STRATEGIES EMPLOYED BY PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS TO SUPPORT NON-ISIXHOSA SPEAKING LEARNERS IN MTHATHA EDUCATION DISTRICT

by

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A dissertation submitted in the fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education at the UNIVERSITY OF FORT HARE

Supervisor: Dr. A.H. Makura

January 2013
DEDICATION

I dedicate this study to my husband and children.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to the following people for their unwavering support in this study:

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To my children Bathandwa, Khaka, Lufefe, Lumko and Onwabile. Always remember that dreams are worth achieving.

To my parents, (Makhinza and Nowages Neti), for their love of education and their encouragement.

To Almighty God, for His blessings, protection and wisdom to make me value education.
DECLARATION

I declare that the dissertation:

STRATEGIES EMPLOYED BY TEACHERS TO SUPPORT THE NON-ISIXHOSA SPEAKING LEARNERS IN MTHATHA PRIMARY SCHOOL

is the author's original work and has never been submitted by the author or anyone else at any university for a degree. All the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete reference.

SIGNATURE: ________________________________
ZAMEKA GOBINGCA

DATE: 27 March 2013
ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research was to investigate strategies employed by primary teachers to support the non-isiXhosa speaking learners of Mthatha Education District. This was the researcher’s observation and concern emanating from the difficulties displayed by her non-isiXhosa speaking learners, as the medium of instruction in these schools is not their mother tongue. The language of learning and teaching (LOLT) is isiXhosa in the school where the research was conducted. The school is composed of non-isiXhosa speaking and isiXhosa speaking learners.

The research sought to address the following questions:

1. What strategies are employed by Mthatha district teachers to support non-isiXhosa speaking learners?
2. What challenges do Mthatha teachers face in supporting the non-isiXhosa speaking learners?
3. How do Mthatha teachers overcome the challenges they face in supporting the non-isiXhosa speaking learners?

The qualitative design approach was used in this study. The study was a case study of one Mthatha primary school. Face-to-face interviews were used to collect the data from the six female teachers who teach from Grade 1 to Grade 6 and one male teacher who is the principal of the selected school, and who teaches English and Life Orientation from Grade 7 to Grade 9. The interviews were tape-recorded. The data collection process began after all the ethical consideration requirements were fulfilled and approved by the relevant stakeholders of the research. The thematic approach was adopted as data analysis of the study was guided by the responses given to the questions asked of interviewed teachers. The research showed the following results which surfaced from the data provided by the respondents:
(i) Teachers employed few teaching strategies to support the non-isisXhosa speaking learners in their multilingual classroom. The interviewed teachers expressed their challenges as stemming from the large numbers of learners in their classrooms;

(ii) IsiXhosa as a language of learning and teaching was a challenge for the non-isisXhosa speaking learners.

(iii) Absenteeism and indiscipline by non-isisXhosa speaking learners

(iv) Limited or non-involvement of parents in the education of children

The data also showed that there was limited support to empower teachers to deal with multilingual classrooms. The study made the following and other recommendations based on the results: teachers should use many teaching strategies in linguistically diverse classrooms. The school management teams (SMTs) should admit learners in relation to the number of teachers available in a school. It is also recommended that schools implement the language policy as it relates to the learners in each classroom. The DoE should increase parental involvement in the education of their children and also provide professional support to teachers.
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<th>Description</th>
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<tr>
<td>ACER</td>
<td>Australian Council for Educational Research</td>
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<tr>
<td>DoE</td>
<td>Department of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECDoe</td>
<td>Eastern Cape Department of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESOL</td>
<td>English Second or Other Language</td>
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<tr>
<td>HOD</td>
<td>Head of Department/Division</td>
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<tr>
<td>GET</td>
<td>General Education and Training Band</td>
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<tr>
<td>GMRDC</td>
<td>Govan Mbeki Research and Development Centre</td>
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<tr>
<td>LOLT</td>
<td>Language of learning and teaching</td>
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<tr>
<td>LTSM</td>
<td>Learning and teaching support material</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICT</td>
<td>Information Computer Technology</td>
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<tr>
<td>MoL</td>
<td>Medium of Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NAPTOSA</td>
<td>National African Professional Teachers of South Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NCS</td>
<td>National Curriculum Statement</td>
</tr>
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<td>NGOs</td>
<td>Non-Governmental Organizations</td>
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<tr>
<td>NZCER</td>
<td>New Zealand Council for Educational Research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OBE</td>
<td>Outcomes-Based Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PCIC</td>
<td>Pacific Curriculum and Instruction Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PTA</td>
<td>Parents Teacher Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R &amp; D</td>
<td>Research and Development</td>
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<td>SASA</td>
<td>South African Schools' Act</td>
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<td>School Management Teams</td>
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<tr>
<td>TCA</td>
<td>Thematic Content Analysis</td>
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<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation</td>
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CHAPTER ONE

BACKGROUND AND CONTEXTUALISATION OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

In this section, the background to the study, statement of the problem, aims of the study as well as the research questions were presented. Importantly, the review of literature which was pertinent in addressing the research questions was briefly outlined. The research methodology was briefly discussed as well as ethical issues.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Teaching learners from diverse backgrounds such as non-mother-tongue speaking learning and teaching and isiXhosa learners suggests a need to pay attention to the strategies associated with educating a multilingual learner population. Non-isiXhosa learners whose mother tongue is either Afrikaans or English appeared to struggle a lot in the classroom, since the language of learning and teaching is isiXhosa. This has created multilingual classrooms. To meet the needs of all the learners in a classroom required strategies which would engage and catch the attention of mainstream teachers (Bourne & McPake, 1991). This meant that meeting the needs of diverse learners would be, more challenging for teachers as they are tasked with helping learners deal with the
unique developmental changes that they faced in the classroom. There is extensive evidence suggesting that students from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds experience poorer educational outcomes than their peers (Bennett, Bridglall, Cauce, Everson, Gordon, Lee, Mendoza-Denton, Renzulli, & Stewart, 2004; Conchas & Noguera, 2004; Sanders, 2000). This study explored how non-isiXhosa speaking learners in Grades 1 to 6 coped in reading and writing in classes using isiXhosa as a medium of instruction. One primary school was used for the purpose of digging deep into the strategies teachers used to make sure that all learners had an equal opportunity to education as stipulated in the South African Constitution promulgated in 1996. The primary school was selected for this research on the basis that it had a mixed group of learners who were either, isiXhosa, English, or Afrikaans speaking learners. Learning to read and write using the mother-tongue is one of the strategies that are cognitively advantageous for school learners especially in the first years of primary school. It acts as a foundation to learn an additional language while maintaining the mother-tongue. The non-isiXhosa learners, who enrolled in Mthatha public schools, learned through using an additional language which was either isiXhosa or English. As the Manifesto states, “research has shown that learners acquire knowledge far more efficiently when they study in their mother-tongue especially in the early years” (Manifesto, 2001:10). The new language in policy is perceived as an integral and necessary aspect of the new government strategy for building a non-racial nation in South Africa. It appeared that non-isiXhosa learners who were taught in the second additional language found it difficult to perform well in isiXhosa, as it was not their mother-tongue.
The additive strategy of multilingualism is linked to the concept of code-switching which is the norm in classrooms in South Africa. Van de Walt and Mabule (2001:257-258) observe that the use of code-switching in the classroom is not well documented, though anecdotal evidence suggests that the use is common practice. Code-switching, according to Heugh (2003), has been tried in Cape Town where the medium was isiXhosa. It was said that code switching could do little to benefit the learner. The additive strategy emphasized the need for retaining the home language as the medium of teaching as well as sustaining the target language.

The bridging strategy is a departure from the grammar translation method towards more humanistic language teaching which respects learners’ mother tongue and their background culture. Lea and Street (1999:368) and Napier and Makura (2013) argue for a new approach to understanding learner writing and literacy in academic contexts that challenges the dominant deficit model. Rather than engaging in debates about good or bad writing, they conceptualized writing in academic contexts, such as university courses, at the level of epistemology. They argue that approaches to learner writing and literacy in academic contexts could be conceptualized through the use of three overlapping perspectives or models: (a) a study skills model, (b) an academic socialization model, and (c) an academic literacies ‘model (Lea & Street, 1999:368). They further established that the study skills model saw writing and literacy as primarily an individual and cognitive skill. This approach focused on the surface features of language form and presumes that learners could transfer their knowledge of writing and literacy unproblematically from one context to another.
The three models were helpful both for researchers trying to better understand writing and other literacy practices in academic contexts, and for educators who were developing curricula, instructional programmes, and being reflective on their own teaching practices. From Lea and Street’s (1999) findings, it became clear that their models were associated with the awareness that teachers should possess so that they are able to provide effective teaching strategies to support the non-isixhosa speaking learners. However, the academic literacies’model went further, by focusing on the relationship of epistemology and writing not just in the subject area. All three models could be applied to any academic context, such as examining the writing and literacy practices in biology, anthropology, or teacher education and how learners came to understand and use those literacy practices in each academic context. It was evident that the three models overlapped as they could be applied to any academic context, such as examining the writing and literacy practices in biology, anthropology, or teacher education.

The current state of language in education in South Africa presents signs of a growing crisis, despite policy documents (ANC, 1994:64) which stressed "... language is essential to thinking and learning, learners should be able to learn in the language or languages which best suit this purpose."

Heugh (2001) opined that the language in education policy required capacity, competence and support. This implies that for a language to be taught effectively, teachers should have capacity to teach that language, and should have adequate support. The Department of Education’s (DoE) needs a language policy implementation
plan aimed at promoting additive multilingualism. This means that learners should learn additional languages at the same time as maintaining and developing their home languages. Maintaining their home language could enable learners to transfer the language skills to their additional language (Western Cape DoE, 2001; South Africa Constitution, 1996).

South Africa’s recognition of eleven official languages (Constitution, 1996) – English, Afrikaans and Bantu languages – has been described as "a revolutionary language policy for the new millennium," “the most democratic on the continent”, and is widely applauded as one of the most dynamic and visionary in the entire history of language planning.

The primary challenge of this policy, however, remains its implementation in the education sector. The Language-in-Education Policy (1997) followed suit and gives the right to each learner to seek instruction in his or her mother-tongue, where this is feasible. This practice that is promulgated in the Language in Education Policy (1997) is not observed by all South African schools. This assertion was confirmed by Foley (2002) when he stated that some institutions do not use learner’s mother tongue as a language of teaching and learning.

Nevertheless, in order to accommodate the general behaviour of the majority of African learners, especially in the townships, the DoE tolerated code-switching as a teaching strategy. This raised questions about role of language in education; as both a language of education and as discipline. Given the situation presented above, and in spite of the
positive arguments advanced by a number of studies on the benefits of code-switching, this paper argued that code-switching as a teaching strategy in linguistically diverse areas such as those found in South Africa’s townships, was far from being the appropriate solution for the education and cultural welfare of child learners.

According to the Department of Education (2002) the importance of the mother-tongue as a language of instruction is that it enhances learning. In light of the benefits highlighted by the DoE (2002) in primary schools, teaching of learners using their mother-tongue/home language could develop and provide sound base for the learning of additional languages. The DoE (2002) recommended that the learner’s mother-tongue/home language should be used for learning and teaching wherever possible. This is particularly important in the Foundation Phase where children learn to read and write (Western Cape DoE, 2001). This study looked at the strategies employed by teachers in supporting non-isiXhosa learners in reading and writing in Mthatha. The school where the study was conducted receives learners from a community characterised by different racial, cultural and language backgrounds. The school is a no-fee paying school which might attract some parents who cannot afford to take them to schools with English or Afrikaans as a medium of instruction.

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Learners whose first language is English or Afrikaans not isiXhosa face a plethora of challenges. Such challenges affect concept mastery and isiXhosa language development. Learner’s inability to read and write calls for interventions from teachers in
assisting the learners who encounter such challenges. This is common with non-isiXhosa speaking learners where the language of teaching and learning is isiXhosa. Hence teaching learners from different linguistic backgrounds demands the attention of teachers in adopting effective strategies in mixed classrooms. It is therefore necessary to proffer the strategies the teachers use in assisting pupils in selected primary schools in the Mthatha district, Eastern Cape Province. Non-isiXhosa speaking learners in Mthatha schools appear to lack the skills of reading and writing that could be as result of the teaching strategies employed by teachers.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1.4.1 Main research question

(i) What strategies are employed by Mthatha district teachers to support their non-isiXhosa speaking learners?

1.4.2 Sub-questions

(i) What challenges do Mthatha teachers face in supporting non-isiXhosa speaking learners?

(ii) How do Mthatha teachers overcome the challenges they face in supporting non-isiXhosa speaking learners?
1.5 **AIM OF THE STUDY**

The aim of the study was to investigate the strategies employed by teachers to support the non-isiXhosa speaking learners.

1.6 **OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

The objectives of the study were to:

a) identify the challenges faced by the teachers in supporting the non-isiXhosa speaking learners.

b) examine the learning challenges faced by the non-isiXhosa speaking learners in the Mthatha district.

c) establish the strategies/methods that teachers use in overcoming the challenges they face in supporting the non-isiXhosa speaking learners.

1.7 **SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

It was hoped that this study will make recommendations that could help English language learners adapt and adjust to classroom life and thrive competently in their academic work. It was also hoped that the teachers and Departmental officials will be aware of the effective teaching strategies to support the non-isiXhosa speaking learners.
1.8 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

A resource such as time is a limiting factor in this study. The researcher conducted this study while she was a full-time teacher in the Eastern Cape Provincial DoE in one of the Mthatha schools. The researcher’s teaching workload was not reduced. Even though conducting a study requires adequate time.

1.9 DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

The study was conducted in the Mthatha district. The researcher selected one of the Mthatha primary schools to be the research site where she requested six teachers and the principal to be research participants of this investigation. Those teachers were chosen on the basis that they were teaching in a multilingual school. Also these teachers could provide the answers to the research questions.

1.10 DEFINITION OF TERMS

1.10.1 Teaching strategies

A teaching strategy is a carefully devised plan of action to achieve a goal or the art of carrying out a plan; it means a scheme, an elaborate and systematic plan of action.
1.10.2 Primary schools

A primary school is an institution in which children receive the first stage of compulsory education known as primary or elementary education with teaching and learning from Grade 1 to Grade 6 (Kaga, 2006).

1.11 DIVISION OF CHAPTERS

In total this dissertation had five chapters, which are summarised as follows:

Chapter One: The whole chapter presented the background to the study and the statement of the research problem, the research question, aim of the study, objectives of the study, significance of the study, definition of terms, a brief discussion of the literature reviewed and the research methodology. These also include validity and reliability

Chapter Two: This chapter discussed a review of related literature.

Chapter Three: This chapter consisted of the research methodology—all aspects involved in research methodology were explained.

Chapter Four: This chapter provided data analysis.

Chapter Five: This chapter presented summary, conclusions and recommendations.
CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, a review of literature related to strategies employed by teachers to support the non-isiXhosa speaking learners was discussed. Teaching strategies have been discussed in relation to their impact on teachers’ professional work and learners’ learning. Literature on challenges facing teachers in supporting the non-isiXhosa speaking learners was reviewed to unpack the culture of learning and teaching service in schools where there were no interventions in place to support the non-isiXhosa speaking learners.

2.2 TEACHING STRATEGIES EMPLOYED BY TEACHERS IN SCHOOLS

Instructional methods are the ways in which information is presented to learners to achieve the educational goals. Such methods fall into two categories: teacher-centered approaches and learner-centered approaches. There is no one best approach to instruction. In teaching and learning sessions, some goals are better suited to teacher-centered approaches while others clearly need learner-centered approaches (Shuell, 1996). Some writers condemn the use of the teacher-centered approach although some do confirm the importance of it in teaching and learning. Teacher-centered instruction has been criticized as ineffective and grounded in behaviourism (Marshall, 1992;
Stoddard, Connell, Stgofflett & Peck, 1993). However, this is not the case if it is delivered effectively (Eggen & Kauchak, 2001). Teaching strategies are the methods that are used to allow learners to access the information during teaching.

Writers who support the teacher-centered approach advance ways of using it for effective teaching and learning. Teachers could read information to learners; teachers could display it pictorially; teachers could allow them to research the information themselves; teachers could present it as a PowerPoint presentation (Eggen & Kauchak, 2001).

Learners’ learning varies in terms of how they understand a lesson. This is because people learn in three main ways; namely: visually, auditorily and kinesthetically (Frankel, 2009). Visual learners learn by looking at/seeing something. Auditory learners learn by hearing what they are told. Kinesthetic learners learn by actually doing/experiencing it. It is important to make sure that one’s teaching strategies include all types of learners. The illustrated scenario by the researchers seemed to indicate that not all learners learn alike. Based on this knowledge, differentiated teaching strategies are essential to ensure that all learners are taken care of. Tomlinson (2001) argues that the differentiated instruction approach is critical to teaching and learning that gives learners multiple options for taking in information and making sense of ideas.

According to Tomlinson (2001) differentiated instruction is a teaching theory based on the premise that instructional approaches should vary and be adapted in relation to individual and diverse learners in classrooms. To differentiate instruction is to recognise
learners’ varying background knowledge, readiness, language, preferences in learning and interests; and to react responsively. Differentiated instruction is a process of teaching and learning for learners of differing abilities in the same class (Tomlinson, 2001).

In selecting teaching strategies, teachers need to consider not only the ability of the group and stage of development of the majority, but also their experience, interests language and background knowledge (Dean, 1994). Gravett and Geyser (2004) concurred with Dean (1994) about what should be considered by teachers when they select teaching methods for their classrooms. In their efforts to make teachers aware of what to consider in selecting the teaching methods, some aspects to consider are outlined as follows:

(a) Learning is an active process in which the learners should be involved.

(b) More effective learning takes place if the learner is actively involved and understands what must be learnt.

(c) Differences such as an individual’s objectives, values, beliefs and motive influence learning.

(d) Immediate reinforcement promotes learning.

(e) The greater the variety of learning experiences offered to the learner, the greater the chances that the learner would be able to apply the new knowledge in a new context to generalize and to discriminate (Gravett & Geyser, 2004: 151).

Teachers select various teaching strategies based on their training, experiences and situational circumstances to facilitate improved teaching and learning. Such assertions
of the researcher are confirmed by Gravett and Geyser (2004) when they state that a variety of teaching strategies are essential to give all learners equal opportunities to learn and demonstrate their learning. The researcher identified and discussed ten teaching strategies in relation to the research questions that sought to establish what strategies are employed by teachers to support the non-isiXhosa speaking learners where isiXhosa is used as medium of instruction.

2.2.1 Lecture

Sajjad (1997) defines a lecture as a talk by a teacher or instructor to an audience. The lecture method for teaching and learning is recommended on the grounds that it saves time, and could improve the listening skills of a large number of learners. Cashin (1990) suggests that the lecture method could improve teaching and learning in multilingual classrooms, where teachers could adopt his recommendations of how to use the lecture method. Cashin’s (1990) recommendations are supported by Charlton (2006) who asserts that the lecture method is an effective teaching method. Charlton (2006) argues that the lecture method constitutes a formally-structured social event that fits nature and artificially manipulates human psychology to improve learning. According to Cashin (1990) the lecture method is regarded as the best method, especially when communicating information to many learners. The lecture method seems appropriate for a large number of learners who might be studying at the tertiary level. In light of its negative impact, the lecture method could struggle to support the non-isiXhosa speaking learners where the language of instruction is not their mother tongue. Also, this method
is recommended for learners at higher levels, but might be difficult for the learners under the study. The learners under investigation are still too young for this method to be used for them.

2.2.2 Case method

Providing an opportunity for learners to apply what they have learnt in the classroom to real-life experiences has proved to be an effective way of both disseminating and integrating knowledge. The case method is an instructional strategy that engages learners in active discussion about issues and problems inherent in practical application. It could highlight fundamental dilemmas or critical issues and provide a format for role-playing ambiguous or controversial scenarios.

Case studies present learners with real-life problems and enable them to apply what they have learned in the classroom to real life situations. Cases also encourage learners to develop logical problem solving skills and, if used in teams, group interaction skills. Learners define problems, analyse possible alternative actions and provide solutions with a rationale for their choices.

2.2.3 Discussion Method

According to Larson (1997), the discussion method involves structured conversation among people. Larson (1997) argues that in the discussion method as teaching strategy, people are afforded an opportunity to present, evaluate understand similar
and different views on the topic of a lesson. Townsend (1993) states that educational outcomes are attained when teachers employ the discussion method. Townsend (1993) further contends that the discussion method enables linguistically diverse learners share their views and skills of solving problems in school related matters. This means that when learners are provided with an opportunity to share their views and skills of solving problems among other learners, learning could be improved. Townsend's (1993) views show that the learners have a propensity to elaborate more fully their peers’ comments than to those of the teacher.

According to Dean (1994) people learn a great deal through talking with others and by so doing learning is consolidated. Using the discussion method, learners and teachers shared common understanding and information. The discussion method could be used among linguistically diverse learners to express their views and skills of solving problems in language related matters.

Lowman (1984) argues that, if done well, the discussion method could promote independent thinking and motivation as well as enhance learner involvement. This implies that teachers should inculcate or transfer the positive attitudes to their learners when teaching so that effective learning could materialise. In simpler terms, the success of the discussion method in the classrooms depends on the quality of the learner-teacher relationship (Lowman, 1984).
2.2.4 Active learning

Active learning is described by Meyers and Jones (1993) as a teaching strategy that enables learners to talk and listen, read and write. It appears that employing active learning as a teaching strategy could be effective, as learners’ listening skills could be enhanced. Training learners to listen and reflect could improve their learning. This implies that learners are actively involved when they are afforded an opportunity to listen and reflect.

2.2.5 Cooperative learning

Bruffee (1993) views cooperative learning as a teaching strategy that encompasses social interactions. The assertion of Bruffee (1993) confirms that, when cooperative learning is used as a teaching strategy, learners are stimulated to learn. Bruffee (1993) sheds light on how to use cooperative learning by stating that classroom planning and teachers’ preparation are essential. This means that teachers who intend to use cooperative learning as teaching strategy should do it thorough lesson planning in order to impact the knowledge of learners effectively.

When integrating cooperative or collaborative learning strategies in the classroom careful planning and preparation are essential. Understanding how to form groups, ensures positive interdependence, and maintains individual accountability, resolves
group conflict, develops appropriate activities and assessment criteria, and manages active learning environments. In addition, the programme in support of teaching and learning could provide teachers with supplementary information and helpful techniques for using cooperative learning or collaborative learning in college classrooms. In a cooperative learning classroom, learners work together to attain group goals that cannot be obtained by working alone (Johnson, Johnson & Holubec, 1986). Learners are perceived as having the opportunity to assist one another. This means that the learners are afforded the opportunity to share their insights for learning to occur. From Johnson, Johnson and Holubec's (1986) assertion, the cooperative learning strategy could be suitable for learners who are taught in a language that is not their mother tongue. Johnson, Johnson and Holubec (1996) affirm that using the cooperative learning strategy offers the learners the potential to increase the depth of their understanding, the quality of their reasoning, and the accuracy of their long term retention.

Reviews of the literature on culturally responsive teaching have found that cooperative/collaborative learning experiences improve academic performance and encourage socialization skills for all students, particularly for students from diverse backgrounds (Johnson & Johnson, 1990). Judging from the reviewed literature, the cooperative learning strategy could be effective in multilingual classrooms.
2.2.6 Distance learning

Gilbert (1995) describes distance learning as a form of teaching and learning that takes place without direct contact between teacher and learner. The homework and assignments could form part of distance learning. In this method of teaching, learners are exposed to learning that could enable them to gain insight for themselves from available resources. Due to technological advancement, learners are not limited to the presence of teachers in front of them for the teaching and learning to take place. Distance learning could be used as a teaching strategy to offer the teaching and learning to the learners through the use of technological equipment such as video conferencing, television and so on. From the researcher’s point of view, distance learning as a teaching strategy could address the inadequacies of teachers in schools.

The learning concentration of learners could be improved. Information technology could make it possible for learning experiences to be extended beyond the confines of the traditional classroom. Distance learning technologies take many forms such as computer simulations, interactive collaboration/discussion, and the creation of virtual learning environments connecting regions or nations. Components of distance learning such as email, list serves, and interactive software could be useful in the educational setting in linguistically diverse classrooms. The use of technological support was advanced by Gravett and Geyser (2004) as means to facilitate multilingual learning.
2.2.7 Team teaching

A study conducted by Brice and Roseberry-McKibbin (1999) investigated the impact of team teaching on English language learners with language learning disabilities. The results of their study indicate that the involvement of specialists as per the learner’s impairment was effective to improve learning (Brice and Roseberry-McKibbin 1999). The findings of Brice and Roseberry-McKibbin (1999) show that the involvement of personnel relevant to the learner's disability could enhance learning. This implies that in schools where learners are struggling, team teaching in the form of partnerships with relevant physiotherapists, psychologists, social workers, language therapists and so on could improve the learners’ learning.

Wadkins, Miller and Wozniak (2006) assert that team teaching provides learners with increased feedback. According to Anderson and Landy (2006), team teaching enhances many pedagogical and intellectual advantages by creating a dynamic and interactive learning environment. Anderson and Landy (2006) further argue that team teaching provides teachers with a useful way of modeling thinking within or across disciplines. Through the use of team teaching, learners benefit by improving learning outcomes. Team teaching offers increased learner-teacher interaction as well as a multi-dimensional approach to subject matter (Anderson & Landy, 2006). At its best, team teaching allows learners to benefit from the healthy exchange of ideas in a setting defined by mutual respect and a shared interest in a topic. It is evident from the literature
reviewed that team teaching has advantages in improving the teaching and learning in classrooms as it involves personnel who are trained to offer the relevant assistance.

### 2.2.8 Simulations

DeWitt and Stocksdieck (2008) affirm that taking learners outside of the traditional classroom for educational purposes offers a wide range of powerful learning outcomes. They further assert that simulation could provide a wealth of educational opportunities to illustrate concepts previously presented only through textbook readings and in class presentations. By engaging learners in simulation, learners are exposed to what is theoretically presented in the classroom and, thus, could improve learning and recall as well. This implies that simulations could be used to put the learner in a real situation. Simulations are meant to be as realistic as possible where learners are able to experience consequences of their behaviour and decisions. Simulations are commonly used in social studies and science but could be used in other curriculum areas. Computer simulations are quite common in today's virtual world.

### 2.2.9 Code-switching

Code switching is considered to be a tool which could provide spontaneous and reactive discussion of concepts by learners and teachers in their main language (Setati, 2007). In a study conducted in Malaysia, Ahmad (2009) opines that teachers employ code switching as a means of providing learners with the opportunities to communicate and
enhance learners’ understanding. Ahmad’s (2009) finding seems to support the use of code switching as benefiting the learning of learners. The respondents who were interviewed by Ahmad (2009), acknowledged that their teachers’ code switching assisted them in feeling less lost during the lesson. This means that code switching is vital to facilitating learning and teaching in linguistically diverse classrooms.

2.2.10 Differentiated instruction

The model of differentiated instruction requires teachers to be flexible in their approach to teaching and to adjust the curriculum and presentation of information to learners rather than expecting learners to modify themselves for the curriculum. Many teachers identify differentiated instruction as a method of helping more learners in diverse classroom settings experience success. This reflection affirms that teachers who use differentiated instruction are in a better position of creating a learning and teaching environment that is conducive to learning by everyone in the classroom.

There is a great degree of diversity present in many classrooms. Teachers often have to contend with learners from differing ability levels as well as dealing with the unique needs of learners from varying ethnic backgrounds. While dealing with the differences among learners could seem overwhelming to some, the task could be made much simpler through the integration of several teaching techniques which aim to help teachers accommodate learning differences among learners (Schreiner, 2010). Research shows that these techniques allow teachers to present information in a fashion
that is accessible to all learners, regardless of their personal background and academic needs (Schreiner, 2010).

According to Schreiner (2010), one of the easiest ways for teachers to accommodate multiple ability levels within their classes is to differentiate instruction. When teachers differentiate their instruction, they provide individual learners or groups of learners with work tailored to their ability levels. To differentiate effectively, teachers require higher-level responses from learners who are more capable and this allows struggling learners to produce more work that was rudimentary. The practice of differentiation, while somewhat labour intensive, is possible in all classes. To differentiate, a teacher should first assign an ability level to each of her learners. This could be done by consulting learners' previous test results or looking at their general work habits. The teacher would then create three separate activities: one high, one on grade level and one below grade level. The learners would then receive the assignment that falls within their ability level. This practice ensures that all learners are capable of completing the provided assignments and that no learner is forced to struggle or is pushed to the frustration point (Schreiner, 2010).

Bloch (1998) points out that hearing and telling stories has shown itself to be the single most effective approach to promoting literacy among young children in Britain and elsewhere. Learners of foreign languages are encouraged to learn and use a broad range of language learning strategies that could be tapped throughout the learning process. This approach is based on the belief that learning is facilitated by making learners aware of the range of strategies from which they can choose during language
learning and use. The most efficient way to heighten learner awareness is to provide strategy training. This suggests that explicit instruction in how to apply language learning strategies as part of the foreign language curriculum is required for effective teaching and learning in schools.

Strategies could be categorised as either language learning or language use strategies. Language learning strategies are conscious thoughts and behaviours used by learners with the explicit goal of improving their knowledge and understanding of a target language (Cohen, 1998).

From the above assertion by Cohen (2003), it is clear that to support non-isiXhosa speaking learners, teachers should consider a variety of strategies. This shows that their focus is to help learners utilise the language they have already learned. Language use strategies come into play once the language material is already accessible, even in some preliminary form. Language use strategies include strategies for retrieving information about the language already stored in memory, rehearsing target language structures, and communicating in the language despite gaps in target language knowledge.

Cohen (1998) asserts that in supporting learners, teachers should determine learners’ needs and the resources available, select the strategies to be taught as well as the benefits of using integrated strategies. In view of the above observation, such practice offers an opportunity to transfer the strategy to new learning contexts. This suggests that it is important to choose an instructional model that introduces the strategies to the
learners and raises awareness of their learning preferences, which teaches them to identify, practice, evaluate, and transfer strategies to new learning situations.

In a study conducted by Brice and Roseberry-McKibbin (1999) investigating English language learners with language-learning disabilities, it was noted that learner progress was greater when a speech language pathologist and classroom teacher collaborated to coordinate regular classroom learning with small group learning. Progress was also greater when strategies were consistently employed in the classroom on a daily basis as opposed to once or twice a week in a pullout programme. The authors offer a number of strategies to help classroom teachers enhance the success of English second language learners with language learning disabilities. Teachers should check for understanding of expectations, instructions and relevant vocabulary before learners begin a task. Learners with similar backgrounds could be seated near each other so they could help each other with instructions and understanding. Advanced organizers should be utilised to help learners know what is going to occur, repeating as necessary.

Tomlinson and McTighe (2006) suggest tailoring instruction by addressing the wide range of needs through three approaches: content, process, and products. Similar to the vast array of learner needs that must be met by the teacher, teachers have diverse needs that literacy coaches could support through differentiated coaching. According to Napier and Makura (2013) and Tomlinson and McTighe’s (2006) three approaches are the factors that literacy coaches must consider when working with teachers. It is important for the literacy coach to support the teacher by differentiating the content being presented, the process in which the information is conveyed and learned.
Although it may appear old the text by Dewey (1933) is still relevant when considering the importance of literacy coaching in a multilingual classroom. Dewey (1933) introduces the notion of improving learning through reflection and ongoing thinking by linking experiences with prior knowledge to create understanding that is more complex. A coach’s primary responsibility is to foster this reflection so that teachers acknowledge the realities of their classroom practice. This reflection helps teachers make decisions about instruction that promote learning (Toll, 2006).

It is further established by Peterson, Taylor, Burnham, and Schock (2009) that the ultimate goal of working with a literacy coach is to deepen the teacher's understanding of how learners learn by facilitating self-reflection to bring about change in classroom instruction, which has the potential to lead to increased learner achievement. From the above findings, the literacy coach seems to have a positive impact on teachers and learners for the realisation of the educational goals. This means that teachers improve in their teaching practice and learners cope with their teachers’ teaching practices.

To conclude the literature about teaching strategies that the researcher had reviewed, it emerged that positive and supportive environments are critical for the strategies to attain their educational goals. It also emerged from the teaching strategies literature review that the recognition of the emotional, social, physical needs of learners and learner' strengths are recognised, nurtured, and developed. The literature reviewed indicates that there are numerous teaching strategies that the teachers could use to improve learner’s learning in linguistically diverse classrooms.
2.3 Challenges faced by teachers in supporting the non-isiXhosa speaking learners

2.3.1 Overcrowded classrooms by learners

Du Plessis and Naude (2003) opine that overcrowded classrooms are more difficult to manage than smaller classes. These researchers seem to suggest that quality teaching and learning could be hampered by large numbers of learners in the classroom. From the researcher's point of view, the chances of paying individual attention are limited for the learners who deserve to be nurtured to learn.

In view of the above findings, it is clear that overcrowding is a challenge that primary teachers face in schools. The researcher contends that an intervention to overcome over-enrolment of learners is needed to enable teachers to support non-isiXhosa speaking learners.

2.3.2 Preparation of teachers for diverse background of learners

The increased diversity in the nation's classrooms has focused much attention on the challenges associated with educating a multicultural, multilingual learner population (Darling, 2005; Hodges, 2001). Some researchers believe that meeting the needs of diverse learners is, and would be, even more challenging for middle school teachers than other teachers, because they also help learners deal with the unique
developmental changes that occur during this time (Johnson, 2005; McLeod, 1996). The preparation of teachers is important when effective teaching and learning are the goal. This suggests that without the teachers’ preparation, teaching and learning could be negatively affected.

Du Plessis and Louw (2008) assert that presently, South African teachers face the challenge of coping with and finding solutions to culturally and linguistically diverse urban school contexts that did not exist before. IsiXhosa speaking learners were not mixed in the same classroom with non-isiXhosa speakers. The above observations suggest that, where there is a mixed group of learners in a classroom in terms of their language, teachers who are required to teach in that classroom should be prepared to face challenges that could inhibit their teaching. It was important for them to be fully prepared to deal with those challenges in the most appropriate manner to meet the diverse learning styles of the multilingual classroom. This seems to suggest that, where teachers are aware of strategies and are able to implement them in a multilingual class, quality teaching and learning is likely to occur. With regard to teacher preparedness Viljoen and Molefe (2001:124) affirm that the teacher’s professional knowledge is critical to inculcate the required learning in learners. Cele (2001:189) concurs with Viljoen and Molefe (2001) about the importance of preparation of teachers for the diverse backgrounds of the learners they teach. Their contention that the preparedness of teachers is crucial stems from the expectation that they employ a variety of strategies in meeting the demands prevailing in the classroom. On the question of preparation of teachers for the diverse backgrounds of learners, knowledge and skills of employing teaching strategies by the teachers are a precondition of teaching. Such requirements
on the part of teachers assure learners of the support they would receive from their teachers.

Many of the teachers who are assigned to teach a diverse learner body in an urban setting are concerned because they lack confidence in their ability to do so (Duhon & Manson, 2000; Hollins & Torres-Guzman, 2005). They feel uncomfortable interacting with parents and learners from diverse backgrounds (Duhon & Manson, 2000; Hollins & Torres-Guzman, 2005). They feel inadequately prepared to teach diverse learners, and they prefer not to be placed in situations where they feel uncomfortable and inadequate (Duhon & Manson, 2000; Hollins & Torres-Guzman, 2005). In this regard, Ball (2009) proposes that, to address the cycle of learner underachievement, teachers’ knowledge of theory and best practices must be increased, as well as their knowledge of learners’ cultural practices and values. In addition, teachers should be assisted in replacing their feelings of insecurity, discomfort, and inadequacy with feelings of agency, advocacy, and efficacy (Ball, 2009).

Ball (2009) proposes that teachers’ strategic engagement with challenging theoretical perspectives, integration of action research in the professional development curriculum, ongoing work with diverse learner populations, and the use of writing as a pedagogical tool are additional features that should be integrated into the professional development programme when preparing teachers for diverse classrooms. This means that non-isiXhosa speaking learners could benefit from teachers who are well prepared as per Ball’s (2009) proposals with regard to their pre-service training. This also suggests that
teachers need a pre-service and in-service teacher education programme that empowers them to support diverse learners efficiently and successfully.

In support of the viewpoint that teachers lack training in supporting diverse learners, the National Professional Teachers Organisation of South Africa (NAPTOSA) President Dave Balt complimented Ms Naledi Pandor and the Department of Education for taking the bold step to commission the report. "We are happy with the recommendations," Balt told BuaNews (BuaNews, 8 October 2008). "We need professional development of teachers and qualified teachers in early childhood development and we are very happy about the endorsement of the quality learning and teaching campaign as a matter of urgency."


2.3.3 The language in education policy

The language policy refers to government actions (legislation or executive decisions) which determine how languages are used in public contexts, and thus create spaces in which individuals can exercise their rights of citizenship by means of language, and participate in political, social and economic life. A language policy that remains ignorant of, or chooses to ignore, the languages of its citizens can contribute to socio-political
marginalization and disadvantage large sections of the population, as individuals will not be fully able to access social, political and educational services and institutions (Desai, 2001). In the South African context, the need for multilingual service provision is clearly recognised in the Language Policy and Language Plan for South Africa (2000) and in the Western Cape Language Policy (2001).

Teachers could develop a language policy for South Africa only if they take into account the broad acceptance of linguistic diversity, social justice, and the principle of equal access to public services and programmes, and respect for language rights. (Language Policy and Plan for South Africa, 2000). The actual goal is to eliminate impartial service delivery by promoting equal access to public services and programmes by removing communication or language barriers. (Western Cape Language Policy, 2001). The linguistically diversity of learners should be a priority in deciding on the teaching strategies to be used.

However, the political implementation of these principles has proved difficult since public and private institutions take ad hoc language decisions that tend to negate the constitutional provisions and requirements relating to language (Language Policy and Plan for South Africa, 2000). Despite many years of democracy, South Africa has moved gradually towards a covert language policy that privileges English as an emerging lingua franca. English is generally seen as a prestige language and a symbol of social and educational mobility; while relatively little attitudinal support exists for the African languages despite their official status. In this regard, learners who are either isiXhosa or Afrikaans speakers could struggle in an English classroom and as a result it affects
teaching. Similarly, the performance of isiXhosa or Afrikaans learners could be adversely affected. When the language of non-isiXhosa speaking learners is not considered, it could lead to the marginalization of their language and go against the South Africa’s constitution of 1996.

Benson (2004) concurs with the above observation that there are many factors involved in delivering quality basic education. Language is clearly the key to communication and understanding in the classroom. Many developing countries are characterised by individual as well as societal multilingualism, yet they continue to allow a single foreign language to dominate the education sector (Benson, 2004). Skutnabb-Kangas (2000) also holds the view that instruction through a language that learners do not speak is called submersion because it is analogous to holding learners under water without teaching them how to swim. Compounded by chronic difficulties such as low levels of teacher education, poorly designed, inappropriate curricula and lack of adequate school facilities, submersion makes both learning and teaching extremely difficult, particularly when the language of instruction is foreign to the teacher also (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000).

Over the past decade, parents or caregivers have increasingly enrolled black learners in South African urban preschools where English is the only Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT) (Du Plessis & Naudé, 2003: 122). Many of these parents or caregivers rely on educators to teach their children English. However, the abrupt change from mother tongue (L1) to English instruction creates a challenging environment for both learner and teacher. In a study conducted by Du Plessis and Louw (2008), it was shown that as learners did not acquire an additional language (L2) effortlessly (Robb, 1995:22).
Various role-players, such as preschool teachers, needed to intervene in ways that stimulated and supported language development, always taking into account the specific and unique needs of the preschool learner acquiring the LoLT.

In the same study by Du Plessis and Louw (2008), it is further noted that currently, South African preschool teachers were increasingly faced with more and more demands at all levels (Cunningham, 2001: 213). It was evident that the teachers were expected to have sophisticated knowledge of subject matter and a wide repertoire of teaching strategies (Viljoen & Molefe, 2001:124). Moreover, they needed to be familiar with learning theory, cognition, pedagogy, curriculum, technology, assessment, and programmes.

The South African context further requires teachers who understand multiple languages, and socio-cultural and developmental backgrounds (Viljoen & Molefe, 2001:124). It is clear that multilingual classrooms present a challenge to teachers. However, if teachers are familiar with the unique characteristics and needs of learners, they could construct a classroom context that accommodates these needs (Cele, 2001:189).

Some teachers and parents in South Africa appear to be unaware of the importance of the mother tongue in cognitive development and in the acquisition of additional languages (Lemmer, 1995:90). Teachers and other decision makers therefore need to be empowered by providing them with information on the benefits of the mother tongue. From Lemmer’s (1995) assertion, the mother tongue should be promoted, maintained, and developed and to ensure that the acquisition of the LoLT is an additive rather than a
subtractive process. This implies that the mother tongue should be maintained while promoting the LoLT.

A high proficiency in the mother tongue including the above-mentioned complex uses of language, contributes to the development of the additional language (Lemmer, 1995). It is generally believed that, teachers and parents should maintain and strengthen the mother tongue thereby adding to the learner's existing knowledge and cognitive skills (Lemmer & Squelch, 1993:42). By reinforcing learners' conceptual base in their mother tongue, a foundation would be provided for long-term growth in English skills.

Language loss could occur if the level of proficiency in the mother tongue is not maintained while acquiring the additional language, i.e. the additional language will gradually replace the mother tongue. This phenomenon is called subtractive multilingualism. Subtractive multilingualism implies that, as the additional language is learned, skills and fluency in the mother tongue are lost (Roseberry-McKibbin & Brice, 2000:4). In South Africa, The Language Plan Task Group (LANGTAG) (1996:31) voiced its concern that some African languages such as SiSwati, IsiNdebele, SeSotho, XiTsonga and TshiVenda are marginalised, not only by English, but also by the larger African languages such as IsiZulu, IsiXhosa, SePedi and SeTswana. The danger exists that the former group may lose speakers, as these languages are not predominantly used for communication.

Language loss seems to follow a classic pattern, where a monolingual community becomes multilingual, followed by a language shift towards monolingualism in the new language. A full language shift could occur when a cultural group gradually changes its
language preference to the dominant language of the community. This shift could take place intra-individually or even inter-generationally (August & Hakuta, 1998:17).

The loss of the mother tongue could even result in the disruption of family communication patterns and the loss of intergenerational wisdom, including cultural traditions, values, and attitudes as the values, beliefs, and needs of a community are reflected in its language (Kaschula & Anthonissen, 1995:15; Makin et al., 1995:101). Without language, no transfer of culture between generations is possible, as parents or caregivers communicate the cultural values that underlie language to their children. In this way, the mother tongue is tied to the learner's culture, and a loss of mother tongue could lead to the loss of significant social relationships and cultural knowledge and information. Parents or caregivers needed to encourage mother tongue usage at home and educators need to allow and encourage mother tongue use in informal discussions inside and outside the classroom to support maintenance of the mother tongue. The use of a familiar language as the language of instruction is central to classroom learning. Those who work as teachers in classrooms are witnesses to the truth, as stated by David Klaus (2001:1).

Prah (2000) similarly points out the following: “No society in the world has developed in a sustained and democratic fashion on the basis of a borrowed or colonial language. Underdeveloped countries in Africa remain under-developed partly on account of the cultural alienation which is structured in the context of the use of colonial languages” (Prah, 2000:71).
It was suggested by Heugh (1999) that the South African language-in-education policy change, which came into force in 1997, is flawed both in its conceptualization and implementation strategy. This means that the role of African languages in South Africa is not adequately addressed, despite policy statements to the contrary.

South Africa initially embraced a very ambitious language policy (11 official languages plus sign language), and a comprehensive language development plan that intended to use whatever language for all ways of life including education. However, this policy seemed in practice to have had to step back from its high ideals because of a lack of practical and feasible solutions for the classroom (Umalusi, 2005). In a study conducted by Gongabu Kathmandu, the respondents admitted that it was difficult to teach children with different scripts used for other languages and therefore, it could best be taught by comparing it with the Nepali script (Gongabu Kathmandu, 27 June 2005).

Webb (1999), in her analysis of the language in education situation in South Africa shows a similar picture. She asserts that in spite of the country's institutional documents which proclaim linguistic pluralism to be the national objective, the country seems to be regressing to its pre-apartheid situation of monolingual practice – a situation of "English" only, isiXhosa only.

She showed how this was to the detriment of the black population (Webb, 1999). In the years of Bantu education, South Africa (1953-1976) actually had a better language in education policy for the majority population, but for the wrong reasons. During the time that the mother tongue was phased in and maintained for 8 years as the primary
language of learning, the matriculation results of black learners steadily improved, reaching their zenith in 1976. It was the inflexible implementation of Afrikaans as a medium for 50% of the subjects in secondary school in 1975 that led to the learner uprising in Soweto the following year. The government was forced to back down and in 1979, the Education and Training Act was passed, reducing mother tongue to 4 years of primary school followed by a choice of medium between Afrikaans and English. Most schools opted for English medium. The reduction of the use of the mother tongue has, however, coincided with decreasing pass rates which dropped to as low as 48.3% by 1982, and 44% by 1992 (Heugh, 1999:304). There could be little doubt about who loses from the change from mother tongue to a foreign language as the language of instruction as early as in the fifth or even fourth grade of South African primary schools.

Paulin Djité (1990:98) argues that it is hard to believe that there could be true and lasting development under such a policy when so many people do not know their constitutional and legal rights, cannot understand the developmental goals of their governments.

In a study conducted by Schreiner (2010) it was found that many learners who lived in poor conditions develop a low sense of self-worth. These learners saw only struggle and strife around them, and this lack of a positive image causes them to develop a low self-esteem. This seemed to pose challenges to teachers in supporting learners to meet the demands of reading and writing.

In South Africa the medium of instruction for all but an elite minority during colonial rule was the mother-tongue, a policy that channelled linguistic capital inequitably towards the
colonizer and created conditions for the excluded majority populations to in turn demand access to the English language as a resource. The 1976 Soweto riots in South Africa were exactly about the fight for the right to access English versus imposition of Afrikaans (Guma, 2006; McLean, 1999).

Post apartheid, South Africa’s new Constitution of 1993/1996 embraced language as a basic human right and multilingualism as a national resource, raising nine major African languages to national official status alongside English and Afrikaans. This, along with the dismantling of the apartheid educational system, led to the burgeoning of multilingual, multicultural learner populations in classrooms, schools, and universities nationwide. Immediately after the 1994 elections, the National DoE initiated changes in the education system, with the goal of achieving a more equitable school system. The amalgamation of races in schools poses some challenges to teachers and learners with regard to teaching and learning.

In a study conducted by Lafon (2009), it was found that the majority of under-performing learners were also children who learnt in a language that was not their mother tongue. In view of such findings, teachers were faced with a challenge of making sure that they assisted their learners to acquire and progress at the same level as their counterparts while they were taught in the language which was not their mother tongue. It was observed that many African children are taught in schools, study and are assessed in a language that is not their home language or mother tongue: over 78% of South Africans are non-mother-tongue speakers of Afrikaans or English (Statistics South Africa,
This means that teaching learners in a language that is not their mother tongue has a bearing on the academic performance of learners.

It is therefore crucial that teachers be well prepared to assist equally learners who are in their classrooms so that they all benefit from the teaching and learning. South Africa comprises a number of diverse multilingual communities. This observation indicates that teachers are faced with challenges of teaching learners who come from families that speak more than one language at home. Monolingualism is rare in these communities. Murray (2002) asserts that many African teachers are aware of the difficulties their learners have to confront when learning through a second language. Murray (2002) is of the opinion that the learners would do better in their mother tongue than in a second language. It implies that learners underachieve academically because they learn in a language that is not their first language. However, teaching both languages poses challenges to teachers.

Educators tend to advocate a language that is quite remote from the everyday life of the learners. When learners are at school, they are expected to write and imitate the standard speech of their educators, and when they are outside of school life, it is almost certain that they would use non-standard varieties. The use of non-standard language varieties causes problems in the classroom situation.

Since United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation, UNESCO’s (1953) pioneering study, it has generally been accepted that learning in the mother tongue or home language assisted cognitive development (Cummins, 2000; Webb,
In research from the United States of America and Canada, Cummins (2000) established a relationship between first and second language proficiency, a ‘threshold’ that enabled learners to transfer from one to the other. The above argument is concurred with by the 2004 report of the national quality assurance body, Umalusi, which stressed that the success of teaching and learning English as a second language in further education could only happen when supported by adequate mother-tongue instruction in the early grades”. This implies that mother-tongue education results in cognitive advantages for school learners, especially in the first years of primary education. The South African National Curriculum Statement (NCS) recognises the importance of mother-tongue instruction and stated that: The additional language should be introduced as a subject in Grade 1

The home language should continue to be used alongside the additive language as long as possible. All learners learn their home language and at least one additional official language. Learners become competent in their additional language, while their home language is maintained and developed (NCS, 2002).

The above argument concurs with the DoE’s schools language policy, which was introduced as part of Curriculum 2005 in 1997 and revised in 2006. The language policy sets out to encourage the promotion of African languages by empowering learners to choose the language in which they want to be taught. Hendricks (2006) argues that the choice of languages on offer at schools and the medium of instruction seldom meet current language education policy requirements of additive bilingualism needed to
support children’s home language. This implies that in schools, teachers struggle to support learners when teaching is through the second language. According to Du Toit, Constable, and Kenyon (1997), the DoE’s language policy in some schools was lip service.

The current state of language in education policy in South Africa presents signs of a growing crisis. In support of policy documents (ANC, 1994: 64) which stress that language is essential to thinking and learning, learners must be able to learn in the language or languages which best suit this purpose. In the school where the current study was conducted this practice of considering teaching non-isiXhosa speaking learners seems not to be practised. Heugh (2001) argues that the new language in education policy lacks support in its implementation. Phillipson (1992) concurred with Heugh on the importance and advantages of the mother tongue despite the dominance of the language of learning and teaching (LoLT). Barkhuizen and Gough (1996) argue that the approach that sees English and an African language as languages of learning appears to be gaining considerable support but is not practiced by teachers in all schools.

Contrary to several findings that support the mother tongue in the teaching and learning in multilingual classroom, there is strong evidence that shows that some stakeholders of education do not favour the mother tongue as an effective instruction method for their children. Such a notion is evident in Iyamu and Ogiegbaen's (2007) findings. They found that teachers had negative views of mother-tongue instruction, and feared that such instruction would lead to a loss of status among colleagues. Statistics further revealed,
for instance, that the majority of teachers in their sample (73%) felt that mother-tongue education did not provide equal learning opportunities for learners and a significant portion (42%) revealed that they were ‘not enthusiastic’ about teaching in a mother-tongue medium (Iyamu & Ogiegbaen, 2007:105-106). Many teachers in the study felt that teaching in the mother tongue was a function of the home and saw no value in teaching in that medium in the classroom, believing that it was inferior to English (Iyamu & Ogiegbaen, 2007:106).

According to Phillipson (2001:197), teachers need to create an environment where all languages are valued; where the use of one’s mother-tongue is a human right, and where communities are given the ability to counteract linguistic imperialism and create favourable conditions for a viable and just ‘Ecology of Languages’. Primarily, educational language rights must be secured, and the most important of these rights is the right to mother-tongue education (Skutnabb-Kangas 2001:213).

2.3.4 Parental involvement

The degree to which the parents involve themselves in the education of their children plays a vital role in learning and teaching in schools. Where parents tend to neglect their role in the education of their children, teaching and learning is affected. Increasingly, families in the United States and the Pacific region are becoming more culturally and linguistically diverse. English is often not spoken or understood in the homes of immigrant families. For many Pacific Islanders, the language of instruction (English) is not the language of the home (Pacific Region Educational Laboratory, 1995). As a
result, family members may be uncomfortable conversing with school personnel. Those family members who do speak English but have limited education may have difficulty communicating because their life experiences and perspectives are very different from others in the school community (Moles, 1993).

Promoting family participation among diverse populations is one of the challenges facing educators. Furthermore, the research showed that it is a very critical challenge since family involvement among culturally different populations is positively related to academic achievement (for example, among Xhosa-speaking families, Cherian, 1995; among Mexican-American families, Keith & Lichtman, 1992). In this regard, it is evident that the lack of parental involvement is not only with the non-isiXhosa speaking people but seems applicable to other racial groups.

Parental involvement includes all those who have responsibility for the care and well-being of children, such as mothers, fathers, grandparents, foster parents, siblings, aunts, uncles, and non-custodial parents (Davies, 1991; South Eastern Regional Vision for Education, 1996).

Joyce Epstein (1995), a frequently cited scholar in this area, has created a typology based on six levels of family (parent) involvement.

- Parenting – giving children nurturance and guidance and providing motivation and discipline.
Communicating – talking regularly with school staff about programmes, children’s progress, and other school affairs.

Learning at Home – assisting learner learning through help with homework and other curriculum-related activities.
Decision Making – participating in school decision making; becoming a parent leader or representative.

By developing awareness of the levels of family involvement, schools could let family members know that there are many different ways in which they could participate in the education of their children.

The work of Comer and Haynes (1991), Epstein (1995), and other researchers shows that family, school, and community are three major interrelated spheres of influence in a child’s life. They are parts of a larger whole that could either work toward academic success or, conversely, could impede progress. Because they are part of a larger whole, these spheres are themselves influenced by societal factors, such as cultural values and economic conditions.

Educators had express concern that learners do not receive supportive input in their additional language at home (Du Plessis & Naudé, 2003). This means that parental involvement is also important to the learner’s education in respect of children’s language development and academic performance. In light of the above findings, it is evident that when parents are not working together with teachers and learners struggle to learn in
schools. It is commonly said that if school wants to achieve quality teaching and learning, there should be a sound relationship between teachers and parents for the benefit of the learners. From Du Plessis and Naude’s (2003) findings, it appears that the lack of parental support impacts on teachers’ work. The lack of parental involvement or little involvement seems to challenge the teachers’ work especially where there are no psychological and social systems in place. Although the schools have access to rehabilitative support such as psychologists and learning support teachers (DoE, 2001), these multifunctional teams were often understaffed and unable to assist all the children who needed help.

A review of work by Greenwood and Hickman (1991) concerning teacher efficacy in terms of encouraging parental involvement suggests that attention should be given to educators’ attitudes and beliefs. For example, many teachers and administrators believed that the benefits of parental involvement do not outweigh the problems involved. Others simply did not believe they have the ability to effectively involve parents. Such doubts present barriers to effective collaboration between schools and families.

Hoover-Dempsey, Bassler and Brissie (1987) posit that a teacher’s belief in his or her own teaching effectiveness is the strongest predictor of successful parental involvement. The authors found a significant correlation between the level of teacher efficacy and the degree of parental involvement in parent-teacher conferences, parent volunteer programmes, and parent tutoring, parent home instruction, and parent support. This
means that the involvement of parents could play an important role in stimulating teachers to commit themselves to their work.

A qualitative study undertaken by Cockrell (1992) examined, from a Native-American parent’s perspective, the process of parent-school communication in a consolidated rural district. Barriers such as poor communication between parents and school, past and present racial tension, the desire to maintain tribal identity, and a general distrust of the school were found to hinder family involvement. The study concluded that the beliefs, attitudes, and actions of individual educators are fundamentally important to the educational process. Learners are more likely to learn in an environment in which they feel accepted and valued, and parents are more likely to become involved at the school if they feel welcome and respected. The study also found that the imposition of an ethnocentric cultural view upon an institution such as the school prevents the inclusion of culturally different people. Culturally diverse people must be actively engaged in the identification of educational problems and the search for solutions. Cockrell (1992:8) postulated that the voices and the stories of parents must be heard, recorded, and analysed to enhance teaching and learning of diverse learners.

Parents of young learners have particular issues with which to contend. In the United States, for example, more than half of the women with children under six years of age are in the labor force (King, 1990). One of the issues facing educators today is how to involve working families fully. Employed parents face different challenges from parents who do not work. Following is a list of factors that may affect the relationship between an employed parent and the school:
Feelings of competition between parent and caregiver for the child’s affection; feelings of guilt on the part of employed parents who may wonder if they are abandoning their children during work hours; lack of time to participate in school activities (King, 1990); and workplace leave policies that make parental participation difficult (Ascher, 1988).

Low-income families face unique obstacles to participation in education. Lareau’s (1993) ethnographic research explored social class influences on parental involvement in schooling. Lareau (1993) conducted this study in predominantly Caucasian working-class and upper middle-class communities. In her study, Lareau (1993) found that family-school relationships within working-class and upper middle-class communities vary. Her study revealed that teachers and administrators have different expectations of parents based on the parents’ social standing. Working-class parents expect their children to perform well as compared with non-working parents. Lareau’s (1993) findings indicated that Hispanic parents tended to give educational responsibility to the teacher. Upper middle-class parents, on the other hand, viewed themselves as partners in their children’s educational process and expected to be involved. Judged from the findings of Lareau (1993), the race of parents influences the children’ academic performance.

Schools have many challenges to overcome while working toward family involvement in education. In many instances, the school and parents might lack the appropriate skills to communicate effectively with each other. The surrounding community might not know how to help schools in enhancing teaching and learning. This scenario is demonstrated
by communities of the State of Hawaii. The State of Hawaii provides a good example of cultural diversity. Residents included families from a number of different ethnicities: Caucasian, Japanese, Hawaiian, Filipino, Samoan, African-American, Chinese, and others (The State of Hawaii Data Book, 1995). Encouraging school involvement among minority families with school-aged children presents a challenge for local teachers. In their study of the Honolulu District Chapter I Programme, Yap and Enoki (1994) conducted several case studies at selected sites in the Honolulu District. Five specific barriers to effective family involvement were identified by case studies and include:

1. Lack of time – Many parents hold down two or three jobs in order to cope with the economic realities. Work schedules prevent these parents from attending meetings and other events at the school.

2. Language barrier – Lack of English proficiency often hampers communication among immigrant families.

3. Cultural differences – Differences in cultural values affect family involvement. In some cultures, family involvement at school is valued; in others, its priority is lower.

4. English as a second language – In immigrant families as well as among the local population, lack of English proficiency often makes it difficult for parents to read with their children at home.

5. Learner’s attitude – Learners, especially at the secondary level, may not welcome their parents’ presence at the school and may discourage their parents’ participation in school activities (Yap and Enoki, 1994).
There was little published information about Pacific Island family participation beyond Hawaii. In order to provide more insight into family involvement in the Pacific, the authors conducted a series of interviews with Pacific residents involved with Pacific Resources for Education and Learning and its Research and Development (R&D) Cadre, the Pacific Curriculum and Instruction Council (PCIC), and the Pacific Educator in Residence Programme. This section presents findings from those interviews.

A fundamental barrier to family involvement in Pacific education is an unclear definition of family involvement. In addition, family involvement is not closely aligned with the cultures of the Pacific region. For instance, when parents get involved in their children's education, they are not given a culturally appropriate form of recognition because their involvement is not seen as socially attractive or desirable. In cultures where title holding and social class standing are seen as important, participation in education must become socially desirable to be viewed as important. Presently, attending school functions receives considerably less social value than holding titles and receiving public recognition. Thus, participation in school activities does not carry as much weight as attendance at a village feast, where participation is imperative.

Given this lack of understanding regarding family participation within the cultural contexts of Pacific Islanders, it is noticeable that many parents and some Pacific educators do not feel responsible for family involvement. Some Pacific educators commented that parents did not “carry their portion of the load.” They felt that parents often “dumped” their children at school and gave up their responsibility for the educational development of their children. Some Pacific educators felt that, because
some parents paid tuition for private education, they assumed more responsibility for their children’s education and took a more active role in their children’s academic lives. Because public school was not an inherent part of the traditional culture, parents might see themselves as outsiders rather than as stakeholders in the school.

Numerous barriers to family involvement are embedded within the process of schooling. In some islands, the responsibility of involving parents is assigned solely to the principal. If the principal has a positive relationship and communication rapport with the parents, it is likely that there will be strong parent participation in school affairs. If the school administrator places a low priority on parent involvement or does not communicate well, parents and family members may be made to feel unwelcome and unwanted at the school.

Communication plays a vital role in family involvement. For families to become involved in education there must be two-way communication between the home and the school. Such, however, is not always the case. Some parents, especially at the secondary level, are only contacted when there is a problem. This can be very discouraging for parents. In some instances, communication with the family occurs only when the child receives special services. At Ebeye Public School in the Republic of the Marshall Islands, school administrators noted that many parents who attend PTA meetings were parents of learners enrolled in special education programmes. Teachers reported that the most interaction they had with many parents was when parents come to school to pick up their children’s report cards (Heine & Lee, 1997). Positive, frequent communication encourages parents to take a more active interest in their children’s education.
Closely related to the role of communication is the scheduling of meetings between teachers and parents. In many instances, siblings do not attend the same school. However, because communication between school and home is ineffective, school officials often overlook these factors, scheduling meetings and functions in the same time slots as those of other schools. As a result, parents are unable to attend all of their children’s meetings and activities. Furthermore, the school may schedule meeting times that are not convenient for parents and other family members.

Some of the barriers facing family involvement may be cultural in nature. It could be argued that teachers may not be skillful at family involvement issues due to cultural reasons or their cultures simply lack the necessary cultural skills. Sometimes schools do not encourage or assist in the development of these skills among their teachers. It could be assumed that teachers and school administrators do not know how to increase parent involvement and need to know how to capitalize on their own cultural backgrounds in classrooms and in dealings with families. As a result, families seem to be isolated and distanced from the school. Educators need training in order to learn and incorporate strategies that will involve families in their children’s education. Unfortunately, this kind of training is usually not included in teacher training pre-service programmes.

There may be uncomfortable interactions between families and schools for cultural reasons. Parents feel uncomfortable where there is a potential language problem between parents and school staff because school systems use one language to
communicate; however, many parents feel more comfortable conversing in their native language. The pattern of teacher-parent communication may be perceived as not inclusive of planning. Furthermore, rather than asking parents to participate, schools often tell parents what they must do, so parents end up not participating in their children’s education.

2.3.5 Lack of school resources

According to United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisations’ report 2008 (UNESCO) the shortage of relevant, low-cost books for use inside and outside school continues to pose challenges to providing quality education for all. The challenges for educational practice in South African classrooms, therefore, are to provide sustained bilingual education with appropriate learning and teaching resource materials. It is evident from the study conducted by Mati (2008) that the problem in African schools is compounded by a lack of suitable textbooks, and materials for the specialized language needs of children. The academic performance of learners is paralysed. These learners are faced with two educational challenges at the same time: mastery of academic content, and the ability to do this through a language, which is not their mother tongue. Pyle (1997) argues that textbooks remain the essential guide to education, second in importance only to competent teachers.

In a study in meeting the reading challenges of science textbooks in the primary grades in America, Bryce (2009) asserts that textbook-based instruction in elementary school science has been a curricular mainstay in American education, but it presents teachers
with significant challenges. It was found that those textbooks lack organisation and a user-friendly style that promotes reading with understanding. Such findings could affect teachers negatively in their professional work. Duke (2000) asserts that the use of informational texts in primary grades is less common and in some settings has been limited to a few minutes a day. This implies that teachers would struggle to produce competent learners. To support content area learning, teachers must find ways to make textbook reading more meaningful to young learners.

2.3.6 Education departmental support

The teaching strategies for learners with diverse learning needs was developed by the Nebraska DoE through funding provided by the Nebraska DoE, Geographic Educators of Nebraska (GEON), Nebraska State Council for the Social Studies, and Law Related Education/Nebraska State Bar Association. It is the policy of the Nebraska DoE not to discriminate on the basis of sex, disability, race, color, religion, marital status, or national or ethnic origin in its educational programmes, admissions policies, employment policies, or other agency-administered programmes (Nebraska DoE, 1996). This observation seems to suggest that if all countries could benchmark themselves on the Nebraska DoE, and implement such a policy in all schools of their countries, teaching in schools of diverse learners would not be such a challenge to teachers. That clearly shows the commitment of the DoE to its core business.
Christensen (1996) contends that such a framework encourages classroom teachers, special educators, and consultants to work together to further develop local support systems for learners with specialized learning requirements. Christensen (1996) further suggests that the department of education should conduct staff development of teams of teachers by individual districts if quality education is to be realised.

2.3.7 Teachers’ workload

Teacher workload should be considered as it impacts on the ways in which teachers are able to engage in formal and informal teaching (Smaller, Tarc, Antonelli, Clark, Hart & Livingstone, 2003). This was the viewpoint of Smaller, et al. (2003) in their study conducted on teachers of Canada building supportive and accountable professional cultures in schools.

The Australian Council for Educational Research (ACER) was contracted to undertake this research, and it undertook case studies and a comprehensive survey of secondary schools during 2004 to gather detailed information on secondary teacher workloads. The New Zealand Council for Educational Research (NZCER) also worked closely with ACER to support the research, particularly to manage the survey logistics and to ensure a New Zealand context for the study. The study consisted of a comprehensive survey of all secondary schools and detailed case studies of six schools. The key finding of the study was that the actual number of hours worked by teachers and middle managers in secondary schools was high, but comparable with hours worked by teachers in other
countries and by people in comparable professions. The report suggested a range of support measures which could be developed, such as in the South African context where workloads need to be considered and support measures put in place.

2.4 Ways to overcome challenges faced by teachers in supporting the non-isiXhosa speaking learners

Teachers can work towards fixing the learners’ self-esteem deficit by expressing their belief that the learners are capable and expressing high expectations. Learners who come from disadvantaged families with regard to language often perceive themselves as people with no value, so teachers need to show that they care about them and that they do have value. Lavishing praise and expressing belief that learners are talented and capable are both easy to implement techniques that assist diverse learners in overcoming their self-doubt (Schreiner, 2010). In the light of their findings, it seems that partnership teaching could support non-isiXhosa speaking learners.

2.4.1 Teacher training

Educator training is a key need to support the proper implementation of the language-in-education policy in a multilingual approach to education (Alexander, 2002). In the South African context educators need training in bilingualism, second language acquisition and learning in a second language (O'Connor, 2003; Du Plessis & Louw, 2008; Du Plessis & Naudé, 2003).
One effective strategy to retain teachers is the use of new teacher support programmes. The majority of learners in South Africa is bi- or multi-lingual, and learns in a school language that is not their first language (Pan South African Language Board, 2000). Educators need to know the difference between learning difficulties and language-based academic problems (Ortiz, 1997) to avoid the mistaken diagnosis of a ‘learning’ difficulty in ESOL learners (Statham, 1997).

The idea of abandoning the native tongue is too stressful to many learners, who need a sense of security in the experience of learning a foreign language. The DoE continues to investigate why the levels of reading are so poor, and to find ways to deal with the problem. This National Strategy for Reading is part of its response (DoE, 2008). The problem is that most teachers who are teaching beyond the Foundation Phase are not trained to teach basic reading. They do not know how to help struggling readers.

Most schools have inadequate language policies that do not address the learning needs of the learners. They do not ensure the right of learners, especially Foundation Phase learners, to learn in their mother tongue. This is a serious problem (DoE, 2008). As the teachers’ job is to support learners, they naturally have to know what their learners are trying to achieve. One very commonly held belief is that a native speaker is the ideal model that language learners should aim at (Murakami, 2001). From culturally relevant pedagogy, we know that today’s world “demands a new way of looking at teaching that is grounded in an understanding of the role of culture and language in learning” (Villegas & Lucas, 2007:29). Wheeler (2008) observes that, in order to succeed in teaching any
learner; the teacher must be able to accurately assess the learners’ performance and build upon learners’ existing knowledge.

This is particularly true as teachers work with learners from dialectally diverse backgrounds to scaffold new knowledge in standard English. Yet, teachers lack the linguistics training and classroom strategies required to build upon the language skills children bring to school. Wheeler and Swords’ programme for teaching standard English in urban classrooms fills this gap. One linguistic insight and three strategies can serve as a framework for teacher education and professional development programmes seeking to respond to the grammar needs of African American learners throughout the United States (Wheeler & Swords, 2006). It was noted that insights and strategies from linguistics offer a way out of this dark labyrinth (Godley, Sweetland, Wheeler, & Carpenter, 2006).

According to Wheeler and Swords (2006) when traditional approaches assess learner language as “error-filled,” they misdiagnose learner-writing performance. In survey study conducted in implementing the National Reading Strategy (DoE National Reading Strategy, 2008), it was found that many teachers in South Africa have an under-developed understanding of teaching literacy, reading and writing. Furthermore, many teachers simply do not know how to teach reading. Too often, teachers know only one method of teaching reading, which may not suit the learning style of all learners (DoE National Reading Strategy, 2008). It was also found that teachers do not know how to stimulate reading inside, and outside, the classroom. There has been a
misunderstanding about the role of the teacher in teaching reading in Curriculum 2005 and in the NCS.

For years, many teachers believed that they did not have to teach, reading, but simply had to facilitate the process; they believed that learners would teach themselves to read. The expectation that teachers had to develop their own teaching materials and reading programmes further aggravated the situation for teachers, when they had no experience in developing materials. In the past, they relied heavily on textbooks – even if the teacher had only one book in the class. Many Foundation Phase teachers have not been explicitly trained to teach reading (DoE National Reading Strategy, 2008). In view of the above-cited findings, it is apparent that this is why teachers find it difficult to help learners with reading difficulties.

Consequently, many teachers have resorted to rote teaching as the only option, and tend to be satisfied with rote learning by their learners. In light of the findings of the DoE National Reading Strategy’s (2008), Foundation Phase teachers have generally not been taught to teach reading in the home language of African learners. There is also the problem that African languages are structured differently from English or Afrikaans. Interestingly, recent research in the Western Cape has shown that although Afrikaans learners in Afrikaans schools learn in Afrikaans at the Foundation Phase, and they hear it daily on radio and TV, many of these learners perform less than their English counterparts (Western Cape DoE 2005 Systemic Testing: Grade 6). There are possibly many reasons for this phenomenon, but it was suggested that socio-economic factors are part of these explanations.
The DoE National Reading Strategy (2008) has shown that the NCS takes as its starting point the same position as the International Reading Association, which states that: “there is no single method or single combination of methods that can successfully teach all children to read. Therefore teachers must have a strong knowledge of multiple methods for teaching reading and a strong knowledge of the children in their care so they can create the appropriate balance of methods needed for the children they teach.” The teacher has to be trusted to provide every learner with the competence and skills in reading, and the love for reading. The best teacher of reading is a teacher who conveys not only the value of reading, but also the joy of reading.

There is no clear pathway for progress in learning to read unless the teacher has a plan for teaching the learners how to read. Teachers need to know what is expected of learners. They need to know precisely how to help learners achieve satisfactory reading levels, and where necessary, ask for extra professional support. A good reading teacher allows for different learners’ learning styles. Learners should know a range of techniques to help them reach appropriate reading levels, with comprehension for information and enjoyment (National Reading Strategy, 2008). This suggests that teachers should use a range of methods to accommodate the non-isixhosa speaking learners, enabling them to benefit from quality teaching and learning in schools. The researcher’s observation is that, too often, teachers use whole class reading from the same book as the only reading experience in the classroom. This could have an impact in teaching and learning where the medium of instruction is non-isixhosa. Recent curriculum reforms in Sub
Sahara Africa have focused on modernizing teaching methods in the classroom, away from teacher dominated classrooms to more active forms of learning (Bregman, 2005).

However, studies indicate that the implementation of active learning approaches is problematic and far removed from the ideal situation suggested in the curriculum documents. Classroom reality continues to be described in terms of dominant teachers, silent learners, and chalk and talk. According to Bregman’s (2005) findings, reasons forwarded as to why this gap exists include cultural perceptions of what good teaching is, current inadequate levels of teachers’ knowledge and practices, a general misunderstanding of the meaning of learner-centered education, and the shifting roles of teachers, resulting in implementation without the intended learning. This means that a class with non-isitXhosa speaking learners could underperform as a result of teachers not using meaningful strategies in their day-to-day teaching. Teachers, on the other hand, often put forward the lack of physical resources, large classes and an overloaded curriculum as reasons for using teacher dominated classroom strategies (Bregman, 2005). Yore and Treagust (2006) declared that reading and writing could be meaningful only if the mother tongue of the learners is considered. Setati (1998), Adler, Reed and Bapoo (2002) concurred with Yore and Treagust with regard to reading and writing in the mother tongue.

This implies that even for non-isitXhosa speaking learners; teachers could implement speaking, reading and writing to enhance the learning ability of non-isitXhosa speaking learners. Lillis (2003) and Lea (2004) have suggested that the academic literacies model needs to be developed as a “design frame”, with a focus on pedagogy.
2.4.2 Code switching

As numerous studies have shown, “code-switching is a typical feature of multilingual societies such as South Africa” (Murray, 2002:439). Code-switching has always occurred in classrooms, with teachers and learners moving between the official medium of learning (i.e. English/Afrikaans) and another language both are familiar with (e.g. an African language or a local vernacular). According to Murray (2002: 440), code switching is seen as a positive and productive approach. From Murray’s (2002) findings, code switching seems to be one of the strategies that could be employed by teachers in supporting non-isiXhosa speaking learners.

In a study conducted by Vuzo (2007), an achievement test was given to test the significance of code–switching as a teaching strategy and its influence on the learners’ academic achievement. Vuzo (2007 further) found that learners scored best on the achievement tests when they had been taught in Kiswahili and worst when they had been taught in English only. Her findings show clearly that learners learn better, when they can use a familiar language as the language for acquiring new knowledge. Her findings seem to suggest that where learners are taught in their mother tongue, they cope better than when teaching and learning is conducted in language which is not their mother tongue. This means that code-switching has a bearing on the academic performance of learners in a multilingual class. It implies that in multilingual classrooms, teachers should implement code-switching in their teaching and learning in order to
meet the objective of the DoE as it is one of South Africa’s priorities according to President Zuma’s speech while he visited Eastern Cape schools on June 07, 2011.

2.4.3 Motivation as a means to overcome challenges experienced by teachers in linguistically diverse classrooms

Deniz’s (2009) study showed that motivational strategies in foreign language teaching by learner teachers were very important for learning a foreign language. From this study, it appears that motivation is one of the most important factors required for effective foreign language teaching. It has been demonstrated that there is an important relationship between motivation and language learning achievement (Clement, Dörnyei & Noels, 1994; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2007; Oxford, 1994; Sprinthall, Sprinthall & Oja, 1994). Motivation is an internal drive, stimulating power, wish, or desire. Their findings seem to suggest that, for teachers to support learners in multilingual classroom, they should consider executing motivation as a strategy of encouraging their learners to cooperate in teaching and learning.

In this regard, Boekaerts (2002) perceives an individual’s motivational tendency as something that is directly related to his/her opinions, beliefs, and judgments about objects, events, and subject areas. This implies that teachers should motivate their learners if they expect to have quality teaching and learning in their classroom. Therefore, motivation is directly connected with how much effort the learner and teacher are willing to contribute. Motivation in foreign language teaching has an affective dimension. The readiness level of the learner is an important factor in learning a foreign
language. Based on an understanding of how important motivation is in teaching and learning, a sufficient level of motivation may lead a person to believe that he/she can overcome the difficulties and be successful despite the challenges. Teachers should understand that motivation is a natural part of any learning process and classroom situation (Sivan, 1986). Learning a foreign language can be made possible with an effective learning and teaching process (Tagaki, 2005).

Dörnyei (2001a) states that when language learners feel that their efforts are not appreciated, they view the cause of their failure as a lack of ability and stop trying to learn. In this process, learners lacking motivation cannot concentrate on the lesson, they believe that they do not have the capacity to learn, they stop trying, do not cooperate, behave in a disruptive way, and do not complete assignments (Chambers, 1993). As leaders, where teachers are leaders, teachers have the power to affect learners at every level of education. A teacher who is a good model and shows that he/she takes great pleasure in teaching has a positive role in encouraging learners to learn. Learners who see that their teacher is enthusiastic may feel more motivated to learn (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997). Activities, materials, and textbooks used in the classroom should serve the function of meeting learners’ needs if the motivation of the learners is to be enhanced (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991).

It has been revealed that learning a foreign language is a long process that may change depending on the factors encountered throughout that process (Dörnyei & Otto, 1998). Activities that do not match the learners’ level of ability or expertise affect learning negatively, which results in low achievers losing their motivation and exploiting
motivational strategies to a lesser extent (Altun & Erden, 2006). In view of Altun and Erden's (2006) findings, teachers should use activities that are contextual to their learners in order to gain satisfactory progress from the diversity in their classrooms. Starting a lesson with attractive activities motivates learners to participate and giving humorous examples makes the lesson more interesting. The teachers’ talking to learners during the lesson relaxes the learners and makes the lesson interesting. On the other hand, learners’ anxiety about making mistakes in class prevents them from participating in activities and tasks. For learners it is important to participate in class activities by being aware of the aims of the lesson and feeling motivated (Yalçın, 2005). For this reason, the teacher should explain how the activity is performed, as this helps learners to resolve any questions they may have. Teachers should offer their learners in multilingual classroom the opportunity to participate in classroom activities, as this will bring about some gain, and increase the learner’s willingness to do the activity (Woolfook, 1990).

Bernaus and Gardner (2008) assert that, if there is a mismatch between the expected gains of the activities and learners’ needs and interests, the learners will pay less attention to the activities. In this case, it is apparent that according to Dev (1997), instead of very difficult tasks, more interesting and doable tasks should be assigned to learners so that they will feel more motivated. In-class interactions help the learners maintain their attention and interest. Teachers can make the lesson more fun with entertaining and interesting activities.
Bransford, Brown and Cocking (2000) suggest that metacognitive awareness, ideological becoming, internalisation, and efficacy could assist teachers in overcoming the challenges in supporting the diverse classrooms. According to Bransford, *et al.* (2000) the notion of metacognitive awareness refers to one’s ability to think about one’s thinking, to predict one’s performances on various tasks, and to monitor one’s current levels of mastery and understanding. Teachers with high levels of metacognitive awareness can identify their barriers to learning, change the strategies they are using to attain their goals, and modify their teaching and learning strategies based on the awareness of their effectiveness (Bransford, *et al.*, 2000). Effective teachers are those who are metacognitively aware of their strengths and weaknesses and have a broad repertoire of tools and resources to assist them in attaining their goals (Bransford, *et al.*, 2000).

2.5 Conclusion

On the basis of literature provided in this study, it could be concluded that there are numerous teaching strategies that teachers could employ to assist the non-isiXhosa speaking learners in the classrooms. It was also evident that there are many challenges involved in delivering quality basic education. Amongst the challenges were overcrowding in the classrooms; isiXhosa as a language of teaching in linguistically diverse classrooms; partial implementation of language policy. Despite the eighteen years of democracy in South Africa, there are still learners who are taught through a language that is not their mother tongue. It was also evident that the parents could contribute towards the improvement of their children’s education. Motivation seems to be
very crucial in enhancing the languages other than the language of teaching and learning.
CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1  INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to present the elements that form part of a qualitative research design. The first part of this chapter consists of the description of the research paradigm for this investigation, where a case study was chosen. Other salient elements of research methodology such as the population studied, the size of sample as well as the sampling technique are discussed. The type of data collection instrument used, and the rationale for choosing it for this research are explained. The pilot study is also discussed. Finally, ethical considerations are discussed.

3.2  RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

This study was qualitative in its paradigm. Qualitative studies are important for theory generation, policy development, improvement of educational practice, illumination of social issues, and action stimulus (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006). In view of the above assertion, Johnson and Christensen (2008:35-36) further assert that “...a qualitative research examines behaviour as it occurs naturally in all of its detail; qualitative researchers try to look at multiple and layers of behavior and contended that reality is socially constructed.” Furthermore, Lemmer (1992: 292) acknowledges that in South Africa, where qualitative research still occupies a marginal status, it is important that
educationists become more familiar with this approach so that they might gain access to insights that qualitative studies in education are able to provide.

The research design of this study is a case study. Case studies concentrate on the experiential knowledge present in a case and pay closer attention to the influence of the case within a socio-political context (Stake, 2005: 444). Furthermore, case studies largely focus on processes that promote conceptual understanding and cognitive development with the language used for teaching and learning forming the core of research. Descombe (1998:40) states that case studies tend mainly to focus on the process rather than on measurable factors, they tend largely to rely on qualitative data and interpretive methods rather than quantitative data and statistical procedures. The study employed a densely interpretive approach that used descriptions and the understanding of certain teaching and learning process (Babbie & Mouton, 2001: 270).

3.3 POPULATION

A population is the larger group about which a generalization is made and is a group of individuals who have the same characteristic (Creswell, 2008). Johnson and Christensen (2008) assert that a population is a large group to which a researcher wants to generalise his or her sample results. It can be concluded that a population is the total group that the researcher is interested in learning more about (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). While McMillan and Schumacher (2006) view a population as a group of individuals with common elements, objects, or events that conform to specific criteria
and to which researchers intend to generalize the results of the research. The population of this study was Mthatha primary schools teachers.

3.4 SAMPLE

In most cases, the researcher needs to select a sample from the population (Muijs, 2004). A sample is a subgroup of the target population that the researcher plans to study for generalising about the research results to the target population (Creswell, 2008). In McMillan and Schumacher’s (2006) view, a sample refers to individuals who voluntarily participate in the investigation, and from whom the data are collected. The sample is representative of a population. The study had seven teachers as the sample and they were drawn from one of the Mthatha primary schools. The seven teachers were chosen on the basis of their teaching experience. There were six teachers (females) who handled grades 1 to 6 and one male teacher, who was the principal but also taught language and Life Orientation from grade 7 to 9.). They were, thus, fully involved in the teaching, monitoring, and evaluation of the non-isiXhosa and isiXhosa speaking learners using isiXhosa as the medium of instruction in their classes.

3.4.1 Sampling technique

The purposive sampling technique was used in selecting the participants for this study. Adopting the purposive sampling technique the researcher selected particular elements from the population that were representative or informative about the topic of interest. Because of the researcher’s knowledge of population, a judgment was made about
which subjects should be selected to provide the best information to address the purpose of the research (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006).

3.5 RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

The researcher used interviews, to collect data from the participants for this research (Descombe, 1998). Babbie and Mouton (2001: 291) assert that an interview is an integral part of the qualitative research process. The aim of an interview is to understand how people experience and make sense of their lives (Merriam, 2002).

The interview sessions were twenty minutes long. The researcher designed an interview schedule guide that was composed of semi-structured questions to help guide the interviewees in answering according to the set research questions. The interview schedule had semi-structured questions with two sections. Section one consisted of descriptive questions that explored the participant’s background including their qualifications, sex, teaching experience, and phase or grade. Section 2 included the questions that were related to the research questions. The questions were organized in the following way: strategies the participants used to manage their multilingual classrooms, challenges that they faced in teaching multilingual learners and strategies to overcome the challenges they faced when teaching multilingual learners. Interviews were chosen because they afforded the researcher an opportunity to probe deeply into participants’ beliefs, attitudes and inner experiences (Creswell, 2008; McMillan & Schumacher, 2006). This showed that the interviews were flexible to meet the participants’ understanding. The face-to-face interview was used because it was
cheaper than telephonic interviews. Furthermore, it offered an opportunity to use gestures in explaining the question to the interviewees.

3.6 TRUSTWORTHINESS

Validity of an instrument according to Gray (2004) refers to the extent to which it measures what it is intended to measure. In other words, validity of an instrument entails checking the appropriateness of the instrument to the research being conducted so as to produce valid findings and recommendations based on the research question of the study. Reliability is viewed by McMillan and Schumacher (2006) as an attempt to establish the consistency and accuracy of the tool by yielding similar results even if it could be administered to another set of samples with similar characteristics. The researcher piloted her instrument to attain its trustworthiness. The trustworthiness of the tool enabled the researcher to achieve meaningful results and recommendations.

3.7 DATA ANALYSIS PROCEDURES

It is crucial to reflect on how the researcher conducted her data analysis based on the research questions which are listed below:

(i). what strategies are employed by teachers to support the non-IsiXhosa speaking learners in Mthatha district primary schools?

(ii). What challenges do Mthatha teachers face in supporting non-isiXhosa to speaking learners?
How do Mthatha teachers overcome the challenges they face in supporting non-isiXhosa speaking learners?

It is imperative to explain how the instrument was used in relation to the research questions. The interviews were conducted face-to-face, and had semi-structured questions in line with the research questions. The interviewer (researcher) asked the sampled teachers or participants to identify strategies that they employed to support non-isiXhosa speaking learners in their classrooms. The researcher asked interviewees their rationale for employing those strategies that they had mentioned, outlined, or identified. This was done to gain an understanding or meaningful response to the main research question. While they were interviewed, the researcher used a tape-recorder and took notes on every response. This process of probing, note taking and tape-recording was conducted throughout the interviews sessions. Themes were constructed per research question. The qualitative data involved thematic content analysis that enabled the researcher to report the responses of the participants in a meaningful manner (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). The data were analysed by means of a thematic approach. The analysis and organisation of themes were constructed to draw conclusions and answer the research questions. Thematic Content Analysis (TCA) is a descriptive presentation of qualitative data (Anderson, 2004). This means that in the interview schedule, questions were set in accordance with themes in the texts for the purposes of meaningful data analysis. Related answers for each question were placed in themes. Only answers that were similar or had related content were placed in themes. Anderson (2004) contended that qualitative data may take the form of interview
transcripts collected from research participants or other identified texts that reflect experientially on the topic of study

3.8 PILOT STUDY

According to Maphalala (2006), a pilot study is an abbreviated versions of a research project in which the researcher practices or tests the procedures to be used in the subsequent full-scale project (Dane, 1990:42). It is a preliminary or "trial run" investigation using similar questions and similar subjects as in the final survey. Kidder and Judd (1986:211-212) state that the basic purpose of a pilot study is to determine how the design of the subsequent study can be improved and to identify flaws in the measuring instrument. A pilot study gave the researcher an idea of what the method will actually look like in operation and what effects (intended or not) it was likely to have. In other words, by generating many of the practical problems that might ultimately arise, the pilot study enabled the researcher to avert these problems by changing the procedure, instruction and questions. The number of participants in the pilot group was smaller than the number scheduled to take part in the final study. Participants in the pilot study and the sample for the final study must be selected from the same target populations. According to Plug et al. (1991:49-66), the following are the purposes of a pilot study:

It provides the researcher with ideas, approaches and clues not foreseen prior to the study
To ensure the validity of the data gathering tool, it (interview schedule guide) was forwarded to my supervisor to seek his comments before it was used on the sampled teachers. Furthermore, it was given to two teachers in the pilot testing of the research instrument. The purpose was to check the validity, relevance, grammatical errors and estimated time that the participants would need during the actual collection of data.

The objective of pilot testing was to identify potential problems in the interview schedule guide prior to finalizing the content in order to increase the validity and reliability of the research instruments. Pilot testing a research instrument affords a researcher the opportunity to administer a tool that is tested and approved as per McNiff and Whitehead (2005). The people on whom a research pilot is tested are regarded as validators (McNiff & Whitehead, 2008). To establish validity and reliability of the research instrument, pilot testing was done.

The outcomes of pilot testing this research indicated that there were grammatical errors that needed correcting. The researcher learnt that not all respondents could answer the question in the same way. That is why she thought of a thematic approach as a means of analysing the responses obtained through the interviews. The researcher also noticed that some respondents interpreted the question in a way which required the researcher to rephrase the question.
3.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethical clearance was sought from the University of Fort Hare. Permission to conduct the research was secured from the Eastern Cape Provincial DoE, District of Education officials (Appendix A), the school principal (Appendix B), and teachers (Appendix C) by means of writing letters to ask to conduct the proposed investigation. The informed consent form from the University of Fort Hare was also sought and duplicated and given to the teachers to fill as evidence of having agreed to participate in the study (Appendix D). After the teachers filled out the consent forms, the researcher collected them. The aim and purpose of the project was explained to all participants. They were informed about the proceedings of the research. They were informed that their participation was voluntary and that their teaching and learning time would not be interrupted. Furthermore, they were told that their responses would be treated confidentially, and their anonymity would be guaranteed (Carpenter, Ashdown & Bovair, 1996; Strydom, 2001; Kamper, 2000). This was done during the administering of the informed consent form, where they were informed that their real names would not be used. Pseudonyms (false names) were used during the interpretation of their responses during the interview. Their responses were treated confidentially and were used for the research only.

3.10 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

A resource such as time is a limiting factor. The researcher conducted this study while she was a full-time teacher in the Eastern Cape Provincial DoE in one of the Mthatha
schools. Her teaching workload was not reduced, even though conducting a study of this kind requires a lot of time. Despite this challenge, the researcher managed her time so that she was able to carry out her duties while the investigation was progressing.

3.11 DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

The study was conducted in the Mthatha education district. The researcher selected one of the Mthatha primary schools to be the research site where she requested six teachers and the principal to be research participants in this investigation. Those teachers were chosen because they taught in a multilingual school. Also, these teachers could provide the answers to the research questions.

3.12 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the research methodology and research design were discussed. It was indicated in the chapter that the research design was meant to guide the researcher in the plan and procedures of the study to be followed. It was indicated in the chapter that the study was qualitative in design. The chapter showed the data were collected through interviews. It was divulged by the researcher that the instrument was first tested on two teachers to check its trustworthiness, the adequacy of the questions in covering the research questions and to gauge the time required to answer the questions in the interview schedule guide. The researcher planned the interview sessions for 20 minutes each. It was revealed in the chapter that the researcher negotiated with the interviewees to be tape recorded. English was agreed on as the medium of research during the
interviews. To analyse the data, a thematic approach was used. Ethical considerations were also discussed. Amongst the aspects that were discussed under ethical considerations were letters seeking permission to conduct the study in one of the Mthatha primary schools, the Eastern Cape Department of Education; the principal and the teachers seeking their participation; the ethical clearance and informed consent form from the University of Fort Hare. In this chapter, it is mentioned that the study involves one school in the Mthatha Education District.
CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter is to present, analyze and interpret the data that emerged from the face-to-face interviews conducted with seven participants who volunteered to participate out of eight teachers who were approached. The study is qualitative in design to acquire the direct experiences and insights of the teachers who are actively involved in teaching of non-isiXhosa speaking learners. The interview questions were analysed using the thematic approach. The interviewees were tape-recorded during interview sessions to ensure that the study reported the authentic findings and to answer the research questions. The actual words of the participants were typed in italics. Pseudonyms were used to protect the participants’ identity. P stands for participant. All the participants were assigned numbers. For instance, respondent P1 refers to participant number one up to P7 which means participant number seven.
4.2 Demographic characteristics of participants

4.2.1 The distribution of participants according to gender and grades taught

Table 4.1 displays the distribution of participants according to gender and grades taught in their school.

**Table 4.1: Gender and Grades distribution of participants**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Grade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>P1</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P2</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P3</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P4</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P5</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>4-6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P6</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>4-6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P7</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>7-9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The importance of including gender in this study was to ensure that the study was inclusive (Makura 2012) and not biased. All the participants were purposefully selected for the reliability of their information. The researcher sought to find out if these teachers
would provide similar responses, not to be biased against male or females. Their inclusion was to access their experiences in relation to the problem under study.

It was reflected in Table 4.1 that two female teachers teach Grade 1. The 101 learners are divided amongst the two teachers in grade 1 (Class attendance Register, 2012). This showed that female teachers in grade 1 had large classes. They seemed to teach more learners than the number of learners recommended for a classroom. The official teacher learner ratio in South Africa especially in the primary grades is 1: 35 (Education Labour Relations Council, 2003). Van der Berg and Louw (2008:56) argue that the teacher-learner ratio in schools in South Africa should be 1: 36. Based on the above data, the proposed teacher learner ratio (1:36) was not observed. This high number of learners could negatively affect teaching and learning. Grade 2 and 3 were also taught by female teachers. Grades 1 to 3 form the Foundation-Phase grades in the General Education and Training Band. This indicated that, in the site where the research was conducted, female teachers taught Foundation-Phase grades. In the intermediate-Phase (Grades 4, 5 and 6), two female teachers participated in the study (see Table 4.1). The Foundation-Phase and Intermediate-Phase form primary school level. The male teacher as indicated in table 4.1 taught at Senior-Phase (Grades 7, 8 and 9). Of the participants in the study, 85% were female and 15 % were male, as indicated in table 4.1. The male teacher taught isiXhosa and Life Orientation in grades 7 to 9. Based on the findings it could be assumed that female teachers who teach from grades 1 to 6 experience difficulty in teaching large classes.
4.2.2 The Distribution of Participants According to Qualifications

All the participants were asked to provide their teaching qualifications.

Table 4.2: The Distribution of Participants According to Qualifications

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Qualifications</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>National Professional Diploma in Education (NPDE)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Primary Teacher’s Certificate (PTC), National Professional Diploma in Education (NPDE), and Advance Certificate in Education (ACE).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Primary Teacher’s Diploma (PTD), Bachelor of Education (B.Ed) Honours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Primary Teacher’s Diploma (PTD), B.Ed Honours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>4-6</td>
<td>Primary Teacher’s Diploma (PTD), B.Ed Honours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>4-6</td>
<td>Primary Teacher’s Diploma (PTD), B.Ed Honours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>7-9</td>
<td>Senior Teacher’s Diploma (STD), Bachelor of Arts (B.A.).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The qualifications of the participants helped the researcher to evaluate the effect of their level of education on. The purpose was to establish the methodological differences that existed or similarities if any. It was also executed to see if there were any gaps in
knowledge among the participants. In this study, all the female and male participants’ qualifications were recognized by the South African Qualification Authority (SAQA).

The data provided by the research participants is depicted in Table 4.2. The data that were captured in this regard confirmed that all the participants had the minimum teachers’ professional qualification. It was further noted that four out of seven participants had honours degrees in addition to the primary teacher’s diploma as seen in Table 4.2. From such observations, it was clear that there was no under-qualified nor unqualified teachers in the school where the research was conducted. Participants could, therefore, be expected to interact meaningfully with the diverse learners. This question was asked by the researcher to check the proficiency and competencies of participants in teaching learners of different backgrounds in terms of language. The professional profile of the teachers who were interviewed indicated that professionally qualified teachers taught at the school.

4.2.3 The distribution of respondents according to years of experience

In addition to the teachers’ professional qualification, the researcher requested to know about the participants’ teaching experience.
Table 4.3: Teaching Experience of Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>Teaching experience</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>10 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>10 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>10 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>31 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>21 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>30 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>30 years</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The participants were asked to indicate the number of years of experience they had in the teaching profession. This was reflected in Table 4.3. The purpose was to determine whether practical experience in the teaching profession in any way enhanced or complicated the experiences of teachers in supporting the non-isiXhosa speaking learners in educational settings. The teaching experience of the interviewed teachers was included in the study to check their ability and skills in dealing with the linguistically diverse learners. It was found that the participants had varying amounts of teaching experience as displayed in Table 4.3. Respondents P1, P2 and P3 had a minimum of 10 years’ teaching experience. Respondent P4 indicated that she had 30 years of teaching
experience as pointed out in table 4.3 above. Respondent P5 had spent 21 years in teaching. Respondent P6 said that she had spent 30 years teaching of which 25 years was spent in the school where the research was done. Respondent P7 also indicated 30 years of service of which half was spent in the school where research was conducted. It is therefore, evident that the participants had relative long teaching experience. It meant that there were no novice teachers in site of research. Based on the interviewed teachers’ experience, it could be assumed that they would be able to deal with the challenges they face and be able to employ teaching strategies in multilingual classrooms.

4.3 DATA PRESENTATION

The aim of this study was to investigate the strategies employed by teachers to support the non-isiXhosa speaking learners. The respondents had the following questions to answer:

4.3.1 Research question 1: What strategies are employed by Mthatha district teachers to support non-isiXhosa speaking learners?

The participants were asked to divulge the strategies that they employed to support the non-isiXhosa speaking learners in their classrooms. Themes for the research question 1 were clearly identifiable from the responses provided by teachers who participated in the study. These themes were as follows:
4.3.1.1 **Grouping of non-isiXhosa speaking learners**

Respondents P1, P2 and P5 declared that they grouped the non-isiXhosa speaking learners together with IsiXhosa speaking learners during teaching and learning. Based on their professional qualifications and teaching experience, it was clear from the participants’ responses that grouping of diverse learners in one classroom during teaching was a teaching strategy that they use to support the non-isiXhosa speaking learners. When the researcher asked respondent P1 about the strategies she employed when teaching in her classroom she stated, “I group the isiXhosa learners with non-isiXhosa learners so that they can learn from each other.” Respondents P2 and P5 concurred with respondent P1 with regard to grouping of learners. Respondent P5 argued that she mixed the non-isiXhosa speaking learners with isiXhosa speaking learners because she had big numbers in her class. She put it in this way: “I have this big number of learners in my class.” Three respondents out of seven who participated in the study reported that the mixing or grouping of learners worked for them and the learners as well.

From the above data, three of the interviewed teachers declared that they grouped non-isiXhosa speaking learners with isiXhosa speaking learners during teaching and learning sessions. The data that showed that non-isiXhosa speaking learners and isiXhosa speaking learners are grouped together was provided by female teachers who were all had more than ten years of teaching experience and were all qualified teachers.
From the researcher’s point of view, and based on the interviewed teachers’ profile, the grouping of the non-isiXhosa speaking learners with isiXhosa speaking learners during teaching and learning sessions in their classrooms was vital in achieving the educational goals. The educational goals from Grade 1 to 6 were to enable the learners to write, read and count. Some educational goals at this level were to prepare learners to become independent thinkers and problem solvers.

Grouping together of learners on the basis of different language backgrounds seemed to be an opportunity for learners to get to know each other and to find that they share common ground, common problems, and common feelings. With regard to the grouping of diverse learners, this implied that non-isiXhosa speaking learners were afforded the opportunity to benefit from teaching and learning through group work as a teaching strategy. Killen (2009:169) agreed with Kelly (2009) in identifying group work as a teaching strategy.

It was evident from the literature reviewed and the data provided by participants that the grouping of non-isiXhosa and isiXhosa-speaking learners could have a positive impact in their learning. All learners were afforded the opportunity to participate in teaching and learning when they were grouped together, giving them a chance to share their weaknesses and strengths for the benefit of assisting one another. The assertion made by the respondents clearly showed that all learners were afforded the opportunity to interact academically and socially in one classroom. As learners learn together and get to know one another, mutual respect and friendships can develop.
4.3.1.2 Storytelling as a teaching strategy

The data provided by respondent P5 showed that she used story-telling as a teaching strategy to support nonisiXhosa speaking learners in her classroom. One (14%) out of seven interviewed teachers indicated that storytelling as a teaching strategy worked for her in supporting the nonisiXhosa speaking learners to cope with teaching and learning. Respondent P5 answered as follows. “I do the stories to make them understand.”

Based on her teaching experience, and her qualification, storytelling as a teaching strategy could support the nonisiXhosa speaking learners to cope with teaching and learning being conducted in a language that was not their mother-tongue.

According to the National Storytelling Network (2006) storytelling is an ancient art form and valuable to human expression. It is the interactive art of using or conveying words, images, sounds, or actions to reveal the elements and images of a story while encouraging the listener’s imagination. Stories have been shared in every culture as a means of education, entertainment, preservation of culture and to instill knowledge and moral values (National Storytelling Network, 2006). As such, stories are typically used to teach, explain, or entertain. Crucial elements of storytelling include plot and characters, as well as the narrative point of view (National Storytelling Network, 2006).

From the above assertion, the use of story-telling as a teaching strategy seemed appropriate to support the nonisiXhosa speaking learners.
4.3.1.3 Teaching aids as a teaching strategy

It was divulged by three teachers that teaching aids were their teaching strategy to support the non-isiXhosa speaking learners. Respondents P2, P4, and P5 supported the use of teaching aids as a strategy that is vital for diverse learners. The following data confirm their argument:

Respondent P2 answered, "I use flash cards."
Respondent P4 replied, "I use visual aids."
Respondent P5 also shared the similar view with that of respondent P2 as she indicated that, "I use flash cards."

Three out of the seven interviewees (teachers) showed that they used teaching aids as a teaching strategy to support the non-isiXhosa speaking learners. Based on their teaching experience and qualifications, the three interviewed teachers considered the use of teaching aids as one of the teaching strategies that could assist non-isiXhosa speaking learners. Based on the responses of the participants, it is confirmed that the participants had Honours degrees, which made the researcher assumes that respondents P2, P4 and P5 were in a better position to use the teaching aids than those who did not have Honours degrees. Their degree advancement in Education was perceived as a positive influence in the teaching and learning of non-isiXhosa speaking learners. Respondents P2, P4 and P5 were able to construct adequate and relevant teaching aids to meet the diverse academic needs of learners in their classrooms because of their maturity, qualification and teaching experience.
The following section reveals the responses of the participants where they showed the use of homework as an important teaching strategy to support the non-isiXhosa speaking learners.

4.3.1.4 Homework as a teaching strategy

The use of homework as a teaching strategy to support the non-isiXhosa speaking learners was advanced by respondents P2 and P5. The two participants (P2 and P5) used the homework as a means of connecting parents and children with schoolwork. Respondent P2 replied, “I give them homework.” On the other hand, respondent P5 answered in this fashion, “learners go home with vowels and consonants to build words in isiXhosa.” Based on the data collected, learners seemed to be lazy in doing their homework. The usefulness of this strategy was dependent on cooperation between school and home (parents). It could be assumed that the use of homework is associated with the teaching experience, age and qualification of the respondents because of its positive outcomes in supporting the non-isiXhosa speaking learners to cope with learning and teaching as with their counterparts (isiXhosa speaking learners).

Based on the above data, homework was seen to involve the school and the home where parents were responsible for supervising their children in schoolwork. Homework was a way of integrating home and school regarding the curriculum.
The fourth teaching strategy that was identified by the participants was code switching. The following theme presents code switching as a teaching strategy to support the non-isiXhosa speaking learners.

4.3.1.5 Code-switching as a teaching strategy

In response to the question “what strategies do teachers employ to support the non-isiXhosa speaking learners?” One of the interviewed teachers advanced code switching as a teaching strategy she used to support the non-isiXhosa speaking learners. It was confirmed by another of the interviewed teachers that code switching was a teaching strategy for the multilingual classroom. Respondent P2 responded as follows, “I consider their previous knowledge by code-switching.” By creating an environment where the non-isiXhosa speaking learners were afforded an opportunity to get explanations in a language which they better understood and comprehended, the learner would not miss any material presented in the classroom.

Wheeler and Swords (2001) contend that these learners fail tests not because of the content of the tests, but because they experience great difficulty in understanding the language of the test questions. The implication of the above assertion is that code switching is vital in multilingual classrooms. Code switching, according to Cole (1998) is used to direct learners’ attention to the new knowledge by making use of a native tongue. As a result of all the points mentioned above, it may be suggested that code switching in multilingual classroom is not always a blockage or deficiency in learning a language, but may be considered as a useful strategy in classroom interaction.
4.3.1.6 Parental involvement as a teaching strategy

Parental involvement was acknowledged by the interviewed teachers as one of the teaching strategies that they use to support the non-isiXhosa speaking learners in their classrooms. One out of seven interviewed teachers declared that parental involvement was a teaching strategy that was employed in supporting the non-isiXhosa speaking learners. Respondent P1 replied, “I ask their parents to assist them.”

Arthur et al. (2009:246) aver that the home is crucial in enhancing the learners’ knowledge about school when parents communicate with the children in their speech community. Their argument seems to suggest that the role of the home should not be underestimated. A review of the research on parental involvement revealed that it positively affects learners’ achievement (Epstein, Sanders, Simon, Salinas, Jansorn & Voorhis, 2002). In light of Epstein et al’s (2002) findings, parental involvement is critical for the improvement of teaching and learning.

It transpired from the data provided by the interviewed teachers that they used the group work, storytelling, teaching aids, homework, code-switching and parental involvement as their teaching strategies to support the non-isiXhosa speaking learners. The data from the research showed that teachers used fewer teaching strategies to support the non-isiXhosa speaking learners than the teaching strategies discussed in the literature review in Chapter 2.
4.3.2 Research question 2: What challenges do Mthatha teachers face in supporting non-isiXhosa speaking learners?

Teachers were asked to mention the challenges that they faced in supporting the non-isiXhosa speaking learners. There were numerous challenges that were outlined by the interviewed teachers. Three themes for research question 2 were constructed from the participants’ responses. The researcher constructed the following: language (mother-tongue) as a challenge, absenteeism of non-isiXhosa speaking learners, indiscipline of non-isiXhosa speaking learners, and limited or non-involvement of parents in the education of their children. The data were organized according to the following themes in addressing the sub-question 1 that sought to examine the challenges faced by teachers in supporting the non-isiXhosa speaking learners.

4.3.2.1 Language (mother tongue) as a challenge

Language is a requirement for communication and understanding in the classroom. Where learners encounter difficulties in language, their learning is hampered. When the participants were asked to offer the challenges they face in their classrooms, it was reported that learners did not understand the language. Respondent P1 responded, “They do not understand the language and you have to go back to their level by means of code-switching.” Respondent P2 answered, “Some learners have problems in grasping some concepts.” Respondent P2 replied, “There are spelling problems.” Respondent P4 replied, “They have problems in pronouncing the click sounds (‘q’ and ‘k’).” Three teachers out of the seven who participated in the interviews reported that
learners had language problems, as such it was the teacher’s challenge to work with them.

Lemmer et al. (2006: v) contended that educators are faced daily with the challenge of teaching and managing learners from unfamiliar cultures, languages and backgrounds. Educators are required to create suitable learning environments that meet the needs of learners from diverse cultural, linguistic, educational and socioeconomic backgrounds. The participants identified numerous challenges encountered by them.

One of the findings in relation to challenges encountered by teachers in a multilingual class was that the non-isiXhosa speaking learners do not understand isiXhosa. It should be considered that language problems affect the learner’s ability to understand and use the language in all academic subjects (Meece & Daniels, 2008:280). This means that, creating an effective teaching and learning environment and the understanding of the language by both teachers and learners is critical. Language is critical in shaping cognitive development. According to Meece and Daniels (2008:280), learners with communication disorders experience numerous academic problems in school.

4.3.2.1 Absenteeism of learners as a challenge

One of the participants indicated that absenteeism of learners especially the non-isiXhosa speaking learners was prevalent in her classroom, without valid reasons. Respondent P5 identified the bunking of school by learners as a challenge that their
school faced. She eloquently put it in this way. “One of the challenges is rural area absenteeism.” Rothman (2001) contends that frequent school attendance is an important factor in school success. Where learners do not come to school regularly their learning ability is likely to be crippled.

4.3.2.3 Indiscipline amongst the non-isixhosa speaking learners as a challenge

One of the challenges that was identified by the interviewed teachers was the indiscipline of non-isixhosa speaking learners. They cited the following types of learners’ indiscipline. Respondent P6 commented that, “They want to stay alone. They do not mix with isiXhosa speaking learners. They think that they are better. Their behaviour is bad not like isiXhosa speaking learners.” Respondents P3 and P7 added that, “The learners do not do their homework.” Two teachers and the principal reported that indiscipline amongst the non-isixhosa speaking learners was common. The relationships between learners and the accompanying range of social behaviours have a major impact on how well learners learn language (isiXhosa) and how well all learners learn other subjects.

According to Peterson and Skiba (2001), effective and efficient learning and teaching are influenced by positive learner's behaviour. Peterson and Skiba (2001) argue that negative feelings such as loneliness can negatively affect learning. It is clear from the assertion by Peterson and Skiba (2001) that discipline is a requirement for quality teaching and learning. It is imperative that strategies to address indiscipline by learners be in place in schools to attain effective and efficient learning and teaching. The
following findings were deduced from the challenges reported by the teachers who participated in the interviews:

(i) Some learners had trouble grasping concepts. They had not mastered isiXhosa as much as those who were isiXhosa speaking learners. They struggled with the pronunciation of click sounds in isiXhosa.

(ii) They did not mix well with isiXhosa speaking learners. They felt that they were better and their behaviour was worse than that of isiXhosa speaking learners.

(iii) Learners regularly bunked school and did not do their homework.

It is vital that an effort be made to deal with the above results to enable effective and efficient teaching and learning program to be realised in multilingual classrooms.

4.3.3 Research question 3: How do Mthatha teachers overcome the challenges they face in supporting non-isiXhosa speaking learners?

The following data addressed research question which 3 asked how Mthatha teachers overcome the challenges they face in supporting non-isiXhosa speaking learners. Themes were constructed by the researcher based on the responses from the teachers. The themes were as follows: grouping of non-isiXhosa speaking learners and isiXhosa speaking learners, parental involvement, provision of homework, motivation of learners, involvement of School Management Team (SMT), and commitment by teachers.
4.3.3.1 Grouping learners in one classroom during teaching and learning

Respondent P5 stated that she put the non-isiXhosa speaking learners with isiXhosa speaking learners in groups. This suggests that the respondent adhered to the constitution of South Africa, which supports the practice of no discrimination based on language, colour, gender (Makura 2012) or disability. In other words, some teachers conducted themselves in line with Section 9 of the South African Constitution (1996) which protects individuals against discrimination by providing that learners may not be excluded from school activities on the grounds of race, language or religion (Lemmer, et al., 2006:7). Section 30 of the South African Constitution (1996) further cautions that learners’ language should be recognised and protected. This implies that, where learners experience the classroom as a caring, supportive place where there is a sense of belonging and everyone is valued and respected they tend to participate more fully in the process of learning. The South African Constitution Act number 108 of 1996, and Language in Education Policy of 2003 advocate that every learner has a right to education. Therefore, the grouping of non-isiXhosa speaking learners with isiXhosa speaking learners is the democratic responsibility of all teachers employed by the DoE to ensure that they do not contravene the constitution of the country (South Africa in particular).

4.3.3.2 Parental involvement

Three out of the seven participants claimed that they involved parents. The Nelson Mandela Foundation (2005) asserts that teachers and some parents often feel that
parents did not co-operate adequately with the school. This point emphasised the importance of a sound collaboration between parents, teachers, and learners. When learners forget to do their homework, it suggests that there is a lack of parental involvement. The participants who involved the parents indicated that there was improvement in the academic performance of learners. Barton and Coley (1992) assert that parental involvement plays a vital role in enhancing the learners’ academic performance and children’s behaviour. Jones (1993) argues that the behavior and attitude of the children are improved when there is active participation of parents in school related matters. Parental involvement is well established as being correlated with learner academic achievement (Epstein, 2005). In another study conducted by Jordan, Tharp and Baird-Vogt (1992) it was found that Hawaiian children’s academic achievement increased when certain aspects of their home culture were integrated into the elementary classroom. This means that involving parents in teaching and learning is crucial in multilingual classrooms.

4.3.3.3 Setting of homework

Two participants suggested that homework was crucial in overcoming the challenges faced by teachers in supporting the non-isixaHosa speaking learners. Respondents P2 and P5 concurred that homework was fruitful in overcoming the challenges faced by teachers in multilingual classrooms. Respondent P2 replied, “I give them homework.” Respondent P5 answered, “They go home with these vowels to build some words.”
From the arguments of the three respondents, it could be concluded that homework enabled the learners to be assisted by their parents in their own language. Learners who are of interest to the researcher happened to stay longer hours at home with their parents, in which case, the parents were likely to be resourceful in supporting and assisting them better than the teachers. The parents know and understand the strengths and weaknesses of their children better than the teachers.

4.3.3.4 Motivation of learners

The findings show that learners did not do their homework. Homework acts as revision for learners because it covers all that is taught at school. Motivated learners find it easy to participate in the class and can easily identify problems.

The researcher noticed from the data provided by one of the participants that non-isiXhosa speaking learners were encouraged to do their school work. According to Burris and Welner (2005), learners learn more when teachers, who have high expectations of them, encourage them to identify problems, and involve them in collaborative activities to challenge them. Teachers who have high expectations convey the belief that their learners have the ability to succeed in demanding activities (Burris & Welner, 2005). According to Burris and Welner (2005), such teachers avoid repetitive rote learning; instead, they involve young people in novel problem-solving activities. Teachers motivate learners to participate in teaching and learning.
4.3.3.5 Involvement of school management teams

Respondent P6 reported that the SMTs were involved in overcoming the challenges experienced by teachers in supporting the non-isiXhosa speaking learners. Respondent P6 replied, “I communicate the problem with the SMT.” In the current study, one member of the SMTs was included to seek his experiences of the presence of non-isiXhosa speaking learners in the school and to establish how often his input is sought by his teachers to support the non-isiXhosa speaking learners.

Moloi (2003) assert that a deeper reason for the need to transform schools into learning organizations is that education had a moral purpose to make a difference in the lives of the learners irrespective of their backgrounds.

4.3.3.6 Commitment by teachers

Respondent P4 reported that she extended teaching time and considered individualisation. She put it in this way, “I extend time and do individualization.” Another respondent also showed the commitment of teachers when she argued that they conducted peer teaching and extra classes. Respondent P1 replied, “We have some time after school, so we teach them after school. We give more time to the non-isiXhosa learners.” The responses of the two respondents indicated their dedication in ensuring that the needs of the non-isiXhosa speaking learners are also met.
Commitment by teachers was also advanced as one solution by one of the participants to overcome challenges experienced by teachers in multilingual classrooms. This is evident from the assertion made by one of the participants when she said, “I try to make them understand the click sounds. I extend time and do individualization.” The other respondent showed commitment when she replied that she got more physical or tactile aids to use in the classrooms.

Stott and Walker (1999) share the same view about the importance of peer teaching. Team teaching enables teachers to have a significant role in school decision making, control over their work environment, and offers opportunities to contribute to range of professional roles (Stott & Walker, 1999:51-52). They further contend that problems that surface in schools are easier solved if they are handled by individual teacher.

Meece and Daniels (2008:328) claim that peer tutoring is functional in linguistically diverse learners. Based on the above argument, it is critical that peer teaching be considered to support the non-isiXhosa speaking learners.

Ortiz (2001) cautions that, if school climates are not supportive and if instruction is not tailored to meet the needs of linguistically diverse learners in general education, these learners have little chance of succeeding. This implies that teachers have a responsibility of creating a conducive environment for teaching and learning.
4.3.3.7 Support received by teachers

The participants were asked to share their insight on the support they received to empower them to support the non-isixhosa speaking learners. In the interviews, the question was framed in the following way: Is there any kind of support you receive from your school or the DoE in relation to teaching challenges? The question was posed to teachers to solicit what support was provided to them to meet the demands of teaching and learning in multilingual classrooms. Though they all had a teacher’s qualification, judging from their responses, it was evident that they had never been trained to teach in multilingual classrooms. It could be assumed that the challenges they faced in dealing with the multilingual classrooms were the result of the lack of training in executing their professional duties effectively in multilingual classrooms.

Participants provided various answers to the above question. One of the participants, P6 explicitly replied in this way, “Not specifically, I have 25 years of teaching experience in predominantly non-English speaking area.” Nevertheless, she mentioned that, “I attended many workshops; I draw on from the experience of colleagues.” Her statement seemed to suggest that she had never attended a workshop that gave her the necessary support to overcome the challenges she experienced in the multilingual classroom.

The respondent indicated that as a teacher, “You need to improvise, seek advice from other teachers.”

Another respondent replied that, “Support is limited due to lack of funds to purchase teaching and learning aids required to assist learners.”
The fourth respondent said, "*My school is good in teamwork. They allow you to do whatever you want to introduce to the school as far as it is good for the learners at school."

In simpler terms, this means that there are no systems or measures in place to support the teachers in relation to teaching challenges.

Only one out of seven participants confirmed that she received assistance from the head of department (HOD). She put it in this way, "Yes, I have support from the management of the school. The management of the school comes to my classroom and checks me. *They render support when it is necessary.*" The above statement shows that the teaching and learning programme is monitored by the SMTs. Modiba (2003:57) acknowledges that teachers in South Africa are not equipped enough to face the challenge of teaching in multilingual classrooms.

It is evident from a study conducted by Mda and Mothata (2000) that there are limitations in teacher training for multilingual education. The colleges of education that train most South African teachers are mainly ethnically based. Most multilingual programmes are developed and facilitated by Non-Government Organizations (NGOs) and not by the DoE (Mda & Mothata, 2000).

In a study by He and Miller (2011) investigating teacher preference which was the case of China’s non-English-major learners, teacher in-service training or teacher empowerment was viewed as a critical aspect in enhancing teaching and learning in the
multilingual classroom. He and Miller (2011:433) maintain that, “it is fairly important to provide more teachers with better opportunities to be trained and educated so that they can supply their learners with teaching of higher quality.” Despite their long teaching experience and their teaching qualification, their assertion seems to suggest that when teachers are not supported, effective teaching and learning in multilingual classrooms become a struggle.

4.4 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the researcher presented, analysed, and interpreted data. The thematic approach was used to analyse the data of the study. Themes were constructed in light of the similar responses provided by the participants to the research questions that were posed.

The next chapter presents the summary, and conclusions. Recommendations were made as well based on the results of the study.
CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter discussed the data presentation, analysis and interpretation. The first part of this chapter presents and discusses the summary of the findings. The conclusions are discussed in the second section of this chapter. Recommendations based on the results that emerged from the data provided by respondents are discussed in last part of the chapter.

5.2 SUMMARY

The research investigated strategies employed by teachers to support the non-isixhosa speaking learners. This was the researcher's concern emanating from the difficulties displayed by non-isixhosa speaking learners because the medium of instruction was not their mother tongue. The isiXhosa language was used as LOLT in the school where the research was conducted. The school consisted of non-isixhosa speaking and isiXhosa speaking learners.

The study sought to answer the following research questions:
1. What strategies are employed by Mthatha district teachers to support non-isiXhosa speaking learners?

2. What challenges do Mthatha teachers face in supporting the non-isiXhosa speaking learners?

3. How do Mthatha teachers overcome the challenges they face in supporting the non-isiXhosa speaking learners?

The qualitative design approach was used in this study. The study was a case study of one Mthatha primary school. Interviews were used to collect the data from six female teachers who taught from Grade 1 to Grade 6 and one male teacher, who was principal of the selected school and taught isiXhosa and Life Orientation from Grade 7 to Grade 9. The researcher selected the respondents of the study using the purposeful sampling technique. All the interviewed teachers were qualified teachers. They were all interviewed face-to-face and were tape-recorded during interviews sessions. The researcher performed the data collection after she had secured the permission from the ECDoE and after the sampled teachers had agreed to participate through completing the informed consent forms. In simpler terms, the data collection process began after all the ethical consideration requirements were met and approved by the relevant stakeholders of the research. The supervisor of the study had to access the credibility of the tool before it was administered to the volunteer respondents by first approving the questions that were formulated by the researcher. The questions were aligned to the research questions. The thematic approach was adopted as data analysis of the study guided by the responses provided to the questions to the interviewed teachers. Pseudonyms were used in the data presentation to adhere to the ethical measures of the study.
On the question of strategies employed by teachers, few teaching strategies were employed by teachers to support the non-isiXhosa speaking learners. The teachers indicated that they used group work, storytelling. Teaching aids, homework, code-switching and parental involvement, irrespective of their teacher’s qualification and teaching experience, as their teaching strategy. The analysis of the data showed that teachers used too few teaching strategies.

Although teachers said that they used teaching aids, the researcher observed that those teaching aids were not regularly used. Many of the classrooms had few posters, nor were they print rich to supplement teaching and learning. In a mixed class, isiXhosa and non-isiXhosa speaking learners needed see a lot of written information to remind them of what the teachers said in the class during lessons.

It is suggested that teachers evaluate each strategy used so as to change to another strategy when one did not work. The rationale of using many strategies is to accommodate the different learning styles of all learners. When few strategies are used, learners who did not benefit from the few chosen methods would be deprived of their right to education. The participants’ teaching experience and qualification, seemed not to be linked to the number of teaching strategies.

The discussion method for instance, was not cited by the respondents of the study as a teaching strategy to be used while the findings of Carpenter (2006) revealed that use of the discussion method produced improvement in teaching and learning especially in large classrooms.
On the question of challenges faced by the teachers in supporting the non-isiXhosa speaking learners, their responses affirmed that there were numerous challenges. The interviewed teachers mentioned the large numbers of learners in classrooms and overcrowding in the classroom which led to indiscipline and absenteeism of learners. IsiXhosa was the language of teaching and learning for all the learners including the non- isiXhosa learners. Teachers also confirmed limited involvement of parents in their children’s education.

The problem of large numbers in the classroom is common to many schools . Other strategies of managing large numbers ought to be implemented. Some of the respondents mentioned print rich classrooms as one of the ways to face the challenge of overcrowding in the classroom. When there are large numbers in a class learners might be unruly and individual attention may be difficult to implement. In the school, professional development to help those teachers in overcrowded classrooms and learner support material could reduce the stress of large classes. The non-isiXhosa learners depend on the approaches used by the teachers to acquire the language skills. This means that teachers should be very skillful when choosing their teaching methods.

The non-isiXhosa learners are disadvantaged by the use of isiXhosa as the LOLT especially when few strategies are used. The fact that the non-isiXhosa learners are few in each class gave them no choice but to learn in isiXhosa. The language in education policy also does not provide the necessary support to their teachers. If all the languages could be preserved, not only would these non-isiXhosa learners be saved from language
loss but the dignity of all citizens would be saved too. The home language acts as a base from which all languages could be learned. Gonzalez-Mena (2005) opines that learning to read and write is critical to a child’s success in school and later in life. Language is one of the passing subjects; which means that one cannot proceed to the next class if one fails language.

Many dropouts can be connected to the absenteeism of learners. Absenteeism is dangerous as it demotivates learners from attending school. If the classroom is not attractive to learners, frustration develops to such an extent that learners either absent themselves or develop unaccepted behavior. Even if the classroom is very attractive, the language of teaching and learning should not be too different from what the child already knows. Gonzalez-Mena (2005) asserts that for optimal development and learning by all children, educators must accept the legitimacy of children’s home language and culture. One of the respondents said that these learners isolate themselves. Gonzalez-Mena (2005) further states that some children in early childhood programs feel scared and lonely, even when surrounded by people who speak their language. In cases like these learners may decide to bunk school to avoid this frustration at school. Teachers need to identify the reasons behind absenteeism and root causes of indiscipline in the classroom.

Parents seem to be the primary teachers in the sense that they are the ones who teach the children most of the morals for coping with the world. This implies that without active parental participation, the child at school would struggle to understand basic social rules. The involvement of parents could make a lot of difference to learning by non-isiXhosa
speaking learners. Learning is an integrated process that includes a parent, a teacher and a learner. Once these stakeholders work together, success is possible.

On the ways to overcome the challenges, the interviewed teachers claimed that there was a lack of support to empower teachers to support the non-isiXhosa speaking learners. The culture of learning and teaching becomes sound when there is a support system in place. The principal needs to make sure that teachers get the necessary support by creating sound communication with the Department of Education. Colleagues could be useful by supporting each other. Without the necessary support to the teachers, non-isiXhosa speaking learners would continue to struggle with reading and writing. Regular monitoring by the DoE might assist in supporting the teachers. The implication of not getting support not only frustrates the teacher but disadvantages learning by a learner. The lack of in-service training that focuses on capacitating teachers to handle multilingual classrooms seems to be an indication of insufficient support in school with multilingual learners. Without continuous in-service training of teachers in programmes to empower them to cope with multilingual classrooms, ineffective teaching and learning will prevail in those schools. This finding seems to suggest that in-service training is critical to prepare teachers to meet the daily educational, social and technological changes in a country like South Africa. The following section presents the conclusions.
5.3 CONCLUSION

It can be concluded that when teachers employ only a few teaching strategies, it has a negative impact on teaching and learning in linguistically diverse classrooms. For effective teaching and learning to occur in classrooms, the use of a variety of teaching strategies would enhance learning.

The research showed that teachers were not supported in dealing with multilingual classrooms. It is critical that teachers be engaged in on-going training to meet the technological and educational challenges of linguistically diverse learners. Stakeholders of education (DoE, teachers and parents) should work hand in hand for the enhancement of the children’s education to minimise the challenges faced by learners and teachers.

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

In this section, the recommendations are discussed in light of the findings that emerged as per the research questions.

One of the questions sought to determine the strategies used by teachers to support the non-isiXhosa speaking learners. The data showed that there few teaching strategies used by the respondents. The following recommendations are suggested in that regard.
5.4.1 Increase the number of strategies

The findings of the study showed that the teachers employed few teaching strategies. In light of the reviewed literature, the data provided by the respondents as well where they indicated the plethora of challenges in teaching multilingual classrooms, the researcher suggests that teachers use a variety of teaching strategies. It is suggested that teachers consider using various teaching strategies when assisting the non-isiXhosa speaking learners e.g. using video planned lessons, magazines, TV, inviting a teacher from the another class and inviting parents. This could reduce the challenges they face when teaching these learners.

The negative effects of large numbers of learners in a class were declared by Carpenter (2006) as posing challenges. Carpenter (2006) argued that delivering quality and value to a large class presents unique challenges. In a study conducted by Carpenter (2006), class size was found to have an impact on the performance of the learners. Carpenter’s (2006) study showed that teaching strategies should be mixed to accommodate learning by differences of learners. The researcher recommends that teachers use as many teaching strategies as possible.

Absenteeism and indiscipline are the result of boredom in the classroom. A variation in teaching strategies could develop learner’s enthusiasm to listen in the classroom. It could also encourage the learners to demonstrate self-discipline and responsibility. The appropriateness of the teaching strategies could lead to a manageable, conducive learning environment that motivates learners to come to school every day. Teachers
should be creative in their use of teaching strategies to eliminate the challenges in the class.

5.4.2 Reduce teacher learner ratio

Teachers ought to use various teaching strategies whilst they are waiting for the DoE to sort out the inadequate supply of teachers in schools by means of additional teachers and infrastructure development and the issue of overcrowding in the classrooms. Teachers ought to commit themselves by accepting the conditions that can not be addressed immediately. This could boost their strength as teachers. As a suggestion by the researcher to school principals, and in line with the official teacher learner ratio gazetted by DoE for primary schools, number of learners admitted should be controlled so that the existing teachers in schools would have sufficient time to pay individual attention to deserving learners. This implies that school principals should observe the official teacher learner ratio. Van der Berg and Louw (2008) support the view that the teacher-learner ratio in schools in South Africa should be 1:36. This viewpoint of Van der Berg and Louw (2008) could be realised only if the SMTs of schools adhere to the admission policy of the DoE in ensuring that they admit learners in relation to their staff establishments.
5.4.3 Revisit the school language policy and introduce two languages of learning and teaching

In cases where learners speak two languages, it would benefit both language learners to learn each other’s language. This would also reduce indiscipline among learners. Some of the causes of the indiscipline emanate from the frustrations of not understanding the language. It is assumed that an additive strategy is important, in that, while promoting the LOLT of the school, the mother tongues of the learners are maintained. This is also in line with Language in Education Policy, which promotes the use the mother-tongue as a foundation to learning an additional language.

Van der Poll and Van der Poll (2007) aver that when studying a subject that is content related, in a different language than their mother tongue, learners are faced with the problem of content literacy. In their study, Van der Poll and Van der Poll (2007) affirmed that a proper comprehension of a language is a non-negotiable prerequisite for understanding a content subject presented in that language.

Myburgh, Poggenpoel and Van Rensburg (2004) opined that where learners do not speak the language of instruction, effective teaching and learning become a struggle. This suggests that learners should be taught in their mother tongue in the elementary grades if effective teaching and learning are to be achieved in primary schools. The National Curriculum Statement (NCS) (2002) prioritises additive multilingualism and promotes the teaching of African languages in schools. The NCS (2002) stipulates that:
all learners study their home language and at least one additional language as language subjects from Grade 1.

Considering the benefits of using code-switching, the teachers are advised to use it in teaching and learning of linguistically diverse learners.

5.4.4 Implement measures/systems to deal with absenteeism and indiscipline of learners

School principals ought to have a code of conduct for all the learners which are signed by all parents. It could be stated in this document that indiscipline by learners is unacceptable. The involvement of a police officer as means of ensuring discipline is recommended. A safe environment is what everyone in the school needs. Parent days could make our learners more self-disciplined because the learners are aware of the parent-teacher relationship that is sound.

5.4.5 Increase parental involvement

Parents should be actively involved in their children’s education. This enables the teacher to know the child better and be in a better position to teach in an effective way. It does not matter whether a parent is educated or not. What matters is the support that is rendered to accelerate teaching and learning at school. Some learners bunk school without the knowledge of their parents. It is suggested that a communication book be
drafted where parents sign every time a learner is given home work to ensure completion each day.

The following recommendation is made by the researcher in light of the finding to research question 3, which asked the respondents to suggest ways or strategies to overcome the challenges they face in supporting the non-isiXhosa speaking learners.

5.4.6 Provide support to teacher

Our education system has experienced many changes, amongst which is technological advancement in terms of the strategies that could be implemented to support the non-isiXhosa learners learn best. The majority of our learners spend most of their time watching television and playing games on cellular phones. This marks a shift in the mindset of the learners in our classrooms and suggests that using technology such as data projectors in the classrooms would reduce the challenges they face. In preparing teachers for such advances, training in site would be appropriate. This means that DoE support in the form of planning for and implementation of in-service training for teachers to capacitate them with skills to deal with linguistically diverse learners is the appropriate intervention for multilingual schools.

5.5 SUMMARY

The discussion of findings as per research questions was presented. The study revealed that teachers employed too few teaching strategies in their classrooms. Large numbers
of learners; the use of isiXhosa as the language of teaching and learning to non-
isiXhosa speaking learners; indiscipline and absenteeism of non-isixhosa speaking
learners; lack of parental involvement and support for teachers were identified as
challenges that inhibit teachers in delivering their teaching to linguistically diverse
classes. Recommendations based on the results of the study were discussed.
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APPENDIX A

LETTER TO THE ECDoE ASKING FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT AN INVESTIGATION IN MTHATHA PRIMARY SCHOOLS

66 Dikweni Street
Ikwezi Township
MTHATHA
5099
31 May 2011

THE DISTRICT DIRECTOR
Mthatha Education District
Botha Sigcawu Building
MTHATHA
5099

Dear Sir

Re: APPLICATION TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH IN ONE OF MTHATHA SCHOOLS
I am a registered Master learner at the University of Fort Hare in the academic year 2011 by dissertation under the supervision of Dr. A.H.Makura. The title of my dissertation is: STRATEGIES THAT ARE EMPLOYED BY TEACHERS TO SUPPORT THE NON-ISIXHOSA SPEAKING LEARNERS.

I am requesting permission to conduct a research in one of Mthatha schools. I am intending to use teachers as participants of my research. During data collection from teachers in schools, I will not interfere with their teaching time. I hope that the findings and recommendations of this study will benefit the DoE.

Thank you in advance for your understanding, support and co operation.

Yours Sincerely

ZAMEKA GOBINGCA

Contact details: zamekag@yahoo.com   Cell phone number: 0834211740
APPENDIX B

APPROVAL FROM THE ECDoE TO CONDUCT AN INVESTIGATION IN MTHATHA PRIMARY SCHOOLS

22 October 2012

Mrs Z Gobingca
66 Dikweni Street
Ichwezi Township
Mthatha
5099

Dear Mrs Gobingca

PERMISSION TO UNDERTAKE A MASTERS THESIS: STRATEGIES EMPLOYED BY TEACHERS TO SUPPORT NON-ISIKHOSA SPEAKING LEARNERS IN MTHATHA PRIMARY SCHOOLS

1. Thank you for your application to conduct research,

2. Your application to conduct the above mentioned research in Mthatha Primary School under the jurisdiction of Mthatha District in the Eastern Cape Department of Basic Education (ECDBE) is hereby approved on condition that:
   a. there will be no financial implications for the Department;
   b. Institutions and respondents must not be identifiable in any way from the results of the investigation;
   c. you present a copy of the written approval letter of the Eastern Cape Department of Basic Education (ECDBE) to the District Directors before any research is undertaken at any institutions within that particular district;
   d. you will make all the arrangements concerning your research;

Building blocks for growth
e. the research may not be conducted during official contact time, as educators' programmes should not be interrupted.

f. should you wish to extend the period of research after approval has been granted, an application to do this must be directed to the Director: Strategic Planning Policy Research and Secretariat Services;

g. the research may not be conducted during the fourth school term, except in cases where a special well motivated request is received;

h. your research will be limited to those schools or institutions for which approval has been granted, should changes be effected written permission must be obtained from the Director – Strategic Planning Policy Research and Secretariat Services;

i. you present the Department with a copy of your final paper/report/dissertation/thesis free of charge in hard copy and electronic format. This must be accompanied by a separate synopsis (maximum 2 – 3 typed pages) of the most important findings and recommendations if it does not already contain a synopsis. This must also be in an electronic format.

j. you are requested to provide the above to the Director. The Strategic Planning Policy Research and Secretariat Services upon completion of your research.

k. you comply to all the requirements as completed in the Terms and Conditions to conduct Research in the ECDBE document duly completed by you.

l. you comply with your ethical undertaking (commitment form).

m. You submit on a six monthly basis, from the date of permission of the research, concise reports to the Director: Strategic Planning Policy Research and Secretariat Services.

3. The Department reserves a right to withdraw the permission should there not be compliance to the approval letter and contract signed in the Terms and Conditions to conduct Research in the ECDBE.

4. The Department will publish the completed Research on its website.

5. The Department wishes you well in your undertaking. You can contact the Director, Dr. Anretia Heckrodt on 043 702 7428 or mobile number 083 275 0715 and email: annelia.heckrodt@edu.ecprov.gov.za should you need any assistance.

DR AS HECKRODT
DIRECTOR: STRATEGIC PLANNING POLICY RESEARCH AND SECRETARIAT SERVICES
THE PRINCIPAL AND TEACHING STAFF
-----------------------------School

MTHATHA
5099

Dear Sir/Madam/Ms

Re: APPLICATION TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH IN ONE OF MTHATHA SCHOOLS

I am a registered Master learner at the University of Fort Hare in the academic year 2011 by dissertation under the supervision of Dr. A.H. Makura. The title of my
dissertation is: STRATEGIES THAT ARE EMPLOYED BY TEACHERS TO SUPPORT THE NON-ISIXHOSA SPEAKING LEARNERS.

I am requesting permission to conduct a research in your schools. I will use your school teachers as participants of my research. During data collection from teachers I will not interfere with their teaching time. I hope that the findings and recommendations of this study will benefit the school.

Thank you in advance for your understanding, support and cooperation.

Yours Sincerely

ZAMEKAGOILINGCA

Contact details: zamekag@yahoo.com  Cell phone number: 0834211740
APPENDIX D

INFORMED CONSENT FORM FOR PRINCIPAL AND TEACHERS

NAME OF APPLICANT
<<Approved>>

Answering questions there are no right and wrong answers. When we ask questions about the future we are not interested in what you think the best thing would be to do, but what you think would actually happen. (adapt for individual circumstances)

If possible, our organisation would like to come back to this area once we have completed our study to inform you and your community of what the results are and discuss our findings and proposals around the research and what this means for people in this area.

CONSENT

I hereby agree to participate in research regarding ______________________ I understand that I am participating freely and without being forced in any way to do so. I also understand that I can stop this interview at any point should I not want to continue and that this decision will not in any way affect me negatively.

I understand that this is a research project whose purpose is not necessarily to benefit me personally.

I have received the telephone number of a person to contact should I need to speak about any issues which may arise in this interview.

I understand that this consent form will not be linked to the questionnaire, and that my answers will remain confidential.

I understand that if at all possible, feedback will be given to my community on the results of the completed research.

______________________________ Date:________________________
Signature of participant

I hereby agree to the tape recording of my participation in the study

______________________________ Date:________________________
Signature of participant

Document approved by UREC: 11 August 2011, V01
ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

Certificate Reference Number: MAK02 1SGOB01

Project title: Strategies employed by teachers to support the non-Xhosa speaking learners in Umtata district primary schools.

Nature of Project: Masters
Principal Researcher: Zameka Gobingca

Supervisor: Dr A Makura

Co-supervisor:

On behalf of the University of Fort Hare’s Research Ethics Committee (UREC) I hereby give ethical approval in respect of the undertakings contained in the above-mentioned project and research instrument(s). Should any other instruments be used, these require separate authorization. The Researcher may therefore commence with the research as from the date of this certificate, using the reference number indicated above.

Please note that the UREC must be informed immediately of

- Any material change in the conditions or undertakings mentioned in the document
- Any material breaches of ethical undertakings or events that impact upon the ethical conduct of the research

The Principal Research must report to the UREC in the prescribed format, where applicable, annually, and at the end of the project, in respect of ethical compliance.

The UREC retains the right to

- Withdraw or amend this Ethical Clearance Certificate if
  - Any unethical principal or practices are revealed or suspected
  - Relevant information has been withheld or misrepresented
  - Regulatory changes of whatsoever nature so require
  - The conditions contained in the Certificate have not been adhered to
- Request access to any information or data at any time during the course or
after completion of the project.

The Ethics Committee wished you well in your research.

Yours sincerely

Professor Gideon de Wet

Dean of Research

19 April 2013
APPENDIX F

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE GUIDE

Interview schedule prepared for selected primary school teachers in Mthatha Education District

Introduction

My name is Zameka Gobingca. I am a conducting a research on the strategies employed by teachers to support the non-isiXhosa learners in Mthatha primary schools. This is a requirement for the Master of Education (M.Ed) degree studies I am pursuing at the University of Fort Hare.

All the information that you provide will be used for research purposes only and will be held in strict confidence. You are requested to provide any valuable information concerning the research without providing your name. All the information received will not be used for non academic purposes. You will be advised of the findings later should you require the information. Thank you for your willingness to participate in this endeavour.

Section A

Participant’s Biodata [please tick in the appropriate box]

Your gender is:
Female  
Male  

Your age range is:
20-29 years  
30-39 years  
40-59 years  
60-65 years  

Your school is located in:
Rural  
Urban  

Your highest teachers'/professional/academic qualification is:
Primary teachers’ diploma eg. ACE  
Professional degree e.g. B.Ed/M.Ed  
Academic degree e.g B.A/B.Sc/M.A/Dip  
Honours degree (Specify)  
Academic qualification e.g. Matric/Diploma  

Your teaching experience (range):
1-4 years  
5-8 years  
9-12 years  
13-16 years  

152
17-20 years
Over 20 years

Your main language:
English
IsiXhosa
Afrikaans

What grade/s are you teaching?
Grade R
Grade 1
Grade 2
Grade 3
Section B

Your opening remarks: I have been officially been informed that pupils in this school come from several language backgrounds. I am told you have amaXhosa and Afrikaans speaking learners and probably other language speakers. It is in this context that I wish to interview you for your thoughts about how you handle the teaching and learning issues with your class.

1. Do you have non-isiXhosa learners in your class? How many learners are there in your class?

2. If so, what are the strategies you employ to support them so that they understand some concepts?

(a) __________________________________________________________
    __________________________________________________________
    __________________________________________________________

(b) __________________________________________________________
    __________________________________________________________
    __________________________________________________________

(c) __________________________________________________________
    __________________________________________________________
    __________________________________________________________

(d) __________________________________________________________
    __________________________________________________________
3. If not, what strategies do you use to support your learners particularly in understanding concepts in a language other than English?
______________________________________________________________________
______________________________________________________________________
______________________________________________________________________
______________________________________________________________________

4. Are these strategies helpful in ensuring that your teaching goals are attained? Explain.
______________________________________________________________________
______________________________________________________________________
______________________________________________________________________
______________________________________________________________________

5. If not what do you suggest can be done to assist you?
   (a) ________________________________________________________________
       ________________________________________________________________
       ________________________________________________________________
   (b) ________________________________________________________________
Section C

6. Do you experience any challenges as an educator in teaching a multi-lingual class and how do you overcome those challenges?

(a) Challenge: ______________________________________________________
    Solution: ______________________________________________________

(b) Challenge: ______________________________________________________
    Solution: ______________________________________________________

(c) Challenge: ______________________________________________________
    Solution: ______________________________________________________

(d) Challenge: ______________________________________________________
    Solution: ______________________________________________________

(e) Challenge: ______________________________________________________
    Solution: ______________________________________________________
7. Is there any kind of support you receive from the school in relation to the teaching challenges you face in class as an educator? (Explain your answer)

(a) ______________________________________________________________

(b) ______________________________________________________________

(c) ______________________________________________________________

(d) ______________________________________________________________

(e) ______________________________________________________________

THANK YOU SO MUCH FOR INTERACTING WITH YOU