect” can be aptly linked to Cummins’s developmental interdependence hypothesis. The inference here is that if an IsiZulu-speaking learner experiences difficulty in IsiZulu then that learner will most definitely experience difficulty learning English. Thus, the difficulties experienced in learning IsiZulu are seen to be butterflying their way throughout the process of learning English.

Chief among De Bot et al.’s (2007:11-12) article are the concepts: “limited resources”, and “connected growers”. The notion that resources, such as attention span and memory capacity are limited is critical in explaining certain aspects of SLA. The fact that resources are limited helps to explain why learners allocate different amounts of attention to different subsystems/dimensions of language (Larsen-Freeman 2007:36).

As these DST researchers, De Bot et al. (2007:12) note that although sometimes the resources compete; at other times, it is possible for them to cooperate. There can also be compensatory relations between different types of resources. For example, effort can compensate for lack of time, or motivation can compensate for limited output from the environment. The relationship that exists and its changing nature is a key concept in explaining the dynamism, stability, and variation to account for different patterns in learner language (Larsen-Freeman 2007:36).

Not all subsystems require equal amounts of resources. Some “connected growers” support each other’s growth. The following example of the relationship between lexical development and the development of listening comprehension is mentioned in De Bot et al. (2007:12): with increasing listening comprehension words are understood and interpreted more easily, stimulating development of lexical skills. Knowing more words makes the understanding of spoken language in turn easier. In this way the two connected growers need fewer resources than two growers that are unconnected.

The IP model is often associated with a UG approach to language by assuming that creativity in language use cannot be accounted for without some innate mechanisms particular to language learning. Thus, a DST approach to communication is incompatible with an IP. From a DST perspective, language acquisition emerges through interaction with other human beings within a social context.

UG-based approaches typically do not take social factors into consideration, focusing instead on linguistic and age-related factors and it is possible that the DST approach should pay more attention to social and cognitive factors. Thus, it seems that UG-based and DST approaches focus on very different aspects of SLA.

Ionin’s (2007:28) critique of the DST model and UG-based approaches is based on De Bot et al.’s (2007) article. Given the lack of a concrete model of SLA, it may be a good idea to limit the potential scope of the DST model. She argues that instead of treating the DST framework as an alternative to UG-based approaches, it may be more productive to view L2 approaches as dealing with very different phenomena.

However, Van Geert (2007:47) supports the views of De Bot et al. (2007:7-21). He emphasises that these authors see DST as a promise for the future, an overarching theory in SLA that takes into account the interconnectedness that is so characteristic of complex, developing systems, including the cognitive and social factors that help shape the process

of SLA. Van Geert (2007:47) considers DST as a quintessential future approach to human action, cognition and behaviour, including language.

This study will generate data that will reflect whether any of the variables, such as oral communication, written communication, reading, or comprehension that are relevant in learning an L2 (English), will impact on all other variables that are part of learning an L2.

2.4.4 Sociocultural theory of the mind and second language acquisition

Over the past decade, there has been a notable increase in SLA research that is informed by a sociocultural theory of the mind (hereafter, Sociocultural Theory {SCT}) (Swain & Deters 2007:820; Lantolf 2007:31). For example, the seminal article of Firth and Wagner (1997) argued for a re-conceptualisation of SLA research; incorporating a balance between the cognitive and the social. They argued that SLA research was too dominated by psycho-linguistic thinking and called for research that made sense in the socially embedded experiences of L2 speakers in their own worlds.

Also, researchers such as De Bot, Lowie and Verspoor (2007) and Van Geert (2007) interested in DST, and its variants {emergentism, and chaos and complexity theory} of which Larsen Freeman (2007) was a major contributor have shown an interest in the implications of their theoretical stance for SLA. This theoretical perspective is based on the Russian psycholinguist Lev Semenovich Vygotsky (1896-1934), who argued that it was essential to incorporate the study of human culture and history into the effort to understand the development of the human mind.

Since the 1980's, the foremost figure advocating the relevance of sociocultural theory to SLA has been James Lantolf (Mitchell & Myles 2004:193). Lantolf (2007: 31) is of the opinion that SCT makes an even stronger claim than DST with regard to the role of social process in cognitive and linguistic development. In Lantolf's (2000:1-2) view, Vygotsky's argument is that specifically human mental activity emerges as a result of the

internalisation of social relationships, culturally organised activity, and symbolic artifacts, in particular language.

The theory of development from a Vygotskian perspective proposes an interaction between the child's social world and his cognitive development (Seng 1997:4). Great emphasis is placed on the culture in which the child develops, and in particular, on the effect of the constructive role of peer interactions in relationships. Interaction is seen as a means of providing comprehensible input to the learner and also as fundamental to an individual's cognitive and affective growth (Clark & Clark 2008:104).

The core claim of SCT is that individuals are fundamentally socially organised entities and that therefore the very source of human development resides in the environment (Lantolf 2007:32). Supporting Vygotsky's influential views, Firth and Wagner (2007:768) stated that language is not only a cognitive phenomenon, the product of the individual's brain; it is also fundamentally a social phenomenon, acquired and used interactively, in a variety of contexts for myriad practical purposes.

The higher voluntary forms of human behaviour have their roots in social interaction, in the individual's participation in social behaviours that are mediated by speech (Rieber & Carton 1987:21). Thus, Lantolf (2000:1) emphasises that the most fundamental concept of SCT is that the human mind is "mediated". SCT takes into account the complex interaction between the individual acting with mediational means and the socio-cultural context (Swain & Deters 2007:821). Language is seen as a socially constructed intellectual tool, a "mediation" used in action; and participation in social activities is importantly mediated by the use of language (Toohey 2000:12). This implies that, according to SCT, the development of the individual always passes through (that is, is mediated by) others, whether they are immediately present as in the case of parents guiding children or teachers guiding learners, or displaced in time and space, as when we read texts produced by others, or participate in activities such as work, organised in specific ways by a culture (Lantolf 2007:32). Clark and Clark (2008:104) elucidate this

view. They maintain that SLA is facilitated by interaction between the learner and a more proficient English speaker. Through interaction with more able English speakers, second language learners have access to models of language structure and are given an opportunity to practice what they are learning, therefore moving forward in their SLA. Likewise, Toohey (2000:12) affirms that from a Vygotskian perspective, a second language could be seen as one among many mediating means people use to participate in social activities.

An important facet of Vygotsky's theory is the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). The ZPD is defined as "the difference between a child's actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving" and "potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (Adamson 2005:146; Gifford & Mullaney 1997:9; Seng 1997:6; De Bot, Lowie & Verspoor 2005:59; Lantolf & Appel 1998:10; Mitchell & Myles 2004:196). Hence, the ZPD characterises the difference between what the learner is capable of himself and what he can become capable of with the help of a teacher (Rieber & Wollock 1997:29).

Gifford and Mullaney (1997:10) describe the two main characteristics of ZPD. First, the task that the learner undertakes must be a little above that individual's current level of ability; it should stretch his or her capabilities, but not be completely beyond them. In this respect, Krashen's comprehensible input theory aligns with Vygotsky's ZPD. In Krashen's terms, the task must be at the $i + 1$ level. Second, there must be an adult or a more skilled peer to mediate between the learner and the task or problem at hand.

Saville-Troike (2006:112), and Lantolf and Appel (1998:10) assert that the ZPD is an area of potential development, where the learner can achieve that potential only with assistance. Thus, in view of the above Lantolf (2007:32) contends that it is in the ZPD that individuals are able to perform at higher levels of ability than they can alone. According to SCT, mental functions that are beyond an individual's current level must be performed in collaboration with other people before they can be achieved independently.

Gifford and Mullaney (1997:10) emphasise the interesting aspect of ZDP. They propagate the idea that what individuals can do today with the collaboration of an adult or more capable peer; they can do competently on their own tomorrow. Thus, the potential developmental level of the learner becomes the next actual developmental level as a result of the learner's interactions with others and the concomitant expanding of cognitive abilities. Therefore, it is important that learners work together in pairs and groups. Clark and Clark (2008:3-4) also acknowledge this view when they argue that input from the teacher is not the only factor that creates the opportunity for SLA; peer-peer interaction can also facilitate effective learning.

An important teaching skill that is involved in Vygotsky's theory is "scaffolding". Watts-Traflet & Truscott (2000:261) describe "scaffolding" as thoughtful ways of assisting learners in experiencing successful task completion. "Scaffolding" is an instructional process by which the teacher adjusts or modifies the amount and type of support offered to the child that is best suited to his or her level of development (Seng 1997:11). The concept implies that teachers intervene more at tougher parts, so that task difficulty is always within the ability range of the learner. Language within scaffolding performs the function of a tool that assists in mediating the minds of those involved in the task (Luria in Mantero 2003:255). The implication is that the teacher has to be familiar with the learner's ZPD in order for supportive scaffolding to occur. A distinction is drawn between the ZPD and the Zone of Actual Development (ZAD) (Lantolf & Appel 1998:10; Mantero 2003:255). Whereas the ZPD determines the success of what a person can do with some assistance; the ZAD includes the tasks that an individual can successfully perform without assistance.

Overall, SCT claims that language is learned through socially mediated activities. The socio-cultural framework supports the view that some learners may be more successful than others because of their levels of access to or participation in a learning community, or because of the amount of mediation they receive from experts or peers, and because of how well they make use of that help (Saville-Troike 2005:116).

A decade after Firth and Wagner (1997) called for a better balance between the cognitive and the social in SLA research, substantial progress has been made in developing models of L2 acquisition that document the impact of social context on the cognitive processes presumed to underlie SLA (Tarone 2007:845). One such model is the sociolinguistic approach.

In her article “Sociolinguistic approaches to second language acquisition”, Tarone (2007:848) presented empirical evidence to show the relationship between social context and L2 use. This evidence provides support for the view that L2 use is not just about cognition in a vacuum. Rather, the learner’s L2 input and processing of the L2 input in social settings are socially mediated; social and linguistic contexts affect L2 linguistic use, choice, and development.

2.5 THE CRITICAL PERIOD HYPOTHESIS

The critical period hypothesis claims that it is not possible to acquire a native-like level of proficiency when learning of an L2 starts after a critical period, normally associated with puberty (Adamson 2005:33; De Bot et al. 2005:65). This position is most strongly associated with acquiring the phonological system of an L2. Long (in Bongaerts 2005:259) argued that studies conducted to date warranted the conclusion that “ability to attain native-like phonological abilities in an L2 begins to decline by age six in many individuals and to be beyond anyone beginning later than age twelve, no matter how motivated they might be or how much opportunity they might have. Native-like morphology and syntax only seem to be possible for those beginning before age fifteen”.

This hypothesis was grounded in research which showed that people who lost their linguistic capabilities, for example as a result of an accident, were able to regain them totally before puberty (about the age of twelve) but were unable to do so afterwards (Ellis 2000:67).

The concept of critical period has been extended to L2 acquisition in that English proficiency declines after the age of seven years when Chinese or Korean speakers move to the United States (Sakai 2005:816; Adamson 2005:33). There is also considerable evidence to support the claim that L2 learners who begin learning as adults are unable to achieve native-speaker competence in either grammar or pronunciation. For example, studies of immigrants in the United States indicate that if they arrive before puberty they go on to achieve much higher levels of grammatical proficiency than if they arrive after. Sometimes they become indistinguishable from native speakers (Ellis 2000:68).

Mc Laughlin (in Fathman & Precup 1983:152) has stated that there is still no conclusive evidence that there is a critical (sensitive) period of language or that there are, indeed, definite child-adult differences in language learning. However, there is a preponderance of research evidence that supports the critical period hypothesis. For example, the case of Genie, an abused girl who was totally isolated from all language input and interaction in the early years of her life and consequently did not start learning language (English) until the age of thirteen. Genie never developed linguistic knowledge and skills for her L1 that were compatible to those of speakers who began acquisition in early childhood (Curtiss in Hyltenstam & Abrahamsson 2003:543; Ellis 2000:68; Saviile-Troike 2006:82-83). Another example is the case of Isabelle (Curtiss in Hyltenstam & Abrahamsson 2003:543) which illustrates the effects of being severely deprived of linguistic input. Isabelle had been hidden away in an attic and given only minimal attention until she was discovered at the age of six. While Isabelle reached native-like level of fluency after only one year of exposure, Genie stopped at a level similar to that of two-year-olds. The differences between the two cases of Isabelle and Genie support the view that a pronounced decrease in potential to acquire native-like proficiency in an L1 occurs between the age of seven (Isabelle) and puberty (Genie). Furthermore, Schachter (1997:13) reinforces her argument that adults have so much difficulty learning an L2 and almost never reach the level of completeness that would let them pass as native speakers of the L2. Accordingly, Long (in Bongaerts 2005:264), after reviewing literature on the critical period hypothesis affirmed his position: “ My position was then, and remains,

that in terms of absolute language learning capacity, only young child starters can (not necessary will) attain native-like proficiency levels” . He argues that, while counter-evidence to the critical period hypothesis has been advanced in a number of studies, there are various problems with this counter-evidence, for example measurement of age of acquisition, unreliable or invalid measures, faulty interpretation of statistical patterns, and so forth.

We are faced with a major paradox when comparing the acquisition of L2 by children and adults. Children learn an L2 more slowly than adults, yet the earlier an individual begins to learn an L2 the better he or she will speak it (Oyama, Seliger, Krashen & Ladefoged in Snow 1983:144-145). Snow (1983:145) considers an example of a five-year-old and a fifty-year-old both learning an L2. The five-year-old learns much slowly than the fifty-year-old. Nonetheless, five years later, the five-year-old, now ten, speaks the L2 much better than the fifty-year-old, now fifty five. In other words, children can learn more slowly but keep going longer, to the point where they ultimately catch up with and surpass adult learners. Thus, it is important to distinguish between two aspects of L2 acquisition when considering age differences: speed of acquisition, and ultimate level of achievement. Child L2 learners excel in the second aspect, ultimate level of achievement, but adult L2 learners excel in the first aspect, speed of acquisition.

The inference drawn from the critical period hypothesis indicates that the ability of IsiZulu-speaking learners to attain native-like phonological abilities in English will begin to decline by age six in many learners and to be beyond any learners beginning later than age twelve. Although this research study focuses on learners between ages five and ten this study via the learner and educator interviews will help to provide evidence either supporting or refuting the critical period hypothesis.

2.6 FACTORS THAT IMPACT ON THE ESL LEARNER IN THE ENGLISH MEDIUM SCHOOL

My literature review attempts, more specifically, to focus on the cultural, psychological, affective (emotional), cognitive, and social factors that impact on the ESL learner's L2 acquisition in the English medium school. Although these factors are discussed separately, my review of literature clearly indicates their interconnections.

2.6.1 Cultural factors

Watts-Traflet and Truscott (2000:258-263) maintain that in addition to the challenges involved in learning a new language, ESL learners are also faced with the challenges in learning a new culture.

Ferris and Hedgcock (in Sjolie 2006:36) characterise ESL learners as a very heterogeneous population with great diversity linguistically, ethnically, and culturally. Furthermore these learners exhibit a wide diversity in learning styles as well.

Smith (2004:46) contends that acculturation and assimilation also play a role in creating diversity among learners. While acculturation allows people to become part of a new culture at the same time as maintaining important aspects of their native culture; assimilation requires people to choose one cultural group over another – to discard aspects of native culture and to replace them with aspects of the new culture, which is often described as “mainstream culture” (Watts-Traflet & Truscott 2000:259). This implies that ESL learners are not only learning an L2; but they are also learning a second culture or set of cultures. They seek membership in the culture of the classroom.

Berry (in Noels, Kimberly, Clement & Richard 1996:215) suggests that four models of acculturation can be identified depending on the degree of engagement in each group.

These include:

- ❖ Separation (rejection of the target group and identification with the native group).
- ❖ Assimilation (rejection of the native group and identification with the target group).
- ❖ Deculturation or marginalisation (rejection of both cultures as ethnic reference groups).
- ❖ Integration (identification with both native group and the target group).

In their investigation of attitudes towards the process of acculturation, Tong and College (1996:523-543); and Berry, Kim, Power, Young, and Bujaki (in Noels et al. 1996:215) have generally found that individuals prefer integration as an acculturation experience. However these findings were not congruent to those of Mitsutomi and MacDonald (2005). A study conducted by Mitsutomi and MacDonald (2005:230-236) with 30 immigrant learners at a Southern California high school revealed that not all learners felt that they were acculturating or wanted to do so.

The relationship between language and culture is important in determining the degree of acculturation (Tong & College 1996:524). Mitsutomi and MacDonald (2005:232) asserted that “learning a language equals learning a culture which birthed it”. Fishman (2005:6) acknowledges this view when he states that “language carries culture; language is symbolic of culture; and language is itself part of the culture that it carries and symbolises”. Einhorn (2002:55) endorses the above assertions when she emphasises that L2 learning is also second culture learning.

Schumann (in White 2006:96; Tong & College 1996:524; Larsen-Freeman 1983:6) describes acculturation as the social and psychological integration of L2 learners with the target language group. Thus, restating the acculturation hypothesis, the learner will acquire the L2 only to the degree he or she integrates socially and psychologically with the target language group (Larsen-Freeman 1983:6). Within the acculturation model,

social adaptation is an integration strategy which involves L2 learners' adjustments to the lifestyles and values of the target language group while maintaining their own lifestyle and values for intra-group use (Tong & College 1996:524).

From the acculturation perspective, social and psychological distance is used to explain the degree of SLA (Ellis 2000:40; Tong & College 1996:525; Stauble 1980:43). Ellis (2000:40) points out that the main reason for learners failing to acculturate is "social distance". Ellis describes social distance as the extent to which individual learners become members of a target-language group, and therefore achieve contact with them.

Psychological distance pertains to the individual as an individual, and involves psychological factors such as language shock, culture shock, and motivation (Stauble 1980:43). The assumption here is that the more social and psychological distance there is between the L2 learner and the target language group the lower the degree of the learner's acculturation will be towards the group. And the more social and psychological proximity will yield a higher degree of acculturation. From the above, one can then anticipate that the degree to which L2 learners succeed in socially and psychologically adapting or acculturating to the target language group will determine their level of success in learning the target language (Stauble 1980:44).

According to the culture shock explanation, once individuals are faced with an alien environment, feelings of disorientation and hopelessness are generated (Sue in Dao, Lee & Chang 2007:288). Einhorn (2002:56) defines culture shock as a psychological reality for all newcomer children. It involves anger, anxiety, estrangement, homesickness, and frustration. These negative feelings evolve when learners discover that their formerly adaptive behaviours and skills are no longer effective in coping with new environmental stressors. Moreover, these learners often have to adapt quickly to the different values and beliefs that they are not accustomed to in their homes and communities. Consequently, there is an increased possibility of experiencing psychological distress when ESL learners are exposed to rapid changes and often disparate values and beliefs between the home and the school.

Vygotsky has always recognised the significance of language and culture in child development and growth. Seng (1997:11) mentions two messages that are evident in Vygotsky's theory. Firstly cultures vary in terms of the institutions and settings they provide to facilitate children's cognitive development. Developmentally and culturally appropriate activities in schools can transform the ways in which young children organise their thoughts. A second implication is the importance of considering cultural contexts in our assessment of children's cognitive development. Thus, it is not surprising that researchers have found that children had better reading comprehension and reading efficiency with texts that were culturally familiar (Drucker 2003:25). In a study on factors affecting the learning of English as a second language in Israel, Abu-Rabia (1996:589-595) concluded that the Israeli learners understood significantly more of the culturally familiar stories than of the culturally unfamiliar stories. The implication of this study that is relevant to the field of L2 learning and multicultural education is that language curricula are more meaningful when they relate to learners' personal lives and cultural backgrounds.

Native speakers of a given language utilise not only its grammar and vocabulary, but also its distinctive customs, patterns of thought, and styles of learning. For example, taking turns to speak, and the maintaining of eye contact during conversations modeled in many South African schools may be foreign to some learners in diverse classrooms. Learners from a culture that values spontaneous and exuberant call-and-response group dialogue may have difficulty raising their hands and waiting to be called on. Conversely, a child from a culture in which personal emotion and opinion are considered inappropriate for public display may withdraw from class participation (Sheets 2002:46). For example, Sasagawa-Garmory (1999:109) discusses the experiences of Japanese learners in United Kingdom (UK) schools. He states that in Japan the learners sit still, listen to the teacher, and make notes. They work on their own in silence, and their learning is mediated entirely by the teacher. They seldom ask questions or express their opinions. People who do that are not liked in Japanese society. However, in the UK their quiet, good Japanese attitude appears too passive to English teachers and they struggle to understand

what Japanese learners are thinking. British teachers believe that one of the ways in which children learn is by talking to each other (McPake 1999:48-49). Learners are asked to discuss or collaborate on a task or are expected to talk to each other about the task they are doing.

2.6.2 Psychological and affective factors

Igoa (in Watts-Trafte & Truscott 2000:259) has studied the emotional and psychological aspects of entering a new culture on immigrant learners in the United States (US). Immigrant learners spoke of extreme loneliness, frustration and fear, all of which are associated with navigating a world in which everything is new and nothing is familiar. They described periods of feeling mentally and emotionally exhausted during times when they are “caught between two cultures”.

A crucial psychological factor that plays an important affective role in SLA is language anxiety (Huimin 2008:33). Looking at anxiety from a language perspective, the essence of ESL anxiety can be viewed as a threat to an individual’s self-concept caused by the inherent limitations of communicating in an imperfectly mastered L2 (Saito, Horwitz & Garza 1999:202). Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1991:31) conceive second language anxiety as a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviours related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process. Leaver, Ehrman and Shekhtman (2005:93) express the view that “anxiety uses up cognitive and emotional resources that are then not available for learning”. They maintain that a small amount of anxiety can be helpful when we need to complete a project, but when there is too much, it gets in the way.

When anxiety relates to the use of an L2, it often arises in speaking and listening, which reflects learner’s apprehension at having to communicate spontaneously in the L2 (Huimin 2008:34; Saito et al. 1999:202). A survey conducted on speaking anxiety in the classroom with ESL subjects from Shandong Economic University in China by Huimin

(2008:33-42) indicated that the causes of speaking anxiety mainly arose from a fear of errors, of being laughed at, of poor evaluation, poor, unsuitable teaching materials and tasks, and low English proficiency.

The above study can be aptly linked to Krashen's affective filter hypothesis which emphasises that "low motivation, low self-esteem, and very high anxiety can combine to raise the affective filter and result in a mental block that prevents input from being used for language acquisition (See 2.4.2 e). When such blockage occurs, it often obstructs SLA (Smith 2004:49). Gifford and Mullaney (1997:15) endorse Krashen's affective filter hypothesis when they state that "for some learners, the resulting fear of making errors raises the affective filter so high that they are unwilling to take the risks involved in real communication".

In oral classes, placing too much emphasis on language accuracy is another major source of stress and anxiety in learners. Littlewood (in Huimin 2008:39) puts forward the notion of language fluency prior to language accuracy. He believes that a learner can never learn a language without making mistakes in the learning process. Leaver et al. (2005:95) also argue that a mistake is just the next step in learning. When an ESL learner is constantly conscious of the formal accuracy of his or her speech, he or she certainly cannot speak fluently and this may cause anxiety. Consequently, the more anxious the learner is, the worse his or her performance becomes (Huimin 2008:35).

At first glance, reading would seem to be the component of L2 performance least susceptible to anxiety effects, since one would automatically assume that reading is done privately with unlimited opportunity for reflection and reconsideration. However, this would be applicable to silent reading only. In the foundation phase learners generally read aloud individually, in pairs or in groups. Saito, Horwitz & Garza (1999:202) mention two aspects of L2 reading that would seem to have great potential for eliciting anxiety. These are unfamiliar scripts, and unfamiliar cultural material.

Research on foreign language reading anxiety conducted with 383 French, Japanese and Russian learners by Saito et al. (1999: 202-218) suggests that reading in an L2 is indeed

anxiety provoking to some learners. The study also found that learners' reading anxiety levels increased with their perceptions of the difficulty of reading in their L2, and that their grades decreased in conjunction to their levels of reading anxiety. Thus, the more anxious the learners become, the worse their performances are.

Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1991:30) assert that the anxious learner is also inhibited when attempting to utilise any second language fluency he or she has managed to acquire. The resulting poor test performance and inability to perform in class can contribute to a teacher's inaccurate assessment that the learner lacks either some necessary aptitude for learning a language or sufficient motivation to do the necessary work for a good performance.

Another affective factor that reached an unprecedented boom in the 1990's, with over one hundred journal articles published on the topic, is the study of L2 motivation (Dörnyei & Skehan 2003:613). According to Dörnyei and Skehan (2003:614) motivation concerns the direction and magnitude of human behaviour. These researchers perceive motivation as more specifically relating to the choice of a particular action, the persistence with it, and the effort expended on it. Motivation, from an L2 perspective, involves the attitudes and affective states that influence the degrees of effort that learners make to learn an L2 (Ellis 2000:75).

Although Ellis (2000:75) identifies 4 types of motivation – instrumental, integrative, resultant, and intrinsic; and Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1999:140-141) distinguishes between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation; Saville-Troike (2006:86) reports that the most widely recognised types of motivation are integrative and instrumental. This is supported by Leaver et al. (2005:104). They cite Gardner and Lambert (1972) who state that within the language learning field, the classic model is the distinction between integrative and instrumental motivation.

Whereas, integrative orientation involves learning a language because one strongly identifies with or wishes to become part of its associated culture (Midraj, Midraj, O'Neill & Sellami 2008:44; Adamson 2005:60; Leaver et al. 2005:104); instrumental orientation

is based on learning a language for its practical value, such as to pass an examination, to get a better job, or to get a place at university (Ellis 2000:75; Adamson 2005:60-61; Leaver et al. 2005:104).

Gardner (1997:35) asserts that the concepts of attitudes and motivation are often treated together in the area of L2 learning, since attitudes have motivational properties and motivation has attitudinal implications. Gardner (in Abu-Rabia 1996:590) argued that, because language is an important part of culture, the learning of an L2 is dependent on the learner's willingness to identify with the culture of the target language and to incorporate aspects of the target language culture, including linguistic repertoire, into his or her behaviour. Gardner's argument is consistent with the acculturation process explained earlier.

Ellis (2000:75) in contradiction to Gardner's argument contends that in some learning contexts, an instrumental motivation seems to be the major force determining success in L2 learning. For example, in settings where learners are motivated to learn an L2 because it opens up educational and economic opportunities for them.

However, Saville-Troike (2006:86) affirms that neither of these orientations have an inherent advantage over the other in terms of L2 achievement. She stresses that the relative effect of one or the other is dependent on complex personal and social factors for example, L2 learning by a member of the dominant group in a society may benefit more from integrative motivation, and L2 learning by a subordinate group member may be more influenced by instrumental motivation.

The findings of a study on affective factors and English language attainment conducted with learners from the United Arab Emirates by Midraj, Midraj, O'Niell and Sellami (2008:49) showed that motivation makes a substantial difference in language proficiency test scores. The findings of this study support Gardner's theory that integratively motivated learners tend to be higher achievers than instrumentally motivated ones.

Negative and unhealthy feelings (such as the feelings discussed in the next section on cognitive and social factors) while acquiring an L2 may contribute to a psychological state of depression.

A comprehensive review of literature by Stanard (2000:204) suggests that a lack of sense of belonging has shown to be a good predictor of depression. Hence, Washburn (2008:249) emphasises the importance of the need for learners to feel that they belong, have a place, and know their environment. They need to feel they are unique, are recognised as themselves, belong socially, and have rights and duties of membership in the English medium school; irrespective of their home language and culture.

Research with Taiwanese international learners in the Southern United States by Dao, Lee and Chang (2007:287-295) reflected that the individuals who were at risk of depressive feelings were more likely to be female learners, learners who have lower perceived English fluency, and those who have the perception of limited social support. Much research illuminates that gender appears to be the crucial factor in depression. Girls seem to be more prone to depression than boys (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg 1999:82-83). The review of literature by Aubé, Fichman, Saltaris and Koestner (2000:297) indicates that research has consistently shown that females are twice more likely to be depressed than males. This has serious implications for female ESL learners who are experiencing cognitive, social, and emotional difficulties, since as Dubuque (1998:66) mentions depression can appear during childhood.

2.6.3 Cognitive and social factors

Washburn (2008:247-250), reports on the experiences of learners after been given a language shock class in Chinese. A surprising response in Washburn's study is that learners felt alone. These learners were in a room with about fifty five classmates with whom they were acquainted and shared the same native language, who also did not understand Chinese and were undergoing the same experience, yet many felt excluded,

out of place, left out, and alone. A learner in a setting in which he or she is the linguistic minority must feel so much more isolated and alienated from their classmates.

In the classroom, linguistic isolation can make learners feel unsafe, insignificant, and friendless, which affects participation in classroom activities. These psychological and social factors sometimes outweigh the cognitive challenges of learning a new language (Sheets 2002:46). These learners do not have the luxury of an extended time frame to become accustomed to the new language. They experience great cognitive demands as they are asked to quickly learn both language and content in order to participate fully in the school curriculum (Vardell, Hadaway & Young 2006:734).

Sheppard (2001:133) discusses the characteristics of learners who are learning English as an L2 and how it affects their academic achievement. She argues that L2 learners often exhibit the problems associated with learning a new language, such as comprehension and articulation difficulties, limited vocabulary, and grammatical errors in their writing and speaking. She states that too often, L2 learners are referred to and placed in special education settings. This is perhaps, because if a learner who is learning English as an L2 has not yet achieved a particular level of language acquisition and proficiency, then transmission of knowledge and information becomes difficult and, in turn, teaching and learning become challenging.

Dao et al. (2007:288) point out that the common stressors found by international learners is overcoming the language barrier. International learners, not fluent with the English language, encounter unique difficulties not experienced by English speaking learners. Some of the unique challenges facing international learners include extra time required to read assigned readings, difficulties understanding class discussions, and difficulties in communicating concerns and viewpoints. This is also applicable to IsiZulu-speaking learners in English medium schools. Since language acquisition is essentially a social phenomenon (Goren 2003:23), this inability to converse fluently in the English language deters individuals from becoming socially involved in the English medium school. This inability to communicate often leads to miscommunication and the unpleasant experience

of forming new support networks in the English medium school which in turn leads to feelings of disappointment and discontent. Ultimately, these feelings may give rise to social isolation and solitude.

One component of language difficulty is that it inhibits social interaction. The more ESL learners avoid social interactions, the less their social and language skills develop. As a result, a negative cycle occurs in which a negative perception of English fluency continues to be reinforced. Over time, these negative perceptions may lead to chronic somatic problems (Dao et al. 2007:293).

Research and nationwide assessments in Australia have shown that many ESL learners are failing. For example, Masters (in McKay 2000:187) found in Australia that learners from a language background other than English have lower literacy levels than learners from English speaking backgrounds. However, Larsen-Freeman (2007:777) cites Kasper who warns against the comparative fallacy in which L2 learner's performance is compared with that of native speakers, and therefore seen to be deficient.

Thus, it is imperative that educators understand the development aspects that all children go through as they develop facility with language. Sheets (2002:47) posits that children might understand incoming language but may not be able to produce language that expresses their understanding. Likewise, Mohr and Mohr (2007:444) argue that language learners certainly can understand more than they can produce, especially at the beginning stages. Therefore, just because learners do not speak out does not mean that they do not comprehend the discussion or have something to contribute. Also, many young children are in transition from the casual communication style (BICS) used at home to the more formal one (CALP) of school and society. As children advance their language abilities – speak, listen, read, and write they learn that language is a powerful tool (Sheets 2002:47).

2.7 SUMMARY

This chapter presented a conceptual framework of the approaches to SLA which will be used to interpret the data generated in this study. BICS and CALP are seen as crucial to the development of literacy. BICS involve the informal language of conversation and CALP involves the language skills that are associated with cognitive development. Of great significance in Krashen's theory is comprehensible input. This means that in order to learn a second language, the learner must understand what is said to him or her. Affective variables such as motivation, self-confidence, and low levels of anxiety relate to success in second language acquisition. The emphasis of DST is that all variables are interrelated, and therefore changes in one variable will have an impact on all other variables that are part of the system. SCT places great emphasis on the culture in which the child develops. It proposes an interaction between the child's social world and his or her cognitive development.

Of considerable importance in this chapter are the cultural, psychological, affective, cognitive, and social factors that impact on the ESL in the English medium school. All these factors play a crucial role in determining L2 achievement and proficiency.

In the next chapter the research design of the empirical investigation of IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners' experiences of English as a second language in English medium schools will be discussed.

CHAPTER 3

EXPLORATION OF RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In the preceding chapter various approaches to second language acquisition and the cultural, psychological, affective, cognitive, and social factors that impact on the ESL learner in the English medium school were explored. In this chapter a combined qualitative-quantitative research design and methodology will be used to investigate the experiences of IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners in English medium schools, and to assess the reasons for the parents of IsiZulu-speaking learners choosing to enroll their children in English medium schools. This will be undertaken with specific reference to English as a second language.

Attention will be given to the selection of participants/subjects, the research technique, data collection, reliability and validity of data, analysis and interpretation of data, and ethical considerations.

3.2 THE RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

One of the most important choices made in the construction of any study is the research design. According to De Vos (2005:389) a research design is a logical strategy for gathering evidence about knowledge desired. Durrheim (1999:29) asserts that a research design is a strategic framework for action that serves as a bridge between research questions and the execution or implementation of the research. McMillan and Schumacher (2006:22) state that a research design describes how the study should be conducted. They further indicate that it summarises the procedures for conducting the study, including when, from whom, and under what conditions the data will be obtained. In other words, the research design indicates the general plan:

how the research is set up, what happens to the subjects, what methods of data collection are used, and how the data generated will be analysed and interpreted.

McMillan and Schumacher (2006:9) define research methodology as ways in which one collects and analyses data. These methods have been developed for acquiring knowledge by reliable and valid procedures. Data collection may be done with measurement techniques, extensive interviews and observations, or a set of documents. In this study data was collected via survey questionnaires and interviews.

The stated research problems were best investigated by using a combined qualitative-quantitative approach. The advantages of the aforementioned approach for this investigation are:

- A qualitative approach allows for an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon and is suitable for the central research problem (Refer to Chapter one, section 1.3.1)
- A quantitative approach allows for generalisation and will yield information on the fifth sub-question (Refer to Chapter one, section 1.3.2).

3.2.1 The qualitative component of the research

McMillan and Schumacher (2006:315) view qualitative research as inquiry in which researchers collect data in face-to-face situations by interacting with selected persons in their settings. These authors claim that qualitative research describes and analyses people's individual and collective social actions, beliefs, thoughts and perceptions. In addition, they assert that in qualitative research the researcher interprets phenomena in terms of the meanings that people assign to them. In this study qualitative research was used to "inductively explore phenomena and to provide 'thick' (that is, detailed) descriptions of phenomena" (Durrheim 1999:43).

Qualitative research designs emphasise gathering data on naturally occurring phenomena. McMillan and Schumacher (2006:26) classify qualitative research designs as interactive and non-interactive. Interactive methods consist of ethnography, phenomenology, case studies, grounded theory, and critical studies. Non-interactive methods comprise of concept analysis, and historical analysis. Recent qualitative

studies conducted in SLA included mostly case studies for example, studies conducted by Wighting, Nisbet and Tindall (2005:1-20), Yoon (2008:495-518), and Konishi (2007:267-276); and ethnographic research for example, studies conducted by Mazak (2008:51-71) and Swain and Deters (2007:820-836).

Delpont and Fouché (2005:270) contend that a phenomenological study aims to understand and interpret the meaning that participants give to their everyday lives. A phenomenological study describes the meanings of a lived experience (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:26). Since this research attempts, more specifically, to understand IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners' experiences of English as a second language in English medium schools, a phenomenological study was found to be the most appropriate approach for this study.

3.2.1.1 Sampling

Sampling involves decisions about which people, settings, events, behaviours and/or social processes to observe (Durrheim 1999:44). Although Mouton (2005:101) argues that bias samples are common errors in data sources and access to data, this is mostly related to heterogeneous populations. The sampling technique that was employed in this study was purposeful sampling.

In purposeful sampling, the researcher selects particular elements from the population that will be representative or informative about the topic of interest (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:126). In this case the elements selected were "information rich" cases. This was based on the researcher's knowledge of the population. For example, it was most informative to interview foundation phase Heads of Department (HODs) as well as level one foundation phase educators, rather than a random sample of all the foundation phase educators.

Purposeful sampling is a type of non-probability sampling (Strydom & Delpont 2005:328). According to McMillan and Schumacher (2006:125) non-probability sampling is the most common type of sampling in educational research. In non-probability sampling, the researcher uses subjects/participants who happen to be accessible or who may represent certain types

of characteristics. This does not include any type of random selection from a population.

The sample was drawn from four English medium primary schools within close proximity to each other, in the Port Shepstone area. The schools that were selected met the following criteria: the schools service a large number of IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners, the demographics of the schools were ideal for investigating the above problem, and the medium of instruction as well as the curriculum were also taken into consideration.

Both male and female IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners were selected. This ensured maximum variation. Maximum variation sampling is a type of purposeful sampling that refers to the selection of participants/cases to obtain maximum differences of perceptions about a topic among information rich informants or groups (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:320). The sample consisted of twenty seven learner participants (thirteen male learners and fourteen female learners).

Male and female educators were also selected for interviews. However, it was noticed that majority of the foundation phase educators in the four schools are females. Thus, the educator sample comprised of two males and five females. In selecting the educator sample, the researcher also took into consideration the educators' post levels. Three foundation phase HODs and four foundation phase level one educators were selected. The above justifies why the researcher preferred purposeful sampling.

Patton (in Strydom & Delpont 2005:328) maintains that there are no rules for sample size in qualitative inquiry. Qualitative inquirers view sampling processes as dynamic, ad hoc, and phasic rather than static or a priori parameters of populations (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:321). While there are statistical rules for probability sampling size, there are only guidelines for purposeful sample size. Thus, purposeful samples can range from 1 to 40 or more (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:321). The logic of the sample size is

related to the purpose, the collection strategy and the availability of information-rich cases. In qualitative research, sampling occurs subsequent to establishing the circumstances of the study clearly.

Thus, sampling is undertaken after the investigation has commenced (Strydom & Delport 2005:328). Furthermore, McMillan and Schumacher (2006:322) emphasise that the insights generated from qualitative inquiry depend more on the information richness of the cases and the analytical capabilities of the researcher than on the sample size. Although sampling occurred until further information became increasingly redundant, to the extent that it became repetitive; the researcher also ensured that the sample was unbiased in terms of gender.

3.2.1.2 The research technique

Since a phenomenological study was utilised, “the typical technique was for the researcher to conduct long interviews with the informants directed towards understanding their perspectives on their everyday lived experiences with the phenomenon” (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:26). By conducting individual interviews, the researcher attempted to understand the world from the participant’s point of view and unfolded the meaning of the learner’s experiences. The researcher preferred individual interviews to focus groups so that each learner could, in private, express his or her real feelings qualitatively.

The semi-structured one-to-one interview was used. Researchers use semi-structured interviews in order to gain a detailed picture of a participant’s beliefs about, or perceptions or accounts of, a particular topic (Greeff 2005:296). With the semi-structured interviews, the researcher will have a set of predetermined questions on an interview schedule. The interview schedule will merely assist the researcher in directing the interview instead of being restricted to the predetermined questions. An interview schedule/guide is a questionnaire written to guide interviews (Greeff 2005:296).

The interview schedule/guide was constructed from the literature on the topic. The questions were carefully formulated, sequenced and based on the research questions, aims and objectives of the study. The interviews were conducted at the schools.

3.2.1.3 The pilot study

A pilot study was conducted before the main investigation commenced. In qualitative research the pilot study is usually informal, and a few respondents possessing the same characteristics as those of the main investigation were involved in the study (Strydom & Delpont 2005:331). By conducting the pilot study the researcher was able to focus on specific areas that have been unclear previously. Thus, the qualitative researcher was able to make modifications with a view to quality interviewing during the main investigation.

3.2.1.4 Analysis and interpretation of data

McMillan and Schumacher (2006:364) emphasise that there is no set of standard procedures for qualitative data analysis or for keeping track of analytical strategies. However, these authors claim that qualitative data analysis is primarily an inductive process of organising data into categories and identifying patterns among the categories.

In this study the researcher has utilised an eclectic approach to qualitative data analysis. Firstly, predetermined categories were used from the following sources:

- ❖ The research question and sub-questions.
- ❖ The research instrument (the interview guide).
- ❖ Concepts and themes from the literature review.
- ❖ Prior knowledge of the researcher or personal experience as an educator and researcher.

Firstly, this study used the topics embedded in the interview schedule. The five pre-established categories from the learner interviews (biographical data, cultural, social, psychological and affective, and cognitive factors); and the six

pre-established categories from the educator interviews (biographical data, cultural, social, psychological and affective, and cognitive factors, and unique difficulties) provided a frame for the next phase of data analysis.

Secondly, each category was divided into subcategories as the data was analysed. For example, the category “cultural factors” contained subcategories for different perspectives. These were provisionally applied and thereafter refined.

Thirdly, each participant’s typed comments were cut according to the above categories, manually coded and stapled.

Fourthly, relationships among the categories were made by discovering patterns in the data. In this study the researcher used triangulation, which is the cross-validation among data sources and data collection strategies (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:374). To find regularities in the data, the researcher compared different sources (learners, educators, and parents), and methods (interviews, observation, and the survey [quantitative]) to see whether the same patterns kept recurring.

Fifthly, in seeking for patterns in the data, the researcher also searched for discrepant and negative evidence that modified or refuted a pattern. The discrepant evidence presented a variation of the pattern. For example, a pattern might be that a particular perspective, view, or opinion was expressed in most cases except in one case.

Finally, the developed patterns and themes were used to report the experiences of the participants.

3.2.1.5 Validity and reliability

McKay (2006:11) emphasises two qualities that are essential for sound research. They are validity and reliability. She stresses that these terms are

defined differently in qualitative research because there is far less control and structure in qualitative research.

❖ Validity

Validity in qualitative research is the degree to which the interpretations have mutual meanings between the participants and the researcher (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:324). Thus the researcher and participants agree on the description or composition of events, and especially the meanings of these events.

In qualitative research, internal validity refers to credibility and external validity refers to transferability (McKay 2006:13; De Vos 2005:346). De Vos (2005:346) states that the goal of credibility is to demonstrate that the inquiry was conducted in such a manner that the participant was accurately identified and described. In this study, credibility or internal validity was achieved by carefully recording the interviews, transcribing the interviews verbatim, analysing all of the data gathered, and presenting the data in a fair and unbiased manner. Strategies that were utilised to enhance internal validity included prolonged and persistent fieldwork (to ensure match between findings and participant reality), verbatim accounts (literal statements of participants were obtained), multi-method strategies (data was collected using in-depth interviews and observation), mechanically recorded data (interviews were recorded using a voice recorder), and participant review (educator participants were asked to review the researcher's synthesis of interviews for accuracy).

Transferability or external validity refers to the degree to which the findings of the qualitative study can be applied to other contexts (McKay 2006:13). De Vos (2005:346) affirms that a qualitative study's transferability to other settings may be problematic. However, the degree of transferability depends to a large extent on the similarity

of the learning contexts being examined. In order for the readers to determine the degree of transferability of this study, the researcher has provided a complete description of the participants and the context of the research so that readers can determine to what extent the findings might be applicable to other contexts.

❖ Reliability

The reliability of qualitative research depends on what is termed dependability (McKay 2006:14). McKay (2006:14) defines dependability as the degree to which the results reported in the study can be trusted or are reliable. In order to achieve reliability the researcher, in reporting the qualitative study, has provided a rich description of the learners involved in the study, the context for the study, and, most importantly, all the steps taken to carry out the study.

3.2.2 The quantitative component of the study

Quantitative researchers collect data in the form of numbers and use statistical types of data analysis (Durrheim 1999:42). McMillan and Schumacher (2006:23) state that quantitative research designs maximize objectivity by using numbers, statistics, structure, and control. Rosnow and Rosenthal (1999:81) view quantitative methods as those in which observed data exist in a numerical form.

The quantitative component of the research consisted of a survey. A survey is a type of non-experimental design. Non-experimental research designs describe things that have occurred and examine relationships between things without any direct manipulation of conditions that are experienced (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:24).

In a survey research design, the investigator selects a sample of subjects and administers a questionnaire or conducts interviews to collect data (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:25). Surveys can be used to describe attitudes, beliefs, opinions, and so on. This research was designed so that information about a large number of people (the population) can be inferred from the responses obtained from a smaller

group of subjects (the sample). The researcher used the same four schools as in the qualitative section since this is part of the same project.

3.2.2.1 Sampling

The stratified random sampling technique was employed. This is a type of probability sampling. In probability sampling subjects are drawn from a larger population in such a way that the probability of selecting each member of the population is known (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:119). Each member of the population as a whole has the same chance of being selected as other members in the same group. Thus, probability sampling was used to ensure adequate representation of the population.

The population (all IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners in the four schools) was divided into subgroups, or strata, on the basis of school and gender. Once the population was divided, samples were drawn randomly from each subgroup. A table of random numbers (retrieved from McMillan and Schumacher 2006:494), which is a set of randomly assorted digits was used to select the sample.

The general rule in determining sample size is to obtain a sufficient number to provide a credible result (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:127). This usually means obtaining as many as possible. However, in situations in which a random sample is selected from a large population, a sample size that is only a small percentage of the population can approximate the characteristics of the population satisfactorily (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:127). Seaberg, and Grinell and Williams in Strydom (2005:195) state that in most cases a 10 percent sample should be sufficient for controlling sampling errors. This is also supported by McMillan and Schumacher (2006:127). Thus, the sample consisted of 10 percent of the population.

The population consisted of 945 IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners.

**Table 3.1: The IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learner
Population in the four schools**

	POPULATION IN SCHOOL A	POPULATION IN SCHOOL B	POPULATION IN SCHOOL C	POPULATION IN SCHOOL D
MALES	89	133	160	69
FEMALES	88	123	203	80
TOTAL	177	256	363	149

Ten percent of the male population and ten percent of the female population from Schools A, B, C, and D were selected. Thus, the following table illustrates the sample size in each school:

Table 3.2: The sample size in the four schools

	SAMPLE SIZE IN SCHOOL A	SAMPLE SIZE IN SCHOOL B	SAMPLE SIZE IN SCHOOL C	SAMPLE SIZE IN SCHOOL D
MALES	9	13	16	7
FEMALES	9	12	20	8
TOTAL	18	25	36	15

Thus, the total sample size consisted of 94 IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners.

In School A the male population consisted of 89 learners. The researcher needed to select 9 male learners by simple random sampling. First, each male IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learner in School A was assigned a number from 01 to 89. Second, the researcher randomly selected a starting point in the table of random numbers. Thereafter, the researcher read all two-digit numbers, moving down the columns. The researcher followed the two-digit columns while selecting 9 two-digit numbers between 01 and 89. The same procedure was used to select the male and female samples from the other 3 schools.

Random sampling, by using the table of random numbers, ensured that no subject was involved in the investigation because the researcher knows, or does not know the person, or because it was merely convenient for the researcher to involve certain persons, or to exclude them.

3.2.2.2 The research instrument

The research instrument, a questionnaire, was specifically constructed to obtain information on why the parents of IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners enroll their children in English medium schools. According to McMillan and Schumacher (2006:194) the questionnaire is the most widely used technique for obtaining information from subjects. A questionnaire is relatively economical, has the same questions for all subjects and can ensure anonymity (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:194). Rosnow and Rosenthal (1999:123) emphasise that questionnaires are convenient to use because (1) they can be administered to large numbers of people; (2) they are relatively economical; and (3) they provide a type of “anonymity”.

The questionnaire comprised of a few questions, all of which are relatively clear and simple in their meaning. According to Delpport (2005:166) the basic objective of a questionnaire is to obtain facts and opinions about the phenomenon from people who are informed on a particular issue. Questionnaires are probably the most generally used instruments of all. The advantage of a questionnaire is that it is less time consuming and the researcher may not influence these replies by revealing his or her opinions, as may be the case in interviews.

The questionnaire consisted of 3 sections, namely: A, B, and C.

- Section A : Biographical data
- Section B : Scaled responses – Measurements of parents’ reasons for enrolling their children in English medium schools.
- Section C : Scaled responses – Measurements of parents’ views regarding their children’s performances in English

❖ Section A: Biographical Data

Information was obtained on the variables of gender, age, grade, occupation, level of education, and residential environment. These aspects were important in order to answer the critical fifth sub-question (Refer to chapter 1, Section 1.3.2)

❖ Section B: Scaled Responses

The questionnaire consisted of scaled items because scales allow fairly accurate assessments of beliefs or opinions (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:198). A scaled question is a type of multiple-choice question, in which response categories are designed in such a way that respondents mark a certain point on a scale (Delpont 2005:177). The Likert Scale was used. “A true Likert Scale is one in which the item includes a value or direction and the respondent indicates agreement or disagreement with the statement” (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:198). The questionnaire consisted of 15 statements followed by a scale of potential responses. The subjects were asked to check the place on the scale that best reflected their beliefs or opinions about the statement. Delpont (2005:177) states that a scaled question is useful for obtaining information about non-exact and more subjective aspects. The value of a Likert Scale is that individuals have the option of expressing the degree to which they agree or disagree with a particular statement. The scaled questions were used to establish the reasons for the parents of IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners choosing to enroll their children in English medium schools.

❖ Section C: Scaled Responses

In Section C, scaled responses for four statements were used to establish the views of parents regarding their children’s performances in English.

3.2.2.3 The pilot study

Rosnow and Rosenthal (1999:122) affirm that in developing a questionnaire, pilot testing is absolutely essential. This testing will enable the researcher to determine whether the items are worded properly.

A pilot study was conducted among four parents of IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners. Only a few minor grammar and spelling adjustments were made to the IsiZulu questionnaire due to unforeseen problems that emerged during the pilot study. Thereafter the questionnaire was administered to the sample.

3.2.2.4 Collection of data

Firstly, permission was granted by the school principals to distribute the questionnaires (In order to maintain anonymity, the letters received from the school principals are not attached). Each learner in the sample was given two questionnaires (one in English and one in IsiZulu) to take home and ask one of the parents to complete any one of the two questionnaires. Questionnaires (Refer to Appendices 8 and 9) were distributed to and collected from each school personally. In most cases parents were given approximately a week to complete and return the questionnaires. The questionnaires were distributed to the sample with the assistance of class educators. Instructions were explained to the sample in English and IsiZulu. This was necessary in order to avoid confusion and uncertainty. Class educators assisted in collecting the questionnaires and forwarded them to the secretaries at the various schools. In one of the schools the foundation phase HOD assisted in collecting the questionnaires. A week after the questionnaires were distributed, more than eighty percent of the sample completed and returned the questionnaires. Three days later a return visit was made to the schools. Of the ninety four questionnaires distributed eighty nine were completed and returned, this implies that ninety five percent of the questionnaires handed out were returned. One learner in the sample was involved in a tragic accident which led to his death. This occurred after sampling was completed. Thus, four questionnaires were outstanding.

3.2.2.5 Data analysis and interpretation

The data gleaned from the questionnaires were subjected to statistical analysis to determine the reasons for the parents of IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners choosing to enroll their children in English medium schools, and also to establish parents' perspectives with regard to their children's performances in English. The parents' views were also compared with the learners' and educators' opinions.

Quantitative data analysis was done by means of frequency distributions and percentages that were supported by pie graphs, line graphs, or tables.

The following method was used to analyse quantitative data (Kruger, De Vos, Fouché & Venter 2005:222-225):

The researcher looked at original categories and wrote them down as they were stated in the question. A small vertical line was drawn for each one of the responses which fitted into a category. In this way data was coded. After every four marks, the fifth crossed through the four, thus: 4444, which made it easy to add up later in multiples of five: five, ten, fifteen, etcetera.

The rough calculations were done in preparation for presentation in the formal research report. The contents of the frequency distribution were ordered from low to high frequencies. This procedure made the tables easier to understand.

3.2.2.6 Validity and reliability

To obtain valid and reliable data one must ensure, before implementing the study, that the measurement procedures and the measurement instruments to be used have acceptable levels of reliability and validity. Reliability and validity are the two most important concepts in the context of measurement (Delpont 2005:160).

❖ Validity

Babbie (2004) in Delport (2005:160) maintains that validity refers to the extent to which an empirical measure accurately reflects the concept it is intended to measure. It refers to the truthfulness of findings and conclusions (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:134). Validity, broadly speaking, refers to whether the measurements measure what they are supposed (or claim) to measure. This research study used two measures of validity: face validity and content validity.

➤ Face validity

Face validity refers to the superficial appearance or face value of a measurement procedure and the relevant question in this regard is: Does the measurement technique “look as if” it measures the variable that it claims to measure (Delport 2005:161).

Face validity was established by giving a draft questionnaire to two parents of IsiZulu-speaking learners, prior to pilot testing. They were asked to comment on whether the instrument (questionnaire) would provide valid data for the purpose of the study.

➤ Content validity

Delport (2005:160-161) states that content validity is concerned with the representativeness or sampling adequacy of the content of an instrument. According to Rosnow and Rosenthal (1999:145) content validity means that the test or questionnaire items represent the kinds of material (or content areas) they are supposed to represent. Thus, a test or a questionnaire with good content validity covers all major aspects of the content areas that are relevant.

To determine content validity we ask two questions as suggested by Delpont (2005:161):

- Is the instrument really measuring the concept we assume it is?
- Does the instrument provide an adequate sample of items that represent that concept?

In this research study the possible reasons for the parents of IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners choosing to enroll their children in English medium schools have been validated by experts (refer to Chapter one) and by the literature study in Chapter two to sample the concepts adequately.

❖ Reliability

Reliability of a measurement procedure is the stability or consistency of the measurement (Delpont 2005:162). This implies that if the same variable is measured under the same conditions, a reliable measurement procedure will produce identical (or nearly identical) measurements.

Reliability refers to the dependability of a measurement, that is, the extent to which the instrument yields the same results on repeated trials (Durrheim 1999:88). If the instrument is not reliable, it is often less likely to be valid, but it can be very reliable without at all valid (Rosnow & Rosenthal 1999:135).

Thus, to establish both reliability and validity, the questionnaires (in English and IsiZulu) were pilot tested before being used in the study. The pilot study was conducted with a sample of four subjects with characteristics similar to those used in the study.

3.3 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Generally ethics are considered to deal with beliefs about what is right or wrong, proper or improper, good or bad (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:142). Ethics is a set of moral principles which is suggested by an individual or group, is subsequently widely accepted, which offers rules and behavioural expectations about the most correct conduct towards experimental subjects and respondents, employers, sponsors, other researchers, assistants and students (Strydom 2005:57).

Qualitative research is more likely to be personally intrusive than quantitative research. This is because in qualitative research, more specifically interactive qualitative methods, the researcher uses face-to-face techniques to collect data from people in their natural settings. Thus, ethical guidelines include policies regarding informed consent, deception, confidentiality, anonymity, privacy, and caring (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:333).

3.3.1 Informed consent and autonomy

Obtaining informed consent implies that all possible or adequate information on the goal of the investigation, the procedures which will be followed during the investigation, the possible advantages, disadvantages and dangers to which respondents may be exposed, as well as the credibility of the researcher, be rendered to potential subjects or their legal representatives (Williams, Tutty & Grinnel (1995) as cited in Strydom 2005:59). Strydom (2005:59) stresses the voluntary nature of participation in research. He also emphasises that participants must be made aware that they would be at liberty to withdraw from the investigation at any time.

Rosnow and Rosenthal (1999:59) describe autonomy as “independence”. They state that in the context of research ethics, autonomy refers specifically to a prospective subject’s right as well as ability “to choose” whether to participate in the study, or to continue in the study, or to opt out of the research process at any time when the participant needs to.

For this study, the researcher obtained permission from the Kwa-Zulu Natal Department of Education (Refer to Appendix 2), the principals and participating educators from the four schools (In order to maintain anonymity, the letters received from the school principals are not attached), the school governing bodies, all learner participants (Refer to Appendices 4 and 5) and their parents (Refer to Appendices 6 and 7). Refer to Appendix 1 and 3 for the brief proposals forwarded to the Kwa Zulu Natal Department of Education and to the school principals, respectively.

Since learners between the ages of five and nine were involved in the interviews, the researcher obtained parental consent before proceeding. Letters (in English and IsiZulu) were sent to parents, requesting permission to interview their children (Refer to Appendices 4 and 5). Majority of the parents signed the letter granting permission to conduct and to audiotape the interviews. Durrheim and Wassenaar (1999:66) argue that obtaining consent from participants is not merely the signing of a consent form. This requires that participants receive a full, non-technical and clear explanation of the tasks expected of them so that they can make informed choice to participate voluntarily in the research. Thus, in gaining permission, the researcher gave participants the assurances of confidentiality and anonymity and described the purpose of the study.

Both questionnaires (in English and IsiZulu) consisted of covering letters in English and IsiZulu (Refer to Appendices 6 and 7). The covering letters also assured the subjects of confidentiality and anonymity and explained the purpose of the study. The fact that majority (ninety five percent) of the sample completed and returned the questionnaires naturally indicates that permission was granted.

Once approval to proceed with the research had been secured from the authorities (Refer to Appendix 2), the researcher began the process of negotiating and maintaining relationships with individuals and groups of primary interest.

3.3.2 Confidentiality and anonymity

Confidentiality means that subjects' disclosures are protected against unwarranted access; it is a way of ensuring subjects' privacy and may also be a way of improving the data they provide (Rosnow & Rosenthal 1999:66).

In this study great care was taken to safeguard the privacy and identity of the research sites and respondents. The authorities of the research settings and the participants were assured that they would not be identifiable in print. Thus, names have been removed to protect the identity of the participants. All names in this study are pseudonyms. McMillan and Schumacher (2006:334) assert that researchers have a dual responsibility: to protect the individuals' confidences from other persons in the setting and to protect the informants from the general reading public.

Respondents were assured of anonymity in the covering letters and also by verbal communication. To maintain confidentiality in this study, procedures were set in place for protecting the data. A coding system was devised; in which the names of the subjects were represented by a sequence of alphabets and numbers that made it impossible for anyone else to identify. This did not result in the violation of privacy, anonymity or confidentiality. The researcher felt it necessary that participants be identified because reminders had to be sent to persons who had not responded. This information was not made accessible to anyone. Only the researcher was aware of the identity of the participants. However, after data was analysed no one, including the researcher was able to identify and subjects afterwards. This ensured anonymity of participants.

3.3.3 Privacy and empowerment

Deception violates informed consent and privacy (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:335). The researcher explained the interview process to the participants so that they could understand the power that they had in the research process.

3.3.4 Caring and fairness

In qualitative research some participants may experience humiliation and loss of trust (McMillan & Schumacher 2006:335). This is unacceptable. A sense of caring and

fairness must be part of the researcher's thinking, actions, and personal morality. Thus, the interviews were more or less open discussions that promoted fairness to the participants and to the research inquiry. The participants were provided with opportunities to express their feelings and views. However, in some instances participants had to be redirected.

3.3.5 Actions and competence of researchers

Strydom (2005:63) states that at present, much research is being undertaken in South Africa across cultural boundaries. He also mentions that in the past there was very little contact between the different cultural groups, which meant that people did not know and respect one another's cultural customs and norms.

In order to obtain proper cooperation from the participants, the researcher had to understand and respect certain customs of IsiZulu-speaking learners. For example, it was noticed that generally IsiZulu-speaking learners avoid eye contact during conversations. This did not imply that learners were being inattentive during the interviews. No value judgements were made in this regard on the cultural aspects of the community. This also ensured that no participant was emotionally harmed. Rosnow and Rosenthal (1999:61) and Durrheim and Wassenaar (1999:66) mention the ethical principles of nonmaleficence and beneficence. These authors refer to nonmaleficence as "not doing harm". This means that the researcher should do no harm to the research participants or to any other person or group of persons. The above authors refer to beneficence as "doing good". This requires the researcher to design research such that it will be of benefit – if not directly to the research participants then more broadly to other researchers and society at large. It is anticipated that this study will benefit ESL learners and also the educators and parents of these learners.

3.4 SUMMARY

The explanation and detailed discussion of the research design and methodology were the focus of this chapter. A combined qualitative-quantitative research design was the most suitable approach to investigate the research problems. In the qualitative

component, a phenomenological study was used. Purposeful sampling was employed to select educator and learner participants from the four English medium schools. Individual interviews were conducted using interview schedules/guides constructed from the literature on the topic. An eclectic approach using predetermined categories was used to analyse qualitative data. Both internal and external validity; and reliability were achieved.

The quantitative component consisted of a survey research design. The stratified random sampling technique was employed. This ensured adequate representation of the population. The research instrument, a questionnaire was constructed, piloted and distributed to the sample. Quantitative data analysis was done by means of frequency distributions and percentages that were supported by pie graphs, line graphs, or tables. To establish reliability and validity, the questionnaires were pilot tested before being used in the study.

Ethical guidelines which include policies regarding informed consent, deception, confidentiality, anonymity, privacy, and caring were considered in this study.

The next chapter focuses on the data collected from the interviews, observation, and the survey questionnaires. Attention is also given to the analysis and interpretation of the data obtained.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter focused on a discussion of the empirical research design used to investigate the research questions. In this chapter the findings and interpretation of the empirical investigation will be presented. The aim of this chapter is to provide answers to the questions posed in Chapter 1, Section 1.3.

Since a combined qualitative-quantitative approach was utilised in this study, data was analysed separately.

4.2 QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

This section provides the findings of the interviews conducted with the foundation phase learners and the foundation phase educators from the four schools. Firstly, the participants' characteristics or biographical data will be discussed. Thereafter, as reflected in Chapter 3 (See 3.2.1.4) and throughout the analysis five dominant emerging themes that were identified, will be discussed. These themes are:

- ❖ Cultural factors
- ❖ Social factors
- ❖ Psychological and affective factors
- ❖ Cognitive factors
- ❖ Unique barriers

Pseudonyms have been used to protect the identity of the schools and participants.

4.2.1 Biographical data

The participants were twenty seven (27) IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners (13 males and 14 females), and seven (7) foundation phase educators (2 males and 5 females) from the four English medium primary schools in the Port Shepstone region.

All the participants that were approached agreed to participate in the research. All learner participants were given incentives in the form of children's story books. The parents of the twenty seven learners had granted permission to interview their children. Both learners and educators were very enthusiastic to participate in the research process. All the learners chose to be interviewed in English.

Table 4.1 Reflects a summary of the learner participants:

Table 4.1: Biographical details of the learner participants				
Learner Participants	Name of School	Gender	Grade	Age
Learner 1	School A	Male	1	6
Learner 2	School A	Male	3	8
Learner 3	School A	Male	3	8
Learner 4	School A	Male	2	9
Learner 5	School A	Female	R	6
Learner 6	School A	Female	1	6
Learner 7	School A	Female	2	8
Learner 8	School B	Male	R	5
Learner 9	School B	Female	3	9
Learner 10	School B	Female	2	7
Learner 11	School B	Female	1	6
Learner 12	School B	Male	3	10
Learner 13	School B	Female	1	7
Learner 14	School B	Male	1	8
Learner 15	School C	Male	1	6
Learner 16	School C	Female	1	7
Learner 17	School C	Female	2	7
Learner 18	School C	Male	3	9
Learner 19	School C	Female	R	6
Learner 20	School C	Male	2	7
Learner 21	School C	Female	3	8

Learner 22	School D	Male	1	7
Learner 23	School D	Male	3	10
Learner 24	School D	Female	3	9
Learner 25	School D	Male	2	7
Learner 26	School D	Female	2	8
Learner 27	School D	Female	1	7

Of the twenty seven (27) learners, only seven (7) learners live within close proximity to their schools. The remaining twenty (20) learners travel long distances to get to school. It is also important to note that there are several schools that are situated close to the homes of these twenty learners. The implication here is that the parents of these learners have preferred to enroll their children in English medium schools.

While seventeen (17) learners live in nuclear families, consisting of parents and children only, the presence of grandparents and relatives illustrated the prevalent need that many still have for the conventional extended family.

All learner participants were able to communicate in English. Some learners exhibited confidence and the ability to answer the questions without any hesitation. On the other hand, some learners required clarification and continuous repetition of questions. None of the learners portrayed signs of being afraid to speak. They all appeared to be relaxed and comfortable. They enjoyed the experience of being interviewed.

Table 4.2 Reflects a summary of the educator participants:

Table 4.2: Biographical details of the educator participants				
Educator participants	Gender	Years of teaching experience	Training to teach ESL learners	Ability to speak IsiZulu
Educator A	Male	25	No	Fair
Educator B	Female	20	No	Poor

Educator C	Male	23	Yes	Fair
Educator D	Female	15	Yes	Excellent
Educator E	Female	17	No	Poor
Educator F	Female	19	No	Poor
Educator G	Female	30	Yes	Poor

In the four (4) schools that were researched, it was noticed that most of the foundation phase educators are females. There were only three (3) male foundation phase educators in all four schools. All the educators who were interviewed have several years of teaching experience; as illustrated in table 4.2. Only three of the seven educators indicated that they had training to teach ESL learners. Four (4) educators have rated their ability to speak IsiZulu as poor. Only 1 educator stated that she speaks IsiZulu extremely well. This is probably because her first language is IsiZulu.

In the foundation phase educators are required to teach any grade from grade 1 to grade 3 (See 1.7.3 and 1.7.7). This implies that foundation phase educators are not expected to teach the same grade every year. They rotate grades. Thus, all foundation phase educators have had many years of experience teaching learners from grade 1 to grade 3.

4.2.2 Cultural factors

4.2.2.1 Eye contact

A common recurring factor in all the educator interviews with regard to IsiZulu-speaking learners and their English language development is eye contact. An IsiZulu-speaking educator interviewee (Educator D) aptly described the aspect of eye contact. Educator D stated the following:

- *With our culture, when learners speak to someone who is old, we are taught that it is not good to look at the person's eyes. We must look down because that shows respect. As a result in the classroom situation they don't understand instructions. Sometimes when we talk we use gestures and if the learner is not looking at you he or she can't understand. They won't see the gestures.*

4.2.2.2 The oral component of English

Another aspect that was mentioned is the tendency for IsiZulu-speaking learners to enjoy the oral component of English. Educator A claimed that IsiZulu-speaking learners prefer practical work and drama. The above educator stated the following:

- *You find that they come from that kind of cultural background where they like acting and singing.*

4.2.2.3 Acculturation

Five (5) educators believed that IsiZulu-speaking learners were acculturating. This implies that learners are identifying with both their language and culture and the English language. The following responses were noted:

- *Educator A: They like their culture. They are always singing songs in IsiZulu. They like to wear their cultural outfits. When they get the opportunity they also like wearing bangles and necklaces that are made in the Zulu tradition. When they are speaking with other children they use their own language – IsiZulu. But they also identify with the English language. They like singing English songs. They also embrace the English dressing... I don't think that our schools make them lose their culture. We, in fact try to promote their culture.*
- *Educator C: Their culture is so much engrained into them. If you look at drama – they tend to take over (referring to English)*

The concept of integration from an acculturation perspective was also evident in the learners' responses. Some learners (Learners 2, 3, 9, and 11) have indicated that they speak both English and IsiZulu at school. They speak English to their English-speaking friends, and IsiZulu and English to their IsiZulu-speaking friends. Learner 3's response was:

- *But my Indian friends – I talk to them in English.*

From five (5) educator and twenty two (22) learner interviews it can be inferred that IsiZulu-speaking learners do achieve social and psychological

proximity, thus yielding a high degree of acculturation. A high degree of acculturation will assist in ensuring a high level of success in the target language (See 2.6.1).

Integration as an acculturation process was also clearly evident during a Heritage Day programme at School A. The researcher observed IsiZulu-speaking learners embracing both cultures. IsiZulu-speaking learners were dressed in their traditional garments and they sang IsiZulu songs. However, they also identified with the English culture. They participated in sketches that required them to speak in English. They also recited poems and delivered speeches in English.

Educator D who teaches both IsiZulu and English had a contrasting opinion. She felt that the learners in her class were rejecting their native culture and identifying with the target culture. This implies that these learners were practising the acculturation process of assimilation. Educator D reported the following:

- *When they are in class, they don't focus on their culture. They are eager to learn English, not their culture. They are not a hundred percent eager to learn IsiZulu.*

The process of assimilation was also noticed when five (5) learners indicated that they prefer to communicate in English with both their English-speaking friends and their IsiZulu-speaking friends. Learner 15 and Learner 10 stated the following; respectively:

- *I like to learn English, but not Zulu.*
- *I like to talk in English but I don't like to in Zulu.*

On the other hand, educator F believed that the IsiZulu-speaking learners in her class were rejecting the target language and identifying with the native culture. This implies that these learners were practising the acculturation model of separation. Educator F believed that these learners *concentrate more on IsiZulu than English.*

4.2.3 Social factors

4.2.3.1 Social relationships

It is apparent that learners have good social relationships with their English-speaking peers as well as their IsiZulu-speaking peers. Some of the learners' responses regarding their English-speaking friends included the following:

- Learner 1: *They play properly and they don't hurt me.*
- Learner 7: *They respect me and they lend me colours* (referring to crayons).
- Learner 12: *They teach me how to speak English.*
- Learner 17: *They make me happy.*
- Learner 26: *I like them most because they teach me something that I don't know.*

Five (5) learners' responses regarding their IsiZulu-speaking friends included the following:

- Learner 4: *They speak the language I speak.*
- Learner 9: *We play something that we know in our culture.*
- Learner 12: *In my culture we speak Zulu.*
- Learner 13: *They speak Zulu. They speak my language and then we play.*
- Learner 15: *They call me my name in Zulu* (When Learner 15 was asked: "what do they call you, he pronounced his name with a Zulu accent. Learner 15 stated that his English-speaking friends could not say his name correctly).

Supporting testimonies regarding IsiZulu-speaking learners social relationships were provided by educators. All the educators interviewed agreed that IsiZulu-speaking learners interact relatively well with English-speaking learners. Testimonies provided by educators included the following:

- Educator A: *They make good friendships...Language doesn't become a barrier especially if they are conversant in English.*
- Educator B: *They will interact well with each other.*
- Educator C: *They interact well.*
- Educator D: *They socialise well.*

- Educator E: *With them being in the foundation phase, they are very accepting of each other...You do get good, warm friendships between them.*
- Educator F: *I think they socialise quiet well.*

Educator E also mentioned that the more confidence an IsiZulu-speaker has, the easier it is for him or her to adjust. Moreover, Educator E felt that the learners who are battling to cope in the classroom tend to be more reserved.

Educators A, C, D, F, and G generally agreed that English-speaking learners and IsiZulu-speaking learners in their classes treat each other as socially equal. Their responses included the following:

- Educator A: *I haven't really seen any incident where an Indian child or a Coloured child feeling they are superior in any way to a Black child.*
- Educator C: *From what I have experienced so far, they don't look at themselves as an IsiZulu-speaking child or an English-speaking child. So the Indians and Isizulus tend to be very close.*
- Educator D: *During the breaks they are together. They communicate. They are friends with English-speaking learners.*

Contrary to the above experiences, Educator E mentioned that in her Grade one class the learners who speak English tend to dominate.

Educator B looked at social equality from an academic competence perspective. Educator B asserted:

- *Learners who are coming already with a low self esteem about the language in English and haven't grasped it – they are going to be looking at themselves as not equal – subordinate to the rest of them who are already speaking English... I think that if they can cope well with the language, they feel that they are on equal par with any other learner in the classroom.*

The above comments by Educator B are illuminated in my literature study. Language difficulty inhibits social interaction. The inability to converse fluently in the English language deters learners from becoming socially involved in the English medium school. This inability to communicate often leads to miscommunication and the unpleasant experience of forming new social networks (See 2.6.3).

4.2.3.2 Conversing with peers during lessons and during the breaks

Five (5) educators agreed that during lessons and group work most of the IsiZulu-speaking learners converse in English. However, when learners are in a group where there are mainly IsiZulu-speaking learners; most of them do converse in IsiZulu. Educator B remarked:

- *So, they do it (referring to the speaking of IsiZulu) because they are comfortable with it and they can converse quicker.*

All the educators interviewed, with the exception of Educator D, have indicated that from their observations of IsiZulu-speaking learners during the breaks, on the playgrounds, and during social activities such as sports, excursions, and fun days that learners will speak IsiZulu to their IsiZulu-speaking peers and English to their English-speaking peers. Thus, it depends on who the learner is speaking to.

The educators' responses correspond with the researcher's observations. The researcher's observations about learners' language use were based on their interactions during lessons, after school while learners are waiting for their transport, and during the time spent on the playgrounds. While waiting for their transport and while playing on the playgrounds with other IsiZulu-speaking learners, learners preferred to converse in IsiZulu. Their communication in IsiZulu emerged spontaneously and they evidently thought more clearly and articulated themselves more confidently and easily in this language. A small minority of IsiZulu-speaking learners spoke to each other in English when they were not in the company of English-speaking learners.

Since L2 learners often exhibit the problems associated with learning a new language, such as comprehension and articulation difficulties, limited vocabulary and grammatical errors in writing and speaking (See 2.6.3), it would appear that IsiZulu-speaking learners would be more comfortable communicating with their IsiZulu-speaking friends in their primary language as opposed to communicating in English.

4.2.3.3 Social isolation and alienation

From their experiences, five (5) educators indicated that they have not had any IsiZulu-speaking learners in their classes who felt alienated or isolated. However, studies conducted by Washburn (2008) (See 2.6.3) highlighted the tendency for L2 learners to experience social isolation and alienation. Also, opposing views were expressed by Educators B and F. These included:

- Educator B: *There are learners who feel alone and isolated because they are grappling with the language of instruction at this school.*
- Educator F: *They wouldn't readily make friends with English-speaking children, especially the very slow learners who don't have a good grasp.*

4.2.4 Psychological and affective factors

4.2.4.1 Feelings of happiness and contentment

It was noticed that all the learners were happy to come to school to learn and to play with their friends. Learners' responses regarding the learning of English included the following:

- Learner 8: *I like to speak English.*
- Learner 13: *Because English I think is not difficult like IsiZulu.*
- Learner 9: *It's easy to understand (referring to the English language) ... it's hard because we don't know some of the words in IsiZulu (referring to the IsiZulu language).*
- Learner 17: *In school I feel happy.*
- Learner 16: *School is nice. I like to come to school here.*

It was astonishing to note the level of thinking of the learners interviewed. Four (4) learners (Learners 9, 13, 24, and 25) were able to draw a comparison between the learning of the English language and the learning of the IsiZulu language. According to these learners learning the English language is easier than learning the IsiZulu language. However, Landsberg and Dednam (1999:182-183) argue that of all the South African official languages, Afrikaans most closely resembles English with regard to the basic language structures, since both languages are of Germanic origin. These authors further state that since the language structures of the indigenous languages differ from English even more than Afrikaans, learners from the various indigenous language groups find it more difficult than Afrikaans learners to master English. Thus, it is surprising that the four learners felt that it was easier for them to learn English than their primary language.

4.2.4.2 Preference for learning English

Of the twenty seven (27) learners interviewed, twenty five (25) of them indicated their preference for English. The reasons they preferred speaking English as opposed to speaking IsiZulu are as follows:

- Learner 4: *Because we speak it in class.*
- Learner 9: *I like to speak English a lot...It's kind of easy and I like to speak it even at home.*
- Learner 12: *English is my second language and my granny wants me to learn English. She's the one who asked my mum to send me to this school.*
- Learner 13: *Because English I think is not difficult like IsiZulu... Lots of children in this school speak English.*
- Learner 14: *Because my friends are white... Because at school we learn English.*
- Learner 17: *Because English is good...my teacher doesn't want Zulu.*
- Learner 25: *Because English is not a very hard thing...the reading and writing – everything is not hard like IsiZulu.*

Although majority of the learners expressed their preference for English, the reasons that were outlined by learners 4, 12, 14, and 17 indicated that these

learners were compelled to learn English as a result of their parents' aspirations and the medium of instruction at school.

4.2.4.3 Speaking anxiety

Fourteen (14) learners were very confident and indicated that they were not afraid to speak English in class. Learners 15 and 16's response was:

➤ *I'm not scared.*

Learners expressed their contentment when speaking with their friends and teachers in English. The following responses emerged from the interviews conducted with the learners:

➤ Learner 2: *I feel happy.*

➤ Learner 8: *I feel right.*

➤ Learner 9: *I sound like I'm in a happy place... Sometimes it becomes difficult, but I feel happy with my English.*

➤ Learner 10: *I feel comfortable.*

➤ Learner 1: *Nice.*

According to Krashen's Affective Filter hypothesis (see 2.4.2 e), the above learners will be better equipped for success in their English acquisition; since they appear to portray low levels of anxiety.

Thirteen learners expressed their fear of making mistakes when they speak English in class and when their teachers ask them questions. Responses included the following:

➤ Learner 6: *I am worried.*

➤ Learner 9: *I get kind of scared and I just do my work.*

➤ Learner 11: *Sometimes I get nervous.*

➤ Learner 24: *Sometimes she (referring to the teacher) asks hard questions and I don't know.*

➤ Learner 25: *Some days they are speaking hard things.*

➤ Learner 26: *I'm frightened to make mistakes.*

➤ Learner 12: *I feel nervous...when she speaks English, I can't understand.*

For these learners, a high degree of anxiety can contribute to raise the affective filter. When the filter is “up” it could impede or obstruct English acquisition (see 2.4.2 e).

The general feedback from Educators A, C, D, and G regarding speaking anxiety can be summarised as follows: If an IsiZulu-speaking learner with very little English exposure is enrolled in an English medium school, he or she will experience speaking anxiety. Also, in the earlier grades such as Grade R, 1, and 2 learners tend to experience speaking anxiety. Educator C expressed the following view:

- *Grade one and two – you find that they are very hesitant in speaking the language...It’s very foreign to them. But, as time progresses, maybe in the same grade or as they reach a grade like 4, 5, or 6, you find that they speak English with more fluency. They are not as anxious as they would have been, maybe a few years ago or if they newly came to a school and they started speaking English.*

Other views related to speaking anxiety included the following:

- Educator E who teaches Grade one stated that in her class *it is very difficult to get them to speak in English.*
- Educator G who teaches Grade R argued that the learners who experience speaking anxiety are *especially those who have not been to preschools and crèches.*
- The fact that *in school we tend to focus on the way the English language is structured and since the English language is not similar to the IsiZulu language, learners do experience speaking anxiety.* This perception was stressed by Educator B who teaches Grade two.
- Educator A who teaches Grade three reported that *most of them do speak reasonably well...They are eager to give speeches and even eager to answer questions in English...Majority of the children cope very well with the language.*

From the researcher's experience of interviewing the learners from the four schools, none of them appeared to experience speaking anxiety. In fact they all were eager to be interviewed. On the other hand, Huimin's (2008) study (See 2.6.2) indicated that one of the causes of speaking anxiety arose from a fear of errors. This reflects the learners' apprehension at having to communicate in the L2 (See 2.6.2).

4.2.4.4 Reading anxiety

All the educators interviewed, with the exception of one (1) educator, revealed that IsiZulu-speaking learners do experience reading anxiety. Educators' views regarding reading were the following:

- Educator B: *You will notice that the IsiZulu-speakers will take longer to start...That sense of worry about whether they are going to start properly is evident in the way they handle the material in front of them...They definitely experience reading anxiety.*
- Educator C: *With reading there is a little greater anxiousness because they are bombarded with a foreign language...We know they are anxious when they are repeating the same words over and over...They are not able to move on to the next word.*
- Educator E: *Those who don't know the words battle and they are very anxious at reading time.*

However, Educator B emphasised that *over the years we are finding more and more that the IsiZulu-speaking learners are becoming confident and putting their hands up and saying: "Mam, I can read it, ask me"*

Educator E stressed that when the learners' parents assist them to learn their words; they have more confidence in reading. This was also reinforced by Educator D who maintained that parents do not motivate learners to read. If parents are supportive and encourage their children to read, reading anxiety will be reduced.

Educator A, who teaches Grade three, was of the opinion that most of them in his class read well. The above educator remarked:

- *I suppose because most of them have started in this school which is an English medium school from a very early age; from actually Grade R. So, by the time they come to Grade 3 and 4, you find that most of them read quiet fluently and without any anxiety.*

Reading in an L2 is anxiety provoking for some learners (See 2.6.2). Since learners in the foundation phase are asked to read aloud individually, in pairs or in groups, educators are able to easily identify the anxious L2 readers. The views expressed by Educators B, C, D, E, F and G are consistent with the findings of Saito et al. (1999) (See 2.6.2).

4.2.4.5 Learners' attitudes

The seven (7) educators interviewed concurred that IsiZulu-speaking learners have very positive attitudes towards learning English at school. The following were the participants' responses:

- Educator A: *I think that they are rather positive in embracing the language.*
- Educator C: *Because of the progress we are seeing with majority of them, I would say it's a positive attitude.*
- Educator G: *Positive attitudes. I think they are very eager to learn English.*
- Educator F: *The majority of them are accepting. The fact that their parents enrolled them here...they are interested in learning English as a language of communication.*
- Educator B: *If they have grasped the reason why they are here, they have a better attitude at handling it. If you have a learner that is already weak at the language then that child's attitude to learning English is obviously not going to be a very positive one.*

The educators' opinions re-affirmed the learners' views. During the interviews learners demonstrated their attitudes towards learning English. Their predominantly positive attitudes were conveyed in the manner in which they responded to the questions associated with the learning of English. Since attitudes are related to motivation, the learning of an L2 is dependent on the learner's willingness to identify with the culture of the target language and to incorporate aspects of the target language culture in his or her behaviour (See 2.6.2). This is consistent with the acculturation process of integration (See 2.6.1). Thus, this study revealed that learners are motivated to learn English.

4.2.4.6 Psychological distress

From the educators' perspectives it was reported that psychological distress is experienced:

- Educator A: *Only with children where language is a barrier.*
- Educator D: *Because of their backgrounds. Some of them are orphans. They don't stay with their parents, so they don't get support.*
- Educator E: *By learners who are left entirely to fend for themselves.*
- Educator F: *Especially by those who have a poor grasp of the language.*

Thus, in the context of this study it can be tentatively inferred that a relationship between second language competence and psychological distress exists. This implies that if an IsiZulu-speaking learner has achieved BICS (See 2.4.1.1) and CALP (See 2.4.1.2) in English then it is very unlikely that he or she will experience psychological distress. This study has also indicated that there is a relationship between parental support and psychological distress. If there is a lack of parental support, then learners are suffering emotionally in school.

4.2.4.7 Integrative motivation

Seven (7) learners indicated that they want to learn English because they strongly identify with and wish to become part of its associated culture. The integratively motivated learners' responses were:

- Learner 11: *I want to be a (an) English person...I don't want to be like a Zulu person. I like to grow up and be a teacher like my teacher – my English teacher.*
- Learner 2: *I feel happy when I learn English.*
- Learner 8: *It's good to learn English.*
- Learner 23: *It's nice to learn English.*
- Learner 18: *I want to talk English every day.*
- Learner 9: *I want to learn English because when I grow up there are lots of things written in English...Some are written in Zulu, but most are written in English.*
- Learner 15: *I must speak English to white people.*

Many studies have documented that integratively motivated learners tend to be higher achievers than instrumentally motivated ones (See 2.6.2). However, additional research on integrative motivation and academic performance in an L2 is required.

4.2.4.8 Instrumental motivation

The instrumentally motivated learners forcefully highlighted the need for them to learn the English language. Their views reinforced the practical value of English. Their responses were:

- Learner 26: *I like to learn English so it can help me when I'm growing up.*
- Learner 13: *Because lots of people write in English and when I grow up I want to be a teacher.*
- Learner 6: *Because when I'm growing up – when I go to work I will work with those people who are talking English.*

Although Gardner (1997) advocates integrative motivation for success in an L2, Ellis (2000) emphasises that in some cases an instrumental motivation seems to be a major force in determining success in an L2 (See 2.6.2). Thus, further research on instrumental motivation and academic performance in an L2 is recommended.

4.2.4.9 Learner Confidence

Learners generally displayed confidence when they responded to the question: When you don't understand what your teacher is saying what do you do? Their responses included the following:

- Learner 9: *I put my hand up. I ask again. Then she explains it somehow in Zulu and then I come to understand it.*
- Learner 3: *I go and say to mam: I don't understand this and this.*
- Learner 2: *I go and ask that I can't understand what you are saying.*
- Learner 27: *I will put my hand up and ask my teacher.*
- Learner 14: *I say: excuse me mam.*

The fact that these learners portrayed such confidence implies that they do not experience speaking anxiety (See 2.6.2). On the contrary, 13 learners expressed their fear of making mistakes when they speak English in class (See 4.2.4.3). This suggests the possibility of speaking anxiety.

4.2.5 Cognitive factors

4.2.5.1 Errors in learners' speeches

During the interviews it was noticed that Learners 16, 15, 7, 17, 20, and 8 experience difficulties with pronouns. They used the pronoun "him" to refer to their teachers who are females. Examples include:

- *"I ask him."* (Learner 16's and 17's teachers are females.)
- *"I told him." "I understand him."* (Learner 15's teacher is a female.)
- *"I'm going to ask him."* (Learners 7's teacher is a female.)
- *"Ask him."* (Learner 20's teacher is a female.)
- *"I ask him what thing I don't know."* (Learner 8's teacher is a female.)

Landsberg and Dednam (1999:185) maintain that English second language speakers experience difficulties in aspects of English that do not cause difficulties for English speakers. They also experience difficulties that are similar to those experienced by English speakers. Not only do they make the same mistakes when they speak English, they also make more mistakes. These authors report that English second language learners find pronouns very

difficult and they often confuse them. This study concurs with the above authors' comments.

4.2.5.2 Ability to speak English

Educators rated the ability to speak English of majority of the IsiZulu-speaking learners in their classes as satisfactory to good. The responses elicited from educators were:

- Educator B felt that *learners have upgraded themselves from about five years to now. The media has been having a big influence and have been helping us. Parents are more conversant in English in their homes...I think it's getting good.*
- Educator C stated that *speaking the language is good.*

However, Educators A and B believed that pronunciation of words in English may be a problem as a result of accent. Also, grammar, expression, and implied (figurative) language may be problematic. These educator's views illuminated the typical difficulties experienced by English second language learners (See 2.6.3)

4.2.5.3 Ability to understand oral English

Educators rated the ability to understand oral English of majority of the IsiZulu-speaking learners in their classes as relatively good. Participants' responses were:

- Educator A: *They do understand when you speak English.*
- Educator B: *I think that they are better at understanding the oral. They are better at understanding an instruction.*
- Educator E: *They pick up the key words and they understand.*
- Educator G: *The majority understand English quite well.*

The understanding of oral English can be related to Krashen's Comprehensible Input (See 2.4.2 d). In order to acquire an L2, the learner must be able to understand what is said to him or her. Thus, from the above views it can be inferred that IsiZulu-speaking learners do receive sufficient comprehensible

input from their teachers, thus making understanding easier. This means that learners receive input that is appropriate to their age and language level.

4.2.5.4 Ability to understand written English

All the educators rated the ability to understand written English of majority of the IsiZulu-speaking learners in their classes as poor to satisfactory. The following views were obtained from educators:

- Educator A: *The English language is not an easy language. There is some grammar, construction of sentences; meanings sometimes are not always the same. So, you find that they do have a little difficulty... It also depends on the passage that's been given. It has to be at their level. If it has difficult words or words that they are not familiar with, then they will have difficulty.*
- Educator C: *With comprehension, we tend to have a problem... I would say it's fair.*
- Educator D: *They don't understand the written English.*
- Educator B: *I would say that's poor.*

The learners and educators views regarding difficulty in reading were analogous (See 4.2.5.5). Thus, if learners are rated poorly in reading they will definitely experience difficulties understanding the written English. This points to the “butterfly effect” proposed by the proponents of the DST approach (See 2.4.3).

4.2.5.5 Ability to read English sentences and books

Learners viewed reading as cognitively challenging; especially reading words that they are not familiar with. Learner 9's response was:

- *It's to say (read) words that you didn't learn.*

The learners' subjective views about reading are consistent with the educators' opinions.

All the educators with the exception of Educator C rated the ability to read English sentences and books of majority of the IsiZulu-speaking learners in their classes as poor to satisfactory. Educator A felt that if the books in English are simple and at the learners' levels, they will be able to cope with reading. Educator D maintained that parents are not motivating their children to read books and as a result learners find it difficult to keep up with the pace while reading. In addition, Educator E stated that if learners learn the prescribed words that they are given to take home, then they read easily. If they do not learn their words they battle to read. Educator B's response was:

- *The majority will be the ones that are struggling a bit... Over the years it has improved but still there is a lot of room for improvement...The moment I ask them to read, they are afraid that they will make a mistake.*

On the other hand, Educator B asserted that:

- *IsiZulu-speaking learners who have assimilated and grasped the language concepts over the last few years; are proficient in the language. Their reading ability is fine. They are confident. They can read. However, this would be the minority.*

Unfamiliar scripts and unfamiliar cultural material may result in learners becoming anxious about reading (See 2.6.2). This anxiety as well as their increased perceptions of the difficulty of reading in their L2 contributes to their poor reading performance (See 2.6.2).

4.2.5.6 Ability to write in English

Fifteen (15) learners (Learners 2, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 17, 18, 21, 22, 23, 24, and 27) indicated that writing is the most difficult for them. Reference here is made to sentence construction (writing of sentences and stories) focusing on spelling and grammar. Learners' experiences and the educators' views are congruent in this respect.

All the educators rated the ability to write sentences and stories in English of majority of the IsiZulu-speaking learners in their classes as poor to satisfactory. When expressive language is related to the effective

communication of experiences and meanings by means of writing, it was found that IsiZulu-speaking learners experience barriers. Educators' comments were:

- Educator A: *They are not as competent in writing as perhaps speaking or reading. Writing takes a little bit more skill, especially in sentence construction and grammar...There is a difficulty in expressing themselves in writing.*
- Educator B: *Writing sentences are their biggest problem...They will copy all the words down without writing the sentences.*
- Educator C: *It is very understandable what they are writing but if you are looking for pure syntax and grammar, that's when we have a problem.*
- Educator D: *Sometimes they make many mistakes – spelling mistakes.*
- Educator E: *Writing sentences – poor.*

It was found that since writing requires more skill, learners generally experience difficulty in sentence construction. Educator B explicitly described the process of writing. She maintained that:

- *Writing is the highest order of any language because when you write it combines every other skill that is involved in that language.*

The activity of writing requires of the writer certain motor and other basic skills such as handwriting, letter forming and basic knowledge of spelling (Landsberg and Dednam 1999:147). Since writing is the most complex form of communication learners were rated poorly in this regard.

4.2.5.7 Ability to acquire information in content areas

Six (6) educators (Educators A, B, C, D, F, and G) rated the ability to acquire information in content areas (such as Numeracy and Life Skills) of majority of the IsiZulu-speaking learners in their classes as satisfactory. Educators A and B felt that majority of the learners are able to grasp concepts such as addition and subtraction. Educator B stated that *some of them are very numerate*. However, problem solving is an area of concern. Educator B also affirmed that the ability of majority of the IsiZulu-speaking learners in her class to

acquire information in content areas is *hindered by their ability not to understand the instruction*. This statement was supported by Educator C who stated that *their proficiency in understanding is a bit limited*.

On the other hand, Educator A suggested that if learners are given problems that are related to their social context, they will find problem solving much easier. Thus, the process of scaffolding will assist in providing learners with the support needed for them to succeed in challenging work and to achieve the Zone of Proximal Development (See 2.4.4)

With regard to Life Skills, Educators A and B's responses were, respectively:

- *I think in my experience many of them do well – as long as it is taught in a way with a lot of practical illustrations.*
- *They have the aspects of Life Orientation put in place.*

The concept of “complete interconnectedness” that is emphasised by the proponents of the DST approach (See 2.4.3) is evident when learners who experience language barriers are required to learn through the medium of English. *If the child is having a problem with IsiZulu...with his own language; I can very likely think that he will have a problem with the second language, which is English.* The above view by Educator B reflects the “butterfly effect” (See 2.4.3).

4.2.5.8 Language barrier versus general learning problem

Educators believed that some of the IsiZulu-speaking learners in their classes experience difficulties because they have a language barrier while others who experience difficulties have a general learning problem. Educators' comments were:

- Educator A: *It's a small cohort of them that might have difficulties in learning because of a language barrier.*
- Educator B: *I think they have a general learning problem. Firstly, the ones who have a general learning problem; you find it in other areas as well...But if a child came to Grade one without learning any English, that*

child is battling. That would be a language barrier. That child is going to take that much longer to grasp the concepts in Grade one and will always be at the bottom of that group – will be lagging behind right through the foundation phase.

- Educator C: *I would say a language barrier. They are proficient in one language and when they come to school you find that we are teaching another language.*
- Educator D: *In some cases it is language. In other cases it's just a general learning problem.*
- Educator E: *More of a language barrier.*

Learners who have general learning problems will experience difficulties in all the learning areas. This reflects the “butterfly effect” (See 2.4.3). On the other hand, learners may experience difficulties because they have a language barrier (See 1.7.5).

4.2.5.9 Difficulties in communicating concerns and viewpoints

Educators expressed contrasting opinions with regard to the communication of concerns and viewpoints by IsiZulu-speaking learners. Educator A felt that this problem was not specific to a language group. Educator A said that he has had experiences where IsiZulu-speaking learners would often come and express their concerns about a certain issue that they do not understand. A Grade R educator (Educator G) stated that if the learners in her class cannot express their concerns in English; they do express them in IsiZulu.

Contrasting views include the following:

- Educator B: *I tend to notice that they are a little bit inhibitant. They rather sort the problem out themselves in their own way. Maybe they can't express themselves or they don't have the words to express it...I think that they tend to be worried that they are not going to communicate their concerns properly, and mam might not understand it.*

- Educator C: *They are a bit on the quiet side when it comes to expressing their viewpoints. Maybe it's a communication problem. Maybe they don't know how to put forth what they want to say.*
- Educator E: *They experience difficulties, but they cannot communicate it.*

Dao et al. (2007) mentions that one of the unique challenges facing L2 learners is the difficulties in communicating concerns and viewpoints (See 2.6.3). This is consistent with the views of Educators B, C, and E.

4.2.5.10 Learner satisfaction with academic performance

All the twenty seven (27) learners interviewed expressed their satisfaction with the work they are doing in the classroom. Some of their responses were:

- Learners 2, 3, 6, and 12: *I feel happy.*
- Learner 4: *I feel good.*
- Learner 9: *I feel nice. I like to write. I like to read. It's good to learn English.*
- Learner 11: *I feel nice.*
- Learner 15: *I'm feeling happy.*

Although all the learners were happy with their academic progress, Learners 1, 3, 5, 8, 9, 11, 14, 18, 21, 24, and 27 felt that they would perform better in their school work if they were taught in IsiZulu. This was also emphasised by Educator C who stated that IsiZulu-speaking learners would definitely do better if they were taught in their primary language. Unfortunately for these learners; they will have to gain more language proficiency (See 2.4.1.2) each year than their English speaking peers in order to catch up and close the gap. Thus, IsiZulu-speaking learners will have to learn English through socially mediated activities (See 2.4.4). This means that these learners will require access to or participation in the learning community, and an immense amount of mediation by experts and peers (See 2.4.4).

Overall, the cognitive factors that impact on the ESL learner in the English medium school could be related to Universal Grammar. Within the framework

of UG and in the context of this study, it can be deduced that the innate capacity for L1 language acquisition may or may not continue to be available for L2. Educator B mentioned:

- *There are learners who are born linguistically gifted and there are many IsiZulu-speaking learners who are born with that innate ability. What stands in their way, is that they may not have the necessary foundation; so learning gets a little slower. Maybe, by the time they come to Grade 3 and senior primary they tend to be much into the mainstream.*

Also, if L1 learners are enrolled in English medium schools after the critical period for L2 acquisition has elapsed; they will most definitely experience language barriers (See 2.5).

4.2.6 Unique barriers

4.2.6.1 The unique barriers that are experienced by IsiZulu-speaking learners and not by English-speaking learners:

- ❖ The medium of instruction

IsiZulu-speaking learners are not being taught in their primary language. They are learning through the medium of English which is still fairly new to them. English is foreign to some of these learners. Thus, learning through the medium of an L2 will imply that IsiZulu-speaking learners will experience cognitive deficits (See 2.3).

- ❖ Limited vocabulary and grammar

The interviews with Educators A, C, and D revealed that IsiZulu-speaking learners have very little or no exposure to the English language at home. Also the quality of limited English exposure at home is not conducive to English language acquisition. According to Educator A, IsiZulu-speaking learners do not have enough opportunities to use the English language in conversations at home. This implies that IsiZulu-speaking learners do not have sufficient

interaction and involvement with more competent English-speaking persons such as parents. As a result they do not have access to models of language structure in their home environment. Educators A and E felt that a lack of reading has also contributed to their limited vocabulary.

IsiZulu-speaking learners experience difficulties with the choice of words in the construction of sentences. The use of pronouns is seen as a major problem. This was also evident during the interviews. When learners were asked questions, they used the pronoun “him” when referring to their teachers who are females. The pronoun “she” is also used incorrectly by many IsiZulu-speaking learners. They tend to use the pronoun “she” to refer to both males and females. This may be attributed to the fact that the indigenous languages do not have the pronouns he, him, she, and her to indicate gender. In IsiZulu, they use only the word “yena”. The gender of the person is inferred from the sentence. The following type of mistake is therefore commonly made in sentences: “The man she drives a taxi.”

❖ Limited ability to understand

As a result of the lack of exposure to the English language, Educators A and C believed that IsiZulu-speaking learners have difficulty in understanding certain words and concepts in English. Learners do not understand the messages they hear because they are unfamiliar with the vocabulary used. Thus, their receptive English language abilities are limited to a certain degree. However, it is important to remember that learning content is more meaningful when they relate to learners’ personal lives and cultural backgrounds (See 2.6.1).

❖ Distance travelled to school

The fact that many IsiZulu-speaking learners travel long distances to school impacts on their learning. In some instances, children wake up at 5am and sometimes at 4am to be at school by 7:45am. These children usually showed signs of fatigue, which manifested as poor concentration in the classroom.

Educator A mentioned that in some cases these learners fall off to sleep during lessons. The fact that schools accept learners from far-outlying areas must be considered against the background of changing political conditions in South Africa.

According to Educator B, another factor related to the long distances learners travel to school is the fact that *many learners don't understand why they cannot attend the school that is right on their doorstep, and yet come to this school; because they are not given clear directives by their parents.*

The above was also evident in an interview conducted with Learner 12. The learner stated that his grandmother had asked his mother to enroll him in an English medium school. His mother had not explained to him why he could not attend a school that is closer to his home and why he had to be enrolled in an English medium school. This could result in the development of negative feelings in learners.

4.2.6.2 A unique barrier that is experienced by educators who teach IsiZulu-speaking learners is:

❖ Communication

There is sometimes a problem in communication. Educators are not a hundred percent certain that the learners understand what they are saying. For example, the use of figurative language; Educator A affirmed that *learners would not be able to understand the implied meaning, unless the figure of speech is explained...Even a cynical or sarcastic remark will not be understood by the child.* The learner will look at it literally.

Educators voiced their concerns regarding code-switching. They felt that it was problematic since many educators are not proficient in IsiZulu. Educators' comments with regard to code-switching were:

- Educator A: *If you feel that a child doesn't understand, the teacher will have some difficulty in switching to Zulu and explaining in IsiZulu.*
- Educator B: *Many of the teachers in our school can't speak Zulu. Also, sometimes you will understand the need to code-switch. You would not know how much of it is damaging to the lesson. How often do you code-switch? When will you do it?*
- Educator F: *Our lack of fluency in IsiZulu. We are not familiar with the IsiZulu language.*
- Educator G: *I think that some teachers, especially those that do not know the language feel that they cannot cope with some of the IsiZulu-speaking learners.*

However, Educator C argued that *if you are teaching English it is not necessary for you to be proficient in IsiZulu.* The above educator felt that the fact that many educators are not proficient in IsiZulu should not impact on teaching IsiZulu-speaking learners in English medium schools.

The qualitative component consisted of learner and educator interviews. It is possible that parent interviews would have provided disparate results. In an attempt to compensate for this shortcoming; survey questionnaires were distributed to the parents of IsiZulu-speaking learners from the four schools.

4.3 QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

This section provides illustrations, interpretations, and discussion of data. The data was collected via questionnaires. The survey questionnaires were used to obtain a good perspective on the reasons for the parents of IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners choosing to enroll their children in English medium schools.

This form of accessing information supplied sufficient data to assess the views and opinions of the parents of IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners. Analysis was done by means of frequencies, distributions, and percentages that were supported by pie graphs, bar graphs, line graphs, and tables.

Data will be presented under the following headings:

- ❖ Biographical data
- ❖ Parents' reasons for enrolling their children in English medium schools
- ❖ Parents' views regarding their children's performances in English

4.3.1 Illustrations and interpretations of findings

Ninety four (94) questionnaires were administered to the subjects in all four schools and eighty nine (89) questionnaires were returned.

4.3.1.1 Biographical data

This section provides illustrations and discussion on the biographical data presented in this study using frequencies and percentages. This section comprises of Section A of the questionnaire which solicited subject's gender, age, grade, occupation, level of education, and residential environment.

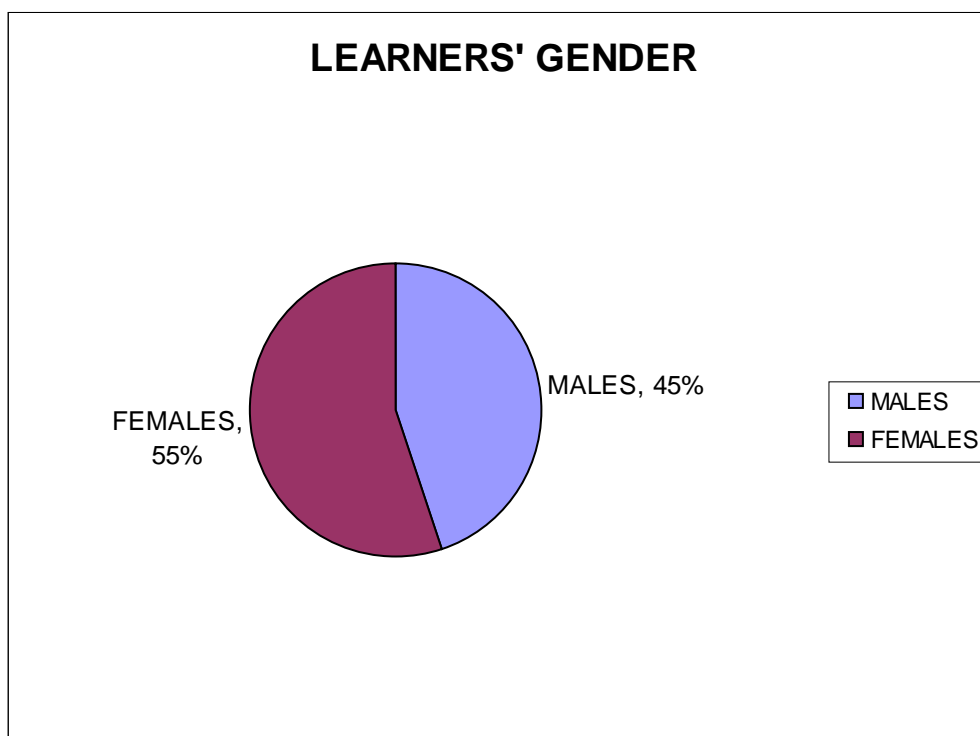


Figure 4.1 Figure showing percentages according to learners' gender

The target sample consisted of forty five (45) male learners and forty nine (49) female learners, but the parents of only forty (40) male learners and forty nine (49) female learners completed and returned the questionnaires. The figure above indicates that majority of the learners (55%) included in this sample are female learners with (45%) being male learners.

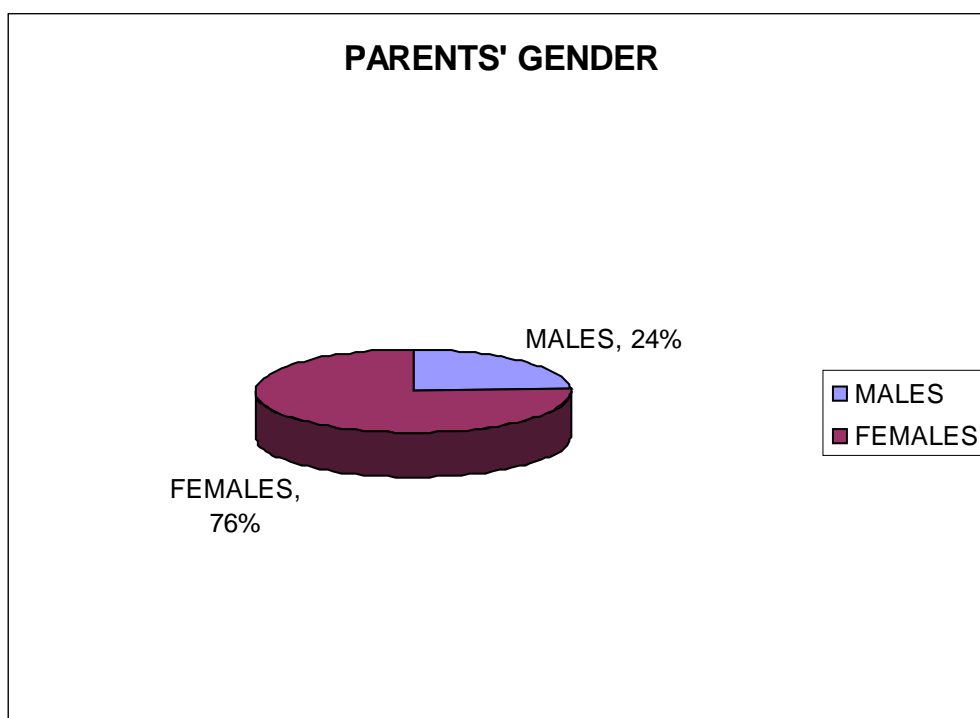


Figure 4.2 Figure illustrating percentages according to parents' gender

The above figure shows that majority of the parent respondents in the sample are females since they constitute 68 (76%) of the sample of 89. The remaining 21 (24%) of the respondents are males. This means that more female parents were involved in completing the questionnaires. The observation here is that the questionnaires, when taken home were given to the female caregivers (See 1.7.8) of the learners. Another implication could be that many of the learners in the sample do not live with their fathers. A further observation could be that many fathers did not show any interest in completing the questionnaires.

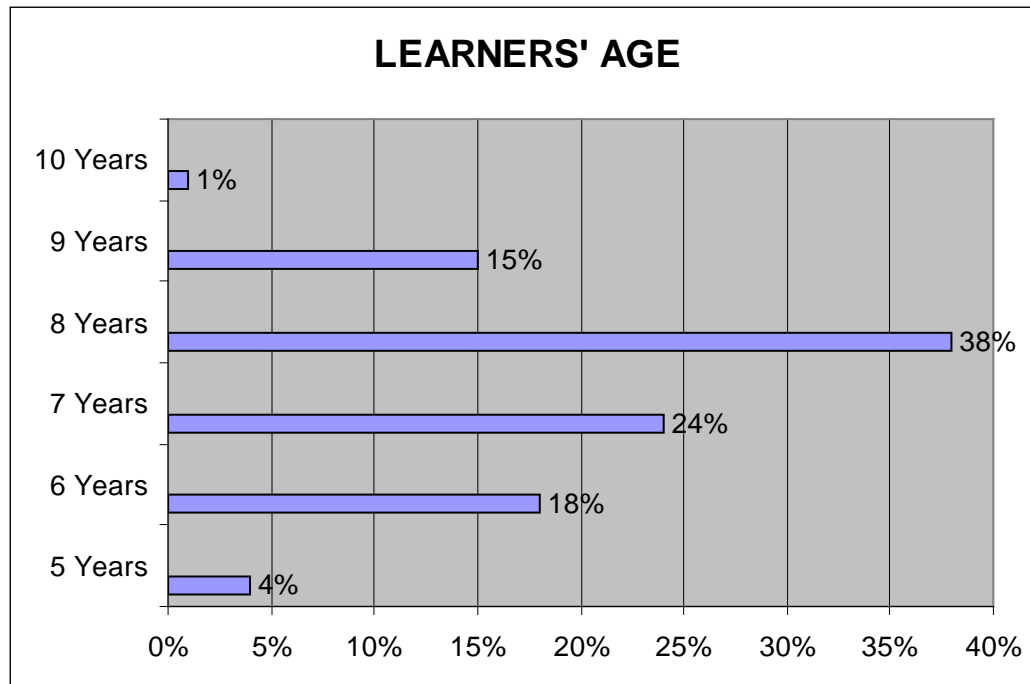


Figure 4.3 Figure showing percentages according to learners' age

The figure above depicts that majority, 34 (38%); of the learners are 8 years old. Of the remaining 55 learners; 4 (4%) are 5 years, 16 (18%) are 6 years, 21 (24%) are 7 years, 13 (15%) are 9 years, and 1 (1%) is 10 years.

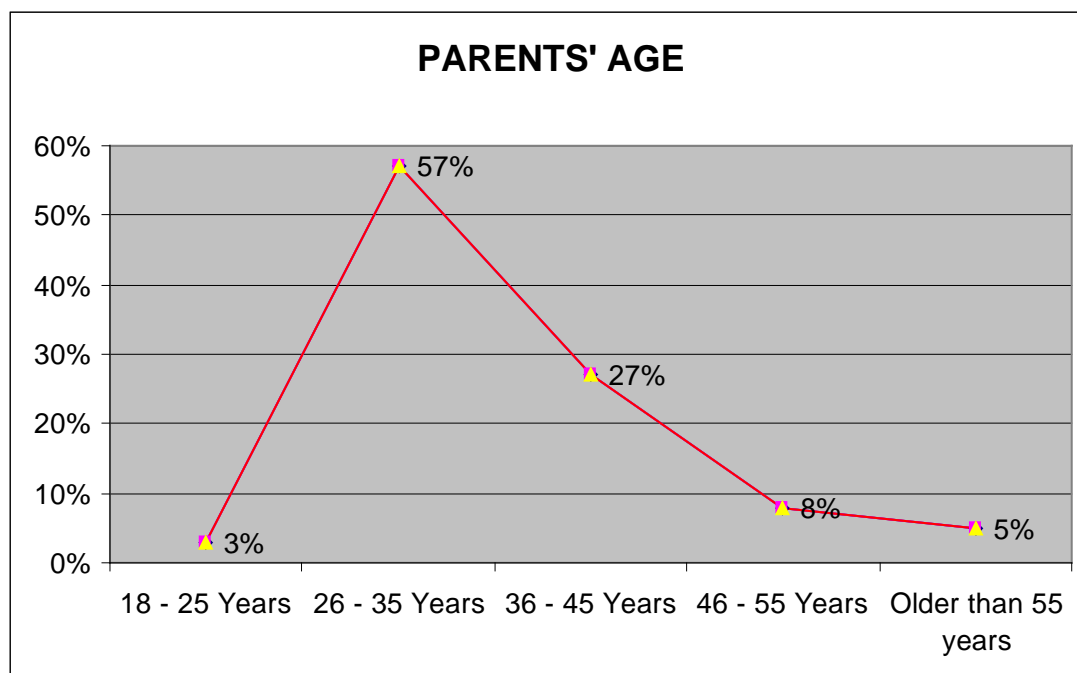


Figure 4.4 Figure showing percentages according to parents' age

The above illustration provides a wide variation in the ages of the eighty nine (89) parents. Fifty one (57%) parents are between the ages of 26 to 35 years. 4 (5%) parents have indicated that they are older than 55 years. Of the remaining 34 respondents, 3 (3%) parents are between the ages of 18 and 25 years, 24 (27%) parents are between the ages of 36 and 45 years, and 7 (8%) parents are between 46 and 55 years.

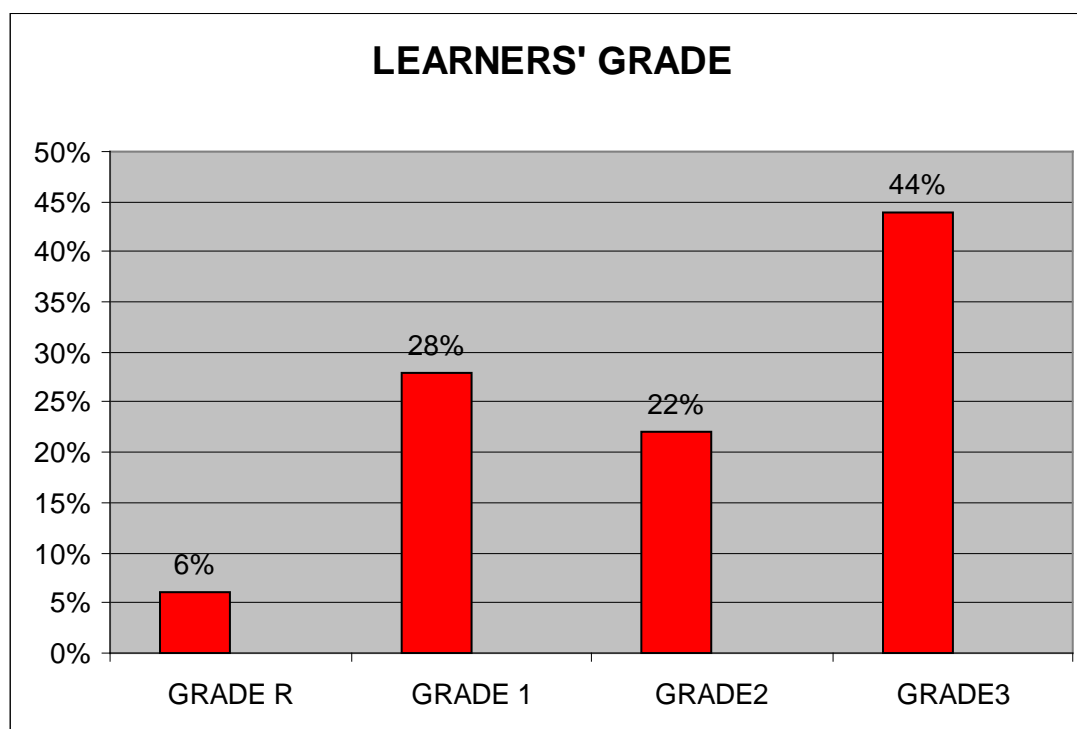


Figure 4.5 Figure showing percentages according to learners' grade

The above depiction reflects that 39 (44%) of the learners in the sample are in Grade 3. Five (6%); 25 (28%); and 20 (22%) learners are in Grades R, 1, and, 2 respectively.

Table 4.3: Respondents indicating their occupations

OCCUPATION	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Unemployed	18	20
Housekeeper/gardener/labourer/cleaner	13	15

Vendor/informal trader/self-employed	6	7
Secretary/clerk/receptionist/typist/sales	18	20
Security officer/police/traffic officer	8	9
Teacher/nurse/social worker	16	18
Doctor/engineer/accountant/computer programmer	1	1
Businessman/businesswoman	1	1
Other (Machinist)	8	9
Total	89	100

This distribution, although not at all representative of any particular geographical area, or of the IsiZulu-speaking population whose second language is English, nevertheless reflects some interesting trends. The high proportion of unemployed parents (20%) may reflect the poor living conditions of several IsiZulu-speaking learners, but this deduction needs to be validated against the occupations of the entire IsiZulu-speaking population whose second language is English. Also, the high proportion of clerical workers may reflect the socio-economic status of the respondents.

The professional group is also relatively high with 18% of the sample indicating their occupations as teachers, nurses, and social workers. The category of housekeeper/gardener/labourer/cleaner also represents a high frequency (13). However, occupations such as doctors, engineers, accountants, and computer programmers that are representative of a higher income bracket appear to be very rare in the sample, with a frequency of 1. Another rare occupation in the sample which presents a frequency of 1 is “businessman” or “businesswoman”. Eight (8) respondents fell into the category of security officer/police/traffic officer. Also, 8 parents have selected the “other” category. The remaining category (vendor/informal trader/self-employed) consisted of seven (7) subjects.

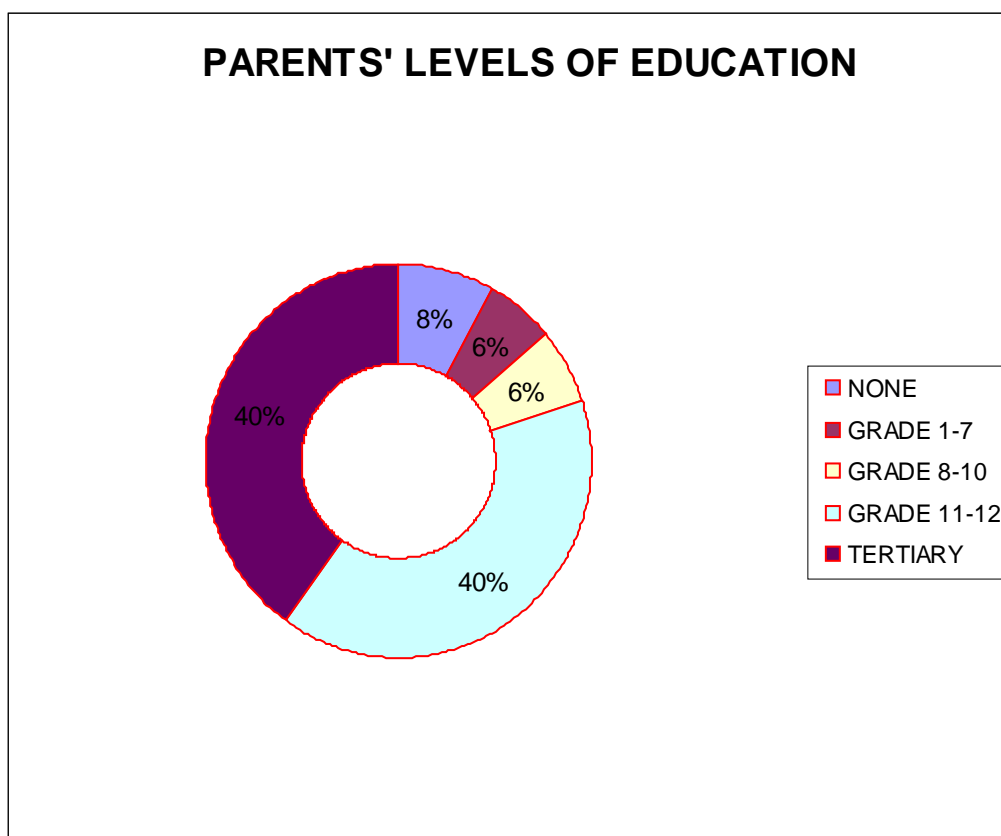


Figure 4.6 Figure showing parents' levels of education

These findings indicate that not all parents (17) have completed Grade 12. The figure above reflects that 36 (40%) of the parents have completed tertiary education. Also, 36 (40%) of the parents have completed Grade 11 or 12. Of the remaining 17 respondents, 5 (6%) have completed schooling between Grades 1 and 7; 5 (6%) parents have completed schooling between Grades 8 and 10; while 7 (8%) parents have had no schooling at all. The question of whether parents' level of education impacts on their decision to enroll their children in English medium schools and on their children's performance in English at school, demands further research. Nevertheless, the fact that 40% of the parents have completed tertiary education suggests that parents' levels of education could have an impact on their decision to enroll their children in English medium schools.

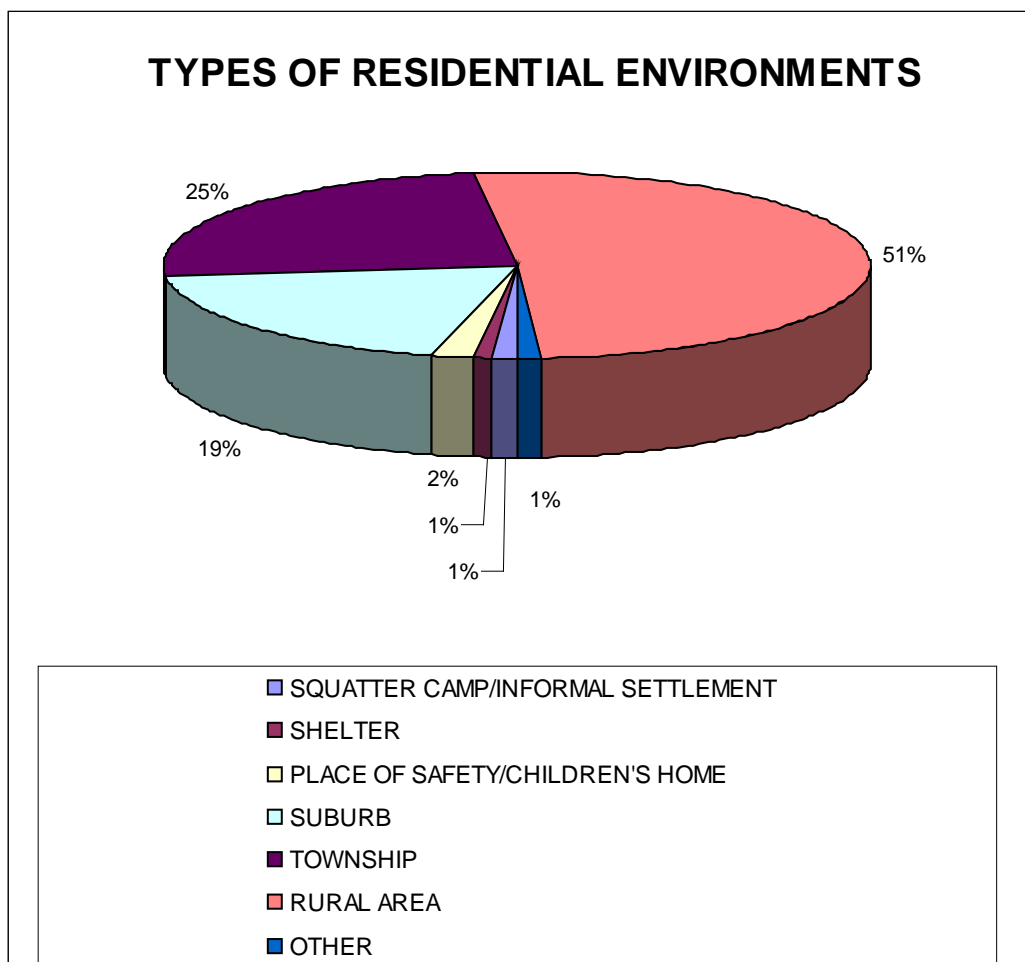


Figure 4.7 Figure showing types of residential environments

The illustration above reflects that majority of the respondents (45) (51%) live in rural areas. Twenty two (25%) respondents live in townships, while 17 (19%) respondents live in suburbs. Two (2%) respondents have indicated place of safety/children's home as their residential environment. Each of the remaining 3 categories consisted of 1 (1%) respondent. Although learners' residential environments could affect their English language development and thus, their overall achievement at school, further validation focusing specifically on residential environment and English language development is required. The fact that majority of the respondents live in rural areas requires us to question whether the environment in which these learners grow up contributes to promoting and expanding their knowledge of English.

4.3.1.2 Scaled responses: parents' reasons for enrolling their children in English medium schools

This section provides illustrations and interpretations of parents' reasons for enrolling their children in English medium schools, using frequencies and percentages. The descriptive statistics of the results are presented as follows:

For the purpose of this study, the following responses were combined. Strongly disagree and disagree combined to form disagree; don't know remained as a category on its own; and agree and strongly agree combined to form agree. This reduction in categories assisted in the analysis and interpretation of data.

Table 4.4

Respondents choosing to enroll their children in English medium schools because English is an international language

	Frequency	Percentage
Disagree	6	6,7
Don't know	1	1.1
Agree	82	92,1
Total	89	100

An overwhelming majority of respondents, eighty two (92,1%) have indicated that they chose to enroll their children in English medium schools because English is an international language. This is probably because of the dominance and the increasing expansion of the English language throughout the world (See 2.2).

Table 4.5

Respondents choosing to enroll their children in English medium schools because English is perceived as a language of development

	Frequency	Percentage
Disagree	7	7,9
Don't know	9	10,1
Agree	73	82
Total	89	100

According to table 4.5 a significant number of parents, 73 (82%), indicated that they chose to enroll their children in English medium schools because English is perceived as a language of development. In many parts of the world parents seem to be choosing English medium education whenever it is available (Garcia, Skutnabb-Kangas & Torres-Guzmán 2006:39). Garcia et al. (2006:40) quotes Skutnabb-Kangas (2000) who refers to English as the “world’s most important killer language” and Cummins (2006:51-52) reinforces the “destructive influence” of English when he reports that “the general populations in the contexts as disparate as Hong Kong, India, South Africa, and throughout Europe accurately see English as associated with upward social and economic mobility, and demand that schools assign top priority to the teaching of English”. Edwards and Newcombe (2006: 140) reinforces that in South Africa and other African countries fluency in an international lingua franca is associated with ‘being educated’, a pre-requisite for upward social mobility.

A minority of 7 (7,9%) the respondents disagreed with the above statement, and 9 (10,1%) respondents indicated “don’t know”.

Table 4.6

Respondents choosing to enroll their children in English medium schools because English is an important language in South Africa

	Frequency	Percentage
Disagree	7	7,9
Don't know	4	4,5
Agree	78	87,6
Total	89	100

When respondents were asked whether they chose to enroll their children in English medium schools because English is an important language in South Africa, 78 (87,6%) parents affirmed this while 7 (7,9%) answered in the negative, and 4 (4,5%) stated “don't know”. My literature study has elucidated the importance of the English language in South Africa. English, being the most widely used additional language in South Africa is also promoted by the government for various reasons (See 2.2). The prominence of English in South Africa thus encourages more citizens to learn the language.

Table 4.7

Respondents choosing to enroll their children in English medium schools because they want their children to learn more than one language

	Frequency	Percentage
Disagree	1	1,1
Don't know	5	5,6
Agree	83	93,3
Total	89	100

It was not surprising to note that 83 (93,3%) parents reflected that they wanted their children to learn more than one language. Only 1 (1,1%) parent disagreed and 5 (5,6%) parents were unsure. Bilingualism and multilingualism are conceived as valuable resources for South Africa (See 2.3). This means that being fluent in more than one language is advantageous for South Africans. However, the advantages of bilingualism appear to take effect in an additive bilingual environment (See 2.3).

Table 4.8

Respondents choosing to enroll their children in English medium schools because they want their children to speak English fluently

	Frequency	Percentage
Disagree	1	1.1
Don't know	4	4,5
Agree	84	94,4
Total	89	100

According to the table 84 (94,4%) parents denoted that they enrolled their children in English medium schools because they wanted their children to speak English fluently. These parents implicitly indicated that they avoided the schools in the townships and rural areas because IsiZulu is the medium of communication there. An educator who was interviewed also emphasised that IsiZulu-speaking parents wanted their children to learn the English language well. Four (4,5%) parents maintained a neutral view, while only 1 (1,1%) parent disagreed.

Table 4.9

Respondents choosing to enroll their children in English medium schools because their homes are close to the English medium schools

	Frequency	Percentage
Disagree	46	51,7
Don't know	9	10,1
Agree	34	38,2
Total	89	100

Majority of the parents, 46 (51,7%), asserted that their choice to enroll their children in English medium schools is not related to the distance between their homes and the English medium schools. Supposedly, these learners travel long distance to schools because they want to learn the English language. However, a high percentage, 34 (38,2%), of the parents pointed out that they chose to enroll their children in English mediums schools because their homes are close to the schools. Nine (10,1%) parents indicated “don’t know”.

Table 4.10

Respondents choosing to enroll their children in English medium schools because the English medium schools are near their workplaces

	Frequency	Percentage
Disagree	41	46
Don’t know	11	12,4
Agree	37	41,6
Total	89	100

The above findings reflect that 41 (46%) parents’ choice to enroll their children in English medium schools is not related to the distance between their work places and the English medium schools, whereas 37 (41,6%) parents chose to enroll their children in either one of the four English medium schools because the schools are close to their places of work. This could also be related to convenience and transport. A minority of 11 (12,4%) indicated “don’t know”. This study suggests that for 41 parents the distance between the parents’ places of work and the English medium schools did not impact on their decision to enroll their children in English medium schools. The inference here is that these parents want their children to learn English.

Table 4.11

Respondents choosing to enroll their children in English medium schools because someone they know told them to enroll their children in English medium schools

	Frequency	Percentage
Disagree	64	72
Don't know	6	6,7
Agree	19	21,3
Total	89	100

A large number of parents, 64 (72%), disagreed that the reason for enrolling their children in English medium schools is because someone they know told them to enroll their children in English medium schools, whereas 19 (21,3%) indicated that someone they know told them to enroll their children in English medium schools. Only 6 (6,7%) parents were uncertain.

Table 4.12

Respondents choosing to enroll their children in English medium schools because they live in an area where most of the people speak English

	Frequency	Percentage
Disagree	52	58,4
Don't know	7	7,9
Agree	30	33,7
Total	89	100

A great number of subjects, 52 (58,4%), disagreed that the reason for enrolling their children in English medium schools is because they live in areas where most people speak English. This is probably because these parents want their

children to learn English at school, since they are not exposed to the language in their home environment. This could also be related to the linguistic landscape of these learners; since in some cases the dominant language of the community is likely to be used more often in place names or commercial signs while the English language is not as common.

Thirty (33,7%) subjects indicated that their decision to enroll their children in English medium schools was influenced by the areas in which they live; where most people speak English. The supposition here is that these respondents are influenced by the dominant language in their communities. A small number of 7 (7,9%) parents reflected a sense of uncertainty.

Table 4.13

Respondents choosing to enroll their children in English medium schools because learning English at school will help their children to get better jobs

	Frequency	Percentage
Disagree	14	15,7
Don't know	10	11,2
Agree	65	73
Total	89	100

These scores illustrate that 65 (73%) parents felt that learning English at school will help their children to get better jobs. Educator A, who was interviewed, also felt that parents wanted their children to attend English medium schools because they will have better career opportunities. This points to instrumental motivation being a crucial factor in selecting the most appropriate schools for admission. Ten (11,2) responses were “don't know”. The minority of respondents, 14 (15,7), indicated that learning English at school will not help their children to get better jobs.

Table 4.14

Respondents choosing to enroll their children in English medium schools because learning English at school will help their children to continue their studies at universities

	Frequency	Percentage
Disagree	7	7,9
Don't know	4	4,5
Agree	78	87,6
Total	89	100

The above table denotes that a great majority, 78 (87,6%), of the parents believed that learning English at school will help their children to continue their studies at universities. This may be attributed to the fact that the medium of instruction in most of the universities in South Africa is English, and also most examinations at universities are written in English. The majority of the parents thus, place their primary interest and emphasis on preparing their children for universities in South Africa and/or abroad. The above statement was also affirmed by an educator interviewee. He stated that *parents want their children to learn English because they see English as a key to getting to good universities.*

Since most of the indigenous languages have not incorporated the vast array of western scientific words and concepts (Landsberg & Dednam 1999:187); there is a possibility of the belief that such schools would hinder their children's aspirations to enter tertiary education and the mainstream economy.

Only 7 (7,9%) parents felt that learning English at school will not help their children to continue their studies at universities. It is possible that these 7 parents do not intend sending their children to universities. Four (4,5%) parents were unsure.

Table 4.15

Respondents choosing to enroll their children in English medium schools because learning English at school will help their children to continue their studies abroad

	Frequency	Percentage
Disagree	10	11,2
Don't know	16	18
Agree	63	70,8
Total	89	100

These findings reflect that a large number of parents, 63 (70,8%), agreed that learning English at school will help their children to continue their studies abroad. A small number, 10 (11,2%), displayed their disagreement, while 16 (18%) parents were uncertain.

The results of tables 4.13, 4.14, and 4.15 demonstrates that majority of the parents' views were strongly influenced by instrumental motivation (See 2.6.2).

Table 4.16

Respondents choosing to enroll their children in English medium schools because their children will be able to understand people who speak English

	Frequency	Percentage
Disagree	2	2,2
Don't know	6	6,7
Agree	81	91
Total	89	100

An overwhelming majority, 81 (91%), of the respondents agreed that enrolling their children in English medium schools will enable their children to understand people who speak English. This is an indication of the preference for integrative motivation (See 2.6.2). A minute number, 2 (2,2%), indicated their disagreement, and 6 (6,7%) respondents were unsure.

Table 4.17

Respondents choosing to enroll their children in English medium schools because their children will be able to be friends with English-speaking children

	Frequency	Percentage
Disagree	14	15,7
Don't know	11	12,4
Agree	64	71,9
Total	89	100

The above table demonstrates that a significant number of parents, 64 (71,9%), agreed that they chose to enroll their children in English medium schools because their children will be able to be friends with English-speaking children. A small minority of parents, 14 (15,7%), disagreed, while 11 (12,4%) of the responses were neutral. These findings illustrate a prominence of integrative motivation (See 2.6.2).

Table 4.18

Respondents choosing to enroll their children in English medium schools because they want their children to think like and be like people who speak English

	Frequency	Percentage
Disagree	40	45
Don't know	14	15,7
Agree	35	39,3
Total	89	100

Forty (45%) respondents disagreed that they chose to enroll their children in English medium schools because they wanted their children to think like and become like people who speak English. 14 (15,7%) respondents maintained a neutral view, while 35 (39,3%) agreed that they wanted their children to think like and become like people who speak English. The above results indicate that integrative motivation did not play a dominant role in parents' decision to enroll their children in English medium schools (See 2.6.2).

Tables 4.16, and 4.17 affirm that majority of the parents' views were greatly influenced by integrative motivation. However, table 4.18 appears to indicate somewhat varied responses, with only 39,3% of the respondents being influenced by integrative motivation.

This survey study evidently illuminates the dominance of instrumental motivation. Further research in the field of English second language learning by IsiZulu-speaking learners and instrumental motivation is required to demonstrate the relationship between motivation and language proficiency.

4.3.1.3 Scaled responses: parents' views regarding their children's performances in English

This section provides illustrations and interpretations of parents' views regarding their children's performances in English. The descriptive statistics of the results are presented as follows:

For the purpose of this study, the following responses were combined. Very poor and poor combined to form poor; fair remained as a category on its own; and good and excellent combined to form good.

Table 4.19

Parents' ratings of their children's abilities to speak English

	Frequency	Percentage
Poor	9	10,1
Fair	33	37
Good	47	52,8
Total	89	100

The above table demonstrates that majority of the parents, 47 (52,8%), have rated their children's ability to speak English as good. A minority of 9 (10,1%) parents rated their children's ability to speak English as poor, while 33 (37%) indicated fair. This may be attributed to the fact that most, 39 (43,8%), of the learners in the sample are in Grade 3. Being in Grade 3 would imply that these learners speaking skills would have improved. In addition, the interviews with educators have indicated that, when IsiZulu-speaking learners begin schooling in English medium schools from Grade R or Grade 1, they cope better as the years progress, and when IsiZulu-speaking learners enter English medium schools they struggle to cope with the initial transition. Furthermore, when L2 learners who have passed the critical period for L2 acquisition are enrolled in English medium schools, they will not be able to achieve native-like levels of proficiency in the L2 (See 2.5).

Table 4.20

Parents' ratings of their children's abilities to understand oral English

	Frequency	Percentage
Poor	7	8
Fair	33	37
Good	49	55
Total	89	100

Forty nine (55%) subjects have asserted that their children's ability to understand oral English is good. Only a few subjects, 7 (8%), have rated their children's ability to understand oral English as poor. The other 33 (37%) subjects have rated their children's ability as fair. The parents' and educators' views are analogous in this regard.

Table 4.21

Parents' ratings of their children's abilities to comprehend written English

	Frequency	Percentage
Poor	18	20,2
Fair	36	40,4
Good	35	39,3
Total	89	100

The above table reflects a variation in response as compared to tables 4.19, and 4.20. Majority of the parents, 36 (40,4%), have affirmed that their children's ability to comprehend written English is fair. 35 (39,3%) parents have rated their children's ability to comprehend written English as good, while 18 (20,2) have selected the option "poor".

Table 4.22

Parents' ratings of their children's abilities to write in English

	Frequency	Percentage
Poor	18	20,2
Fair	33	37
Good	38	42,7
Total	89	100

When asked to rate their children's ability to write in English, 38 (42,7%), parents indicated good; 33 (37%) parents indicated fair; while 18 (20,2) parents indicated poor. However, the views expressed by educators denoted that generally IsiZulu-speaking learners experience difficulties when writing in English.

The results of tables 4.19, 4.20, 4.21, and 4.22 reflect that most of the parents in the sample view their children's ability to speak in English, to understand English, to comprehend written English, and to write in English, as good. Educator A, who was interviewed, expressed the view that some IsiZulu-speaking learners perform far better than some of the English-speaking learners. Nine (9), seven (7), eighteen (18) and eighteen (18) parents have indicated that their children's performance in speaking English, understanding oral English, comprehending written English, and writing in English is poor; respectively. Also, thirty three (33) parents view their children's ability in speaking English, understanding oral English, and writing in English as being fair. Only thirty six (36) parents believed that their children's performance in writing in English is fair. These results would imply that most parents are generally content with their children's performance in English.

4.4 SUMMARY

In this chapter IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners' experiences of English second language in English medium schools was investigated. Individual learner interviews revealed that learners were happy to be enrolled in English medium schools. They enjoyed learning English and interacting with both their English-speaking and IsiZulu-speaking peers. Learners expressed their difficulties in reading

and writing. Learners are adapting well to the cultural contexts of the schools; with the exception of eye contact. Some learners also expressed their fears of making mistakes when they speak English in class. Integrative and instrumental motivation appeared to play a dual role in the learner responses. However, the parents' views elucidated the dominance of instrumental motivation.

Individual educator interviews highlighted the areas in which IsiZulu-speaking learners are coping with as well as the barriers experienced by these learners. Learners cope well with the conversational skills in the English language. However, educators emphasised that reading, writing, and comprehension appeared to be cognitively challenging to learners. Learners may understand incoming language but may not be able to produce language that expresses their understanding. According to the educators, pronouns, pronunciation of words in English, grammar, and figurative language were seen to be problematic areas. Also, some educators felt that there are learners who experience social isolation and alienation; while most educators had opposing views. This is attributed to the difficulties that learners experience with the medium of instruction at school. Additionally, their limited vocabulary and grammatical errors are conceived as unique barriers experienced by IsiZulu-speaking learners.

Although learners were perceived to be embracing both the IsiZulu and the English languages and cultures which indicated that learners were practising the acculturation model of integration, the processes of assimilation and separation were also apparent. Thus, no specific model of acculturation was seen to be distinguishable. Educators believed that learners exhibited predominantly positive attitudes which indicated that they were motivated to learn English.

The parents' opinions reinforced the importance of English for their children. English, being an international language, a language of development, and an important language in South Africa, was seen as a language that was crucial in order to get better jobs and to study at universities and/or abroad.

Despite the shortcomings explained above, IsiZulu-speaking parents who enroll their children in English medium schools choose to do so mainly because they view English acquisition as a crucial advantage for their children, and their conscious effort to promote it, a future investment.

The next chapter contains the conclusions that were drawn from the results of this study. Recommendations for future research are made and the limitations of the study highlighted.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter the results of the study were discussed. In this chapter the researcher explores the conclusions of the literature study and the empirical research with regard to IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners' experiences of English as a second language in English medium schools; against the background of Inclusive Education. The limitations of the study are highlighted and recommendations that have educational implications are made for improving the experiences of IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners in English medium schools. The conclusions, recommendations and limitations are made on the basis of the findings in this investigation and are applicable to the schools that are similar in context to the four schools researched.

5.2 CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions were derived from the literature study and from the (qualitative and quantitative) data collected and analysed in the empirical investigation.

5.2.1 Conclusions from the literature study

The purpose of the exploration of the literature was to raise awareness of the current trends in research findings regarding second language acquisition and factors that impact on the ESL learner in the English medium school.

5.2.1.1 Second language acquisition and proficiency

The first part of the literature study focused on the theories of second language acquisition. The importance of the L1 was highlighted. Chomsky's theory of UG emphasises that children could not learn their first language without the help of an

innate language faculty to guide them (See 2.4). This innate faculty may or may not be available for L2 acquisition. This study shows a clear positive relationship between UG and the critical period hypothesis. The inference drawn from the critical period hypothesis indicates that the ability of L1 learners to attain native-like phonological abilities in an L2 will begin to decline by age six in many learners and be beyond any learners beginning later than age twelve. The older L2 learners will experience backlogs in proficiency as compared to L2 learners who begin from an earlier age (See 2.5).

Support for UG and the critical period hypothesis were clearly evident when educators indicated that when IsiZulu-speaking learners begin schooling in English medium schools from Grade R or Grade 1, they cope better as the years progress. In addition, educators also believed that when L2 learners who have passed the critical period for L2 acquisition are enrolled in English medium schools, they will not be able to achieve native-like levels of proficiency in the L2. The findings of this study are clearly consistent with studies that support the critical period hypothesis (See 2.5).

Of importance in the literature study are the theories of second language acquisition. Cummins's developmental interdependence hypothesis argued that L1 acquisition plays a crucial role in L2 development because of the transfer of cognitive skills used in the acquisition of L1 to the acquisition of L2 (See 2.4.1). Thus, the processing of information in the L1 enhances the transfer of concepts to the L2. Cummins's BICS/CALP framework encapsulates the developmental nature of BICS and CALP (See 2.4.1.1 and 2.4.1.2), in that CALP is developed after BICS. This study has illustrated a significant and substantial relationship between the BICS/CALP framework and psychological distress. According to the educators' views, if an IsiZulu-speaking learner has achieved BICS (See 2.4.1.1) and CALP (See 2.4.1.2) in English then it is very unlikely that he or she will experience psychological distress.

Of major importance in Krashen's theory of second language acquisition are the input hypothesis and the affective filter hypothesis. Comprehensible input is an essential aspect of Krashen's input hypothesis. Cummins (1996:87) maintains that comprehensible input is a necessary condition for the acquisition of a second language. The fact that educators (See 4.2.5.3) have rated the ability to understand oral English of majority of the IsiZulu-speaking learners in their classes as relatively good implies that learners do receive sufficient comprehensible input from their teachers. The parents' views (See Table 4.20) were analogous to the educators' opinions.

Affective variables such as motivation, self-confidence and anxiety play a facilitative role in second language acquisition (See 2.4.2 e). The learners' and educators' views and the researcher's observations provided a variation of responses with regard to speaking anxiety (See 4.2.4.3) and reading anxiety (See 4.2.4.4). Applying Krashen's Affective Filter hypothesis to this study, it can be deduced that fourteen learners will be better equipped for success in their English acquisition; since they appear to portray low levels of anxiety (See 2.4.2 e and 4.2.4.3). Contrarily, for thirteen learners a high degree of anxiety can contribute to raise the affective filter; thus impeding or obstructing English acquisition (See 2.4.2 e and 4.2.4.3).

The Dynamic Systems Theory stresses the interconnectedness of the language system when related to second language acquisition (see 2.4.3). In this study the concept of "complete interconnectedness" (See 2.4.3 and 4.2.5.7) is evident when learners who experience language barriers are required to acquire information in content areas through the medium of English. The butterfly effect in SLA is seen when difficulties experienced in the L2 are due to the problems experienced in the L1 acquisition. The findings of this study with regard to reading and the understanding of written English; points to the "butterfly effect" (See 4.2.3 and 4.2.5.4). Reading difficulties are seen to be "butterflying" their way throughout the process of understanding written English. The butterfly effect is also apparent

when learners who have general learning problems experience difficulties in all the learning areas.

Sociocultural Theory emphasises the role of social processes in cognitive and linguistic development (see 2.4.4). Great emphasis is placed on the culture in which the child develops and the role of peer interactions in relationships. Sociocultural theory argues that the development of the individual is mediated by others. Thus, SLA is facilitated by interaction between the learner and a more proficient English speaker. The findings of this study reflected that eleven learners felt that their academic performance would be better if they were taught in IsiZulu (See 4.2.5.10). This implies that these learners will require intensive mediation by educators, parents and peers.

Scaffolding is seen as an instructional process by which the educator adjusts or modifies the amount and type of support offered to the learner that is best suited to the level of development (See 2.4.4). Educator A believed that scaffolding will assist in providing learners with the support required for them to acquire information and to grasp difficult concepts in content areas. Scaffolding will also assist learners to achieve the ZPD. The ZPD is an area of potential development, where the learner can achieve that potential only with assistance (See 2.4.4).

5.2.1.2 Factors that impact on the English second language learner in the English medium school

The literature study examined the cultural, psychological, affective, cognitive, and social factors that impact on the ESL learner's L2 acquisition in the English medium school.

The cultural factors included the models of acculturation which consists of separation, assimilation, acculturation, and integration (see 2.6.1). The acculturation hypothesis implies that the learner will acquire the L2 only to the degree he or she integrates socially and psychologically with the L1 group. The

studies on acculturation discussed in the literature study revealed contrasting findings. In some studies it was found that learners preferred integration as an acculturation experience. Other studies revealed that not all learners felt that they were acculturating or wanted to do so (see 2.6.1). In this study no specific model of acculturation was found to be apparent. Although integration was the most prominent acculturation process; the processes of assimilation and separation also played a vital role in the learners' experiences.

Studies have also indicated that language curricula are more meaningful when they relate to the learners' personal lives and cultural backgrounds (see 2.6.1). This is consistent with educators' views. Educator A suggested that if learners are given problems that are related to their social context, they will find problem solving much easier (See 4.2.5.7).

Two very important psychological factors discussed in the literature study are anxiety and motivation. Researchers have found that when anxiety relates to the use of an L2, it often arises in speaking and listening (See 2.6.2). The following words that were expressed by learner interviewees indicated the possibility of speaking anxiety: "worried", "scared", "nervous", and "frightened" (See 4.2.4.3). Some of the causes of speaking anxiety arose from a fear of errors, of being laughed at, poor evaluation, poor, unsuitable teaching materials and tasks, low English proficiency, and too much emphasis on language accuracy. Unfamiliar scripts and unfamiliar cultural material are aspects that would appear to have great potential for eliciting reading anxiety (See 2.6.2). Educators felt that IsiZulu-speaking learners do experience reading anxiety since they are required to read in a language that is foreign to them.

Motivation also plays a critical role in determining the effort that learners make towards learning an L2. The most widely recognised types of motivation discussed in the literature study are integrative and instrumental motivation. The literature study also revealed controversial views regarding the type of motivation

that appears to be a major force in determining success in L2 learning. However, most studies have indicated that integratively motivated learners tend to be higher achievers than instrumentally motivated ones (see 2.6.2). Although the views of the parents were influenced by instrumental motivation; the learners' views emphasised a combination of instrumental and integrative motivation.

Second language learners also experience great cognitive and social demands as they are required to master both language and content as well as to develop social relationships in order to participate fully in the school curriculum (see 2.6.3). Some of the cognitive factors discussed in Chapter 2 include comprehension and articulation difficulties, limited vocabulary and grammatical errors in writing and speaking, difficulties in understanding class discussions, and difficulties in communicating concerns and viewpoints. The educators highlighted the difficulties in spoken and written language that are most often experienced by ESL learners. These difficulties included grammar, expression, and figurative language (See 4.2.5.2). IsiZulu-speaking learners are able to understand oral English. In this regard; the researcher's observations were clarified by the educators' responses. However, learners and educators felt that difficulties are experienced in reading, understanding written English, and writing sentences and stories in English.

Although as stated in my literature study (See 2.6.3) and highlighted by Educator B (See 4.2.3.1) that language difficulty inhibits social interaction; the findings of this study consistently supported the good social relationships that exist among IsiZulu-speaking learners and English-speaking learners. In terms of social interaction, learners indicated that they interact well with both their English-speaking peers and their IsiZulu-speaking peers. Supporting views were expressed by the educators who felt that IsiZulu-speaking learners socialise well, make good friendships, and are very accepting of each other. Despite studies indicating the tendency for L2 learners to feel isolated and alienated (See 2.6.3); most educators

felt that they had not had any learners in their classes who felt isolated or alienated (See 4.2.3.3).

5.2.2 Conclusions from the empirical study

The empirical research was guided by the general research problem as well as the research sub-question (see 1.3.2). The findings of this study revealed the following:

5.2.2.1 Cultural factors

This study revealed the following with regard to cultural factors:

- ❖ In the IsiZulu culture the learners are taught not to maintain eye contact in conversations. This impacts negatively on their English language development; since gestures are used in teaching and learners will not be able to see the gestures.
- ❖ IsiZulu-speaking learners prefer practical work and drama (acting and singing). They enjoy the oral component of English.
- ❖ No specific model of acculturation was found to be apparent in this study. There were contrasting views with regard to acculturation. Most educators believed that IsiZulu-speaking learners were identifying with both their culture and language and the English culture and language (integration). Some educators felt that IsiZulu-speaking learners were rejecting their culture and focusing on the English culture (assimilation). Also, some educators were convinced that IsiZulu-speaking learners were rejecting the English culture and concentrating more on the IsiZulu culture (separation).

5.2.2.2 Social factors

- ❖ It was found that IsiZulu-speaking learners interact relatively well with both their English-speaking peers and their IsiZulu-speaking peers. However, if an IsiZulu-speaking learner is not competent in the English language that learner will feel subordinate to the rest of the learners. Also, learners who are proficient in speaking English tend to be dominant.

Overall, English-speaking learners and IsiZulu-speaking learners treat each other as socially equal.

- ❖ Generally, IsiZulu-speaking learners converse in English during lessons and group work. When learners are in a group where there are mainly IsiZulu-speaking learners; most of them do converse in IsiZulu. During the breaks, on the playgrounds, and during social activities such as sports, excursions and fun days learners prefer to speak IsiZulu to their IsiZulu-speaking peers and English to their English-speaking peers.
- ❖ IsiZulu-speaking learners who experience language barriers do feel alone and isolated.

5.2.2.3 Psychological factors

- ❖ IsiZulu-speaking learners are happy to attend English medium schools.
- ❖ IsiZulu-speaking learners prefer speaking English as opposed to speaking IsiZulu.
- ❖ Speaking anxiety is experienced by some learners only. These learners expressed their fear of making mistakes when they speak English in class and when their teachers ask them questions. If an IsiZulu-speaking learner with very little English exposure is enrolled in an English medium school, he or she will experience speaking anxiety. It was found that in the earlier grades such as Grades R, 1, and 2 learners tend to experience speaking anxiety.
- ❖ IsiZulu-speaking learners do experience reading anxiety.
- ❖ IsiZulu-speaking learners generally have very positive attitudes towards learning English at school.
- ❖ A relationship between second language competence and psychological distress exists. Psychological distress is experienced by IsiZulu-speaking learners who have language barriers.
- ❖ This study illuminates the dominance of instrumental motivation. Majority of the parents' views were strongly influenced by instrumental motivation. Varied responses were expressed with regard to integrative

motivation. However, the learners' views highlighted a combination of both, instrumental and integrative motivation.

5.2.2.4 Cognitive factors

- ❖ IsiZulu-speaking learners experience difficulties with pronouns. They use the pronoun “him” when referring to females.
- ❖ IsiZulu-speaking learners' abilities to speak English are good. The learner and educator interviews concurred with the parent survey questionnaires. However, pronunciation of words in English may be problematic as a result of accent. Also, grammar, expression, and figurative language may be problematic.
- ❖ IsiZulu-speaking learners' abilities to understand oral English are relatively good. The educators' and parents' views were analogous in this regard.
- ❖ According to the educators' and parents' perceptions, IsiZulu-speaking learners' abilities to understand written English are poor to satisfactory.
- ❖ IsiZulu-speaking learners' abilities to read English sentences and books are poor to satisfactory. If books written in English are simple and at the learners' levels, they will be able to cope with reading. Some of the reasons for their poor reading performances are: Parents are not motivating their children to read books and learners who do not learn the prescribed words battle to read.
- ❖ IsiZulu-speaking learners experience difficulties when communicating experiences and meanings in writing. Since writing requires more skill, learners experience difficulties in the construction of sentences. The parents' views differed in this regard.
- ❖ IsiZulu-speaking learners are able to satisfactorily acquire information in content areas. With regard to Numeracy, learners are able to work with the number operations of addition and subtraction. Problem solving is an area of concern. Sometimes the learners' abilities to understand

information in content areas are hindered by their abilities not to understand the instruction. Learners cope well with Life Skills.

- ❖ Some IsiZulu-speaking learners do experience difficulties in expressing their concerns and view points; whereas others are able to confidently express their viewpoints.
- ❖ Learners were satisfied with their academic performances. However, learners felt that they would perform better in their schoolwork if they were taught in IsiZulu.

5.2.2.5 Unique barriers

The unique barriers experienced by IsiZulu-speaking learners and not by English-speaking learners are:

- ❖ IsiZulu-speaking learners are not being taught in their primary language.
- ❖ IsiZulu-speaking learners do not have sufficient interaction and involvement with more competent English-speaking persons such as parents. As a result they do not have access to models of language structure in their homes. This contributes to their limited vocabulary and grammar. The use of pronouns in sentences is conceived as a major problem.
- ❖ A lack of exposure to the English language has contributed to the difficulties that learners experience in understanding certain words and concepts in English. IsiZulu-speaking learners' receptive English language abilities are limited to a certain degree.
- ❖ IsiZulu-speaking learners travel long distances to school. This impacts on their learning. Learners showed signs of fatigue which manifested as poor concentration in the classroom.

- ❖ IsiZulu-speaking learners are not given clear directives by their parents. Learners do not understand why they cannot attend schools that are situated close to their homes. They are unaware of the reasons why they have to travel long distances to attend English medium schools.
- ❖ Educators do experience difficulties communicating with IsiZulu-speaking learners. A major concern is code-switching. This concept refers to a process whereby educators explain the subject content to the learners in their first language and then repeat it in English (Landsberg & Dednam 1999:188). Code-switching is problematic since many educators are not proficient in IsiZulu.

5.2.2.6 Parents' reasons for enrolling their children in English medium schools

The following were the reasons indicated by majority of the parents:

- ❖ English is an international language (92,1%).
- ❖ English is perceived as a language of development (82%).
- ❖ English is an important language in South Africa (87,6%).
- ❖ Parents want their children to learn more than one language (93,3%).
- ❖ Parents want their children to speak English fluently (94,4%).
- ❖ Parents felt that learning English at school will help their children to get better jobs (73%).
- ❖ Learning English at school will help their children to continue their studies at universities (87,6%).
- ❖ Learning English at school will help their children to continue their studies abroad (70,8%).

- ❖ Enrolling their children in English medium schools will help them to understand people who speak English (91%).
- ❖ Enrolling their children in English medium schools will enable their children to be friends with English-speaking children (71,9%).

5.3 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

During the course of this study several limitations were identified. Only the most significant limitations will be discussed below.

- ❖ The findings of this study may be used with some caution; since the research is focusing on the experiences of IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners at only four primary schools. These schools were also previously House of Delegates (HOD) schools. Therefore a general relation of experiences cannot be made. There are three former model C primary schools in Port Shepstone. They were not included in this study because one of the former model C schools was previously an Afrikaans medium school and the other two former model C schools cater for learners in particular phases only.
- ❖ This study focused on learners between the ages of five and ten. Although no signs of fear and intimidation were seen in the learners interviewed there is a possibility of reactive responses. This possibility is evident in some of the contradictory views expressed by the learners, educators and parents. However, before the interviews commenced learners were reminded that incentives will be presented for providing honest answers.
- ❖ The structured nature of the questionnaires distributed to the parents limited the possibilities of exploring a broader field of areas to investigate, such as unstructured and open-ended questions could do.
- ❖ The study was conducted in schools situated in a town. Rural and urban schools may produce varying results. This study concentrated on urban schools because

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- the rural schools in the Port Shepstone region are not completely English medium schools.
- ❖ Although random sampling was used in the quantitative component of this study, the potential for a biased response sample inherent in survey research warrants cautious interpretation of findings.
 - ❖ It is possible that parent interviews would have provided disparate results. However, the survey questionnaire attempted to compensate for this shortcoming.

While these limitations are important, they do not discount the significance of the study.

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

The findings of this study elicited the following recommendations:

5.4.2 Recommendations for schools

- ❖ Educators need to understand the importance of learners being proficient in their L1 before introducing an L2. Thus, schools need to employ the services of IsiZulu-speaking educators.
- ❖ L2 learners need to be exposed to a variety of reading material and resources such as the school library.
- ❖ Educators need to identify, assess and provide support to L2 learners with learning impairments. Early identification of ESL learners who experience language barriers may lead to intervention programmes.
- ❖ Schools need to elicit the services of professionals to conduct workshops at school in order to empower educators in assisting learners who experience language barriers.
- ❖ Schools need to establish Institutional Level Support Teams (ILST) to provide support and assistance to L2 learners. A team approach is thus advocated.

- ❖ In order to accommodate linguistic and cultural diversity at schools, programmes and activities should be organised to reduce the gap of exposure to the various cultures at school. This will also help in developing good social relationships among learners from different language backgrounds, thus promoting respect and tolerance for their peers.
- ❖ Correct pronunciation of words is important. Basic English phonetics must be taught and revised daily and educators must pronounce the words slowly, clearly and correctly.
- ❖ Cooperative learning which includes group work and peer work should be encouraged. Involving English-speaking learners and IsiZulu-speaking learners in group discussions and projects will assist in building their self esteem and in developing their social conversational skills.

5.4.3 Recommendations for parents of second language learners

- ❖ The linguistic landscape, which refers to all the language items that are visible in a specified part of a public place (Cenoz & Gorter 2008:267) can provide an excellent opportunity for authentic input for pragmatic development and can be used for the development of language awareness and linguistic diversity. Parents need to discuss the written language in the learners' linguistic landscapes.
- ❖ Do not disregard the importance of the development of the learners' primary language. Parents must always remember that first language development is central to second language development. The more proficient learners are in their first language, the more proficient they will be in their second language.
- ❖ Learners must receive maximum exposure to both languages – IsiZulu and English.
- ❖ Encourage learners to read every day. Parents need to allocate time when both the parents and the learners can read together.

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- ❖ Parents must ensure that their children become members of the local library.
 - ❖ Communicate with the learner's teachers. Discuss the learner's progress. Discuss the areas of concern.
 - ❖ Parents should assist in providing intensive support for learners who experience language barriers. Parents should consult the school's Institutional Level Support Team for assistance.

5.4.4 Recommendations for educational authorities

- ❖ Comprehensive in-service and pre-service training of educators should be done to ensure that they are well equipped to teach in multilingual, multicultural and multiracial inclusive schools.
- ❖ This study advocates the inclusion of linguistics in teacher training courses. This will help to enhance the quality of teacher preparation.
- ❖ The theoretical foundation in teacher preparation should include Cummins's developmental interdependence hypothesis, along with the differences between social language (that is, BICS) and academic language (that is, CALP).
- ❖ A solid understanding of the interconnectedness of language and culture is fundamental for teacher training programmes. Cross-cultural understanding can facilitate communication across cultures.
- ❖ The establishment of suitable policies regarding the admission of second language learners. For example, if a learner has surpassed the critical period for L2 acquisition then it is very unlikely for a school to admit such a learner. It is important that L2 learners be admitted in Grade R or Grade 1.
- ❖ Language policies that provide clear guidelines regarding primary language education.

5.4.5 Recommendations for further research

- ❖ Replicate this study in other areas of Kwa-Zulu Natal to compare results.
- ❖ Given the cultural and linguistic diversity of the South African population, future studies could examine the experiences of other African indigenous language groups in English medium schools. Future studies could compare the experiences of learners from the various language groups in South Africa.
- ❖ Research the impact of socio-economic environment on L2 development.
- ❖ Research the impact of parents' level of education on their decision to enroll their children in English medium schools.
- ❖ Research the relationship between instrumental motivation and language proficiency of IsiZulu-speaking learners.

5.5 SUMMARY

In South Africa, the legacy of the colonised mind manifested in the underestimation of the indigenous African languages and the overvaluing of English. However, our democracy has created a very controversial situation in which bilingualism and multilingualism were introduced to our schools. This systematic promotion of multilingualism via the schools has established a new educational system that left educators and parents ill prepared. Nevertheless, the parents of indigenous African languages enrolled their children in English medium schools for various reasons (See 5.2.2.6). Many of these parents do not realise the repercussions of such a decision if a learner has not developed emotionally, cognitively, socially and physically to cope with such a drastic change of cultural environment.

The researcher was interested in the experiences of IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners in English medium schools and the reasons for the parents of IsiZulu-speaking learners choosing to enroll their children in English medium schools. A literature study was initiated. The experiences of IsiZulu-speaking learners were discussed after

conducting interviews with educators and learners from four schools in the Port Shepstone region. Five dominant themes emerged throughout the qualitative analysis. They are cultural factors, social factors, psychological and affective factors, cognitive factors and unique barriers.

Parents' reasons for enrolling their children in English medium schools were investigated via survey questionnaires. Although most parents agreed with most of the options provided in the questionnaire; of prominence was the fact that most parents (94,4%) enrolled their children in English medium schools because they wanted their children to speak English fluently.

Some of the findings in this investigation concur with previous findings. All research, whether the findings coincide or differ from previous studies, contribute to our knowledge so that we can understand all aspects of second language learning as fully as possible and thus be in the best position to provide effective assistance and guidance to the second language learner. It is hoped that the schools, parents, and educational authorities consider the findings of this study and the recommendations highlighted when preparing educational programmes for ESL learners. It is also hoped that researchers take cognisance of the recommendations provided for future research.

YOU HAVE TWO VOICES

You have two voices when you speak

in English or your mother tongue.

When you speak the way your people spoke

the words don't hesitate, but flow like rivers,

like rapids, like oceans of sound,

and your hands move like birds through the air.

But when you take a stranger's voice,

when you speak in your new tongue,

each word is a stone dropped in a pool.

You watch the ripples and wait for more.

You search in vain for other stones to throw.

They are heavy. Your hands hang down.

You have two voices when you speak;

I have two ears for hearing.

Speak to me again in your mother tongue.

What does it matter how little I understand

when words pour out like music

And your face glows like a flame.

(Nancy Prasad)

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APPENDIX 1

P.O. Box 11552
Port Shepstone
4240

9 February 2009

Mr S R Alwar
Kwa-Zulu Natal Department of Education
Metropolitan Building
Private Bag X9137
Pietermaritzburg
3200

Dear Sir

RE: APPLICATION FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT ACADEMIC RESEARCH

I hereby wish to apply for permission to conduct academic research in four primary schools in the Port Shepstone area. The schools are School A, School B, School C and School D.

I am a Masters of Education (Inclusive Education) student at the University of South Africa (UNISA). I am also a Foundation Phase educator at Marburg Primary School. I am undertaking a study titled: "IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners' experiences of English second language in English medium schools".

The aim of the study is to investigate how IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners experience English as a second language in English medium schools and to make recommendations to improve their schooling experiences, if necessary. This study will help educators and parents to understand the life world of the IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learner in the English medium classroom.

The research problems will be investigated by using a combined qualitative-quantitative approach.

The qualitative component will consist of a phenomenological study. Both learners and educators will be interviewed.

The quantitative component will consist of a survey research design. Parents will be asked to complete questionnaires.

I will try to arrange all the interviews in such a manner that the normal school programme is not interfered with. I would appreciate it if you could please respond to this letter by posting your response to the above mentioned address. I would be grateful if you could also e-mail your response to ranjini@telkomsa.net.

Please find attached a copy of a letter from UNISA.

I trust that this will be given your kind consideration and time.

Kind regards.

Miss R. Govender

APPENDIX 2



**PROVINCE OF KWAZULU-NATAL
ISIFUNDAZWE SAKWAZULU-NATALI**

**DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
UMNYANGO WEMFUNDO**

Tel: 033 341 8610
Fax: 033 341 8612
Private Bag X9137
Pietermaritzburg
3200

228 Pietermaritz Street
PIETERMARITZBURG

INHLOKHOVISI	PIETERMARITZBURG	HEAD OFFICE
Imibuzo: Enquiries: Sibusiso Alwar	Reference: Inkomba: 007/2009	Date: Usuku: 16 February 2009

Ms R. Govender
P.O Box 11552
Port Shepstone
4240

RESEARCH PROPOSAL: ISIZULU-SPEAKING FOUNDATION PHASE LEARNERS' EXPERIENCES OF ENGLISH SECOND LANGUAGE IN ENGLISH MEDIUM SCHOOLS

Your application to conduct the above-mentioned research in schools in the attached list has been approved subject to the following conditions:

1. Principals, educators and learners are under no obligation to assist you in your investigation.
2. Principals, educators, learners and schools should not be identifiable in any way from the results of the investigation.
3. You make all the arrangements concerning your investigation.
4. Educator programmes are not to be interrupted.
5. The investigation is to be conducted from 23 February 2009 to 23 February 2010.
6. Should you wish to extend the period of your survey at the school(s) please contact Mr Sibusiso Alwar at the contact numbers above.
7. A photocopy of this letter is submitted to the principal of the school where the intended research is to be conducted.
8. Your research will be limited to the schools submitted.
9. A brief summary of the content, findings and recommendations is provided to the Director: Resource Planning.

RESOURCES PLANNING DIRECTORATE: RESEARCH UNIT
Office No. G25, 188 Pietermaritz Street, PIETERMARITZBURG, 3201

10. The Department receives a copy of the completed report/dissertation/thesis addressed to

The Director: Resource Planning
Private Bag X9137
Pietermaritzburg
3200

We wish you success in your research.

Kind regards



R. Cassius Lubisi (PhD)
Superintendent-General

RESOURCES PLANNING DIRECTORATE: RESEARCH UNIT
Office No. G25, 188 Pietermaritz Street, PIETERMARITZBURG, 3201



PROVINCE OF KWAZULU-NATAL
ISIFUNDAZWE SAKWAZULU-NATALI

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
UMNYANGO WEMFUNDO

Tel: 033 341 8610
Fax: 033 341 8612
Private Bag X9137
Pietermaritzburg
3200

228 Pietermaritz Street
PIETERMARITZBURG

INHLOKHOVISI

PIETERMARITZBURG

HEAD OFFICE

Imibuzo:
Enquiries: Sibusiso Alwar

Reference:
Inkomba: 007/2009

Date:
Usuku: 16 February 2009

Ms R. Govender
P.O Box 11552
Port Shepstone
4240

PERMISSION TO INTERVIEW LEARNERS AND EDUCATORS

The above matter refers.


Permission is hereby granted to interview Departmental Officials, learners and educators in selected schools of the Province of KwaZulu-Natal subject to the following conditions:

1. You make all the arrangements concerning your interviews.
2. Educators' and work programmes are not interrupted.
3. Interviews are not conducted during the time of writing examinations in schools.
4. Learners, educators and schools and other Departmental Officials are not identifiable in any way from the results of the interviews.
5. Your interviews are limited only to targeted schools.
6. A brief summary of the interview content, findings and recommendations is provided to my office.
7. A copy of this letter is submitted to District Managers and principals of schools or heads of section where the intended interviews are to be conducted.

The KZN Department of education fully supports your commitment to research: **isiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners' experiences of English second language in English medium schools**

It is hoped that you will find the above in order.

Best Wishes



R Cassius Lubisi, (PhD)
Superintendent-General

RESOURCES PLANNING DIRECTORATE: RESEARCH UNIT
Office No. G25, 188 Pietermaritz Street, PIETERMARITZBURG, 3201

APPENDIX 3

P.O. Box 11552
Port Shepstone
4240

12 March 2009

The Principal
School A
P.O. Box 1926
Port Shepstone
4240

Dear Sir

RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT ACADEMIC RESEARCH

I am a Masters of Education (Inclusive Education) student at the University of South Africa (UNISA). I am also a Foundation Phase educator at Marburg Primary School. I am undertaking a study titled: "IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners' experiences of English second language in English medium schools".

The aim of the study is to investigate how IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners experience English as a second language in English medium schools and to make recommendations to improve their schooling experiences, if necessary. This study will help educators and parents to understand the life world of the IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learner in the English medium classroom.

The Department of Education has granted permission to conduct the research and the letter to this effect is attached.

Your school has been purposefully selected as part of the sample schools to be polled. It would be greatly appreciated if the selected foundation phase educators and IsiZulu-speaking foundation phase learners participate in the research.

The research problems will be investigated by using a combined qualitative-quantitative approach.

The qualitative component will consist of a phenomenological study. Both learners and educators will be interviewed.

The quantitative component will consist of a survey research design. Parents will be asked to complete questionnaires.

I undertake to ensure strict confidentiality with the information collected and all respondents will remain anonymous. A copy of the report would be made available to the Department of Education or made available to individual schools on request.

I trust that this will be given your kind consideration and time.

Kind regards.

Miss R. Govender

APPENDIX 4

P. O. Box 11552
Port Shepstone
4240

June 2009

Dear Parent

I am a Masters of Education (Inclusive Education) student at the University of South Africa (UNISA). I am also a Foundation Phase educator at Marburg Primary School. I am undertaking a study titled: "IsiZulu-speaking Foundation Phase learners' experiences of English second language in English medium schools".

The Department of Education and the school principal has granted me permission to conduct the research.

In order for me to complete my research I require your permission to interview your child and also to record the interview.

It will be a confidential interview and your child will remain anonymous. You can be assured that no individual's or school's name will be published. The interview will be conducted at your child's school.

Your assistance in granting me permission to conduct and record the interview will be greatly appreciated, as this is vitally important to the study. Your child will receive a reward for being interviewed.

Kind Regards

Miss R. Govender

If permission is granted please sign below and return.

I Mr/Mrs/Ms _____ grant permission to Miss R. Govender to interview my
child _____ in grade _____ and also to record the interview.

Parent's Signature

APPENDIX 5

P. O. Box 11552
Port Shepstone
4240

Nhlaba 2009

Mzali

Ngingumfundi weZiqu zeMasters of Education (Inclusive) e-UNISA. Ngifundisa izifundo kumabanga aphansi eMarburg Primary School. Ngenza ucwaningo ngezinkinga zokufunda ulimi lwesibili zabafundi abakhuluma isiZulu kumabanga aphansi ezikoleni ezifundisa ngesiNgisi.

Imvume ngiyithole kuMnyango weZemfundo kanye nakumphathisikole ukuba ngenze lolu cwaningo.

Ukuze ngikwazi ukuphuthula ucwaningo, ngidinga imvume yakho ukuba ngixoxisane nomntwana wakho ngibuye ngiqophe nenkulumo yethu.

Le nkulumo izoba imfihlo. Nginyaqinisekisa ukuthi igama lomntwana wakho noma lesikole angeke libhalwe uma sekukhishwa ucwaningo. Le nkulumo izokuba esikoleni somntwana wakho.

Usizo lwakho lokungivumela ukuba ngenze lolu cwaningo futhi ngiqophe nenkulumo kubaluleke kakhulu ezifundweni zami Umntwana wakho uzothola isipho ngokuba nale nkulumo nami

Yimi ozithobile

Miss R. Govender

Uma unginikeza imvume, ngicela usayine ngezansi, bese ubuyisa kimina.

Mina uMnu/Nkk/Nksz _____ ngivumela uMs R. Govender ukuba axoxisane nomntwana wami u.....oseBangeni.....kanye nokuqopha inkulumo..

Isiginesha yomzali

APPENDIX 6

P. O. Box 11552
Port Shepstone
4240

June 2009

Dear Parent

I am a Masters of Education (Inclusive Education) student at the University of South Africa (UNISA). I am also a Foundation Phase educator at Marburg Primary School. I am undertaking a study titled: "IsiZulu-speaking Foundation Phase learners' experiences of English second language in English medium schools".

The Department of Education and the school principal has granted me permission to conduct the research.

In order for me to complete my research I require you to complete the attached questionnaire.

Please do not write your name or your child's name on the questionnaire. This is a confidential questionnaire and your child will remain anonymous. You can be assured that no individual's or school's name will be published.

Your assistance in completing the questionnaire and returning it as soon as possible will be greatly appreciated, as this is vitally important to the study.

Kind Regards

Miss R. Govender

APPENDIX 7

P. O. Box 11552
Port Shepstone
4240

Nhlaba 2009

Mzali

Ngingumfundi weZiqu zeMasters of Education (Inclusive) e-UNISA. Ngifundisa izifundo kumabanga aphansi eMarburg Primary School. Ngenza ucwaningo ngezinkinga zokufunda ulimi lwesibili zabafundi abakhuluma isiZulu kumabanga aphansi ezikoleni ezifundisa ngesiNgisi.

Imvume ngiyithole kuMnyango weZemfundo kanye nakumphathisikole ukuba ngenze lolu cwaningo.

Ukuze ngikwazi ukuphuthula lolu, nginxusa ukuba uphendule imibuzo ebuziwe ngalolu phenyo.

Ngiyacela ukuba ungalibhali igama lakho nelomtwana wakho Loluhlu lwemibuzo. Luyimfihlakalo kanti negama lengane yakho alisoze livezwe. Akukho gama lamuntu nelesikole eliyokwaziswa.

Usizo lwakho ekugcwaliseni izimpendulo uzibuyise ngokushesha luyobongeka kakhulu, njengoba kubaluleke kakhulu kulo msebenzi.

Yimi ozithobile

Miss R. Govender

APPENDIX 8

QUESTIONNAIRE

Please complete and return the questionnaire.

SECTION A

BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

Please **tick** (✓) the appropriate box.

1. GENDER

1.1 Your child's gender is:

Male

Female

1.2 Your gender is:

Male

Female

2. AGE

2.1 Your child's age is:

5 years

6 years

7 years

8 years

9 years

10 years

2.2 Your age is:

18 – 25 years

26 – 35 years

36 – 45 years

46 – 55 years

Older than 55 years

3. GRADE

Your child is in grade:

R

1

2

3

4. YOUR OCCUPATION OR SIMILAR OCCUPATION:

Unemployed

Housekeeper/gardener/labourer/cleaner

Vendor/informal trader/self-employed

Secretary/clerk/receptionist/typist/sales

- Security officer/police/traffic officer
- Teacher/nurse/social worker
- Doctor/engineer/accountant/computer programmer
- Businessman/businesswoman
- Other

5. YOUR HIGHEST LEVEL OF EDUCATION

- None
- Grade 1 -7
- Grade 8 – 10
- Grade 11 – 12
- Tertiary

6. TYPE OF RESIDENTIAL ENVIRONMENT

- Squatter camp/Informal settlement
- Shelter
- Place of safety/children's home
- Suburb
- Township
- Rural area

Other

SECTION B**MEASUREMENTS OF PARENTS' REASONS FOR ENROLLING THEIR CHILDREN IN ENGLISH MEDIUM SCHOOLS**Please **tick** (✓) the **appropriate column** where:

- 1** = Strongly disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Don't know
4 = Agree
5 = Strongly agree

I CHOSE TO ENROLL MY CHILD IN AN ENGLISH MEDIUM SCHOOL BECAUSE:	STRONGLY DISAGREE 1	DISAGREE 2	DON'T KNOW 3	AGREE 4	STRONGLY AGREE 5
1. English is an international language.					
2. English is perceived as a language of development.					
3. English is an important language in South Africa.					
4. I want my child to learn more than one language.					
5. I want my child to speak English fluently.					
6. Our home is close to the English medium school.					
7. The English medium school is near my workplace.					
8. Someone I know told me to enroll my child in an English medium school.					
9. I live in an area where most of the people speak English.					
10. Learning English at school will help my child to get a better job.					

11. Learning English at school will help my child to continue his or her studies at a university.					
12. Learning English at school will help my child to continue his or her studies abroad.					
13. My child will be able to understand people who speak English.					
14. My child will be able to be friends with English speaking children.					
15. I want my child to think like and become like people who speak English.					

SECTION C

MEASUREMENTS OF PARENTS' VIEWS REGARDING THEIR CHILDREN'S PERFORMANCE IN ENGLISH

INDICATE YOUR FEELINGS ABOUT THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS USING THE SCALE BELOW.

Please tick (✓) the appropriate column.

STATEMENTS	VERY POOR 1	POOR 2	FAIR 3	GOOD 4	EXCELLENT 5
1. My child's ability to speak English is					
2. My child's ability to understand oral English is					
3. My child's ability to comprehend written English is					
4. My child's ability to write in English is					

Thank you for your time and effort.

APPENDIX 9

UHLA LWEMIBUZO

Uyacelwa ukuba ugqwalise izikhala bese ubuyisa lolu hla lwemibuzo.

ISIGABA A

IMININGWANE NGEMPILO (YOMUNTU) YAKHO

Faka uphawu (✓) ebhokisini elifanele.

1. UBULILI

1.1 Ubulili bengane yakho:

Owesilisa

Owesifazane

1.2 Ubulili bakho mzali:

Owesilisa

Owesifazane

2. IMINYAKA

2.1 Iminyaka yobudala yomntwana wakho:

5 iminyaka

6 iminyaka

7 iminyaka

8 iminyaka

9 iminyaka

10 iminyaka

2.2 Iminyaka yobudala yakho:

18 – 25 iminyaka

26 – 35 iminyaka

36 – 45 iminyaka

46 – 55 iminyaka

Iminyaka engaphezu kuka 55

3. IBANGA

Umntwana wakho ufunda ibanga:

R

1

2

3

4. UMSEBENZI OWENZAYO NOMA OFANA NAWO:

Angisebenzi

Ngisebenza endlini/engadini/umsebenzi

Ngingumthengisi/ngiyazisebenza

Ngingumabhalane/umamukeli/wumuntu oloba ngomshini/umdayisi

- Unogada/iphoyisa/iphoyisa lomgwaqo
- Uthisha/unesi/owezenhlalakahle
- Udokotela/unjiniyela/umcwaningi mabhuku/umhleli khompyutha
- Usomabhizinisi
- Okunye

5. IZINGA LAKHO LEMFUNDO EPHAKEME

- Alikho
- Ibanga 1 -7
- Ibanga 8 – 10
- Ibanga 11 – 12
- Imfundo ephakeme

6. UHLOBO LWENDAWO OKUHLALWA KUYO

- Emjondolo
- Endaweni eyisiphephelo sesikhashana
- Indawo lapho kuvikelwa khona abantu abadinga usizo/ikhaya labantwana
- Edolobheni
- Elokishini

Emaphandleni

Okunye

ISIGABA B**IZILINGANISO ZEZIZATHU EZENZA UKUTHI ABAZALI BAFUNDISE
IZINGANE ZABO EZIKOLENI EZIFUNDISA NGESINGISI**

Faka uphawu (✓) endaweni efanele:

- 1** = Angivumi ngokuqinisekileyo
2 = Angivumi
3 = Angazi
4 = Ngiyavuma
5 = Ngiyavuma ngokuqinisekileyo

NGAKHETHA UKUFUNDISA UMNTWANA WAMI ESIKOLENI EZIFUNDISA NGESINGISI NGOBA:	ANGIVUMI NGOKUQIN- ISEKILEYO 1	ANGIVUMI 2	ANGAZI 3	NGIYA- VUMA 4	NGIYAVUMA NGOKUQIN- ISEKILEYO 5
1. ISingisi wulimi olusetshenziswa emhlabeni wonke.					
2. ISingisi sibukeka njengolimi lwenqubekela phambili.					
3. ISingisi siwulimi olubalulekile eNingizimu AfrikaSouth Africa.					
4. Ngifuna umntwana wami afunde nezinye izilimi.					
5. Ngifuna umntwana wami akhulume kahle iSingisi.					
6. Ikhaya lethu liseduzane nesikole esifundisa ngeSingisi.					
7. Isikole esifundisa ngesiNgisi esiseduzane nase msebenzini wami					
8. Ngelulekwa omunye umuntu ukuba ngibhalise umntwana wami esikoleni esifundisa ngeSingisi.					
9. Ngihlala endaweni lapho iningi labantu likhuluma khona iSingisi.					

10. Ukufunda iSingisi esikoleni kuzosiza umntwana wami ukuba athole umsebenzi ongcono.					
11. Ukufunda iSingisi kuzosiza umntwana wami ukuqhubeka nezifundo zakhe eNyuvesi.					
12. Ukufunda iSingisi kuzosiza ukuba umntwana wami aqhubeka nezifundo zakhe phesheya kwezilwandle.					
13. Umntwana wami uzokwazi ukuzwa abantu abakhuluma iSingisi.					
14. Umntwana wami uzokwazi ukuba nabangani abakhuluma iSingisi.					
15. Ngifuna umntwana acabange, futhi abe njengabantu abakhuluma iSingisi.					

ISIGABA C

IZILINGANISO ZEMIBONO YABAZALI NGOKUSEBENZA KWABANTWANA BABO ESINGISINI. KHOMBISA IMIZWA YAKHO NGEZITATIMENDE EZILANDELAYO NGOKUSEBENZISA ISIKALA ESINGEZANSI.

Faka uphawu (✓) endaweni efanele.

ISITATIMENDE	KUBI KAKHULU 1	KUBI 2	KUYEMU- KELEKA 3	KUHLE 4	KUYA- NCOMEKA 5
1. Ukwazi kangakanani umntwana wami ukukhuluma iSingisi					
2. Ukwazi kangakanani umntwana wami ukuqonda/ukuzwa umuntu okhuluma iSingisi					
3. Ukwazi kangakanani umntwana wami ukuqonda iSingisi esibhalwe phansi					
4. Ukwazi kangakanani umntwana wami ukubhala iSingisi					

Ngiyabonga isikhathi sakho nosizo lwakho.