

**Educators' experiences of the implementation of language policy affecting foreign  
nationals**

by

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### **Declaration of Originality**

I, Lydia Ikwuemesim (student number (18250492), hereby declare that this dissertation, entitled: “Educators’ experiences of the implementation of language policy affecting foreign nationals” has not previously been submitted by me for a degree at University of Pretoria or any other university; that this is my own work in design and execution and that all material from published sources contained herein has been duly acknowledged.

Signed at University of Pretoria on this \_\_\_\_\_ day of \_\_\_\_\_ 2021.

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## **Ethics Statement**

The highest ethical standards were maintained in this dissertation. The ethical considerations upheld in the study are discussed in detail in section 3.9.

## **Dedication**

This Dissertation is dedicated to God Almighty Who gives knowledge wisdom and understanding to do the impossible, who makes everything to work for my good. Without Him this work would not have been possible.

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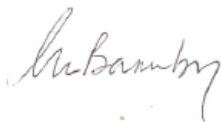
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This is to certify that I, Alexa Kirsten Barnby, an English editor accredited by the South African Translators' Institute, have edited the master's dissertation titled "Educators' experiences of the implementation of language policy affecting foreign nationals" by Lydia Iruoma Ikwuemesim.

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## **Abstract**

The aim of this study was to understand educators' experiences of the implementation of language policy affecting foreign nationals. A body of relevant literature was reviewed and analysed to address the aim of this study. A qualitative phenomenological approach was used. Semi structured interviews were conducted in four different schools in Johannesburg East and Ekurhuleni North Districts of South Africa, with a total of 12 participants comprising of two educators and a principal in each school. This study was anticipated to make a significant contribution to the implementation of multilingual policies and practice in South Africa and elsewhere. The findings revealed that schools which offer English as Home language do not admit foreign learners without previous knowledge of English language. However, where such foreign learners were admitted, they receive school language interventions, translators, extra lessons, parental support and become resilient in order to cope and excel in schools' language policy. The study also found that foreign learners who could not cope with the language of the school through the above interventions were withdrawn from schools. The recommendations arising from this study is an intervention from the Department of Education in providing translators for foreign learners This will help in relieving language teachers who seldom assist the foreign learners because of their teaching workload. Further recommendation is to understand the inclusivity, participation, and roles of teachers, and learners as student representative councils (SRC) in achieving an effective and workable language policy implementation.

**Keywords:** Foreign learners; implementation of language policy; educators; Home language; first and second additional language; language of the school; schools



## **Abbreviation**

SASA – South African Schools Act of 1996 (Act No. 84 of 1996)

SMT – School Management Team

LoLT – Language of Learning and Teaching

DoE – Department of Education

CALP – Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency

BICS – Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills

LiEP – Language in Education Policy

EFA – Education For All

UNESCO – United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

OECD – The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

EFL – English as a Foreign Language

HoD – Head of Department

RSA – Republic of South Africa

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## CHAPTER ONE

### RESEARCH PROBLEM AND METHODOLOGY

#### 1.1. Background and Introduction

This chapter explores the background to the study, the research problem, and the purpose of the study. It also presents the research questions and sub-questions. The theoretical framework used to underpin the study is thoroughly explained as is the significance of and the rationale behind the study.

Over the years there have been several research studies conducted on the increased number of young people migrating to various parts of the world with European countries acting as the hosts of increasingly diverse foreign nationals from distant countries. While South America attracts large numbers of foreigners from Japan, India, China, and Lebanon. Australia and New Zealand attract an increasing number of foreign nationals from the Asian countries (Czaika and De Haas, 2014). In South Africa, at the time of this study, there were approximately 4.2 million foreign nationals and comprising about 7.2% of the country's population (Kamalesh, 2020). Similarly, the United States had also recorded an increasing number of foreigners in the thirty years preceding this year (Nguyen & Kebede, 2017). These statistics provide evidence that globalisation has enabled people to migrate beyond the boundaries of continents (Mccarthy, 2020)

According to Collins (2009), the term 'foreign national' refers to a person who is residing in a country but without the right to permanent residence in that country. Guha (2016) also defines a foreign national as someone who is not a citizen of a country. The definition of a foreign learner, as contained in section 4(1) (a) of the National Policy Pertaining to the Programme and Promotion requirement (2011), refers to a foreign national in the school context as an 'immigrant learner'. South Africa is also part of the massive global migration experience referred to above. Since the 1994 transition to democracy, reports indicate the presence of large numbers of foreign nationals in the country, especially in the Gauteng Province which is one of the most popular destinations for Africans. Through both the international immigration policy, the 1999 White Paper, implemented through the Immigration Act (Act No. 13 of 2002), and the Refugees Act, 1998 (Act No. 130 of 1998), South Africa has encouraged foreign immigration through regional integration (Dithebe and Mukhuba, 2018).

Although the South African education system is regulated by the South African Schools Act No. 84 of 1996, this Act is also catalysed by South Africa's Bill of Rights, Chapter 2 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996. These two laws make provision for education as a basic human right and prohibit any type of discrimination or exclusion from school on grounds of nationality. These laws abolished the desegregation of schools in South Africa and made it possible, not only for South Africans from various multicultural languages but also for foreign nationals to attend schools of their choice (Vandeyar, 2010). At the time of this study, more than ever before, South African schools were populated by learners from diverse backgrounds, including those speaking multiple languages. In order to accommodate the diverse languages in the school community, section 6 (1) of the Constitution stipulates that every learner has the right to receive education in the official language or language of his/her choice (RSA, 1996a). Section 6 (2) of the Schools Act also states that the school governing body of a school may determine the language policy of the school subject to the Constitution, this Section 6 (2) of the school Act, and any applicable provincial law (RSA, 1996b). It is on this background that I considered it imperative to understand how four selected schools in Gauteng were experiencing the implementation of the language policy relating to foreign nationals.

The term *educator* in the context of this study means any person who teaches, educates, or trains other persons or who provides professional educational services, including professional therapy and education psychological services, at a school (Acts section 6(a)). This definition of educator is substituted by the definition in section 6(a) of Act No. 48 of 1999 and, thus, for the purposes of this study the term *educator* includes both teachers and principals.

## **1.2 Research problem**

South Africa has become the destination of choice for several immigrants because of the roles their countries played during the apartheid era (Wotela & Letsiri, 2015). The increasing number of foreigners in the country has also resulted in an increasing number of immigrant learners enrolling in the nation's public school system and, as a result, schools have become multicultural environments with immigrant learners facing several challenges, including that of language adaptation (Nguyen & Kebede, 2017). Dubois-Shaik (2014) conducted a study on the problems associated with migration in Western European countries. Other studies have revealed how foreign learners, especially those who have experienced traumas and hardships both during and after their migrations, often go through a great deal of stress in adapting to a new culture, including language (Adelman & Taylor, 2015). In the same vein, Iwata and Nemoto (2018) explained similar of the challenges faced by a diverse group of migrants in the highly developed, non-Western society

of Japan. Their study highlights the important implications of the state's racial projects for immigrants' human security as a divided immigration structure means that many immigrants from the Global South are marginalised and, in addition, they have limited access to institutional resources. The experiences and challenges of these young immigrants are also complicated by their adaptation to their new multilingual environments (Ruehs, 2017).

According to Vandeyar and Vandeyar (2015), the challenges faced by most of the immigrant learners in Gauteng schools, in adapting unnoticed to the host country, are exacerbated when they are racially different and speak different languages to the local learners. The problems black immigrant learners encounter include language differences and accent difference and their lack of understanding of and lack of proficiency in the indigenous languages. These indicate their 'foreignness' although the phenotypic features of most foreign learners may be mistaken for those of South Africans. The black francophone immigrant learners tend to integrate with learners who are able only to speak French as they lack proficiency in both English and the indigenous languages. According to these learners, a further challenge which the Anglophone and Francophone immigrant learners encounter is that of code-switching. The educators code-switch while communicating in class (Rose & Van Dulm, 2006) and in the school while the indigenous learners code-switch when communicating with each other to socially exclude the foreign learners among them. Language issues have been noted as a major factor that influences foreign learners' adaptation within the South African multilingual environment (Vandeyar & Vandeyar, 2015).

It is not possible to overemphasise the importance of adaptation in a multilingual environment as a learner's language ability is linked to his /her family and community, thus respecting a learner's language strengthens the learner's ability. According to Lemmer (2011), language policies are designed to manage diversity in education with the national language policy affecting language in education and language as a school subject and also the choice of the language of learning and teaching. Although scholars have written extensively about challenges the foreign learners face in their host countries, very little, if anything, has been reported on the way in which schools experience the implementation of language policies relating to foreign nationals. It is for this reason that I chose to investigate this phenomenon educators experiences of the implementation of language policies relating to foreign nationals' as it was anticipated that such a study would make a significant contribution to the implementation of multilingual policies and practice in South Africa and elsewhere.



### 1.2.1 Research purpose

The purpose of this study is encapsulated by the research aim and research objectives as they are outlined below. In this study, I aimed to understand the experiences of educators in the four selected secondary schools in Gauteng Province in relation to the implementation of the language policies affecting foreign nationals. In order to achieve this aim, I formulated the following research objectives.

### 1.2.2 The study objectives

- To ascertain the educators' understanding of the concept 'foreign learner'.
- To determine how the language policies in the schools make provision for foreign nationals in South African schools.
- To discover how schools accommodate foreign nationals as they implement their language policies.
- To explore the day-to-day language challenges foreign nationals encounter at school.
- To investigate how schools deal with the language challenges foreign learners face when at school.

### 1.2.3 Research question

The following research question was formulated, "What are the experiences of educators in the selected secondary schools in Gauteng in relation to the implementation of the language policies affecting foreign nationals?"

### 1.2.4. Sub questions

- What is the educators' understanding of the concept of 'foreign learner'?
- How do the language policies in the schools make provision for foreign nationals in South African schools?
- How do schools accommodate foreign nationals as they implement their language policies?
- What are the day-to-day language policy challenges foreign nationals encounter when at school?
- How do schools address the language policy challenges foreign learners face when at school?

### **1.3 Theoretical framework**

According to Kivunja (2018), a theoretical framework in the research context consists of the theories expressed by researchers in their fields of study and which provide a theoretical focus for both the data analysis and the interpretation of results. The theoretical framework which underpinned this study provided answers to the research questions which originated from the review conducted of existing literature, including both theoretical and empirical literature, as well as from the evident gaps in the literature (Lederman and Lederman, 2015). In other words, the theoretical framework which underpinned this study validated an understanding of concepts relevant to the study topic by clearly defining both the problem statement and the research questions. The study was a qualitative study that involved a phenomenology design. Using semi-structured interviews, the study aimed to discover how educators were experiencing the implementation of the language policy affecting foreign nationals in South African schools. The theoretical framework used included Cummins' Theory of Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP). The theoretical framework incorporated terms such as conversational fluency and academic language proficiency which are used interchangeably with BICS and CALP (Cummins, 2017).

Using this theoretical framework helped the educators (teachers and principals) to hone their focus when they responded to the following research questions: How are educators experiencing the implementation of language policy affecting foreign nationals? How are they accommodating and making provision for foreign nationals in relation to the language policy of the school, the challenges they face, and how they address these challenges?

The research questions in the study also represented identifiable features as they are given expression in the theoretical framework and existing literature and acted as a link between the existing literature and the problem statement formulated for the purposes of the study (Osanloo and Grant, 2016). However, certain concepts which emerged from the existing literature and theoretical framework also guided me in both the data collection and the data analysis.

The relevance of Cummins's theory to this study was due to its focus on the way in which bilingual learners learn the languages that are implemented in terms of the language policy of the school. This focus was important in this study because it helped me to understand how foreign nationals were learning the language of the schools in question which was, in turn, being interpreted by the educators who participated in the study. Cummins (1979) conducted several studies to establish the usefulness of this framework in language learning. One of such study was conducted by Cummins, (1979) using Swedish foreign learners. The study findings revealed the two important patterns in

language learning (Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP), and how proficiency in the first language (L1) assists in the development of the second language (L2). The second study conducted by Cummins noted that it took newly arrived foreign learners approximately 0 to two years to familiarise themselves with the new language of the school through social integration in the school environment. However, it took up to five to seven years to reach the normal level of proficiency known as cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) (Bonenfant, 2012).

The main reason for using both the BICS and CALP in this study was both are interrelated although they follow different language developmental patterns. BICS language patterns are developed through social integration in the school, while CALP language patterns are language patterns necessary to understand content in the classroom. However, the convergence of these social and cognitive patterns of language proficiency does not indicate they are indistinguishable (Cummins, 1999). Cummins further emphasised that native English speakers and foreign nationals generally get to a level of native like phonemics and fluency after many years of learning of a language although CALP continues to develop throughout schooling.

These two patterns of the Cummins framework (CALP and BICS) were used in this study to address the following research questions:

- What is the educators' understanding of the concept of 'foreign learner'?
- How do the language policies of the schools make provision for foreign nationals in South African schools?
- How do schools accommodate foreign nationals in their implementation of their language policies?
- What are the day-to-day language policy challenges foreign nationals encounter when at school?
- How do schools address the language policy challenges which foreign learners face when at school?

### 1.3.1 The two patterns of language in the Cummins theoretical framework

The following two patterns of language in the Cummins framework were used in this study, namely, Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency

### *1.3.1.1 Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS)*

This communication skill is usually evident among learners outside the classrooms, either within school or outside of school in a social context and refers to the conversational language used among foreign nationals. It takes between six months to 2 years for this language to actualise. Within the BICS context, foreign learners become proficient in the social language of the school although they continue to encounter challenges associated with language interpretations in the academic context.

### *1.3.1.2 Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP)*

This aspect of language communication evolves in relation to foreign learners' language proficiency in the academic context. It is a language proficiency skill that is associated with the foreign learners' ability to comprehend and critically evaluate classroom lessons as well being academically proficient in the language of the school. The attainment of this language proficiency takes five to seven years within the school environment. CALP among foreign nationals is a determining factor in academic success in schools. According to Cummins (1999), as a cognitive language policy, CALP should be cognitively demanding and require critical thinking on the part of learners in academic content such as science, mathematics, and technology. This challenge compels learners to understand the similarities and differences between phonics and grammar conventions as well as language usage, investigations, and practices (Khatib and Taie, 2016).

The existing literature provided insights into the way in which BICS and CALP affect the implementation of language policies that affect foreign nationals. These factors include the development and implementation of language policy, the challenges encountered in the language policy implementation, and experiences in relation to the implementation of the schools' language policies within the BICS and CALP language patterns.

Critics of Cummins's theory advised that his theoretical concepts should be measured by whether his theory is '*adequate or useful*' and not in terms of its being '*valid or not valid*'. (Cummins, 2016). The following researchers used Cummins theory to underpin their studies, namely, Cummins, (1984b) ; Lillywhite (2011) and Essien, (2018). According to Cummins, (2017), BICS refers to "conversational fluency in a language, while CALP refers to students' ability to understand and express, in both oral and written modes, concepts and ideas that are relevant to success in school". Cummins maintains that, when schools adopt a *monolingual approach* in a multilingual environment when implementing language policy, foreign learners tend to face the problems of devalued identity, exclusion, and marginalisation. (Cummins, 2015). This implies that Cummins theory advocates the expansion and exploration of multilingual skills both in schools and among foreign learners. This framework was deemed to be relevant to the purpose of this study because,

according to National Education Policy (Act 27 of 1996), the aim is to establish “additive multilingualism”.

Unlike this qualitative study, Essien (2018) used a quantitative study to compare three countries, namely, Malawi, Kenya and South Africa, using the Cummins framework. He found that the implementation of the language policies in these three countries encountered difficulties in bridging the gap between BICS and CAPS. According to Essien (2018), the indigenous languages were not yet fully developed as academic languages. Other studies cited in the literature have focused on the implementation of language policy in South African schools (Brown, 1998). While Brown (1998) focused on the implementation of language policy in relation to South Africans whose first Language is not English language but other South African languages, the focus of this study was foreign learners who were not South African. In addition, Brown’s (1998) study was conducted more than two decades before this study and was clearly a need for a more recent study .

The Cummins conceptual framework clearly indicates the difference between learners’ interpersonal communication skills (BICS) and what he also refers to as ‘their conversational and their cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) (Cummins, 2017). This distinction was important in the context of this study as the study focused on the challenges foreign language learners encounter as they attempt to understand the school language policy. Although the Cummins’ study focused on language acquisition this study focused on the implementation of the language policy affecting to foreign learners in schools.

#### **1.4 Rationale for the study**

Research conducted by Vandeyar and Vandeyar (2015) on constructing, negotiating and representing the immigrant students in South African was the intellectual rationale behind this study. Their work focused on the schooling context of foreign learners in Gauteng at the beginning of the second decade of the 21st century. In their study they stated that the ‘foreignness’ of these foreign learners poses a significant challenge, mainly because they tend to lack proficiency in both the English language and the South African indigenous languages while they also often experience some issues that emanate from code-switching among the host learners. A clearer understanding of the language challenges facing foreign learners is explained in the South African Constitution.

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, recognises 11 official languages which are guaranteed equal status. These languages include isiZulu, isiXhosa, Sesotho sa Leboa (Northern Sotho), Setswana, Sesotho (Southern Sotho), Xitsonga, Siswati, Tshivenda, Ndebele, Afrikaans and English. However, in addition to these 11 official languages, there are scores of unofficial languages

that are also used in South Africa. These include sign language, the Khoisan languages, Arabic, German, Greek, Gujarati, Hebrew, Hindi, Portuguese, Sanskrit, Tamil, Telegu, Urdu, among others. With such a high linguistic diversity in South Africa, English ranks the most commonly spoken language in official, commercial, and public life. The South African linguistic diversity revealed in the above the Language-in-Education Policy (LieP,1997) means that all these languages, official and unofficial, affect each other. It is against this background that I found it necessary to conduct this study.

Furthermore, a study conducted by Johnson and Johnson (2015) revealed that the impediment in the language policy of a school highlights an impediment in achieving the educational goals for all foreign minority groups even if educators and school administrators are effective agents in language implementation. The aim of this study was to bridge the gap evident in relevant literature as previous studies have showed that teachers are often excluded from making decisions that are associated with language policy (Menken & García, 2017) which limits the capacity of schools to shape the meaning and context of language change (Kovačević, Rahimić & Šehić, 2018). Furthermore, this study aimed to bridge the gap in the literature by also involving teachers and principals as participants in the effort to understand the experiences of the selected schools in relation to the implementation of language policy affecting foreign learners. The unique feature of this study was its direct focus on foreign learners in secondary schools in Gauteng, South Africa and then only those learners who been affected by the language policy.

I was of the opinion that my department (EMPLS) would benefit from this study's findings and recommendations. It was anticipated that the findings would reveal the schools' understanding, implementation, and management of language policies in relation to foreign learners and that this would assist in the more effective implementation of the related policies while also generating a clearer working understanding of the continually changing education policies in schools (Austin, 2016).

### **1.5 Research design**

The research design used in this study involved the methodological process of collecting and analysing the requisite data with the research design selected ensuring the realisation of the purpose of the study (Akhtar, 2016).

### 1.5.1 Qualitative research approach

A qualitative research approach is a form of humanistic or idealistic approach. It was deemed appropriate for this study which was seeking answers to questions about experiences, attitudes, behaviours, and interactions from the standpoint of the participants (Hammarberg, Kirkman & De Lacey, 2016, Pathak, Jena & Kalra, 2013). The choice of this research approach helped me to understand the educators' experiences in relation to the implementation of language policy affecting foreign nationals (Creswell, 2014). According to Thanh and Thanh (2015), in terms of educational research, the qualitative approach has been found to be the best-suited method when seeking to understand the experiences of any group. In addition, the use of qualitative research methods in this study also enabled me to conduct a thorough and appropriate analysis of the data which had been collected (Rahman, 2017). The qualitative approach is characterised by natural settings, direct data collection, process orientation and emergent perspectives while it also facilitates the understanding of complex issues (Creswell, 2014).

However, the limitations of this approach in the context of the study included the following, namely, it was time-consuming while the data collection was dependent on fixed appointments with participants with some of them having to reschedule their appointments. In view of the fact that I had limited time in which to collect the data, I selected participants who were available for interviews within my time frame. Finally, due to the size of the sample used in this study, it was not possible to generalise the findings either to the wider population or to other study contexts (Rahman, 2017).

## 1.6 Research methods

### 1.6.1 Sampling

In the interests of a more comprehensive analysis, I used purposive sampling by focusing on a particular characteristic of the population as a strategy to represent the whole population (Naderifar, Goli & Ghaljaie, 2017). This sample size (twelve participants) used was deemed to be both appropriate and valid for this qualitative study (Boddy, 2016).

#### *1.6.1.1 Sampling and sampling strategy*

The use of purposive sampling was beneficial for ensuring that the purpose of study was revisited throughout the research study (Emmel, 2013). Purposive sampling techniques also fall under the interpretivist paradigm. According to this paradigm, reality is subjective to a particular experience based on a perception that may be interpreted through shared understanding and experience (Allen,

2017). Palinkas, Horwitz, Green, Wisdom, Duan and Hoagwood (2015) explained that purposive sampling is commonly used to identify and select relevant cases and information related to the phenomenon of interest. A principal and two teachers from each of the four schools were selected based on their knowledge and experience in relation to the research topic. In selecting the participants, I also used my own judgment in respect of those individuals who were best able to provide the information I required in order to realise the purpose of the study (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014).

### 1.6.2 Data collection techniques

The data collection process used in the study involved gathering and measuring information on the variables of interest. This was done using an established, systematic approach that enabled me to answer the research questions and analyse the study findings (Kabir, 2016). The research questions and research objectives of the study determined whether the aim the study would be achieved by collecting interactional data or data that informed the interactional behaviour of the participants in the study (Canals, 2017). I used face-to-face, semi-structured interviews to collect the requisite data. I also audio recorded these interviews (Bold, 2012).

#### *1.6.2.1 Semi-structured interview*

Semi-structured interviews comprise a set of questions that guide the interview rather than dictating its direction. They involve a relatively detailed interview guide or schedule and may be used in cases in which there is sufficient objective knowledge from the participants about an experience or phenomenon (McIntosh & Morse, 2015). The semi-structured interview is a popular data collection method that has proved to be both versatile and flexible (Kallio, Pietilä, Johnson & Kangasniemi, 2016). While conducting the semi-structured, face-to-face interviews, I endeavoured to redefine the questions and probe further as the participants responded (Peters & Halcomb, 2015). By so doing, I was able to produce rich data that provided insights into the participants' experiences, perceptions and opinions (O'keefe, Buytaert, Mijic, Brozović & Sinha, 2016).

In addition, the semi-structured interviews helped me by providing flexibility while enabling me to retain the focus of the study and, thus, allowing for new insights to emerge (Bold, 2012). This flexibility allowed me to change the sequence in which I asked the questions by actively listening to the participants during the interviews and using their responses to modify or change questions to ensure they were relevant to the participants' experiences (O'Reilly & Dogra, 2016). The severe development of the semi-structured interview guide contributed to the validity and generalisability of the study by rendering the results more credible than may otherwise have been the case. In



addition, I also adopted two underlying principles in trying to avoid leading the interviews or imposing meanings and ensuring relaxed and comfortable conversations throughout the interviews with the participants. The two principles underpinning the development of the semi-structured interview guide included the following, firstly, I identified the requirements for using semi-structured, face-to-face interviews and I retrieved and used prior knowledge in framing the preliminary, semi-structured interview guide before I finally presented the complete, semi-structured interview guide (Kallio et al., 2016).

#### *1.6.2.2 Audio recording*

I also recorded the participants' experiences digitally in order to store the confidential information. I was also careful not to record in a noisy environment and I made sure the participants' voices were audible (Williamson, Leeming, Lyttle & Johnson, 2015). I recorded the participants as they narrated their experiences as I felt this was more beneficial than simply recording written notes (Crozier & Cassell, 2016). Although audio recording may have been under-utilised in contemporary qualitative research this method allowed me to record the participants 'stories as they unfolded (Williamson et al., 2015) and increased the accuracy and reliability of the data collection (Crozier & Cassell, 2016).

#### 1.6.3 Data analysis

I conducted a face-to-face, semi-structured interviews in order to collect the requisite data from the teachers and the principals who had been selected to participate in the study. I analysed and interpreted their shared experiences by coding, categorising, identifying the patterns that emerged as well as organising and presenting the data which had been collected. Triangulating my data sources (teachers & principals) helped me to identify both collaborating and conflicting findings (Gibson & O'connor, 2003).

### **1.7 Conclusion**

This chapter presented the background to and the rationale for this study. The research questions were explained, the research problem and the theoretical framework which underpinned the study were discussed as was the research design which indicated how the requisite data was collected and analysed.

## CHAPTER TWO

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.1 Introduction

The focus of the literature review is to give the historical background of foreign nationals and the interpretations of various concepts used to represent them in schools. The review included literature on both international and national language policies and their implementation in schools. I also reviewed some language policies on issues involved in the development of such policies and that factors that impeded their implementation. Various South African educational policies on language policy and a body of literature on the experiences of schools in implementing foreign language policies were also analysed and reviewed. This was followed by the exploration of several recent analyses and theoretical findings on the experiences of educators in the implementation of the language policy affecting foreign nationals.

##### 2.1.1 Definition of foreign national

The term ‘foreign national’ refers to an individual who is residing in a country but without the right to permanent residence in the country in question (Collins 2009). In America, the term foreign nationals refer to those individuals who are not non-U. S citizens and to migrants who have been naturalised and who are in possession of a green card (Bloemraad, 2013, Street, 2013). The term foreign national is also a social category which is used to define people who have migrated to a particular country (Asbrock, Lemmer, Becker, Koller & Wagner, 2014). I deduced from the above definitions that a foreign national is a person visiting or living in a country without that country’s identification document or passport. However, in countries such as South Africa, the term foreigners include those with the country’s identification documents but who are ‘not born in South Africa’. Section 4(1)(a) of the policy document, National Policy Pertaining to the Programme and Promotion requirement (2011) refers to a foreign national in schools as an ‘immigrant learner’ which means a ‘foreign learner’. On the other hand, in Japan, the Japanese constitution does not allow the use of the term immigrants when referring to foreign nationals with the term ‘foreign-nationals’ being used instead when referring to people who do not have the country’s nationality (Mccarthy, 2020).

In this literature review I used the following language terms when characterising and conceptualising the language policy in schools, namely, multilingualism (Mitits, 2018), bilingualism (Kwon, Ghiso & Martínez-Álvarez, 2019) dual language (Avni & Menken, 2019), foreign language, trans language and code-switching (García and Kleyn, 2016, Myers-Scotton, 2017). Terms such as *plurilingualism*, which explained the transformation of monolingual speakers

into multilingual speakers and *translanguaging*, used primarily by minorities (García & Otheguy, 2019), were also used in this study to characterise language policy. These terms were used in understanding the educators' experiences in relation to the implementation of the language policy affecting foreign nationals.

### 2.1.2 Language policy

One of the most popular and oldest definitions of language policy is by Rubin (1971). According to him, “*language policy as a body of ideas, laws, regulations, rules, and practices which are aimed at effecting the proposed language change in the society, group or system in question*”. It is only when such policy exists that any sort of serious evaluation of planning may occur (Rubin & Jernudd, 1971). Further definitions of language policy include, “*a combination of official decisions and prevailing public practices related to language education and use*” (Mcgroarty, 1997). Meanwhile, Spolsky (2019) suggests that language policy may usefully be examined as three independents, but interrelated, parts namely, “*language practices, language beliefs or ideologies, and language management*”.

There are various stages of the implementation of a language policy, including the actualisation stage, the formal language planning stage, when documents are written, and the stage involving the informal announcement of the purpose of the said policy (Johnson, 2013). On the basis of the above language policy definitions and meanings, I decided that the term language policy in the context of this study would refer to the documented, planned and authorised language laws and practices designed to bring social and academic language changes in the school system.

According to Johnson (2013), in the majority of the literature and technical contexts, language planning and language policy have been commonly used, either in conjunction with another or homogeneously. However, these two characterise two different aspect of the language change process. While some argue that language planning includes language policy (Kaplan and Baldauf, 1997), others contend that language policy incorporates language planning (Schiffman, Proquest and Routledge, 1996). I deduced that both language policy that is planned and planning that incorporates language policy must be implemented by an authoritative society or system such as a school. However, (Johnson, 2013) argued that and not all language policies are purposefully or carefully planned.

It is imperative that an efficient language policy is inclusive in order to accommodate not just for the minority but also the overall population. Its scope is beyond language and, in addition, it must be inclusive, equitable and, ultimately, designed to promote the overall cultural and economic

development of a country (Bamgboṣe, 2019). He further suggests that a language policy should be sufficiently inclusive to accommodate both minorities and the general population, thus implying that the implementation of language policy in schools should also provide for foreign nationals as this will help in their overall development. However, during the implementation, there are decisions which must be made about which language to use for what purpose as well the hierarchy in relation to the educational and social language to be used (Pennycook, 2017).

## **2.2. Education for All: A global overview**

Before discussing the global view of the implementation of language policy affecting foreign nationals, it is important to have a global understanding of the learners' global opportunities in respect of education and known as Education For All (EFA) (Hasan, Halder & Debnath, 2018). A global view of learners' EFA will ensure a better understanding of both South African educators' inclusivity and exclusivity in relation to foreign nationals while implementing language policy in South African schools as well as the global focus on language implementation affecting foreign nationals.

Education for All (EFA) is a globalised trend and commitment initiated by UNESCO (2008), and which aims at providing inclusive, quality basic education for all children and adults. This approach is geared towards confronting the educational needs of all learners, with or without various learning disabilities, as well as all marginalised, vulnerable, and excluded learners. (Hasan et al., 2018). Over the years there have been numerous studies conducted to ascertain the inclusivity of the type of learners mentioned above in issues pertaining to organisational and pedagogical perspectives, and curriculum development in countries such as North America, Europe, the Pacific (Peters, 2004) and Sub-Saharan Africa (Easton and Malam Moussa, 2019).

Various organisations, such as the Global Campaign for Education (GCE) have been actively involved in as global participants in articulating the EFA (Mundy, 2012), educational governance and development (Tikly, 2017), and educational technological concepts through E-learning (Majid & Fuada, 2020). Other forms of campaigns for EFA include the involvement of the Global North and Global South Sustainable Development Goals (Klees, 2017), and Sub-Saharan Africa (Easton & Malam Moussa, 2019).

The global overview of Education For All discussed above provides an indication that, in a global context, learners, including foreign nationals, have a right to education globally (Hasan et al., 2018). Based on this understanding, the next section explores both national existing literature on language policy affecting foreign nationals.

### 2.2.1 Language policy in schools and foreign nationals: A global focus

Studies with a global focus on language policy affecting foreign nationals in schools in the United States have revealed that a high percentage of the population in the United States of America is multilingual. This is due to the high immigrant population (Barrett, Trosky & Tawadrous, 2018; Luo, 2016). Other studies have focused on the way in which Korean (Min, 2018) and Chinese immigrants (Luo, 2016) promote, improve and overcome the challenges encountered in implementing their home language in American schools. According to Luo (2016), there has been a significant increase in the degree of acceptance of the Chinese language in the United States, probably as a result of both the linguistic characteristics of the Chinese and absence of standardisation in Chinese teaching. However, there are also no authoritative procedures and monetary support in relation to the teaching of Chinese in the United States schools. While Min, 2018 narrated the successful development of the Korean language in the United States, studies by Ross, Jaumont, Schulz, Dunn and Ducrey (2016) revealed that French has been fortunate throughout the history of bilingualism and also that it has long been the second most studied foreign language in schools. However, their study lacked focus on the way in which the school language policy in the United States affects Korean, French and Chinese immigrants in schools.

In order to further understand the views of the teachers and schools on language policy, Drake (2017) uses a “sensemaking perspective” to explore how teachers hypothesise their role as intermediaries between the school policy and the students’ needs. Wiley and García (2016) pointed out how educational institutions have historically played an important part in both determining and implementing language policy in the United States. The study by Drake (2017) highlighted how the high number of foreign learners enrolling in the US school system has exposed the difference in the school policy and the needs of the immigrants. According to him, these needs include social, emotional, and economic that must be met if the learners are to thrive in schools. On the other hand, Wiley and García (2016) concluded that the practice of language policies in schools may either encourage or limit language learning although this depends on various factors such as the features of the policy and the degree to which it has been effectively resourced, comprehended and appreciated and successfully implemented. I deduced from Drake’s (2017) study that the needs of foreign learners affect them while they are adapting to the language policy of the school. Nevertheless, according to Egnatz (2016), the attitude in respect of the teaching and learning of foreign language in schools is based on the belief that foreign languages are for foreigners only.

Other studies have investigated how the schools in the United States have contributed to the evolution of bilingualism in the country by creating programmes for the teaching of foreign

languages and how the school curricula in the United States use only English as the language of teaching and learning (García & Ozturk, 2017; Flores & García, 2017; Lindholm-Leary, Martinez, Molina, Avineri, Graham, Johnson, Riner & Rosa, 2018). Further studies have focused on the challenges faced by schools during the implementation of language policy (Kennedy, 2018; Ortiz & Fránquiz, 2019).

In a similar vein, Wiley and García (2016) indicated that the teaching of foreign languages in schools has been queried because the languages do not reflect the multilingual global context. However, at both the state and school levels in the United States, there are efforts to promote the multilingual language policy, for example, by recommending the Seals of Biliteracy (Wiley and García, 2016). Seals of Biliteracy are usually given on completion of secondary school to recognise a learner's proficiency in two or more languages (Davin and Heineke, 2017) and for students who have learned and are able to speak and understand two languages (Heineke, Davin and Bedford, 2018), (Davin, Heineke & Egnatz, 2018). However, Goldenberg and Wagner (2015) argued that 'Seals of Biliteracy' are highly criticised that using learners' home languages as the media of Instruction may also improve their success in English. Although, at the time of this study, there was no Acts or legislation on Seals of Biliteracy in South Africa,

In Saudi Arabia, a study conducted by Payne and Almansour (2014) revealed the tension in the language policy in Saudi Arabia. In addition, the study findings indicated that the official language of Arabic is used in the public schools although learners are also offered a foreign language, namely, English, as the medium for teaching and learning and based on the school curriculum. According to Al-Nasser (2015), learners in Saudi Arabia find it difficult to learn English as a foreign language. (Al-Nasser (2015) concludes that the unrevised curriculum and school syllabus and the ineffective training of teachers was adversely affecting second language acquisition in Saudi Arabia. However, according to Kirkpatrick and Barnawi (2017), schools in Northern Africa and the Middle East neglect foreign languages, such as French and English, because of the fear that foreign language education may obliterate traditional culture and religion in the Middle East. Nevertheless, despite the resistance to the effective implementation of learning a foreign language in Saudi Arabian schools, there are online *informal-language learning practices* in the Korean and Turkish languages. These practices may assist foreign learners in broadening their linguistic and cultural horizons (Payne & Almansour (2014).

In a narrative study, Bense (2014) explored the experiences of foreign German teachers in Australian language classes. He also examined the strategies used in language education both in Germany and Australia. The study findings revealed that the multilingual value attached to

languages in both countries' education has a significant impact on the language of the classroom. However, contrary to Bense's study, Panagiotopoulou and Rosen (2018) suggest that teachers' implementation plan to fit foreign learners into the normal classroom deprives the learners of their right to use their home language in German language studies. According to Bense (2014), multilingualism and foreign language communication are valued highly in Germany and, thus, education in a foreign language starts at the day-care stage. Meanwhile, other schools in Germany include *content integrated language learning* (CLIL) in their curricula by teaching some aspects of a modern foreign language (Turner, 2013). This is an indication of the considerable value attached to and the time spent on both foreign language studies and modern language education in Germany.

On the other hand, a contrary report produced the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2012) revealed that learners in Australian schools were not receiving enough foreign language education unlike other OECD countries. Similarly, in narrating the challenges facing the Australian language policy in language education, Scarino (2014) recommended *unlearning monolingualism* which includes identifying that languages are learnt as compared to the learners' existing lists of languages and interrelated cultures. In exploring how to unlearn monolingualism in Australian schools, Fielding (2016) found that plurilingual learners make use of their home language(s) as a means to understand other languages. This is known as plurilingualism. According to Welch (2018), plurilingualism refers to the series of languages the learners speak at home as well as the languages at school.

In conclusion, relevant literature with a global focus has shown that tensions exist in learning a foreign language in Arabia, the lack of multi-language global context as well as the increase in and promotion of multilingual outcomes in language policy in the United States. Multilingual language ability and the ability to communicate in a foreign language are valued highly in Germany while Australia needs to unlearn monolingualism. However, the literature discussed above lacked an account of a comprehensive experience of schools on the implementation of their language policy relating to foreign learners and, hence, thus gap is the focus and purpose of this study.

### 2.2.2 Language policy and foreign nationals in the African countries

The most complex multilingual continent in the world is Africa where there have been numerous debates on the choice of language of learning and teaching as well as on the articulation of various language policies (Chumbow, 2013). However, the language policies adopted in Africa depended on the cultural and political perspectives of the colonial rulers (Abdulaziz, 2003). Below is a summary of the work of Abdulaziz (2003) in Bunyi and Schroeder (2016) on the way in which the colonial masters influenced language policies in Africa.

The British colonies introduced the English language in countries such as Ghana, Nigeria, and Malawi and North of Somalia. The Portuguese language were introduced in Angola, Guinea, Mozambique, and Cape Verde, and Italian was introduced by the Italians in the south. In Tanzania, the German languages. In Central Africa, ChiBemba , which is an African language also was developed in countries such as Malawi, and Shona and Ndebele languages in Zimbabwe.

As a result, countries such as Uganda, Burundi, Tanzania and Kenya in East and Central Africa have become a landscape of multilingual societies that practise a pluralistic language policy including Kinyarwanda, French and English while English is used as the language of instruction in schools instead of the local language, Kinyarwanda (Pearson, 2014). A study conducted by Mokgwathi and Webb (2013) at four senior secondary schools in Botswana found that teachers were code switching to Setswana in the classroom instead using the official language of learning and teaching (LoLT). According to Al Heeti and Al Abdely (2016), “*code switching is a widespread, multifunctional characteristic of the speech*” used by bilingual language speakers in both formal and informal settings and refers to using two types of language in the same conversation. Lovrić (2012) defined code switching as the process of using two or more linguistic varieties (language, dialect, or register) in the same interaction, especially among bilinguals. In the context of this study code switching was characterised as the act of switching or changing from one language to another language while communicating in a bilingual or multilingual environment.

It is clear from the studies discussed above that, in Africa, despite English being a foreign language; it is used as the medium of instruction (MOI) by both teachers and learners. I also deduced that despite the colonial influence on the language policy in Africa, that the evidence of code-switching in the African classrooms demonstrates that the colonial languages did not last in the schools as studies have revealed code-switching in these classrooms (Simango, 2015, Kamwendo, 2016).

The study conducted by Habyarimana, Ntakirutimana and Barnes (2017) also identified learner code-switching from the Kinyarwanda language to English, French or Kiswahili by Rwandan bilinguals. In addition, the language policy implementation in the Rwandan multilingual context is a clearly complex issue with the teachers also trying to balance their language proficiency by code switching (Jones & Barkhuizen, 2011). In relation to the language policies in the Southern African Development Community (SADC) countries, Kangira (2016) report indicated both the influence of the colonisers on the adoption of foreign languages as the official languages in the SADC regions as well as how these foreign languages were being implemented in the schools (Tshotsho, 2013).



The literature on language policy in Africa revealed the reasons why the majority of African schools find it difficult to develop their African languages as international languages but are able to code switch to African language in the classroom (Nkosi, 2014). In essence, it is, therefore, clear that local languages are not promoted within the multilingual context but are inevitable as a language of teaching and learning. Robinson and Vũ (2019) highlight that the cost of developing local languages is too high. More so, the approach to multilingual education in Morocco, has been a subject of silent debate especially with regards to Mother tongue language while Senegal has a past history of encouraging and developing its indigenous languages (Robinson & Vũ, 2019). Despite the fact that code switching is not allowed as it disadvantages foreign learners, in this study both teachers and host learners were found to be code-switching in schools.

### **2.3 South Africa and the language policy**

The Dutch were the first Europeans to colonise South Africa, followed by the English settlers in 1795. (Makalela, 2016). The history of language in South Africa is narrated and summarised below:

After the Anglo-Boer. 1910, South Africa signed a union treaty as a way to avoid future wars. Thereafter Dutch and English were considered official languages of the republic. However, this national language policy was short-lived as it ignored Afrikaans mother-tongue speakers who had grown in large numbers. The Afrikaans speakers (Afrikaners) started a protest movement that promoted Afrikaans as the official language instead of Dutch. This movement developed during World War I (1914–1919). The linguistic outcome of these political developments was between 1918 and 1959 when English-Afrikaans bilingual medium was used for learning and teaching. This means that White schools were divided into Afrikaans or English medium schools, with either of these languages used as the language of instruction and both languages taught as subjects. In contrast, the Black learners attended the missionary schools that had a policy of learning through the African home language for the first 3 years and transition into English medium instruction at grade 4 (Makalela, 2016: 523-524).

Narrating the post-apartheid history of South African language policy, Probyn (2017) also concurred with McKinney (2017) and Soudien (2004) that ‘during the apartheid era the apartheid era, state schools were isolated based on race and language. Schools and education departments were separated based on the racial groupings of “black,” “coloured” (i.e., mixed-race), Indian, and “white” (English and Afrikaans). The post-apartheid education era witnessed the linguistic

set-ups changing in some schools from previously ‘white,’ ‘coloured,’ and ‘Indian’ schools to rather diverse student population (Probyn, 2017:453).

The apartheid administration implemented a divisive language policy known as the Bantu Education Act. The aim of the policy was (a) to promote the Afrikaans language while the impact of the use of English language in black schools was minimised, and (b) to enact the use of the Afrikaans and English languages as the language of teaching and learning. However, black learners resisted the Act, resulting in the bloody Soweto uprising of 16<sup>th</sup> June 1976 with the loss of lives (Cole, 2017).

The Bantu Education Act was phased out after the transition to democratic government in 1994. Thereafter, South Africa became characterised by the desegregation of an increasingly diverse society built on equity and an equal education system based on ethnicity, colour, language and race (Meier & Hartell, 2009). After the democratic transition, the new South African government introduced a new language policy. This 1996 language policy aimed both to discourage language discrimination and to rectify linguistic inequality (South African Schools Act 84 of 1996 (section 6(3)). In addition, the South African Language Policy (section 29 (2)), in the Bill of Rights stipulates that “[e]veryone has the right to receive education in the official language or languages of their choice in public educational institutions where that education is reasonably practicable” (RSA,1996). However, the ongoing use of the colonial languages as the official languages serves to affirm that the democratic era did not usher in a new language policy system (Mutasa, 2015). Nevertheless, Cakata and Segalo (2017) argue that maintaining two languages out of the eleven languages only in the South African language policy poses challenges to the fundamental human rights of citizens.

Although the democratic transition in the new South Africa went smoothly but the choice of English and Afrikaans as the LoLT in South African schools has been problematic (Ntombela, 2016) as this does not accord with the specified aims of the (LiEP). According to Act 27 of 1996, DoE, the aims are: (i) “to establish additive multilingualism as an approach to language in education” (ii) “to promote and develop all official languages”; and (iii) “to redress the neglect of the historically disadvantaged languages in education”. According to Simango (2015), aim (i) above clearly defines the accommodation of foreign learners in South African schools which produces ‘additive multilingualism’. In relation to the policy aims in Act 27 of 1996, Makoe and Mckinney (2014) highlight that, without adequate information on the language principles which inform both policy and practices, learners will not experience a change in the language classes. Makalela (2015) has found out that translanguaging behaviour in the classroom encourages the alternation shift between

languages for language learning. Thus, as mentioned by Makoe and Mckinney (2014) and Makalela (2015) above, it is, therefore, clear that aims (ii) and (iii) above have not been realised.

In order to ensure a clear understanding of whom foreign learners are in the South African context, I have summarised the term according to the National Policy Pertaining to the Programme and Promotion requirement (NPPPR (2011), section 4 (1a). Thus, the term immigrant learners refer to the children and/or dependents of diplomats who officially represent their governments in South Africa. Section 4(b) states that *immigrant learners* must learn the two official languages offered in the Intermediate Phase and the Senior Phase and pass one of the required two official languages, while section 4(d) states: “An immigrant learner may offer his or her home language in lieu of one official language, provided that it is an officially approved non-official language.”

In South Africa, ‘immigrant learners’ require the correct and certified documents in order to be admitted to school. Foreign learners must be officially registered before they may study at a South African school. Section 4(e) states that foreign learners also require *appropriate official documentation issued by the Department of Home Affairs; and relevant official documents issued by the school*, thus providing evidence that the law and policies in South Africa make provision for foreign learners in the country. Examples of such law and policies include the 1994 language policy and Act 84 of 1996 (section 6(3), both which aim to discourage language discrimination and rectify linguistic inequality in South African Schools.

Research has found evidence of indiscriminate linguistic equality in the language policy in South Africa with the findings also supporting the *goals of the language policy* in South Africa, namely, (i) To encourage national unity. (ii) To protect language rights. (iii) To encourage multilingualism and iv) To promote respect and tolerate language diversity and parents’ right to choose the language of instruction (Tshotsho, 2013). However, contrary to these goals, Makoe and Mckinney (2014) argue that, in terms of the South African language policy, English is gradually becoming the main language while multilingual practices are being restricted with the South African language policy supporting the use of the home language as the language of instruction in the first three years of education before changing to instruction in English. In addition, Tshotsho (2013) found that many teachers in the Eastern Cape were 10 years behind even after the release of the new syllabus, thus highlighting the extent to which schools appear to be unfamiliar with language policy and its implementation in South Africa. There has been evidence that many teachers are resistant to change. Furthermore, some of the teachers report large classes, poor resources and facilities and the unavailability of funding as challenges to the implementation of the language policy (Tshotsho, 2013).

According to Evans and Cleghorn (2014), the language policy at the school level in South Africa has been one of the significant factors influencing the parental choice of schooling. This is conceptualised in the norms and standards encapsulated in the language policy with the norms and standards policy document introducing the concepts of additive multilingualism and additive bilingualism (DoE, 1997). Additive multilingualism supports the value of fairness in the use of all 11 official languages at schools (Ndimande-Hlongwa & Ndebele, 2017). However, I found not to be practicable in the course of this study. The participants' responses indicated that their schools offered English, Afrikaans or Isizulu as the languages of instruction. Other schools have reported that, at the time of the study, they were offering French, Portuguese and/or a Chinese language as a second additional language while also offering extra lessons and language programmes in these languages to accommodate foreign learners. In other words, there appeared to be a fairness in relation to foreign languages but not in the use of the 11 official languages as stipulated in the norms and standards policy documents of the language policy.

Koch (2015) reported that *additive bilingual education (ABLE)* assists teachers in translating *the 1997 South African Language in Education Policy* into a practicable model while the LiEP in South Africa is playing a role in ensuring learners' access, equality and social justice in the education language policy (Probyn, 2017). However, according to Brown (1998), the norms and standards do not specify which languages beyond one official language should be offered, especially with regard to foreign learners. Instead, those who drafted the norms and standards detailed how the right to the languages of learners' choice in education is needful although practicality must also be taken into account.

### 2.3.1 The South African School Act and the Constitution on the language policy

The policy document that comprises the language policy in South Africa includes the following: “(i) The Norms and Standards for language policy in public schools, (ii) the Language in the Education Policy in Terms of Section 3(4)(M) of the National Education Policy, and (iii) The Norms and Standards regarding language policy published in terms of Section 6(1) of the South African Schools Act, 1996.” In relation to the language policy in public schools, section 6(1) of the Acts states “that the language policy depends on the Constitution and the South African School Act”. This means that the South African language policy for schools is guided by the values contained in both the Constitution (RSA, 1996a) and the South African Schools Act (SASA) (RSA, 1996b). The 1994 transition to the democratic government in South Africa resulted in the 1996 Constitution which declared 11 official languages, namely, nine indigenous African languages, “Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, isiZulu, SiSwati, isiXhosa, isiNdebele, Tshivenda and Xitsonga) English and

Afrikaans” (RSA, 1996). The Bill of Rights (1996) gives learners the right to be taught in any language of their choice in public schools where such choices are reasonably practicable (Republic of South Africa 1996, s 29(2)). Thus, the democratic government is founded on the democratic values of equality, human rights, and freedom for all who live in South Africa, including foreign learners (Department of Basic Education, 2018).

As previously mentioned, section 6(1) of the Constitution establishes that every learner has the right to be taught in one of the official languages or the language of their choice, depending on the practicability of such choices. However, the Minister determines the norms and standards for the language policy while Act 6(2) gives the school governing bodies the right to decide the indiscriminative language policy of the school based on the Constitution. In addition, according to section 21(1)(b) of the Act, there must not be unfair discrimination between the official languages that are offered as subject options. The values enshrined in the Constitution have given foreign learners in the 21<sup>st</sup> century the opportunity to benefit from the language policy education and training system promulgated in South African school (Department of Basic Education, 2018). A language right is an educational right that, eventually, accords with human rights because it is essential that global citizens and people are given the opportunity to focus on language rights despite cultural and/or language differences between the various nations. Foreign learners will be content to live in a country only where the country’s government fully supports quality and educational justice for them (Mccarthy, 2020). According to Mccarthy, (2020), the identification of language rights affects both a nation and its foreign learners, including the schools and the government. A nation’s citizens will become globalised individuals only when they begin to focus on language equity for foreign learners and it is only then that they will start to benefit from the global internationalisation programme which promotes language proficiency.

Furthermore, it is also important to understand the norms and standards of Language as contained in the education policy. According to the Language in Education Policy (1997), the rights and duties of a school include the following: (i) the governing body decides how the school will promote multilingualism by using more than one language of learning and teaching through or by other means but as approved by the head of the provincial education department. Learners who have challenges with their language development and intellectual development are not included in this regard and (ii) There must be up to 35 learners who request a new language of instruction which is not offered in a secondary school for the request to be granted. However, the head of the provincial department of education will consider the following in approving such a request: *“Learner-teacher ratio, the cost-effective use of education funds, practicability and the advice of the governing body*

*and principal of the public school concerned*” (LieEP 1997). This implies that where this is not practicable, the learners have to learn in a language other than that which was requested.

In line with the above, May (2015) highlighted that communicating in other people’s language may dismantle the hierarchisation of languages to the level of equality as stipulated in the Constitution. Language communication allows a person of any culture to reveal his/her feelings and experiences, to collaborate, to plan and to discuss plans and implement them. This suggests that a school’s language policy may result in language communication which, in turn may result in foreign learners facing challenges in terms of developing an ethnically oriented personality, tolerance and intelligence (Yusupova, Podgorecki & Markova, 2015). In a similar vein, Vandeyar and Vandeyar (2011:4165) explain that language plays an important role in opening the door of acceptance in the host society. Acceptance helps in forming a foundation for interaction and communication among foreign nationals and indigenous learners in the host society.

The norms and standards of the language policy document in South Africa also introduced the concepts of additive multilingualism and additive bilingualism and cultural integration, which are major policy objectives in South African schools (Holmarsdottir, 2009). “Additive multilingualism treasures the principle of equality among all 11 official languages” (Ndimande-Hlongwa & Ndebele, 2017). However, Taylor and Von Fintel (2016) argue that there is inequality between the 11 official languages in South Africa as Afrikaans and English are the only languages that have been fully developed as both the MOI and the language of teaching and learning in schools.

Van Der Walt & Klapwijk (2015), reporting on Probyn (2001), reiterate that the implementation of the language policy on teaching and learning within the South African classroom is problematic. The dilemma that many public schools face regarding language policy has resulted in rapid demographic and social changes over the years in the multilingual environments. However, teachers have been known to make decisions that are contrary to the aims of the language in education policies. These decisions are taken both at the classroom and school levels and are based on insights into learners’ knowledge of and control over the LoLT (Van Der Walt & Klapwijk, 2015). As a result, teachers find it difficult to teach and/or communicate in English with the result that is common for teachers to code switch between the official MOI and the learners’ home language(s) during classroom practices in most African/black schools.

## **2.4 Development and implementation of the language policy**

As was previously stated in the section on a brief history of language policy in South Africa, the language policy in South Africa transitioned from the inherited colonial language policies to the new socio-political dispensation in 1994 (Makalela, 2016). The new South African Constitution declared English, Afrikaans and other nine indigenous languages as the official languages of the country (RSA, 1996). However, the Bill of Rights (1996) conferred on learners the constitutional right to be educated in any language they choose while taking into account the practicability of such a measure. In respect of the learners' choice of language section 6(2) of the South African school Act stipulates that there must be up to 35 learners who request the same new language of instruction for the request to be granted. In developing the language policy of a school, the school governing body has also been accorded the power to decide on the language policy of the school. In other words, the SGBs decide on the language of learning and teaching in schools.

Contrary to the above narrative, the non-recognition of the 11 official languages in schools has not encouraged the development of African languages – additive multilingualism (Makalela, 2016). According to Simango (2015), early studies on the development and implementation of language policy focused primarily on both building nations and the transformation of colonial and postcolonial situations, thus discovering solutions to the alleged multilingual challenges faced. Recently schools have come to be regarded as vital institutions in the development and implementation of language policy (Menken & García, 2017). The development of language policy and implementation are being articulated from the state to the district to the school and, finally, to the classroom levels (Hopkins, 2016). However, in South Africa, at the provincial level, the provincial language committee advises on issues affecting language policy legislation, the language in education and language translation. The committee is also involved in interpreting, developing and promoting the literature of the previously marginalised languages, language rights and mediation, as well as coordinating and funding language research projects (Kaschula, (2004).

It is important to note that developing language policies either encourage or limit the teaching of languages, with the workability of the policies depending on the structures, resourcefulness, understanding, evaluation, and implementation of such policies (Wiley and García, 2016). Certain studies suggest that the role of agency in both language development and language implementation is very important but only when directed by national or state top-down policy planning (Bunyi & Schroeder, 2016). The interpretation of the policies is conducted by intermediaries, representatives and/or managers (Johnson, 2013). Finally, on the issue of language planning as a means of language development Van Der Walt and Klapwijk (2015) highlight that, in the development of language

policy, micro-level planning plays an important role in developing teachers and implementing the language policy in schools.

At the time of this study, the South African Department of Education in South Africa, was developing, implementing, and providing Mandarin (foreign language) as a second additional language for foreign learners in the National Curriculum. The Department of Education has made amendments "to the regulations pertaining to the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 to provide for the listing of Mandarin as a second additional language" (Nel, 2016). In support of this assertion, the findings from this study also revealed that schools were offering Chinese as a second, additional language.

In the context of foreign learners in host countries, a quantitative study conducted by Min (2018) focused on the way in which Koreans immigrants in New York maintain and develop their language and cultures in the public schools with the aim of preserving their language and passing it on to the next generation. Teachers, parents, and learners all play a vital role in implementing such policies in schools (Menken & García, 2017). However, in relation to the teaching of the Chinese language in the USA, Luo (2016) reported a lack of both high-quality teaching faculties and unified standards. In an effort to understand foreign language education in the school context, Lehti-Eklund (2013) advised that the focus should be how learners use their language(s) to communicate in the schools. Language learning in schools goes through gradual process which involves both participation and collective effort on the part of the learners (Lehti-Eklund, 2013). It is also important to understand how foreign learners respond to learning the dominant language because this influences the decision-making processes (Netto, Hudson, Kamenou-Aigbekaen & Sosenko, 2018). For example, it is important to ensure that students understand learning is by code switching. Research literature has shown that code switching assists learners both to understanding languages and to establish interpersonal relationships with the teachers (Gwee and Saravanan, 2018). This is contrary to the use of a translator which is considered to be poor learning strategy in relation to communicative language teaching (CLT) approach (Al-Musawi, 2014)

Ansah's (2014) report that recorded a brief historical account of the development of language policy in education in Ghana, found that the planners of language policies assisted in meeting the language needs of the multilingual population. However, Anyidoho (2018) argues that the language education policies in Ghana have not been reliable because the indigenous languages have been neglected with this resulting in a communication gap. Further challenges facing the development of language policy in Ghana include inconsistency on the part of the government in respect of language policy implementation (Ansah, 2014). The media, the language education policies and the use of the



internet all influence the use of English as a home language in urban Ghana (Afrifa, Anderson & Ansah, 2019). Williams (2015) reported that language policy development and implementation may be achieved through dual language learning. According to his study, dual language learners (DLLs) in America demonstrate early brain development in life although it may take slightly long to develop the two language systems. The language policies in Mauritius, Zimbabwe and Namibia all promote the official language while demoting other minority languages (Kangira, 2016).

The national policy of education in Pakistan emphasises both the need for equality in the education system and also the need for the development of an integrated curriculum for the English language for learners belonging to the diverse cultural backgrounds (Kanwal & Aslam, 2017). Similarly, Kim, Hutchison and Winsler (2015) narrated three different approaches that are used for learners who are still learning English while using their mother tongue languages at home. These learners supposedly require support to become proficient in English while preserving their mother tongue which is their first language. According to Kim et al. (2015), five common approaches are used in the United States in language policy implementation, namely, “(1) submersion; (2) English as second language (ESL) instruction; (3) early exit or transitional bilingual education (TBE); (4) late exit, developmental, or maintenance bilingual education and (5) TWI (Two-way immersion) programmes which use two languages to reach the same standard level of education as mainstream classrooms”. The TWI is also referred to as dual language education or bilingual immersion. Kim et al. (2015) revealed that it appeared that the TWI model was effective in educating both language-minority and language-majority learners. On the other hand, Valdés (2015) is of the opinion that intergenerational continuity in language education, as well as the development and maintenance of foreign languages, are essential when implementing language policy.

## **2.5 Challenges of language policy implementation**

Generally speaking, learners who are minority language speakers are confronted with language challenges in the classroom (Menken & García, 2017). The new language in education policy published in terms of section 6(1) of the South African Schools Act, 1996, is a fundamental feature of the government’s policy. The essential aim of the policy is to enable communication across all languages while creating an indiscriminating multilingual environment. This policy informs the language indiscrimination of foreign nationals who do not either understand or communicate in the languages spoken in South Africa. Although the majority of people in South Africa speak languages other than English and Afrikaans, these two major languages have continued to dominate official public domains and undermine the language rights of other citizens as enshrined in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996) (Mkhize & Balfour, 2017). However, according to the

National Assessment Circular No. 1 of 2018 on the marked adjustment and special condonation dispensation for learners in the senior phase grades (7 to 9), the promotion mark for Afrikaans is 40% but 50% for English language (DoE, 2018). This adjustment is to accommodate foreign learners who are offered Afrikaans as a first additional language. This represents a further positive effort to meeting these foreign learners halfway, as is the aim of the language policy and in line with the learners' constitutional rights (Mkhize & Balfour, 2017). The rights and obligations of these foreign learners define their legal status (Popa, 2014).

In a study on the perceptions of Chinese and Korean students on their language learning in Japanese schools, McCarthy (2020) reported that, when the language barrier prevents students from understanding, teaching and learning in the classroom they become either troubled or incapable, thus highlighting that language barriers hinder the educational progress of foreign learners. Furthermore, Mokibelo (2016) used a qualitative method to reveal how learners experience language implementation on Botswana, According to his qualitative study's findings learners drop out of school because they experience communication challenges in the classroom.

On the other hand, from a global perspective, (Kangira, 2016) noted the influence of globalisation as one of the major actors that helped in overcoming the challenges associated with the implementation of language policy. According to him, the majority of learners speak English because they have access to the internet.

In the context of Africa, Kangira (2016) reports that the language policy of the countries from the SADC regions encourages the use of mother tongue at an early stage although this is not adhered to because the majority of the schools use a foreign language such as English as the MOI. In addition, parents reportedly often resist the use of indigenous languages at school because they are not globalised languages. Meanwhile, proficiency in the English language has been associated with success in language policy implementation. However, Kangira (2016) noted that some policies are so ambiguous and unreliable that the implementation of these policies creates hinderances that adversely affect the success of the implementation process. For example, the policy in Mauritius lacks focus as no language is officially recognised as a national language while the implementation of language policy in Zambia is also unclear. In Malawi, the challenges confronted in language policy implementation vary as learners are taught in a multilingual context with the books being written in the Chichewa language and the teaching guides in English. According to Cakata and Segalo (2017), the acceptance of the English language as the official policy language, and government's move to reform rather than deconstruct apartheid language policies are key obstacles to policy implementation in South Africa.

Further studies revealed that the challenges involved in language choice in host countries have resulted in fewer foreign learners speaking African languages in the diaspora (Kigamwa, 2017). According to Gao (2016), these concerns and other challenges emanate from language policy implementation as a result of the cultural, economic, political, and social changes that also affect the Global East and Asia. These complications in policymaking are further intensified by schools that are unable either to control and/or define learners' objectives.

Meanwhile Spanish people in the United States encounter challenges which Fishman (1964) referred to as *intergenerational continuity*, also known as language continuity (Valdés, 2015). This term describes the linguistic selection of the foreign languages used by immigrant learners to help them to prepare for high levels of bilingual proficiency, both in elementary and secondary school (Lindholm-Leary et al., 2018).

Based on the experiences discussed above and relevant literature (Mccarthy, 2020) advises that foreign learners take extra time to learn the unfamiliar languages of the host country in order to enhance their communication skills and improve their literacy ability.

## **2.6 Educators' experiences of the implementation of school language policies**

According to Netto et al. (2018), the educators' experience of the implementation of language policy is defined by a clear indication and defined understanding of language learning through classroom communication. Court (2017) in his study accentuates that foreign learners experience language learning through a socially interaction with native speakers of the dominant language. His study was conducted in England with a group of foreign nationals who spoke both English and other languages (ESOL), The study findings revealed that social interaction and acceptance in society improve the language skills of foreign learners. Other studies have revealed that language teachers and learners experience support in language learning in classroom and outside the classroom through translanguaging and multilingualism (Kalocsányiová, 2017). The above literature provides evidence that foreign learners experience language acquisition with schools and communities playing great roles in language learning of foreign learners (Johnson & Johnson, 2015, Court, 2017).

In the United States educators experience challenges in teaching languages which affect foreign nationals through ineffective teacher preparation programmes, inadequate resources and lack of planned recruitment and training awareness in relation to language educators (Williams, 2015). When examining the challenges facing the implementation of Kenya's language in education policy, Gacheche (2010) highlighted the lack of instructional materials as one such challenge. In

Australia, teachers cite language implementation challenges to poor qualifications of language teachers, lack of support and a negative attitude towards languages learning (Bense, 2014).

Although schools and communities play great role in schools in the foreign learners' experiences (Johnson and Johnson, 2015) highlighted that both teachers and school administrators are powerful agents in language policy implementation. However, they require guidance both to manage educational policies and to support the education of minoritized and bilingual learners. Although literature reveals that teachers are often excluded from the decisions that are associated with language policy (Menken and García, 2017), Yu and Shandu (2017) are of the opinion that parental involvement has a positive impact on overcoming the language barrier in schools as a result of the ethnically and linguistically complexities associated with language implementation (Kovačević, Rahimić and Šehić, 2018).

Brown (1998) conducted a study on the experiences of teachers in a Model C, English/Afrikaans medium school in South Africa. He found that the teachers in a parallel/dual medium school were not able to encourage language diversity as compared to their counterparts in single medium schools. In addition, his study revealed that parents of African learners and their parents resisted the introduction of an official indigenous language policy (Brown, 1998). Nevertheless, the school had introduced an intensive English programme for learners who experienced problems with English as the LoLT. A study by Ferreira-Meyers and Horne (2017) revealed that the issue of teaching foreign languages at the school level has been absent from debates. Their study focused on French as a foreign language and SAL (Second additional language) within the South Africa school context. It must be borne in mind that the language in education planning (LieP, 1997) stipulates that the home language (HL) and one first additional language (FAL) subject must be included as the official languages at schools.

Other studies have reported that, in South Africa, African learners are compelled to use English as the medium of instruction in the former Model C schools (Rudwick & Parmegiani, 2013). According to Nkosi (2014), the reason for this measure is that all the African languages, such as Zulu, are spoken only in South Africa. In focusing on South African schools, Kamwangamalu (2017) explains that the inadequate infrastructure, as well as a lack of resources, are major factors that adversely affect plans to implement language policy in the country. This is also exacerbated by negative behaviour toward the use of African languages as MOI – not the case with English. A quick review of English as a Foreign language(EFL) literature indicates that greater attention should be paid to foreign learners' resilience in language learning as it is an important factor in the field of L2 learning while the literature on language learning and implementation with regard

to foreign learners also indicates that resilience is one of the positive factors in language learning (Tülüce, 2018). McCarthy (2020) reported that foreign learners in Japan require time and external support in order to improve their proficiency in Japanese. This was achieved by the Ministry of Education implementing a language programme to support minority language learners in Japan.

## **2.7 Theoretical framework**

According to Kivunja (2018), a theoretical framework in the research context comprises the theories expressed by researchers in their fields of study and which provides a theoretical focus for the data analysis and interpretation of the results. The theoretical framework used in this study provided answers to the research questions which originated from the review of existing literature, including theoretical and empirical literature and, in particular, from the evident gaps in the literature (Lederman & Lederman, 2015). In particular, this meant that the theoretical framework used in the study validated an understanding of the concepts relevant to the topic of the study by clearly defining the problem statement and the research questions. The study was a qualitative study that involved a phenomenological research design. The study used semi-structured interviews to investigate educators' experiences in relation to the implementation of the language policy affecting foreign nationals in South African schools. The theoretical framework used was the Cummins Theory of Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP). The theoretical framework incorporated terms such as conversational fluency and academic language proficiency which are used interchangeably with the BICS and CALP (Cummins, 2017).

Using this theoretical framework helped me to understand what underpinned the educators' (teachers and principals) their focus when they responded to the following research questions: How educators experience the implementation of language policy affecting foreign nationals? and How they accommodate these foreign nationals, how language policies in the schools make provision for foreign nationals, the challenges they encounter and how educators address such challenges.

The study's research questions also represented identifiable features identified in both the theoretical framework and existing literature and acted as a link between the existing literature and the problem statement (Osanloo & Grant, 2016). Certain of the concepts that emerged from the existing literature and the theoretical framework guided me in the data collection and the data analysis.

The relevance of Cummins' theory to this study was the theory's focus on how foreign learners (bilingual learners) learn the languages that are implemented in terms of the language policy of the school. This focus was important as it helped me understand how foreign nationals were learning the language used in the school which was being interpreted by the educators who participated in the study. Cummins conducted several studies to establish the usefulness of the framework in language learning. The first study was conducted by Cummins (1979) and focused on foreign learners in Sweden. The findings revealed two important patterns in language learning namely: BICS and CALP. The findings also revealed that proficiency in the first language (L1) assists in developing the second language (L2). The second study noted that newly arrived foreign learners took approximately 0 to 2 years to familiarise themselves with the new language of the school through social integration in the school environment. However, it took up to five to seven years to reach the normal level of proficiency known as cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) (Bonenfant, 2012).

I decided to use both the BICS and CALP in this study because they are interrelated although they follow different developmental patterns. However, the convergence of the social and cognitive aspects of language proficiency does not signify they are indistinguishable (Cummins, 1999). Cummins reiterated that both native English speaking and foreign nationals usually “*develop a native-like phonology and fluency after several years of acquisition*” while CALP continues to develop throughout lifetime.

These two patterns in the Cummins framework (CALP and BICS) were used in this study to address the following research questions:

- What is the educators' understanding of the concept of foreign learner?
- How do the language policies in South African schools make provision for foreign nationals?
- How do schools accommodate foreign nationals when they implement their language policies?
- What are the day-to-day language policy challenges which foreign nationals face at school?
- How do schools address the language policy challenges foreign learners experience at school?

#### 2.7.1 The two patterns of the language in the Cummins theoretical framework

The two patterns of the language in the Cummins framework used in this study were the Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency

### *2.7.1.1 Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS)*

This communication skill is evident among learners outside of the classrooms, either in the school or outside of the school in a social context. It is a conversational language which is used between foreign nationals and it takes between six months to 2 years to actualise (Bonenfant, 2012). Within the BICS context, foreign learners become proficient in the social language of the school despite the fact that they are confronted with challenges associated with language interpretations in the academic context.

### *2.7.1.2 Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP)*

This aspect of language communication evolves in the foreign learners' language proficiency in the academic context. In this context, it is a language proficiency skill that is associated with the foreign learners' ability to comprehend and critically evaluate classroom lessons as well as being academically proficient in the language of the school. It takes 5 to 7 years to attain this language proficiency in the school environment. A knowledge of CALP among foreign nationals plays a determining role in their academic success at school. According to Cummins (1999), as a cognitive language policy, CALP should be cognitively demanding and, in addition, it should require critical thinking on the part of learners in academic content such as science, mathematics, and technology. This challenge compels learners to understand the similarities and differences between phonics and grammar conventions as well as providing them with knowledge in language usage, investigations and practices (Khatib & Taie, 2016).

Existing literature revealed how BICS and CALP relate to the implementation of the language policy that affects foreign nationals. The factors which emerged included the development and implementation of language policy, challenges to the implementation of language policy and experiences in relation to the implementation of the school's language policies in the context of the BICS and CALP language pattern.

### *2.7.2 Development and implementation of language policy*

According to Halbach (2012), the patterns of both Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) are fundamental in the development of language proficiency by foreign learners. BICS and CALP are associated with both conversational fluency in the language and the ability to comprehend and communicate, in both the spoken and written modes, and in concepts that are linked with academic success at school.

### 2.7.3 Learners' challenges in language policy implementation

Studies conducted by Cummins (1984b) revealed how learners face challenges when they transit to the second language (L2) as the language of learning and teaching (LoLT). A study by Robertson and Graven (2019) focused on the challenges confronting learners when learning mathematics presented in an (L2) as they struggle to become proficient in the language in question. Their study was carried out in a South African school where the learners' language one (L1) was the isiXhosa language. According to Sibanda (2017), teachers who are non-native speakers of English are not competent in the language and, consequently, they display grammatical errors and constant, habitual code switching in the classroom. This explains the poor reading pattern and the low proficiency on the part of foreign learners during the implementation of the English policy at schools.

#### *2.7.3.1 Understanding learners' language challenges using Cummins theory: A case of three African countries*

In order to understand the experiences of foreign learners using the framework of Cummins' BICS and CALP language patterns, I focused on two studies, that of Cummins (1980, 1981a, 1984a, 1984b) and a recent study conducted by Essien (2018). Cummins, (1980,1981a) reported on why foreign learners may excel in BICS while addressing CALP challenges at school. In his studies, he reiterated that educators and policymakers often misinterpret the conversational and academic English language proficiency of foreign learners in the Cummins theoretical framework (Cummins, 1980). These misinterpretations contribute significantly to the academic challenges which foreign learners face during language policy implementation at school (Cummins, 1984a). This implies that foreign learners become more proficient in the language of the school as compared to the development of their conceptual skills during the implementation of the same language. This is reason why Cummins postulated that foreign learners develop their conceptual knowledge of the school's language in their first 5 to 7 years of residence in the host country (Cummins, 1980). An understanding of this aspect of language development should prevent the misinterpretation of foreign learners' conversational and conceptual difficulties (Cummins, 1984a, 2008).

A study conducted by Essien (2018) compared the language experiences of three countries, namely, Malawi, Kenya, and South Africa. He underpinned his study with the BICS and CALP framework in his effort to understand how learners developed their conversational and conceptual language trajectory from the mother tongue language to the language of the school. The study found that the implementation of the language in education policies in the three different focus countries was characterised the fact that the indigenous languages had not been fully developed as academic



languages. However, the study did reveal that the language policy implementation in the three focus countries was providing the learners in these countries with the possibility of developing language proficiency and competence in both home language(s) and English. Unfortunately, the review of research on all three of these countries showed that this was, in fact, not happening (Essien, 2018). I concluded that it is important to find out how long it takes for conversational and conceptual patterns of BICS and CALP to develop among learners, especially foreign learners, during language policy implementation. Nevertheless, the distinctions and connections in the BICS and CALP have been extensively reviewed in the literature cited above on Cummins' (1980,1984) theoretical framework. These distinctions and connections in BICS and CALP are also discussed in relation to the study findings when I interpret the findings in chapter four.

Criticism of Cummins's theory advises that his theoretical concepts should be measured in terms of whether they are adequate or useful and not in terms of whether they are valid or not valid (Cummins, 2016). Researchers who have the Cummins theory to underpin their studies include (Cummins, 1984b, Lillywhite, 2011) and (Essien, 2018). According to (Cummins, 2017), BICS refer to conversational fluency in a language, while CALP refers to students' ability to understand and express, in both oral and written modes, concepts and ideas that are relevant to success in school. Cummins considers that, when schools adopt a monolingual approach in a multilingual environment when implementing the language policy, foreign learners often face the problems of devalued identity, exclusion, and marginalisation. (Cummins, 2015). This highlights the fact that Cummins' theory advocates the expansion and exploration of multilingual skills in school and among foreign learners. The framework was deemed relevant to the purposes of this study as was Act 27 of 1996 of the DoE in which the Language in Education Policy (LiEP) aims to establish additive multilingualism, as mentioned in this study.

Unlike this qualitative study, in his quantitative study Essien (2018) compared three countries, namely, Malawi, Kenya and South Africa, using the Cummins framework. He found that the implementation of the language policies in the three countries had faced difficulties in bridging the gap between BICS and CAPS. According to Essien (2018), the indigenous languages were not yet fully developed as academic languages. Other studies cited in the literature have focused on the implementation of language policy in South African schools (Brown, 1998). However, while Brown (1998) focused on the implementation of language policy as it related to South Africans who spoke other South African languages, this study focused on foreign learners who were not South African. In addition, Brown (1998) conducted his study more than two decades before this study. Clearly, a more recent study in this regard was required.

## 2.8 Conclusion

The literature review presented in this chapter revealed the language policy in school is a global issue that places foreign learners under immense pressure to learn the language of their host countries. According to Wiley and García, (2016) and Davin and Heineke, (2017), the Seal of Biliteracy used in the United States is a positive tool for shaping and implementing language policy in this globalised world. They used quantitative syntheses to support their conclusion, unlike this study which used the qualitative research method. The literature review revealed the importance of language but also highlighted challenges that inhibit language implementation in schools. A few studies only have focused on foreign learners' acquisition of language in South African schools. In addition, these studies used French to understand the concept of a second additional language (non-official but optional) at the school level in South Africa (Ferreira-Meyers & Horne, 2017). However, these studies did not provide sufficient data to conclude on how foreign nationals who neither speak the language of the school nor any of the eleven South African official languages experience language implementation in schools. However, I intended to bridge this gap by focusing on all foreign learners in schools, including French speaking foreign learners.

The literature also revealed that the language policy in South African schools is derived from the following documents, namely, the Constitution, the South African Schools Act (1996); the nine provincial schools' Acts and regulations, the policy documents and norms, and the standards on language policy in education. In addition, the literature highlighted that the primary aim of the 1994 language policy was to discourage language discrimination by rectifying linguistic inequality.

The literature referred to above explained how previous research investigations had provided some insights into the factors that contribute to the development of language policy, for example, planning, features of the policy and how policies are resourced, valued, and affect the development and implementation of language policy. The challenges associated with the implementation of language policy in schools indicated impediments to achieving the educational goals for all ethnic and foreign minority groups (Williams, 2015, Gacheche, 2010). However, despite the challenges and experiences described in the literature, McCarthy (2020) proffers solutions to the challenges which arise during the implementation of the language policy that relates to foreign learners.

The Cummins conceptual framework clearly indicates the difference between learners' interpersonal communication skills (BICS), which he also refers to as "conversational skills" and their cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) (Cummins, 2017). This distinction was important in this study as it focuses the attention of schools on the experiences of foreign language learners during the implementation of school language policies in schools. Although the Cummins

study focused on language acquisition, this study focused on the schools' implementation of the language policy that affects foreign nationals.

The next chapter discusses the research design and methods used to investigate the research question.

## CHAPTER THREE

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

#### 3.1 Introduction

Chapter two presented a review of the literature on the historical background of foreign nationals and the interpretations of various concepts used in representing foreign nationals in schools. The literature reviewed included literature on both international and national language policies; their implementation, development, and challenges, and how they have been experienced in schools. In this chapter, I present the methodology of the study which entails how data was collected, analysed, and interpreted. The purpose of this chapter assists me in understanding educators' experiences of the implementation of language policy affecting foreign nationals and providing answers to my research questions.

#### 3.2 Research paradigm

In view of the fact that the focus of the study was on the participants' interpretations of reality it was decided to use the interpretivist research paradigm (Thanh & Thanh, 2015). The interpretivism paradigm helped me to understand the educators' experience as well as hear what they were saying (Queirós et al., 2017). Within the context of the interpretivist paradigm, I sought answers to my research questions through the flexibility of semi-structured interviews. I also approached the reality of the study from the points of view of the principals and teachers who had undergone these experiences (Thanh & Thanh, 2015). The interpretivist paradigm played a crucial role in enabling me to gain both a clearer understanding and as well a deeper knowledge of the research topic. The interpretivist paradigm is also seen as a synonym for qualitative inquiry (Mcphail & Lourie, 2017). In addition, the use of the interpretivist paradigm meant that my study was influenced and shaped by pre-existing theories and world views, the ontological belief that reality is socially constructed (Willis, Jost and Nilakanta, 2012) Furthermore, as an interpretive researcher, I also interacted with the participants (Okeke & Van Wyk, 2016).

The principals and the teachers who participated in the study were selected because they either had experience in language policy implementation or in the teaching of languages at the school level. At the time of the study, they had been working at the selected schools for more than two years and, thus, I believed that their interpretations of language policy implementation as it related to foreign nationals would be of value (Thanh & Thanh, 2015). The close link between the interpretivism paradigm and qualitative methodology was the main reason why I decided to use both in my study. While the former is a methodological approach the later represents a way in which to collect the

data required, furthermore, interpretivism promotes the value of qualitative data (Chowdhury, 2014). Thus, using the interpretivist paradigm and qualitative methods helped me to understand the participants' experiences and perceptions and to collect the data I required to uncover participants' experience (Thanh & Thanh). In addition, the interpretivist paradigm enables me both to conduct a critical interpretation of data gathered as well as to understand my participants' world (Pathak et al., 2013).

However, the interpretivist paradigm did also result in some limitations in this study. While the paradigm did help me to gain a deeper understanding and knowledge of the participants' experiences, one of the limitations in using the interpretivist paradigm is in generalising the study results to a wider population (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). In addition, it may be that my ontological view as a researcher was more subjective rather than objective due to my belief system, my background, my cultural preferences, and my way of thinking (Mack, 2010). It is possible that these personal views may have affected my interpretations as a researcher as well as the research outcomes, thereby creating space for bias. However, I endeavoured to avoid such bias by establishing a rapport with the participants in order to build trust and get to know them before commencing with the interviews (Dejonckheere & Vaughn, 2019).

### **3.3 Research approach**

The qualitative approach adopted for the purposes of the study enabled me to understand the complex reality of the language implementation policy affecting foreign learners and the meaning ascribed to the experiences of principals and teachers of such a policy in Gauteng. The objective of the qualitative methodology used in the study assisted in the collection of detailed, explanatory data that helped me to understand the several challenges under investigation (Queirós, Faria & Almeida, 2017). This approach produced a detailed description of the experiences of both teachers and the principals in interpreting the meaning of their actions.

### **3.4. Research design**

According to Creswell (2015), a phenomenological research design involves a study that incorporates the understanding of the 'what' and 'how' group of individuals in a particular context, such as education, and who share a deep and common experience in the development of practices and/or policies. The use of this design enabled the principals and the teachers to provide answers to the research question while sharing their understandings of the phenomenon under investigation.

### 3.4.1 Phenomenology design

The purpose of this phenomenological study was to explore how educators described their experience of the implementation of language policy affecting foreign learners (Hall, Chai & Albrecht, 2016). In particular, I adopted the phenomenological design for the purposes of this study in order to explore a specific phenomenon (language policy with a group of participants (principals and teachers)) who had experienced the implementation of the language policy affecting foreign learners in schools. The recommended and appropriate sample size for this type design is approximately three to ten and, thus, I conducted in-depth interviews with three to ten participants who had experienced the phenomenon under investigation (Cilesiz, 2011). Although the limitation of this design is the small sample size, it was not the aim to generalise the findings. The advantage of the phenomenology design is the validation techniques inherent in the design, for example, data source triangulation which helps to substantiate the evidence and eliminate bias (Hall et al., 2016). In addition, member checking was further conducted with participants to determine the credibility of the study findings and interpretations.

## 3.5 Data collection

Semi-structured interviews were used to collect the required data from the principals and the teachers. The semi-structured interviews encompassed face-to-face interviews and audio recordings with this mode of inquiry allowing the participants to recount their experiences (Butina, 2015). In addition, it also enabled me to acquire an in-depth understanding of their experiences (Seidman, 2013). The interviews I conducted with the teachers and the principals allowed me to triangulate the data source and limit the risk of bias. Maree (2016) and Bold (2011) also suggest the above methods for qualitative data collection.

### 3.5.1 Sampling

I decided to use purposive sampling was to select cases that were rich in information to answer the research question and to address the issues I considered to be of central importance of this study (Schreier, 2018). Certain principals and teachers were identified and selected to participate in the study through purposive sampling. They were also selected because they were proficient in and well-informed about the implementation of the language policy affecting to foreign learners. Their knowledge and experience in relation to the research topic were important as were their availability and willingness to participate in the study and communicate their experiences (Akhtar, 2016).

### 3.5.2 Participants

The study participants included four school principals and eight teachers who were purposively selected from schools attended by foreign learners. The principals and two language teachers from each of the four schools were interviewed. As mentioned above, the participants had all been at the selected school for more than two years prior to the study. It was felt that this criterion would ensure that participants were informed about and competent in language policy implementation and how it relates to foreign learners as they had all participated in the implementation of language policies in schools. Although there was no methodological reason for the sample sizes, in qualitative research it is essential that rich and bulky data is of size that may be managed in practical terms (Emmel, 2013)

The term ‘educator’ in the context of this study as provided in SASA amended Education Laws Amendment No 48 Of 1999 *“any person who teaches, educates, or trains other persons or who provides professional educational services, including professional therapy and education psychological services, at a school”* This definition of educator in section 6(a) of Act No. 48 of 1999 with the educators referring to both teachers and principals was used in the context of this study.

Before the democratic transition educators in South Africa were trained to teach learners from a specific language group. However, under the new dispensation, the admission of foreign learners to South African schools has created a vital, diversified role for schools in the language development of learners. As a result, schools have become agents of change in language policy with educators teaching languages to learners who are incompetent in the language of instruction (Vandeyar, 2017).

In order to gain access to the participants, I wrote a letter to the school principals requesting permission to interview the selected participants who have more than two years of experience (Cresswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The participants then indicated their availability and willingness to participate in the study and communicate their experiences and opinions (Palinkas et al., 2015). School principals were included as participants in the study because they are agents of reform (Vandeyar, 2017). In addition, they are also experts in using mediating strategies aimed at mobilising teachers in relation to school reforms (Ganon-Shilon & Schechter, 2019). In terms of section 16 (A) of the School Act, school principals must report to the school governing bodies on issues pertaining to the implementation of language policy in schools (Prinsloo, 2016). The selected

participants were able to provide the information required for the study (Malterud, Siersma & Guassora, 2016).

### 3.5.3 Study sites

The researcher had previously selected four secondary schools in the Ekurhuleni District where there were foreign learners. The reason for this sampling method was the cost effectiveness and easy accessibility. Unfortunately, the request to research the selected schools were turned down because the schools were unsure of their anonymity and confidentiality. Following this disappointment, I visited other schools in both the Johannesburg East and Ekurhuleni North Districts. I also had to first assure them of their anonymity and confidentiality before being granted permission to collect the requisite data. OR Tambo International Airport, the busiest airport in Africa, and South Africa's largest railway centre are situated in Ekurhuleni (Marutlulle, 2017). The dynamic economic development in Ekurhuleni has made it an important destination for work-seekers. As the industrial hub of Gauteng, there has been a significant influx of foreigners into both Johannesburg and Ekurhuleni with the perceived concentration of jobs and job opportunities. This has made these areas preferred locations for both foreigners and non-foreigners living in Gauteng. The foreigners also register their children in schools in the feeder zones of Johannesburg East and Ekurhuleni North and, hence, I selected the schools in these areas by means of purposive sampling for the purposes of the study (Emmel, 2013).

The selected schools comprised four secondary schools, two schools from Johannesburg East and two schools from Ekurhuleni North. All four selected secondary schools fell within the ranges of the quintile 5. Ogonnaya and Awuah (2019) highlight that, over the years, the government of South Africa has tried to bridge the gap between public schools and the related funding and standard of living in the community in which the schools are located using quintile categorisation. The schools in quintiles 1 to 3 are non-fee paying and are financially supported by the government unlike schools in quintiles 4 and 5. The categorisations of the selected schools was not a criterion in my choice of schools but has been mentioned to help the readers to understand the descriptions of the selected schools. The target schools met certain criteria, such as easy accessibility, geographical proximity, significant number of foreign learners, availability, and the willingness of staff members to participate in the study (Etikan, Musa and Alkassim, 2016). The number of schools selected for the purposes of the study was deemed to be large enough, relevant to the phenomenon under investigation and also sufficient to provide the data required to answer the research question. Increasing the sample size would have resulted in repetitive data (Vasileiou, Barnett, Thorpe and Young, 2018). I requested the principals to select teachers who were experienced and



knowledgeable in relation to language teaching and, thus, who would add value to the study, to participate in the interviews.

#### 3.5.4 Personal declaration

In my position in this qualitative study as a master's student from the University of Pretoria, I did not have any previous knowledge of the implementation of language policy in schools or any relationship with the participants. As a qualitative researcher, I understood that I may have been influenced by my role as a researcher in the study and, thus, I used reflexive methodologies processes to ensure transparency (Bulpitt & Martin, 2010). The reflexive stance that I adopted in the study helped me to improve my ethical stance and legitimately validated my research procedures (Mortari, 2015).

As mentioned above the selected schools were in district where foreign learners attended school. The schools were recommended by teachers who attended the same church as I do. These teachers were neither related to and nor were they employees of the recommended schools. I had decided to request assistance from these church members because the other schools I had previously approached had turned down my request to conduct research at their schools.

In order to avoid bias during the data collection, I carefully selected participants (principals and teachers) who met the selection criteria and who were employed at schools attended foreign learners. The participants had all worked at the selected schools for at least two years prior to the study. In addition, my research topic and their experiences relating to research topic played a major role in their selection (Ganon-Shilon & Schechter, 2019). I also confirmed their years of experiences during the data analysis to avoid analytical bias.

### **3.6 Data Analysis**

By using face-to-face, semi-structured interviews to generate the requisite data, I was able to discover the participants' views, thus allowing knowledge relating to the focus of my inquiry to emerge (Dejonckheere & Vaughn, 2019) through a detailed summary of the participants views (Mcintosh & Morse, 2015). Thematic analysis was also used in identifying patterns (Maguire & Delahunt, 2017). The thematic analysis is the process of identifying patterns or themes within qualitative data (Maguire and Delahunt, 2017).

The use of the thematic analysis in the study allowed the ongoing and emergence of new and existing ideas (O'keeffe et al., 2016). It also provided an overview of the salient issues raised by the interviewees (O'reilly & Dogra, 2016). While using the thematic analysis, first I familiarised myself with the data, generated the initial codes, searched for themes, reviewed the themes, defined themes and did the final write-up (Braun, Clarke, Hayfield & Terry, 2019), as adopted by (Maguire and Delahunt, 2017). I did by reading through all the data and listening to the audio recording while making notes of the contents that were relevant to the research questions. The notes helped me during the coding stage when I was categorising and interpreting the data content (Allen, 2017).

One of the limitations of this analytical process was that interpreting the data took longer than I had anticipated. However, I had allocated sufficient time for interpreting and writing up the findings (Gale, Heath, Cameron, Rashid & Redwood, 2013) and even for transcribing the audio recordings word for word from the recorder. I further identified information that may have jeopardised the privacy of the participants and I removed this information in order to maintain confidentiality (Mcintosh & Morse, 2015). Although unexpected data did emerge during the interviews, I was flexible enough not to classify such data under the predetermined categories. The themes and pattern which emerged described the phenomenon highlighted in the research question, thus demonstrating that the participants who had been purposively sampled did, indeed, the information required collect sufficient data and to realise the purpose of the study.

### **3.7 Trustworthiness**

The trustworthiness of a study refers to the quality, generalisability, validity, and reliability of the study (Loh, 2013). In terms of this study, the reliability of the study defined the consistency within the analytical procedures (Long & Johnson, 2000), while the validity referred to the extent to which the method used accurately reflected the data (Noble & Smith, 2015), thus verifying that I truly and accurately represented the participants' views. As a qualitative researcher, the aim of the research design and methodological strategies selected for the purposes of the study aimed to ensure the trustworthiness of the findings (Noble & Smith, 2015). The criterion for evaluating the trustworthiness of the study is achieved by the extent to which the study findings could be generalised to a wider population (Wahyuni, 2012). I used the four constructs of trustworthiness (credibility, dependability, confirmability, and transferability) as suggested by Lincoln and Guba, (1985) supported by Allen (2017) and Korstjens and Moser (2018). These constructs provided a detailed step-by-step procedure used in the study. Other strategies employed to enhance the trustworthiness of the study included a peer review of data and of findings, complete recordkeeping

as well as collaboration with others and with interdisciplinary texts to ensure triangulation (Allen, 2017).

### 3.7.1 Credibility

The credibility of this study was achieved by measuring and testing the study's aims in order to ensure that the findings were both true and accurate. This was done by using triangulation in the choice of participants (principals and teachers) as well as the data collection instrument (semi-structured interviews). Audio recording and the biographical data of the participants were also used. This qualitative triangulation provided evidence of the credibility of the findings. In addition, I used member checks by allowing two participants to confirm the way in which I had viewed and depicted the data in the research reports. This also helped to confirm the accuracy of the data.

### 3.7.2 Transferability

In order to ensure the transferability, I ensured that the findings were applicable in other context by providing a thick description of both the participants and the research process. I also used the semi-structured interviews to ask the principals and the teachers questions that allowed them to describe their experiences. This made it possible for the readers to assess whether the findings were transferable to other contexts, settings, or group – also referred to as transferability judgment (Korstjens & Moser, 2018).

### 3.7.3 Dependability

The dependability of this study was demonstrated in the presentation of a detailed description of both the research methods as well as the data collection method used (interview questions) (Wahyuni, 2012). I also ensured that my findings were consistent and that it would be possible for other researchers to replicate the study. In other words, anyone who wished to replicate the study should have enough information from the study to do so.

### 3.7.4 Confirmability

I ensured that the findings were based on the participants' responses and not a result of my bias or personal motivations (Shenton, 2004). In order to do this, I ensured that the findings reflected the responses of the teachers and the principals rather than my preferences (Wahyuni, 2012).

### 3.7.5. Auditing

To assess the trustworthiness of the study, obtain an assurance of the quality of the study and confirm its reliability from a methodological perspective, I submitted the work for external auditing as suggested by Carcary (2009). The aim of this process was to review, analyse, interpret and evaluate whether my findings accurately represented the data which had been collected. The purpose of auditing in the research context is to investigate the procedure used in and the outcomes of a research study (Miller, 1997).

### **3.8 Ethical consideration**

Ethical issues were an integral aspect of this inquiry which was marked by its emphasis on relational engagement between the researcher and the research participants. Thus, the ethical requirements in research moved beyond the institutional requirements of privacy, confidentiality, and informed consent (Given, 2008). Ethical approval to conduct the study was obtained from the Research Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Education at the University of Pretoria (see Annexure C). The necessary permission was also obtained from the Department of Education (see Annexure A) and, in addition, I also sought permission from the four sampled schools to conduct the interviews (see Annexure D). All four schools granted me permission to conduct the interviews schools (see Annexure E). The participants were given consent forms to read and they were required to understand the contents before signing the forms. The consent forms contained detailed information on the rights and confidentiality of the participants, the purpose of the study and how the data from the scheduled interview would be used and stored (see Annexure G). With the permission and consent of the participants, the interviews were also recorded. I used Christians' (2011) codes of ethics and the detailed ethical standard of Schumacher (2014) (discussed below) to test and prove the validity and trustworthiness of the data. According to Arifin (2018), it is crucial that ethical issues are upheld throughout all the stages of a qualitative study to maintain the balance between the potential risks of a research study and the likely benefits of the study. The ethics considerations adopted in the study are discussed below:

**Informed consent:** The participants in the study were assured of both confidentiality and anonymity. They were also provided with a detailed explanation of the intended use of the data. Informed consent forms were signed by all the participants as this would allow the participants to reject any type of insecurity during the course of the interviews. The participants all agreed voluntarily to participate in the interviews. Their agreement was based on their knowledge of the duration, purpose, and nature of the interviews (Wang & Geale, 2015).

Deception: The data collection process was free from deception and was truthful and as clear as possible. This enabled the participants to understand the interview process and what it entailed. Accordingly, I informed the potential participants of interviews' duration, activities and location. After conveying this information, I gave the participants the consent forms to sign. The informed consent forms indicated the participants' willingness to take part in the study as well as their right to withdraw from the study at any time (Wang & Geale, 2015).

Privacy, confidentiality, and anonymity: I assured the participants that their identities would be concealed and also that whatever information they gave me would be safeguarded. During the thematic analysis, I used a coding system to ensure the anonymity and confidentiality of the participants. I also assured my participants that the study material would be kept confidential (Given, 2008).

### **3.9 Conclusion**

This chapter discussed the qualitative method which was employed to collect the requisite data and to analyse them. The chapter also explained the way in which the interpretivist paradigm and qualitative methods were used to acquire an understanding of the experiences and perceptions of the participants. Semi-structured interviews were used to collect the data. The six stages of thematic analysis, as proposed by Braun and Clarke (2006) were used to analyse the data which had been collected. In addition, I also used Guba and Lincoln's (1985) four constructs of trustworthiness to check the trustworthiness of the data and, finally, I used Given's (2008) four codes of ethics to check the ethical stance which I had adopted during the study.

The next chapter, chapter 4, contains a detailed description and interpretation of the research findings.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### RESEARCH FINDINGS

#### 4.1 Introduction

Chapter three described the qualitative research approach, the research design and the data collection methodology used to collect the required data. As discussed in the previous chapters, the aim of the study was to understand educators' experiences of the implementation of language policy affecting foreign nationals in selected secondary schools in Gauteng. The educators who participated in the study included teachers and principals from the four selected schools. In the study foreign nationals are also referred to as foreign learners. Using semi-structured interviews to collect the data and then, as an interpretivist, I focused on understanding the principals' and teachers' experiences and voices in relation to the implementation of language policy that affects foreign nationals. I also analysed and interpreted the data which had been collected using face to face, semi-structured and recorded interviews and I then drew conclusions based on the views they had expressed. I present the findings in this chapter using all the methods and processes described in chapter three where I explained how I generated data for my study.

This chapter presents the responses from teachers and principals on their experiences of schools' implementation of language policy relating to foreign national. Finally, due to the size of the sample used in this study, it was not possible to generalise the findings either to the wider population or to other study contexts (Rahman, 2017). The participants' in this study were found to be likely acquainted with the implementation of language policy that affects foreign nationals as a result of their years of experience. Therefore the process of analysis in this chapter represents the informed analytical and critical views of the participants based on the research questions. The analytic process entails a systematic transformation of the generated data through identifying, defining, interpreting, and describing findings that are anticipated to logically describe the phenomenon (Wu, Thompson, Aroian, Mcquaid and Deatrck, 2016). This means that selecting and connecting data to analytic concepts I explain or summarize the data. as I focused on the procedure of data analysis and interpretation by substantiating my interpretations with quotes.

In drawing conclusions from the findings, I used direct quotations from the participants in order to support and interpret the findings. Four schools were involved in the study and 12 participants (four principals and eight teachers). A total of three participants from each school were interviewed. The four principals from the four selected schools included one black female, two black males and one white male. Among the eight teachers from the four selected schools, one was a vice-principal

(white, female), four HoDs (one Indian female, one black female and two black males) of language departments and four language educators (two black males, one Indian female and one black female). It is important to note that the gender, race and titles of the teachers as described above were not used as criteria in the selection of the participants.

In order to ensure confidentiality and anonymity, I used acronyms to represent the four schools and also the principals and the teachers who were interviewed. The schools were referred to as school A (SA), school B (SB), school C (SC) and school D (SD), the principals were referred to as P1, P2, P3 and P4 while the teachers in each school were referred to as Teacher 1 (T1) and Teacher 2 (T2).

#### 4.2. Participants' profiles

The following four schools participated in the study, namely, schools A and B in Ekurhuleni North while schools C and D in Johannesburg East. The participants from each school comprised the principal (either P1, P2, P3 or P4) and two educators (T1 and T2). These schools are all located in urban areas where foreign nationals reside. Foreign learners were able to attend the selected schools because they were in their feeder zones. All four schools were ex Model C schools. The two educators (T1 and T2) from each school were recommended by their principals due to their in-depth knowledge and experience in language teaching in the schools. All the principals (P1, P2, P3 and P4) from schools A, B, C and D had had more than 15 years' experience as educators at the time of the study. Principals P2, P3 and P4 from schools B, C and D were all males while the principal P1 from school A was the only female principal. The selections of the participants were carried out by the principals. The participants from school A included teacher one (T1), a language teacher and a vice-principal and teacher two (T2), a tourism teacher. Both had had more than 5 years of teaching experience at the school. Teacher one (T1) from school B was a language teacher and HOD of the language department while teacher two (T2) from school B was a language teacher with more than two years' teaching experience in the school. Teacher one (T1) from school C was a language teacher and HOD of the language department while teacher two (T2) was a language teacher only but with more than 20 years' teaching experience. Both teachers one (T1) and two (T2) from school D had more than 10 years of language teaching experience with teacher one (T1) being the HOD of the language department. Their portfolios are presented below.

##### 4.2.1. School A (SA)

School A (SA) is located in the Ekurhuleni Metropolitan Municipality. It was a former Model C, quantile 5 and a fee-paying school. The school has an enrolment of approximately 685 learners of whom 96% are black and the remaining 4% coloured, Indian, and white. The majority of the parents

were black. Seven of the teachers at the school were employed by the Department of Basic Education (DBE) and fourteen employed by the school governing body (SGB).

*Principal one (P1)*

Principal one (P1) from school A (SA) was a black female. At the time of the study, she had been in the teaching profession for 29 years of which 2 years had been spent at school A (SA). She had been a school principal for nine years.

*Teacher one (T1)*

Teacher one (T1) from school A (SA) was a white female. At the time of the study, she had 19 years of teaching experience which included two years teaching at school A (SA). She taught the English language in Grade 10.

*Teacher two (T2)*

Teacher two (T2) was a white female and taught tourism from Grades 9 to 12. She had 6 years' experience and 2 years of teaching tourism in school A (SA).

4.2.2. School B (SB)

School B was a public, secondary school located in the northern suburbs of the Germiston Ekurhuleni Metropolitan Municipality. It was a former model C school in the quintile 5 category and a fee-paying school. The school comprised approximately 556 learners who were predominantly black. There were 29 teachers in the school – 23 GDE and 6 SGB teachers.

*Principal two (P2)*

Principal two (P2) from School B (SB) was a black male. He had 27 years of teaching experience and had been at school B for 8 years.

*Teacher one (T1)*

Teacher one (T1) was an Indian female who had been at the school for 4 years. She taught English language to Grades 8 and 9.

*Teacher two (T2)*

The teacher (T2) was a black female. She had been at the school for 27 years and taught English language to Grades 11 and 12.



#### 4.2.3 School C (SC)

School C was a former model C school, located in the Johannesburg East district in Gauteng province. It was a quantile 5 and a fee-paying school. The learner population comprised 1219 learners of whom 98% were predominately blacks. There were 23 teachers at the school which 19 GDE and 4SGB employees.

##### *Principal three (P3)*

Principal P3 from school C (SC) was a black male. He had been a teacher for the preceding 22 years. He had been appointed as an HOD in 2007 and a deputy principal in 2012 at his previous schools. He had been a principal of school C (SA) for the 2 years preceding this study.

##### *Teacher one (T1)*

Teacher one (T1) was a black male. He taught English language from Grades 10 to 12 and had been teaching in the same school for 20 years.

##### *Teacher (T2)*

Teacher two (T2) was a black male. He had teaching at school C (SC) for 22years and taught English language in Grades 11 and 12.

#### 4.2.4 School D (SD)

School D was located in the Johannesburg Metropolitan Municipality. The learner population comprised 1290 enrolled learners who were predominantly black. School D (SD) was a fee paying and a former Model C school in the quantile 5 category. There were 58 teachers of whom 40 were employed by the GDE, and 24 by the SGB.

##### *Principal four (P4)*

Principal four (P4) was a white male. He has been a school principal of school D (SD) for 10 years.

##### *Teacher one (T1)*

Teacher one (T1) was a black female. She has been teaching at school D (SD) for 8 years. She taught English language in Grades 10, 11and 12.

##### *Teacher two (T2)*

Teacher two (T2) was an Indian female. She had 12 years of teaching experience and taught English in Grades 8 to 12. She was also the HoD of the home language department.

**Table 4.1 Participants' profiles and description**

School	Participant and Code	Gender	Race	Grade Taught	Years of Experience
SA	Principal one (P1)	F	Black	Principal	29 years
	Teacher one (T1)	F	White	10	19 years
	Teacher two (T2)	F	White	9 to 12	6years
SB	Principal two (P2)	M	Black	Principal	27 years
	Teacher one (T1)	F	Indian	8 and 9	4 years
	Teacher two (T2)	F	Black	11 and 12	27 years
SC	Principal three (P3)	M	Black	Principal	22 years
	Teacher one (T1)	M	Black	10 and 11	20 years
	Teacher two (T2)	M	Black	11 and 12	22 years
SD	Principal four (P4)	M	White	Principal	22 years
	Teacher one (T1)	F	Black	10, 11 and 12	8years
	Teacher two (T2)	F	Indian	12	22years

Table 4.1 above illustrates the biographical information of participants in this study. The information was obtained using a biographical data instrument. The table presents the participants according to the categories listed.

The following research questions were posed to the eight participants in the one-on-one interviews which served as the data collection instruments. The following research questions were posed to both the principals and the teachers during the interviews.

1. What are educators' understandings of the concept of a foreign learner?
2. How do the language policies of the schools provide for foreign nationals in South African schools?

3. How do schools accommodate foreign nationals in the implementation of their language policies?
4. What are the day-to-day language policy challenges which foreign nationals experience at school?
5. How do schools address the language policy challenges foreign learners experience at school?

All the teachers who participated in this study were identified by the school principals on the basis of their extensive teaching experience (number of years) and also the fact that they were teaching language subjects at the time of the study. The semi-structured interviews which were conducted comprised, face-to-face interviews and audio recordings for quality purposes. The place and time of each interview were scheduled by the participant in question. However, all the interviews were conducted on the school premises although the times and venues were decided upon by the participants. Almost all interviews took place in the participants' offices, either during lunch hour or after school hours. Their responses to the research questions are presented below.

In order to understand the experiences of educators at selected secondary schools in Gauteng in relation to the implementation of the language policies affecting foreign nationals, the following questions were posed to the participants.

#### **4.3 Understanding of the concept of a foreign learner.**

The responses from the participants in this section were derived from the research question *What are the educators' understandings of the concept of foreign learner?* In order to investigate the experiences of the participants, I started the interviews by exploring and seeking the participants' understanding of the concept of foreign learners. Further questions were then asked to ascertain the presence of foreign learners at the participants' schools, the number of foreign learners, if any, and their countries of origin. I decided to use the term foreign learners because I realised that the majority of the participants were more comfortable referring to foreign nationals as foreign learners. In addition, the focus of the interviews was not just on any foreign nationals but specifically on foreigners who were studying at selected secondary schools and, hence, the term foreign learners.

The responses of all the participants indicated common characteristics in defining foreign learners. When asked about her understanding of the concept of a foreign learner, principal one (P1) from school A (SA) stated, "*foreign nationals are not only those from Africa ... foreigners are not only blacks, even people of colour*". Principal two (P2) from school B (SB) asserted: "*In my school, the*

*foreign learners are mostly from various neighbouring African countries. Countries such as Angola, DRC, Nigeria, lots of learners from Zimbabwe, lots of Malawians and Mozambicans.”* However, he reiterated that foreign learners are,

*those children coming from an outside country who are registered at our school as full-time students. Sometimes we call them immigrant learners. And we expect some documentation to be submitted for them to be able to enrol at the school. Even though, recently, in the media I learnt that a lack of documentation should not hinder the children from being enrolled at the school.*

While responding to the same question, principal three (P3) from school C (SC) described foreign learners as *“learners with challenges that result in their migration to South Africa and who should not be denied the right to enrol in schools”*. He further stated that *“these learners have rights like the South African learners, they have their different challenges and were exposed to a different standard of education before. Forty-five percent (45%) of my learners are foreign, so, in every ten learners, three are foreign.”* In response to the same question principal four (P4) from school D (SD) defined foreign learners as *“those who come from other countries and who are not born in South Africa”*. He acknowledged the presence of foreign learners from seventeen different countries in his school.

The narratives of the school principals, as presented above, indicated common characteristics in the defining of the concept of foreign learners. According to their responses, foreign learners are not born in South Africa, and they come from countries outside of South Africa in order to study in South Africa. However, the views of the participants also highlighted those blacks are not the only foreigners in South Africa and even people of colour are also regarded as foreigners. It could, however, be inferred from their responses that their understanding was, that if a learner were not a South African by birth, there is no way that such a learner would know any of the South African languages. In other words, it was the duty of school principals to implement strategies to accommodate these learners from the language perspective.

In their understanding of the concept of foreign learners, the teachers who participated in the study viewed foreign learners as those from Zimbabwe, Mozambique, Congo, Malawi, Nigeria, Angola, China, Cameroun, Korea, Pakistan, Philippines and Egypt. According to teacher one (T1) from school A (SA), *“foreign learners at school are learners who are not born in South Africa but are from other countries – may be as refugees or may be because their parents relocated to South Africa and they may not have been given citizenship yet”*. When responding to the same question, teacher two from school A (SA) indicated that foreign learners are learners who are from outside South

Africa but are not regarded as foreigners after fewer years. According to her, *“After 3years foreign learners are considered, no longer foreign”*.

Teacher one (T1) from school B (SB) also referred to foreign learners as *‘immigrant learners who are in South Africa from other parts of Africa, Europe or America but mostly from various neighbouring African countries’*. She further explained that *“These foreign learners might have migrated either for study purposes or because their parents are based in South Africa. Teacher two (T2) from School B (SB) reiterated “foreign learners do not have South African nationality. They are not South African”*.

Teacher one (T1) from school C (SC) explained that *“foreign learners are those who come from neighbouring countries such as Zimbabwe, Mozambique, and Malawians ... actually, all over Africa”*. However, Teacher two (T2) from school C (SC) viewed *“foreign learners as those learners from outside of South Africa”*. Sharing similar sentiments, Teacher one (T1) from school D (SD) mentioned that *“foreign learners include Chinese kids, Congolese and Zimbabwean kids”*. Teacher two (T2) from school D (SD) also affirmed that foreign learners are from countries other than Africa. In her words *“these are learners who are not necessarily from the country that we are in. Instead, they are from outside the African continent mainly, Chinese. We do have a lot of foreign learners in our school”*.

The teachers who participated in this study all acknowledged the presence of foreigners in their schools. In their responses to the question, they explained that, according to their understanding, foreign learners were from both the African continent as well as other continents, including Asia, but they were not born in South Africa.

The above responses indicated the presence of foreign learners in the participating schools. This provided a clear indication that these schools were adhering to the national and international protocols and conventions to which South Africa is a signatory and which provide for Education for All (EFA). According to the literature, Education for All (EFA) is a globalised trend and commitment initiated by UNESCO and which aims at providing inclusive, quality, basic education for all children and adults. This approach is also geared to meeting the educational needs of learners who may or may not have various learning disabilities as well as marginalised, vulnerable, and excluded learners (Hasan et al., 2018). These conventions emphasise *children’s right to education* and that no child may be denied this right on any grounds, including nationality. The body of literature referred to in this study highlighted all learners' right to study, including foreign learners. The South African Schools Act, 1996, which is also catalysed by South Africa’s Bill of Rights and

Chapter 2 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, makes provision for education as a basic human right with all laws prohibiting any type of discrimination or exclusion from school on the basis of nationality.

The participants' understanding of the concept also indicated that the concept of foreign does not necessarily signify black because they viewed anyone who is not born from South Africa as foreign. In so saying, the participants revealed that they were aware of the language barriers these learners may encounter at school and, thus, it is essential that schools have strategies in place to assist learners.

The findings from this research question indicated the participants' understanding and acknowledgment of the presence of foreign learners in the participating schools. In addition, the findings also revealed that, from the participants' perspective, the term foreign national did not signify black and anyone not born in South Africa was foreign. Further findings highlighted children's right to education in South African schools.

#### **4.4 Language policies providing for foreign nationals in South African schools**

In response to the question *How do the language policies of the schools provide for foreign nationals in South African schools?*, the participants explained how the language policies of their schools provided for foreign learners through the language policy stipulated in the school curriculum as well as the provision of the second additional languages (foreign languages). Their responses revealed their understanding and interpretations of the concept of language policy. I interpreted the voices of the participants and their understanding of the concept of language policy. I detected a common understanding the participants in their defining of the concept of language policy in schools. According to them, the language policy is drawn up by the school governing body which represents the parents and is approved by the Department of Education. Their understanding and interpretations are presented below.

According to Principal one (P1) from school A (SA):

*Language policy is a school instructional guideline from the department to teachers and approved by parents through the school governing body (SGB). A certain number of foreign language learners must be assigned to the language teacher in charge. The language of my school is English and Afrikaans. Remember, I am here to make sure that policy is implemented, that the teachers have the correct documents, that the teachers are teaching learners what they are meant to be taught in line with the curriculum and ensuring the teachers are able to teach phonetics. Also, it is not as easy to learn a language as people think so I must make sure the teachers are monitored and developed”.*

Principal 2 (P2) from school B (SB) defined language policy as an “*instruction or an interpreted guideline for the language of teaching and learning in the institution*”. He added that “*it is also a language in which to communicate, a language to teach and a language in which to instruct – the Language of learning and teaching (LoLT). We offer two languages, namely, English as the first home language and Afrikaans as a first additional language and teachers are expected to use English as the LoLT.* Principal two (P2) school B(SB) further explained that,

*My role is to enforce all the policies of the DoE and the policies adopted by the SBG, including the language policy and to make sure English is the language of instruction. Even though I have indicated that, at times, teachers use their preferred home languages to express themselves better, it is my role to ensure that they do not overdo it because this disadvantages other learners.*

According to him,

*“I call staff meetings and mediate policy to all staff members and learners. I conduct class visits, just to observe the implementation of the language policy. That is how I know if a teacher is using an African language. This disadvantages some learners and so I then follow up and enforce the policy”.*

Principal three (P3) from school C (SC) answered: “*Language policy is the responsibility of the school governing body. They are responsible for coming up with the language policy of the school but, as we adapt to changes, it then becomes imperative that we look at the dynamics of the school*”.

He further explained that:

*“In the beginning, there were only white learners at this school and the language of instruction was either English or Afrikaans. Currently, the school uses English and Afrikaans and is planning to include French to accommodate everybody. It would cost money to accommodate all the languages”.*

As he gave his understanding of the concept of language policy Principal 4 (P4) from school D explained:

*It is the policy that governs the teaching of the language at school This means that English is our home language and the LOLT. The policy makes provision for other languages to be taught at the school, promotes other languages and creates opportunities for the learners who speak foreign languages to be exposed to their languages in the curriculum”. My wider role is ensuring that the curriculum is taught in the languages we offer in the school. Also, to create opportunities for the foreign learners to learn such languages and sit for such subjects in the National Senior Certificate examination in Grade 12 which is based on the language policy of the Department of Education.*

The narratives of the school principals indicated their understanding of the meaning and importance of the school language policy and also how their schools were implementing the language policy of their schools in relation to foreign nationals. According to them, the language policy guides the processes and practices of teaching and learning in schools. They pointed out that, although the policies of their schools accommodated other indigenous languages, the schools were using English and/or Afrikaans only as the languages of instruction (LoLT). They also indicated that the school provide second additional language for foreign learners. The principals also demonstrated their understanding that the language policies of their schools are the responsibility of the SGBs. They also mentioned that it is vital that the language policy of the school aligns with that of the provincial department of education. They further emphasised that the role of principals is to implement the policies that are drafted by the SGBs. This highlighted that the roles and responsibilities of the SGB and those of the principals as members of the school management team (SMT) are interrelated and cannot be separated from the implementation of the language policy of the school. The principals also indicated that they ensured that teaching and learning at the schools were in accordance with the stipulated policies.

In her response Teacher one (T1) from school A (SA) defined a school language policy as

*... the language of instruction and communication used in a school. This includes the home language and the first additional language ... although the foreign learners manage quite well with these languages you can pick the difference in their accents. However, they understand the school subjects because English language is the LoLT. The school provides for those learners who struggle with English by also giving them extra lessons in the language of the school.*

Similarly, Teacher two (T2) from school A (SA) added,

*“We tend to have extra lessons for them but we are very lucky in our school that our foreign learners do not struggle with English home language. The school also provides for the pass requirement for foreign learners to be slightly lower than that of the South African citizens in the junior grade. They need 50% for home language and 40 % for Afrikaans”.*

According to Teacher one (T1) from school B (SB), according to her understanding of the term language policy, *“The language policy is like the compass that drives and guides our teaching and learning from the national office (name of district). It is a drafted policy that guides us in terms of how to apply and teach the language, it is a guideline that helps us to follow and apply the curriculum as mandated by the DOE to teach the language in a standardised manner”.* She further explained how her school implemented the language policy in relation to foreign nationals. *“It has never been a struggle providing for foreign learners. We encourage the learners to realise the importance of the language of the school, that is, English, because Isizulu and Afrikaans will not*



*help them outside of South Africa's borders. I motivate them to understand English because it is a global language". In her opinion, "The DoE and the SGB should also provide learners with the 11 indigenous languages as part of the languages in school for inclusivity".* Teacher two (T2) from school B (SB) defined language policy as the school policy on in teaching and learning in schools. She further added that, in implementing the language policy of the school in relation to the foreign learners, *"The foreign learners adapt easily to the language of our school"*.

Teacher one (T1) from school C (SC) defined language policy as:

*"The hour given to teaching a language per week according to the timetable. It also means the language the school has chosen, that is, the language of teaching and learning of the school. So, if the school chooses a particular language, we have to stick with that because the policy of the school must be adhered to"*.

He further explained that his school provided:

*"English as the home language, the language of teaching. While some learners take isiZulu or Afrikaans as a first additional language other foreign learners do French. Remember the LoLT is guided by the SGB as they are the ones who decide what the LoLT should be. So, ours task is to implement the policy..... look at how many hours are dedicated to languages in Grade 8, Grade 9 and so on So, as a teacher, I must make sure that policy is adhered to"*.

Teacher two (T2) from the same school also defined language policy as *'as the language used in school as a medium of instruction, the language of communication within the school, which is the English language. You are not allowed to use any other language except for Isizulu and Afrikaans which are the first additional languages'*. He further explained how the language policy of his school provided for the French speaking foreign learners as follows:

*"The school provides a French teacher who is an outside person, she comes to teach these learners extra lessons in French as a second additional language, but the learners have to pay. In this way, the school is making provision for the foreign learners by offering French as a second additional language."*

Teacher one (T1) from school D(SD), who was also the English department HOD, defined language policy as *"how the teachers implement their language in the classroom"*. In her response to the question on the way in which the school was implementing the language policy in relation to the foreign learners, she replied:

*"Because it is difficult for them to speak English, especially the Chinese learners, we do not remove them from the host learners in all the classes. We make sure we provide the language of the school by allowing them to learn the language from other learners and, in that way, they learn the language of the school faster"*.

Teacher two (T2) from school B (SB) defined language policy as “*as the rules and regulations given by the department on the use and implementation of the language in the school*”. In her response to the question on the school’s implementation of the language policy in respect of the foreign learners, she added:

*“The language of teaching and learning is English, but the language policy provides for the foreign learners by allowing them to choose between Afrikaans and isiZulu as a first additional language. Other learners opt for French, Portuguese, or Chinese as a second additional language. This is a high school, so we assume that all learners speak English. Finally, I cannot change my method of teaching because some learners cannot communicate in English or start teaching them the basics. After all, I have 36 children in the class. If it is serious, we ask the learner to go for extra lessons”.*

The teachers’ responses revealed their understanding of the term language policy. Their definitions were based on the guidelines given to them by the department on the learning and teaching language in the school. They also indicated that the language policies of their schools stipulated English language as the LoLT. However, according to them, provision was made for foreign learners who were struggling with the LoLT to take a second additional language and they were also encouraged to enrol for extra lessons. Concerning promotion requirements, the teachers mentioned that the language policy of their schools required a 50% pass for the host learners to be promoted in the second additional language while foreign learners required a 40% pass rate although they did have to pass the home language to be promoted to the next grade. Furthermore, the schools provided extra lessons to help foreign learners adjust to the language of the school although these lessons were funded by the parents and the embassies. In addition, to assist them in learning the language of the school, foreign learners were encouraged to associate with their peers because they learnt faster and better when they associated and interact with other learners in the class.

The responses of both the principals and the teachers indicated they understood that the language policy in their schools was based on the guidelines from the Department of Education drafted by the school governing body of the school. They also understood their roles as principals and teachers involved implementing these policies. The participants indicated that they provided both the first additional language and a foreign language as an option for foreign learners. The responses highlighted both the importance of and the need for extra lessons for foreign learners struggling with either the language of the school and/or the first and second additional languages.

The responses to this research question indicated that, according to the participants’ understanding, the language policy, which guides the processes and practices of teaching and learning in schools, is the responsibility of the SGB as it is the responsibility of the SGB to draft the policy while the principals have an active role to play in implementing such a policy. The findings also revealed that

the language policy of the school must align with the guidelines from the provincial department of education. Furthermore, the findings indicated that, although English was the schools' LoLT, the schools also made provision for foreign learners who were struggling with the LoLT to take a second additional language while the grade requirements for a pass in the second additional language had been adjusted for the foreign learners.

The participants' interpretations and understanding of the language policy were in line with the definition of language policy as found in existing literature although the participants contextualised their definitions to align with their school and education profiling system. According to them, the language policy is a guideline for teaching and learning in terms of the curriculum and is drawn by the school governing body, which represents the parents, approved by the Department of Education, and implemented by the principal with the assistance of the teachers. In line with their definitions existing literature defined a language policy as a policy which includes a combination of official decisions and prevailing practices related to language education and the use of language (Mcgroarty, 1997). It comprises interconnected components, language practices, language beliefs or ideologies and language management (Spolsky, 2019). According to Bamgbose (2019), an effective language policy should be sufficiently inclusive to accommodate minorities and the general population. The schools which participated in this study indicated that they provided for foreign learners as, in their implementation of their language policies, the needs of foreign learners were taken into account.

In line with Cummins' theoretical framework, Cummins affirms that the conversational language used by foreign nationals takes between six months to 2 years to actualise (Bonenfant, 2012). In line with this assertion, the participants reported that their schools' language policies provided for foreign learners by offering them the option of foreign languages such as French, Chinese, and Portuguese as additional languages. In addition, they were also offered extra lessons while others received assistance from their fellow peers in learning both the language of the school and the conversational language (BICS) which helped to understand the subjects they were taking in the classroom (CALP) (Cummins, 2017).

#### **4.5 School accommodation of foreign nationals in the implementation of their language policies.**

The participants' responses to the research question "*How do schools accommodate foreign nationals in the implementation of their language policies?*" are discussed below. Principal (P1) from school A (SA) responded as follows, "*Although the foreign learners have different accents, we always teach our host learners to accommodate each other because proficiency in English does*

*not make one learner smarter than the other learners. I also encourage them to use a dictionary in language learning*". In response to the same question Principal two (P2) from school B (SB) had the following to say: *"We are fortunate that most of our foreign learners can communicate in English, so we don't have a serious challenge where a foreign learner experiences language problems or learning barriers because of language so that makes it easy to accommodate them"*.

Principal 3 (P3) from school C (SC) commented,

*"It also calls for the learners to behave well, we accommodate those who are behaving well. I want to tell you, with the foreign learners, they rarely misbehave. They are all well behaved, well mannered. In terms of academic competence, they do wonder every term and are always the best achievers. If you check our matric bachelor's achievers, most of them are foreign learners. The host learners are just settling for meeting the minimum promotion requirements"*.

According to Principal 4 (P4) from school D (SD):

*"The foreign learners respond and settle in well in our school because the other learners welcome and assist in translating for them. We also group them with learners who speak both English and their home language as in this way they learn quicker. The situations in their home countries that led to their migration often pushes them to be very resilient and eager to embrace their futures"*.

The interpretation of the principals' responses showed that foreign learners who were not proficient in the conversational language (BICS), also the language of the school, were advised to make use of a dictionary or to obtain assistance from their fellow learners. According to the principals, some of the foreign learners in the participating schools were academically competent, thus implying that they excelled in both BICS and CALP. As a result, they did not face any challenges in respect of the language of the school and were accommodated in the same way as the host learners. In addition, the resilience, academic competence and good behaviour of foreign learners also made it easier for them to be accommodated in schools.

The responses from the teachers also revealed their interpretations of the accommodation of foreign learners while implementing the language policy in their schools. Teacher one (T1) from school A(SA) answered,

*"They adapt so easily to the English language of the school and, in this new language, they become skilled in interpreting them. I think they realise that their staying in South Africa will depend on their success in their education. They are resilient in doing well because to pass these languages is one of the minimum requirements to progress to the next grade"*.

In answering this question Teacher two (T2) from the same school A (SA) cited the following example,

*“Last year we had a girl who had moved from India to South Africa. She had only been in South Africa for 6 months before she started school here (Name of school). She passed both Afrikaans and English, both in the 70s, at the end of the year so it depends on the learner. The learners play a significant role in their success and accommodation at the school”.*

Teacher one (T1) from school B (SB) also responded.

*“I motivate and make the learners understand that they have equal opportunities. I get attached to them just like a parent. It also depends on their behaviours. Like I said, learners from outside of the borders are relatively humble, willing to learn. I have worked with Angolan, Nigerian Mozambican and Chinese learners. I promise you, most of them are conformists which helps me to open up to them make them feel comfortable and do better. So, it has always been a success story and not the other way around”.*

Similarly, Teacher two (T2) from school B (SB) reported, *“We accommodate learners by treating them equally and fairly and they also have their South African friends, so there is no need for extra intervention lessons”.*

According to Teacher one (T1) from school C (SC),

*“When we draft the timetable, we have to make sure that the hours recommended by the policy are covered in the manner in which we accommodate the foreign learners. Where learners are experiencing challenges with their language proficiency, that is, the ability to speak and understand spoken English., we refer such learners to Grade 8 or Grade 9 as they learn the basics until they improve. Sometimes they get assistance from their fellow learners, but we do not neglect such learners, we try to accommodate them”.*

However, contrary to this, Teacher two (T2) from school C (SC) stated, *“No, learners cannot be accepted in the school without previous knowledge of the English language because we use English as the home language. They would not survive”.* Meanwhile, Teacher one (T1) from school D answered, *“I enjoy working with foreign learners because they are very hardworking. They are dedicated and willing to go the extra mile”* Teacher two (T2) from school D (SD) expressed her concerns as follows, *“Because it is a high school, we assume that they speak English. I cannot change my method of teaching because they cannot communicate in English. If it is so bad, we recommend extra lessons in English for them”.*

The interpretations of the teachers' responses indicated the resilience of foreign learners in South Africa and also their willingness to learn and to understand the language of the school. Such a positive attitude made it easy for foreign learners to be accommodated. They also associated themselves with learners who were competent with the language of the school or registered for extra lessons. The teachers indicated the importance of adhering to the allocating times for languages in the timetable in order to accommodate foreign learners. Although some of the teachers

acknowledged that their schools' policy stipulated that foreign learners who were not proficient in the LoLT of the school or in the conversational language (BICS) should not be admitted, this rule was often broken as the school would find a way to accommodate the learners by moving them to a lower grade and ensuring they were paid more attention as they progressed. The participants also indicated that proficiency in the conversational language (BICS) does not signify academic success (CALP). It was clear that the host learners, the principals, and the teachers all play supporting roles in accommodating foreign learners.

The participants' responses showed that foreign learners were accommodated in the participating schools. The hard work and resilience of foreign learners also played an important role in their accommodation at schools. Although Cummins affirms that the conversational language used between foreign nationals takes between six months to 2 years to actualise while Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) takes 5 to 7 years (Bonenfant, 2012). The participants also revealed that the foreign learners were quick to develop both BICS and CALP within the short period it took them to be accommodated at the schools. Cummins suggests that the convergence of the social and cognitive aspects of language proficiency does not mean that the two are indistinguishable (Cummins, 1999). In this vein, I discern a need to ascertain the time which it takes for this convergence between the BICS and the CALP language patterns to take place.

#### **4.6. Day-to-day language policy challenges foreign nationals experience at school.**

The participants' responses to the question *“What are the day-to-day language policy challenges foreign nationals experience at school?”* are expanded upon below in the interpretations of the participants' responses.

Principal 1 (P1) from school A (SA) responded to this question as follow:

*“You know there are challenges, you cannot say they don't bully each other but we always encourage them not to. On the first day of orientation, I request the learners not to humiliate each other. Another challenge is code switching which is allowed in our school but not if it disadvantages other learners because the language the learners need to understand is the LoLT which is English. This is to accommodate every learner in school”.*

She further explained, *“You know, in a school where most of the learners speak Isizulu and Sesotho, I can code-switch and use both languages. However, if I have learners from South Africa, Nigeria, Zimbabwe, and India, I can't code switch”.* Principal 2 (P2) from school B (SB) also cited code switching as a challenge they faced at his school. According to him,

*“The learners are not allowed to code switch to other African languages, but they do it. Even though I have indicated that, at times, teachers will use their preferred home languages to express themselves better, it is my role to make sure that they do not overdo it because they will disadvantage others”.*

Principal 3 (P3) from school C (SC) responded that the challenges faced at his school included the struggle to speak and understand the language of the school. According to him, *“There is no other language to be used so, even if the learners want to explain, they do so in English”*. He continued by citing the following example, *“There was a Congolese learner who could not speak a word of English, but she began to grasp it from Grade 8 and improved in Grade 9. I can tell you she is doing well now”*. Principal 4 (P4) from school D (SD) responded as follows:

*“Our challenge is that we have qualified teachers for languages in terms of English, Afrikaans and isiZulu but not for Portuguese, French, and Chinese. The DoE does not supply teachers for these languages. We make plan with the embassies and with tutors but the cost, where it is applicable, must be borne by the parents”.*

He continued, *“The DoE is aware of the need for foreign languages and foreign language teachers in this school, but the proposed supply of teachers is being delayed.”*

The interpretations of the principals’ responses highlighted that one of the challenges foreign learners face at school is bullying. According to the principals, the learners were guided and encouraged through orientation programmes on the first day at school not to bully each other. Other responses suggested that it depends on how quickly foreign learners overcome the language challenge for the bullying to stop but, in the meanwhile, the foreign learners had to continue to bear the bullying like the other host learners. The principals also emphasised that they followed up on any type of bullying or humiliation of foreign learners in their schools.

The challenges faced also included code switching. The principals’ responses indicated they tolerated code-switching as long as it did not disadvantage other learners. However, some schools did not permit code switching which often meant that the foreign learners had to work hard or be demoted to a lower grade if they were to meet the language requirements of the school. A further challenge was the insufficient number of foreign language teachers. It appeared that, although the DoE was aware of this challenge, they were slow in their response.

In response to this research question, Teacher one (T1) from school A (SA) explained the language policy challenges which the foreign learners faced as follows: *“If a learner is not proficient in the language of the school, he/she suffers isolation, depression, name-calling and even bullying. This often results in academic struggles. However, strict disciplinary measures are taken in such cases”*. Teacher two (T2) from school B (SB) responded, *“There are no challenges because learners are*

*aware that, when they apply to our school, the LoLT is English and Afrikaans is the first additional language. In cases of bullying the learners are aware that they will be dealt with if they bully anyone who struggles with the language and that their parents will be called in". Similarly, Teacher one (T1) from school B (SB) explained: "They do not have any challenges because I start from the grassroots to implement the basics of language irrespective of whether they are senior or junior grade". In addition, (T2) teacher from the same school (SB) responded: "The foreign learners are well spoken in English and do not battle to understand the concepts being taught".*

Teacher one (T1) from school C (SC) responded:

*"Foreign learners who do not understand the language of the school pose a challenge in the class. Sometimes I have to concentrate on such a learner if the learner is to improve but then it is a futile exercise. I make foreign learners sit together so they learn from each other".*

Teacher two (T2) from the same school (SC) explained. *"We admit them in Grade 8 so, by the time they are in grade 10, they will be okay. It is the responsibility of the English teacher to assist such learners and explain to them what they must do".* In the same vein Teacher one (T1) from school D (SD) shared her opinion. *"Foreign learners come from different countries, so you do not expect them to adapt to English because some of them speak Portuguese and French. Due to their willingness to learn we put them with learners who can speak the language, so they learn from them".*

Similarly, Teacher two (T2) from school (SD) said:

*"It's difficult and challenging especially with the Chinese because they can neither speak nor write. Because of their non-proficiency in the language of the school, other learners make fun of them. In my class, if any learner laughs, I will make the person read every day for the whole year. So, they don't make fun of those who can't read".*

The interpretations of the teachers' responses revealed that foreign learners were informed, on their admission to a school, about the language of the school and they were expected to strive to meet the school requirements to pass the language. While some of the teachers indicated that learners did not experience any challenges, other teachers complained about learners who were not proficient in the language of the school and yet were admitted. Teachers from the participating schools agreed that it is the responsibility of the English teacher to assist foreign learners with their challenges until they improve. However, they also mentioned that foreign learners who struggle with the language of the school do often receive assistance from their fellow learners.



The response from the participants indicated that, foreign learners were often bullied as they faced challenges in relation to the language policy in the school. On the other hand, the host learners were also bullied. However, the issue of bullying among learners was generally addressed and prohibited although it did often leave some residual negative effects, especially in the case of the foreign learners. Nevertheless, the participating schools took strict measures to see that bullying and bullies were dealt with while also providing other solutions to help foreign learners to overcome the challenges they faced. Secondly, the participants noted that, although learners and teachers were not allowed to code-switch, they still tended to do so because it came naturally to them, but it did disadvantage foreign learners and make them feel isolated. In addition, the school principals are not always in the classroom to monitor code switching. This highlighted the need for the DoE to employ the required foreign language teachers in schools.

Despite what the participants said it did seem that the foreign learners, in particular, faced challenges as they struggled with Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Language Proficiency (CALP). In their studies, Cummins (1984b) and Robertson and Graven, (2019) emphasise how learners face challenges when they transit to the second language (L2) which, in the context of the study, was the language of learning and teaching (LoLT) in the participating schools. In line with the challenges foreign learners faced in the study, Sibanda (2017) reported that, teachers who are non-native speakers of English are often not competent in the language and, thus, they make grammatical errors and constantly and habitually code switch in the classrooms. This explains the poor reading pattern and the low proficiency of foreign learners in English the implementation of English policy at the schools in this study.

#### **4.7 How schools deal with the language policy challenges foreign learners experience at school.**

In their responses to the research question, *“How do schools deal with the language policy challenges foreign learners experience while at school?”*. The participants indicated that the foreign learners did experience some challenges with the language policy at the school. They went to explain how their schools addressed these challenges.

According to the Principal (P1) from school A (SA):

*“Sometimes it’s not easy to identify the challenges so we give them a baseline learner’s assessment on the first day of school. This assessment reveals their language challenges and also identifies those who need extra help. Another challenge is that parents register their children in school without providing all the required information. For example, we had a parent who registered a learner for Afrikaans, knowing the learner had no previous knowledge of Afrikaans as a subject. This is not easy, and it*

*explains why the learners not only depend on us as a school but they depend on their parents”.*

Principal ((P2) from school B (SB) explained:

*“80% of the interventions provided for foreign learners enable them to communicate in the LOLT are successful. I must also say that 20% may be fail because I am not always in class. Most importantly, parents are advised to organise tutors for their children so that they may be taught the basic concepts in languages such as Afrikaans”.*

According to Principal 3 (P3) from school C (SC):

*“We usually check with parents during admission how long the learner has been in South Africa, for example, coming from DRC to South Africa. We then advise the parents to step in with home lessons. This usually helps the learners to develop and understand the basic language that we use with parents are coming on board in this regard”.*

Meanwhile, Principal 4 (P4) from school D (SD) responded:

*“We would allow them to carry a little translator, for example, the Chinese learners. The translator translates English into Chinese, so this helps them to understand. We do recommend that learners who are not able to speak English are referred to the Wits Language School. Wits University has an intensive language school in English. For the Chinese learners, there are also volunteer tutors from the community who assist. In other cases, they spend a month doing daily intensive lessons for 6 hours a day to learn basic communication in English after which they are more conversant with the language. We have found that these interventions work because the LoLT in our school is English and the foreign learners become frustrated because they do not know English. The language interventions take place outside of the school for about a month and afterward they return to school to resume normal lessons. It has been a success where the parents support this initiative but, in other circumstances, the parents were not supportive due to a lack of funds. Also, because of their mindset, they feel if their children are in school, they will be forced to speak English and they will pick up the language while interacting with other learners who speak English. In certain cases that does also work”.*

The interpretations of the principals’ responses indicated that non-proficiency in the language of the school was a challenge for the majority of the foreign learners. In order to address this challenge, the schools were adopting learner baseline assessment strategies for the foreign learners. This assessment is conducted on the first day of school to identify learners struggling with the language of the school. While some foreign learners made use of a translator, others were referred to the WITS School of Language. The responses from the principals also revealed unconcerned attitudes and dishonesty on the part of some parents in not revealing their children’s poor language background although other parents demonstrated both their involvement and their support. One of the ways in which parents become get involved is by organising extra lessons for their children. However, it also emerged that not all parents are able to afford extra lessons for their children. The

principals also indicated how independent bodies, communities and embassies offer language intervention programs to help learners to overcome their challenges.

Further responses from the teachers revealed their various views and experiences. According to Teacher one (T1) from school A (SA), *“There are no problems, I have not seen any challenges, may be in the past”*. Teacher two (T2) from school A (SA) expressed the same views *“With the language, we don’t have any problems as most of our foreign learners do very well. Luckily for us the learners who come to (name of the school) have a good basic knowledge of the English language”*.

In her response, Teacher one (T1) from school B (SB) raised concern by citing an example:

*“I had a learner who was struggling so I invited his parents more than once to the school and highlighted my concern that the boy was not meeting the requirement. We also assisted him by interpreting the questions and/or comprehension. Communicating with the learners was not a problem but they had problems reading and understanding content”*.

Meanwhile, Teacher 2 (T2) from school B (SB) explained, *“The foreign learners are well spoken in English and do not battle to understand the concept being taught”*.

Teacher one (T1) from school C (SC) explained:

*“When parents bring their children without previous knowledge of the English language, they must organise extra lessons. It is a problem that must be dealt with because they come here knowing that our LoLT is English, instead of being left to struggle with the language challenges and thereby feeling unaccommodated, the foreign learners do French as an extra lesson, they start slowly, but it is a very rigorous exercise. It is not enough and that is why I say parents must organise private teaching for their kids”*.

Teacher two (T2) from school C (SC) also explained, *“I would be happy if they gave us foreign language teachers. The foreign learners do struggle with our first additional language and are forced to do the two languages”*. He also raised the following concern, *“No one can teach them their language but, if the department can give us teachers to teach Portuguese and French, then that would be fine because they would not be forced to do Afrikaans or Isizulu”*.

According to Teacher one (T1) from school D (SD), *“Some parents do not have the available funds to support their children by paying for extra lessons, so we send SMSs to parents to see us as we provide translators for such learners. Meanwhile, Teacher two (T2) from school D(SD) emphasised: “When we do assessment and test to check if a child is failing, we communicate with*

*the parents in this regard and immediately start to identify learners who are potential failures before it's too late”.*

The responses from the teachers indicated that they were not experiencing challenges because their schools provided foreign learners who struggled with the schools' language policy with a good foundation. However, other teachers acknowledged the foreign learners' challenges. They attempted to address these by requesting parental involvement while also recommending extra lessons for such learners. Other teachers also mentioned the use of language interventions to deal with the foreign learners' challenges. The teachers also recommended that the Department of Education should provide the required foreign language teachers to the schools to assist foreign learners who were struggling with the language of the school.

The responses of the principals and the teachers indicated challenges in relation to the foreign learners' lack of proficiency in the language of the school. In their responses to this research question, they shared their experiences on various interventions used to address such language challenges. These interventions represented the findings in respect of this research question. They included using translators, extra lessons, language school interventions and parental support/involvement. In relation to the views expressed by the participants on dealing with the challenges foreign learners face in school, I focused on two studies by Cummins (1980) and Cummins (1984a) and a recent study conducted by Essien (2018). Cummins (1980) provided a report on why foreign learners may excel in BICS but experience CALP challenges at school. In his studies, he reiterated that educators and policymakers often misinterpret the conversational and academic English language proficiency of foreign learners (Cummins, 1980).

The misinterpretations above augment the academic challenges foreign learners face during language implementation policy at schools (Cummins, 1984a). This interpretation means that foreign learners often become more proficient in the language of the school as compared to the development of their conceptual skills during the implementation of the language. It was, however, clear from the participants' interpretations that the use of language translators, extra lessons and the assistance of parents were effective in overcoming these challenges. According to Cummins (1980), foreign learners develop their conceptual knowledge of the school's language within the first 5 to 7 years of their residence in the host country. He reiterated that an understanding of this language development should prevent the misinterpretation of foreign learners' conversational and conceptual difficulties (Cummins, 1984a, 2008). It appeared that the participants in this study understood the language developmental concept, as proposed by Cummins, and, hence, their successful language development in BICS and CALP.

## 4.8 Conclusion

This chapter presented the study findings on the educators' experiences in relation to the implementation of language policy affecting foreign learners, how the language policies of the schools made provision for the foreign learners, how the schools accommodated the foreign learners in the implementation of their language policies, their day-to-day language policy challenges and how schools addressed this language policy challenges.

The findings indicated the presence of foreign learners in the participating schools. It was clear that the participating schools were adhering to the national and international protocols and conventions to which South Africa is a signatory and that they were providing Education For All (EFA). These conventions emphasise every child's right to education and that no child may be denied this right on any grounds, including nationality. The body of literature referred to in this study highlighted learners' right to study including foreign learners. The South African School Act No.84 of 1986, which is supported by the South African's Bill of Rights and Chapter 2 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa with Act 108 of 1996 making provision for education as a basic human right. These laws prohibit any form of discrimination or exclusion from school on grounds of nationality. According to the literature, Education for All (EFA) is a global commitment, initiated by UNESCO, and which aims at providing inclusive, quality, basic education for all children. This approach is also geared to meeting the educational needs of learners, with or without any learning disabilities, as well as all marginalised, vulnerable and/or excluded learners. (Hasan et al., 2018).

The participants' interpretations and understanding of the language policy were in line with the definition of language policy as cited in existing literature although the participants did contextualise their definitions to align with their various schools and the education system. According to them, the language policy is a guideline for teaching and learning which is drawn by the school governing body who represents the parents, approved by the Department of Education and implemented by the principals with the assistance of the teachers. In line with their definitions existing literature defines language policy as including a combination of official decisions and prevailing practices related to language education and use (Mcgroarty, 1997) with interconnected components, language practices, language beliefs or ideologies, and language management (Spolsky, 2019). According to Bamgboṣe (2019), an effective language policy should be sufficiently inclusive to accommodate both minorities and the general population. The schools which participated in this study were clearly providing for foreign learners by ensuring foreign learners' inclusivity in the implementation of the school language policy.

In line with the Cummins' theoretical framework, Cummins affirms that the conversational language used by foreign nationals takes between six months to 2 years to actualise (Bonenfant, 2012). In line with this assertion, the participants reported that their schools' language policy made provision for foreign learners by offering them other foreign languages, such as French, Chinese, and Portuguese, as second additional languages. In addition, these foreign learners were sent for extra lessons while some of them also received assistance from their fellow peers in learning the language of the school and conversational language (BICS). This helped them to understand the teaching in the classroom (CALP) (Cummins, 2017).

The findings from the participants showed that foreign learners were accommodated in the participating schools. The hard work and resilience of foreign learners were also supporting factors to their accommodations. Although Cummins affirms that conversational language used among foreign nationals takes between six months to 2 year to actualize while Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) takes 5 to 7 years (Bonenfant, 2012). The participants in this study revealed that the foreign learners were quick to converge both BICS and CALP within a short period for them to be accommodated in the school. Concerning that, Cummins proposes that the convergence of the social and cognitive aspects of language proficiency does not mean that they are indistinguishable (Cummins, 1999). I construe the need to find out the time or period when this convergence happens between the BICS and the CALP language patterns.

The participants also indicated that firstly, foreign learners were bullied as they face challenges with the language policy in the school. Secondly, the participants noted that learners and teachers are not allowed to code-switch, but they do so because it comes naturally and thereby disadvantaging foreign learners. This makes the foreign learners feel isolated and Principals are not always in the class to monitor *code-switching*. There was a clear indication that foreign learners struggle with Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Language Proficiency (CALP). Cummins (1984b) and (Robertson and Graven, 2019) in their studies accentuate how learners face challenges when they transit to the '*second language (L2)*' which in this study is the language of the school (LoLT). Meanwhile, regarding the code-switching challenges, Sibanda (2017) reported that with regard to the BICS and CALP, teachers who are non-native speakers of English are not competent in the language, thereby displaying grammatical errors and constant habitual code-switching in the classrooms. This explains the poor reading pattern and the low proficiency among foreign learners during the implementation of English policy in this study.

Finally, using a theoretical focus on two studies by Cummins (1980), (1984a) and a recent study conducted by Essien (2018), I interpret how participants in this study deal with the challenges of language policy among foreign learners in school. Cummins (1980), and Cummins (1984a) provided a report on why foreign learners may excel in BICS while dealing with CALP challenges at school. In his studies, he reiterated that educators and policymakers often misinterpret the conversational and academic English language proficiency among foreign learners within the Cummins theoretical framework (Cummins, 1980). These misinterpretations have contributed immensely to the academic challenges foreign learners face during language implementation at school (Cummins, 1984a). This means that foreign learners become more proficient in the language of the school more than they develop their conceptual skills during the implementation of the same language. This is why Cummins construe that foreign learners develop their conceptual knowledge of the school's language within their 5 to 7 years of residence in the host country (Cummins, 1980). An understanding of this language development will prevent the misinterpretation of foreign learners' diagnosis of conversational and conceptual difficulties (Cummins, 1984a, Cummins, 2008). Essien (2018) also discovered in his study that language policy implementation within the three focus countries provides learners in these countries with the possibility of developing language proficiency and competence in both home language(s) and English. Unfortunately, the research review of all three countries shows that this has not been achieved. However, the participants in this study understood the language developmental concept as recommended by Cummins, hence they had a successful result while dealing with challenges foreign learners face in schools.

The next chapter presents the discussion, conclusions and the recommendations based on the study findings.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 5.1 Introduction

Chapter four presented the findings from the interviews which were conducted with the teachers and the principals who participated in the study. The findings arose from the participants' responses to the research questions while focusing on the existing literature. The findings were also guided by the participants' responses on their experiences of schools' implementation of language policy relating to foreign nationals, provision of language policy to foreign learners; the accommodation of foreign learners while implementing such policies, and possible challenges they dealt with during implementation. The following are the findings that were derived from the participants' responses.

- The findings from the first research question indicated the participants' definitions and understandings of the concept foreign learner. According to them “foreign nationals *do not necessarily signify black and anyone who is not born in South Africa is foreign*”. Further findings showed that, in line with the aim of Global Education for All, the participants *understood and facilitated the foreign learners' right to education in their schools*.
- The findings from the second research question revealed the participants' understanding that the school language policy guides the processes and practices of teaching and learning in schools and are the responsibility of the SGB. In addition, the language policy of the school must also align with that of the provincial department of education while it is the role of the principal to implement such policies. In addition, the study found that English was the schools' LoLT, but that provision was made for foreign learners who struggled with the LoLT to take a second additional language while grade requirements were also adjusted to ensure that the foreign learners were able to pass in the language of the school.
- The findings from the participants' responses to the third research question showed that the participating schools endeavoured to accommodate the foreign learners. This accommodation of foreign learners was often facilitated by the hard work and resilience of foreign learners while the host learners, the principals and the teachers all played supporting roles in accommodating foreign learners.
- The findings from the fourth research question provided evidence that, firstly, foreign learners were often bullied as they face challenges in the schools. Secondly, neither the learners nor teachers were allowed to code switch. However, they tended to do this because it came naturally to them although disadvantaged foreign learners and resulted in their



feeling isolated. In addition, the principals were not always in the classroom to monitor code-switching.

- The responses from the principals and the teachers to the fifth question highlighted the daily challenges faced by foreign learners due to their lack of proficiency in the language of the school. In relation to addressing this challenge, the participants' responses indicated the use of translators, language intervention programmes (baseline assessments, referring learners to language schools, extra lessons), and parental support/involvement.

## **5.2 Discussion**

This chapter presents the discussion, conclusions and recommendations which emerged from the interpretation of the data which had been generated (chapter four). The conclusions were related to the experiences of the participating schools in respect of the implementation of language policy relating to foreign learners. The findings are all related and were linked to the existing literature on the research topic.

### **5.2.1 Principals' and Teachers' understanding of the term foreign learner.**

The interpretations and understanding emanating from the participants' definitions of the term foreign learner resulted in the following definition of the term, namely, foreign nationals come from countries outside of South Africa and were, thus, not born in South Africa, and include blacks and people of colour registered at a school as full-time students. According to one of the participants "*Foreign learners should not be denied the right to enrol at school*". Two categories of findings emerged from the participants' definitions and understanding of the term, namely, being a foreigner in South Africa and foreign learners' right to study in South Africa.

#### *5.2.1.1. Being a foreigner in South Africa*

According to the participants, foreign nationals are not only black but also people of colour who are not born in South Africa. As highlighted in the literature, the 1999 White Paper, implemented through the Immigration Act, (Act No. 13 of 2002) and partly through the Refugees Act, 1998 (Act No. 130 of 1998), encouraged the migration of foreign nationals into South Africa (Dithebe & Mukhuba, 2018). Section 4(1)(a) of the National Policy Pertaining to the Programme and Promotion Requirement (2011) also refers to a foreign national in schools as immigrant learners, thus indicating that foreign nationals are welcome in South Africa. Section 4(1)(a) of the National Policy Pertaining to the Programme and Promotion requirement (NPPPR, 2011) also defines foreign learners as the children or dependents of diplomats who officially represent their governments in South Africa. However, both the existing gap in the literature and the participants' definition of the

term highlighted blacks are not the only foreigners in South Africa; rather, any individual not born in South Africa is a foreigner.

#### *5.2.1.2. Foreign learners' right to study*

The body of literature reviewed in the study indicated all learners' right to study, including foreign learners. The South African Schools Act No.84 of 1996, which is supported by the South Africa's Bill of Rights and Chapter 2 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act 108 of 1996, makes provision for education as a basic human right. These laws prohibit any type of discrimination or exclusion from school on the grounds of nationality. In line with these laws, the participants asserted that foreign learners have the right to study in their schools and they also confirmed the presence of foreign learners in their schools with Principal two (P2) from School B (SB), stating *"In my school, the foreign learners are mostly from different African neighbouring countries. Countries such as Angola, DRC, Nigeria, lots of Zimbabweans, lots of Malawians and Mozambicans"*. The literature review also revealed that the new democratic Constitution had abolished the desegregation of schools in South Africa and created an opportunity, not only for South Africans from diverse cultural and language groups, but also for foreign nationals to attend schools of their choice (Vandeyar, 2010).

#### 5.2.2 Provision of language policy for foreign learners

The findings indicated that the language policy guides the processes and practices of teaching and learning in schools and is the responsibility of the SGB. The findings also revealed that the language policy of the school must align with that of the provincial department of education while the role of the principal is to implement the policy. Further findings indicated that English language was the LoLT at the participating schools. However, according to the participants, the schools made provision for foreign learners who struggled with the LoLT to take a second, additional language and they were also encouraged to enrol for extra lessons. In addition, the pass grade requirement for the second additional language was adjusted for foreign learners who were also encouraged to associate with their peers to facilitate their learning of the language of the school.

##### *5.2.2.1 Language policy as a guide to the processes of learning and prescribed by the SGB.*

The participants indicated their understanding on the way in which the language policy made provision for the foreign learners in their schools. Their views revealed that the language policy is a guide to the process and practice of teaching and learning, especially with regard to the language of the school and is directed by the Department of Education and prescribed by the school governing body. According to Principal one (P1) from school A (SA) *"Language policy is a school*

*instructional guideline from the department to the teachers and approved by parents through the school governing body (SGB) and according to which a certain number of foreign language learners must be assigned to the language teacher in charge*". Principal three (P3) from school C (SC) confirmed: *"The language policy is the responsibility of the school governing body. They are responsible for coming up with the language policy of the school but, as we adapt to changes, it then becomes imperative that we look at the dynamics of the school"*. Existing literature supports the views and understanding of the participants in this regard. According to section 6(2) of the Schools Act and any applicable provincial law (RSA, 1996b), the school governing body must determine the language policy of the school, subject to the Constitution. Makoe and Mckinney (2014), emphasised that, in relation to the policy aim of Act 27 of 1996, in the absence of adequate information on both the language policy and the principles which inform both policy and practices, learners will not experience a change in the language classrooms.

#### *5.2.2.2 Principals' role in providing in respect of the implementation of the language policy in relation to foreign learners*

The findings from the data which had been collected on the language policy in relation to foreign learners is implemented under the auspices of school principals. As school managers, their role, when implementing policies, include convening staff meetings, conducting class visits and ensuring that teachers adhere to the policy of the language of teaching and learning at schools. Principal two (P2) from school B (SB) stated: *"My role is to enforce all the DoE's policies provided and ensure that such policies are adopted by the SBG, for example, the language policy and also English is the language of instruction. I convene staff meetings and mediate policy to all staff members and the learners. I conduct class visits to observe the implementation of the policy"*. The sentiments expressed were in line with existing literature that intermediaries, for example, the principal, representatives, and managers are responsible for the interpretation of policies (Johnson, 2013). As a member of the school management team, the principal quoted above attested to this function.

#### *5.2.2.3 Provision of second, additional language for foreign learners*

The responses from the participants indicated that English, Afrikaans and Isizulu were the LoLT at their schools but that provision was made for foreign learners, who were struggling with the language of teaching and learning, to take a second, additional language, thus confirming that the schools' language policy was making provision for the foreign learners by offering the option of French, Portuguese or Chinese as a second, additional language. Teacher two (T2) from school B (SB) indicated, *"The language of teaching and learning is English, but the language policy provides for the foreign learners by allowing them to choose between Afrikaans and isiZulu as a first,*

*additional language. Other learners make take French, Portuguese or Chinese as a second, additional language*". However, this finding contradicted existing literature that English and Afrikaans are the only LoLT in South African schools (Ntombela, 2016). This finding also contradicted the specified aims of the Language in Education Policy (LiEP) and Act 27 of 1996 (DoE, 2016), namely, "to promote and develop all official languages" and (iii) "to redress the neglect of the historically disadvantaged languages in education".

However, according to Brown (1998), the norms and standards do not specify which languages beyond one official language should be offered but the right to the languages of learners' choice in education is needful although practicality must also be taken into account. To understand practicability in this context, the findings of this study validated the findings of Brown's (1998) study in the sense that this study found that schools were offering a second additional languages based on the language of the foreign learners admitted. In addition, the participants also indicated adjustments to the grade requirements for a pass to in respect of the first additional languages, stating that the practicability of this was to accommodate the foreign learners.

#### *5.2.2.4 Adjustment of grade requirement for a pass*

The participants explained that, in respect of make provision for foreign learners through the option of second, additional languages, the Department of Education had enacted a policy on the second, additional language promotion requirement for foreign learners. While the second, additional language promotion requirement for host learners was 50%, the pass requirement for foreign learners was only 40%. However, the foreign learners had to pass the home language to be promoted to the next grade. Teacher two (T2) from school A reported "*The school also provides for the pass requirement for foreign learners to be a bit lower than for South African learners in the junior grade. Foreign learners pass 50% for home language and 40% for Afrikaans*" This was in line with both the literature and the National Assessment Circular No.1 of 2018 on the mark adjustment and special condonation dispensation for learners in the senior phase Grades (7 to 9) that the promotion mark for Afrikaans was 40% and 50% for English language (DoE, 2018).

#### *5.2.3 Accommodation of foreign learners in schools*

The participants' responses to this research question revealed that foreign learners were accommodated in the participating schools. However, foreign learners' hard work and resilience also played a role in this accommodation by the schools. In addition, the host learners, the principals and the teachers all played supporting roles in accommodating the foreign learners.

### 5.2.3.1 *The hard work and resilience on the part of foreign learners*

The findings indicated that the majority of the foreign learners worked hard and displayed resilience at school with these positive traits motivating schools to accommodate them. The learners also believed that their survival in South Africa depended on their hard work and resilience. According to Principal 3 (P3) from school C (SC):

*“It also calls for the learners’ behaviour, we accommodate those who are behaving well. I want to tell you, with the foreign learners, they rarely misbehave. They are all well behaved and well mannered. In terms of academic competence, they do wonder every term and are always the top achievers. If you check our matric bachelor’s achievers, most of them are foreign learners. The host learners just settle for the minimum promotion requirement”.*

Principal 4 (P4) from school D (SD) added:

*“The foreign learners respond and settle in well in our school because other learners welcome and assist in translating for them. We also group them with learners who speak both English and their home language to assist them as this accelerates their learning. Their predicaments in their home countries that led to their migration pushes them to be very resilient and eager to embrace their futures”.*

The review of the literature on language learning and the implementation of language policy highlighted that resilience was one of the positive factors in relation to the language learning of foreign learners (Tülüce, 2018).

### 5.2.3.2 *Teachers’ and learners’ roles in accommodating foreign learners*

The study findings indicated the supporting roles of the teachers and learners in accommodating foreign learners. The teachers drafted the timetables in such a way as to ensure that adequate time was allocated to all languages being taught at school. Learners who were not coping in the allocated time after a certain period were referred to a lower grade. Some learners were accommodated by receiving language assistance from their fellow learners. Teacher one (T1) from school C (SC) stated,

*“When we draft the timetable, we have to make sure that those hours recommended by the policy are covered and, in this manner,, we accommodate the foreign learners. Where learners show challenges in respect of their language proficiency, that is the ability to speak and/or understand spoken English., we refer such learners to Grade 8 or Grade 9. From grades 8 to 9 they learn the basics until they improve. Sometimes they receive assistance from their fellow learners. However, we do not neglect such learners, we try to accommodate them”.*

The study findings were contrary to the literature which points out that teachers are often excluded from the making of decisions about language policy (Menken and García, 2017) as, according to

the participants in this study, both the teachers and the host learners were actively involved in the implementation of the language policy affecting foreign learners in schools.

#### 5.2.4 The challenges facing foreign learners in school.

The findings from this research question showed that, firstly, foreign learners were often bullied as they face challenges at school while, secondly, the principals noted that neither the learners nor the teachers are not allowed to code-switch but that they do so because it came naturally, although disadvantaged foreign learners and resulted in the foreign learners feeling isolated. In addition, the principals are not always in the classrooms to monitor code-switching. These findings corresponded with the literature which indicates that language communication may pose a challenge to foreign learners in terms of their developing an ethnically oriented personality, tolerance, and academic success within a school (Yusupova et al., 2015).

##### 5.2.4.1 Bullying of foreign learners

During the interviews, the participants express the view that foreign learners were often bullied, either because they were not confident or proficient in the language of the school or they were isolated as a result of their language challenges. The foreign learners were sometimes called names and became depressed. Although the participants indicated that the schools took disciplinary measures to address cases of bullying, nevertheless, the results of such bullying were evident among the foreign learners. Teacher one (T1) from school A (SA) shared her views as follows: *“If learners are not proficient in the language of the school, they suffer isolation, depression and name calling, and bullying may follow. This results in academic struggles”*. These findings contradicted the existing literature that the Language in Education Policy (LiEP) in South Africa helps to ensure access, equality and social justice in education (Probyn, 2017) as the findings revealed that foreign learners were denied access and equality in terms of their experiences in relation to the language policy

##### 5.2.4.2 Code switching in school

The findings indicated that code switching in the indigenous African languages disadvantaged foreign learners in school. Principal 2 (P2) from school B (SB) indicated, *“They are not allowed to code switch to other African languages, but they do it. Even though I have indicated that, at times, teachers will use their preferred home languages to express themselves better, it is my role to make sure that they do not overdo it because they will disadvantage others”*. However, the principals are not always in the classrooms to monitor the code switching, either between the teachers and the learners or among the learners. This finding was contrary to the literature that highlights that code

switching both helps teachers to be balanced (equally proficient) in their language proficiency (Jones & Barkhuizen, 2011) and also assists learners in understanding languages and establishing interpersonal relationships with the teachers (Gwee & Saravanan, 2018).

#### 5.2.5 Schools' intervention in dealing with the daily challenges facing foreign learners.

The participants' responses to the question on the daily challenges faced by foreign learners revealed the foreign learners' lack of proficiency in the LoLT at the school. The findings indicated the use of translators, language intervention programmes, (Baseline assessments, referring learners to language schools, extra lessons), and parental support/involvement as measures used to address the abovementioned challenges.

##### 5.2.5.1 Use of language translators

The data which had been collected provided evidence that the use of translators assists foreign learners in dealing with the challenges of language policy which arise from their lack of proficiency in the LoLT. Teacher one (T1) from school D (SD) commented, *“Some parents do not have the funds required for their children to attend extra lessons, so we send SMS to the parents to see us and we provide translators to such learners. Similarly, Principal 4 (P4) from school D (SD) responded. “We allow them to carry a little translator, for example, the Chinese learners. The translator translates English into Chinese, so this helps them to understand better. These findings contradict the literature that the use of a translator is seen as a poor learning strategy in relation to the communicative language teaching (CLT) approach (Al-Musawi, 2014).*

##### 5.2.5.2 Extra lessons and language intervention programmes

The findings indicated that extra lessons and language interventions emanating from both the community and language schools assisted foreign learners in overcoming the challenges they faced that arose the language policy challenges. Principal 4 (P4) from school D (SD) responded:

*We do recommend that learners who cannot speak the English language be referred to Wits Language School. Wits University has an intensive English language school. For the Chinese learners, there are volunteer tutors from the community who teach them. In other cases, these foreign learners spend a month doing daily intensive lessons for 6 hours a day to learn basic communication in English after which they are more conversant with the language. We found that these interventions work because the LoLT here is English and they become frustrated because they do not know English. This teaching takes place outside the school for about a month and afterward they return to the school to attend normal lessons There is also success in cases where the parents support this initiative but, in other circumstances, the parents did not respond due to a lack of fund. Also, because of their mindset, they feel if their children are in school, they will be forced to speak English and they will pick up the language while interacting with other learners who speak English. In certain cases that does also work.*

These findings are in line with the literature that language teachers bring support to the classroom and in the process of language learning through translanguaging and multilingualism (Kalocsányiová, 2017). Literature also indicates that foreign learners learn language by interacting with the community and other learners in the classroom and also the process of language acquisition cannot be achieved without the assistance of the schools (Johnson and Johnson, 2015)

#### *5.2.5.3 Parental support and involvement*

The participants' responses revealed that the parents of the foreign learners often become involved in addressing the challenges their children face in respect to the language policy of the school. One of the ways in which they actively supported their children was by organising extra/home lessons for their children. It was also deemed important that they give the school relevant and accurate information about their children's language history and background. According to Principal 3 (P3) from school C (SC), *"We usually check with parents during admission on how long the learner has been in South Africa, for example, coming from DRC to South Africa. We then advise the parents to step in with home lessons. This usually helps them to develop and understand the basic language that we use, and parents come on board in this regard"* These findings supported existing literature as, according to Yu and Shandu (2017), parental involvement has a positive impact on overcoming the language barriers at schools.

### **5.3 Recommendations**

#### **5.3.1 Recommendation 1**

The roles of the provincial departments of education (DoE), the principals and the SGBs, as agents in the process and practice of language implementation, do not make effective provision for the foreign learners. I, therefore, recommend that Student Representative Council learners (SRC) and teachers be officially involved in language policy implementation and planning because of their support and positive involvement in assisting foreign learners in language implementation.

#### **5.3.2 Recommendation 2**

The data which had been collected provided evidence that the use of translators assists foreign learners to cope with the challenges they encounter in relation to language policy, for example, their lack of proficiency in the LoLT. I, therefore, recommend that the government should be involved in supplying translators for foreign learners in order to avoid delays in waiting for a total 35 learners, which is the number of learners required in a class before a foreign language teacher is assigned, as this procedure causes delays in schools.



#### **5.4 Recommendations for further research**

In this research study on educators' experiences in relation to the implementation of language policy affecting foreign nationals, it emerged that, although the teachers and learners were involved in the implementation of language policy, principals and SGB members were the only bodies officially recognised by the Department of Education.

I, therefore, recommend that further research be conducted to understand the inclusivity, participation, and roles of teachers, and learners as student representative councils (SRC) in achieving an effective and workable language policy implementation. The main reason for this recommendation was the findings on the role of both teachers and learners in addressing the challenges faced by foreign learners which emerged from the study.

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## **ANNEXURES**

Annexure A: letter to the director department of education

Annexure B: Letter of approval from Department of Education

Annexure C: Ethics clearance certificate

Annexure D: Letter to Principals

Annexure E: Permissions from schools

Annexure F: Letter to Participants

Annexure G: Consent form from participant

Annexure H: Interview schedule

## Annexure A: letter to the director department of education



UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA  
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA  
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA

Fakulteit Opvoedkunde  
Lehapha le Thuto

### Department of Education Management and Policy Studies

308 Ella Marie  
Corner 13th Street  
De Wet Street  
Edenvale, 1609

11 April 2019

The Director of Gauteng Education.

Dear Sir/Madam

#### REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT GAUTENG SCHOOLS

My name is Lydia Iruoma Ikwuemesim. I am a registered student for a Masters' degree in Education Management, Law and Policy (MEd) at the University of Pretoria. One of the requirements for completion of the master's programme is that I must conduct a research and write a report. I, therefore, request permission to conduct research at Gauteng schools. The title of my study is **"Educators' experiences of the implementation of language policy affecting foreign nationals"**. The purpose of the study is to understand how educators' in your school experience the implementation of language policy affecting foreign nationals.

In this letter I want to tell you about what will happen if such permission is granted. Once you understand what the study is about, you can decide if you want to grant such permission or not. If you agree, you will be requested to release a signed letter permitting the study to take place at the schools.

The process of fieldwork is detailed below:

- The process will be in the form of semi-structured interviews, where the

- The process will be in the form of semi-structured interviews, where the school principal and two language teachers will be requested to spend some time sharing their experiences on the implementation of language policy affecting to foreign nationals in the school.
- If I am granted permission, I intend to be at the school for two sessions in two days after school to avoid disruptions of teaching and learning (the first day will be for research activities, which will take at least 45 to 60 minutes and one day for member checking which is anticipated to take at least 30 minutes).
- To ensure the anonymity and confidentiality of the participants, I will keep the names of the participants and that of the school and contribution to the study private except if it is their wish to be named.
- I do not think anything bad or risky will happen to the participants in this study. If problems do arise, they can speak to me and I will consult on the issue, and/or refer them to someone who is best able to help. If there is a serious problem about their safety, I am required to inform University of Pretoria.
- Participants will receive no incentives for participating in this study. However, I hope that their participation in this study will make them feel good about themselves.

Should you have any questions or concerns pertaining to this study, you can contact Dr Nthontho on 012 420 2499.

Yours sincerely,

**Researcher:** Lydia Iruoma Ikwuemesim

**Student number:** 18250492

Telephone: +27 83 765 9990

**Supervisor:** Dr Nthontho

**Telephone:** 012 420 2499

Sign: 

E-mail: [mamasingerly@gmail.com](mailto:mamasingerly@gmail.com)

Sign: 

**E-mail:** [maitumeleng.nthontho@up.ac.za](mailto:maitumeleng.nthontho@up.ac.za)

Annexure B: Letter of approval from Department of Education



**GAUTENG PROVINCE**  
 Department: Education  
 REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

8/4/4/1/2

**GDE RESEARCH APPROVAL LETTER**

Date:	07 May 2019
Validity of Research Approval:	04 February 2019 – 30 September 2019 2019/15
Name of Researcher:	Ikwuemesim L. I
Address of Researcher:	308 Ella Marie Corner 13 <sup>th</sup> De wet Street Edenvale, 1609
Telephone Number:	083 765 9990
Email address:	mamasingerly@gmail.com
Research Topic:	Understanding the experience of schools on implementing of language policy relating to foreign nationals
Type of qualification	Masters
Number and type of schools:	Four Secondary Schools
District/s/HO	Ekurhuleni North and Johannesburg East

**Re: Approval in Respect of Request to Conduct Research**

This letter serves to indicate that approval is hereby granted to the above-mentioned researcher to proceed with research in respect of the study indicated above. The onus rests with the researcher to negotiate appropriate and relevant time schedules with the school/s and/or offices involved to conduct the research. A separate copy of this letter must be presented to both the School (both Principal and SGB) and the District/Head Office Senior Manager confirming that permission has been granted for the research to be conducted.

The following conditions apply to GDE research. The researcher may proceed with the above study subject to the conditions listed below being met. Approval may be withdrawn should any of the conditions listed below be flouted:

*[Handwritten signature and date: 20/05/2019]*

1

*Making education a societal priority*

**Office of the Director: Education Research and Knowledge Management**

7<sup>th</sup> Floor, 17 Simmonds Street, Johannesburg, 2001

Tel: (011) 355 0488

Email: Faith.Tshabalala@gauteng.gov.za

Website: www.education.gpg.gov.za



1. *The District/Head Office Senior Manager/s concerned must be presented with a copy of this letter that would indicate that the said researcher/s has/have been granted permission from the Gauteng Department of Education to conduct the research study.*
2. *The District/Head Office Senior Manager/s must be approached separately, and in writing, for permission to involve District/Head Office Officials in the project.*
3. *A copy of this letter must be forwarded to the school principal and the chairperson of the School Governing Body (SGB) that would indicate that the researcher/s have been granted permission from the Gauteng Department of Education to conduct the research study.*
4. *A letter / document that outline the purpose of the research and the anticipated outcomes of such research must be made available to the principals, SGBs and District/Head Office Senior Managers of the schools and districts/offices concerned, respectively.*
5. *The Researcher will make every effort obtain the goodwill and co-operation of all the GDE officials, principals, and chairpersons of the SGBs, teachers and learners involved. Persons who offer their co-operation will not receive additional remuneration from the Department while those that opt not to participate will not be penalised in any way.*
6. *Research may only be conducted after school hours so that the normal school programme is not interrupted. The Principal (if at a school) and/or Director (if at a district/head office) must be consulted about an appropriate time when the researcher/s may carry out their research at the sites that they manage.*
7. *Research may only commence from the second week of February and must be concluded before the beginning of the last quarter of the academic year. If incomplete, an amended Research Approval letter may be requested to conduct research in the following year.*
8. *Items 6 and 7 will not apply to any research effort being undertaken on behalf of the GDE. Such research will have been commissioned and be paid for by the Gauteng Department of Education.*
9. *It is the researcher's responsibility to obtain written parental consent of all learners that are expected to participate in the study.*
10. *The researcher is responsible for supplying and utilising his/her own research resources, such as stationery, photocopies, transport, faxes and telephones and should not depend on the goodwill of the institutions and/or the offices visited for supplying such resources.*
11. *The names of the GDE officials, schools, principals, parents, teachers and learners that participate in the study may not appear in the research report without the written consent of each of these individuals and/or organisations.*
12. *On completion of the study the researcher/s must supply the Director: Knowledge Management & Research with one Hard Cover bound and an electronic copy of the research.*
13. *The researcher may be expected to provide short presentations on the purpose, findings and recommendations of his/her research to both GDE officials and the schools concerned.*
14. *Should the researcher have been involved with research at a school and/or a district/head office level, the Director concerned must also be supplied with a brief summary of the purpose, findings and recommendations of the research study.*

The Gauteng Department of Education wishes you well in this important undertaking and looks forward to examining the findings of your research study.

Kind regards



Mr Gumani Mukaluni

Acting Director: Education Research and Knowledge Management

DATE: 09/05/2019

**Office of the Director: Education Research and Knowledge Management**

7<sup>th</sup> Floor, 17 Simmonds Street, Johannesburg, 2001

Tel: (011) 355 0488

Email: Faith.Tshabalala@gauteng.gov.za

Website: www.education.gpg.gov.za

## Annexure C: Ethics clearance certificate



UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA  
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA  
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA  
Faculty of Education

### RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

**CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE**

**CLEARANCE NUMBER:** EM 19/05/02

**DEGREE AND PROJECT**

MEd

Educators' experiences of the implementation of language policy affecting foreign nationals

**INVESTIGATOR**

Ms Lydia Iruoma Ikwemesim

**DEPARTMENT**

Education Management and Policy Studies

**APPROVAL TO COMMENCE STUDY**

25 June 2019

**DATE OF CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE**

25 January 2021

**CHAIRPERSON OF ETHICS COMMITTEE:** Prof Funke Omidire

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to be 'F. Omidire', written over a horizontal line.

**CC**

Ms Bronwynne Swarts  
Dr. Maitumeleng Nthontho

This Ethics Clearance Certificate should be read in conjunction with the Integrated Declaration Form (D08) which specifies details regarding:

- Compliance with approved research protocol,
- No significant changes,
- Informed consent/assent,
- Adverse experience or undue risk,
- Registered title, and
- Data storage requirements.

## Annexure D: Letter to Principals



UNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA  
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA  
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA

### Department of Education Management and Policy Studies

308 Ella Marie  
Corner 13th Street  
De Wet Street  
Edenvale, 1609

11 April 2019

Dear Chairperson of the SGB,

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Yours sincerely,

**Researcher:** Lydia Iruoma Ikwuemesim

**Student number:** 18250492


Telephone: +27 83 765 9990

**Supervisor:** Dr Nthontho

**Telephone:** 012 420 2499

Sign: 

E-mail: [mamasingerly@gmail.com](mailto:mamasingerly@gmail.com)

Sign: 

**E-mail:** [maitumeleng.nthontho@up.ac.za](mailto:maitumeleng.nthontho@up.ac.za)

Annexure E: Permissions from schools

# Queens High School

☎ 011 616 4122 / 4180  
☎ 011 615 7594 / 086 529 1033  
✉ admissions@queenshs.co.za

📍 School Entrance via Eastern Ext. 8th Avenue (off 10th Street)  
Bezuidenhout Valley, Johannesburg

📍 Private Bag X1, Kengray, 2100

🌐 www.queenshs.co.za



26 August 2019

To whom it may concern

This letter serves to confirm that Lydia Ikwemesim has requested to conduct research at Queens High School. Permission has been granted for her to conduct her research.

Yours sincerely

K. McCallum  
DEPUTY PRINCIPAL





# DAWNVIEW HIGH SCHOOL

TELEPHONE (011) 828-9014/5  
Email: secretary@dawnviewhigh.co.za  
G.D.E. No: 700160291  
ASSOCIATION ROAD  
DAWNVIEW  
GERMISTON 1401

P O BOX 2034  
PRIMROSE  
1416

DATE: 28 August 2019

TO: FACULTY OF EDUCATION: DR. MAITUMELENG NTHONTHO

RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

This is to confirm that, Mrs Lydia I. Ikwuenesim, is given permission to conduct research in the school as stipulated by the guidelines of the Gauteng Department of Education.

The student is permitted to conduct interviews with her requested participants.

Yours faithfully

Mr M.C. Kolokoto: Principal

GAUTENG DEPT. OF EDUCATION  
DAWNVIEW HIGH SCHOOL  
2019-08-28  
TEL: (011) 828-9014/5  
PO BOX 2034, PRIMROSE, 1416

# Kensington Secondary School

Cnr New York & Protea Streets Kensington,  
P.O. Box 59055, Kensington 2100  
Tel: 011 616 4128 fax: 011 616 4127



082 556 0181/kss130070@gmail.com/tloumoloto8@gmail.com

**FROM** : Mr Moloto TC  
The Principal

**TO** : Whom it may Concern

**DATE** : 29 August 2019

**RE** : A letter of permission

Sir/Madam

This serves to confirm that Ikwemesim Lydia has been granted a permission to conduct her research.

She has approached the school and presented her case and as the Principal I really felt her research will definitely help the school in many ways

I wish to take this opportunity to wish her the best as she commences

Thank you

Regards

Moloto TC  
The Principal



**DOWERGLEN HIGH SCHOOL**  
**EERSTELAAN / FIRST AVE**  
☒ 96 ● EDENVALE ● 1610  
☎ 609-8227/8  
**FAX 452-5934**  
**admin@dowerglenhigh.co.za**



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30 August 2019

To whom it may concern

**PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH**

This is to confirm that Lydia I. Ikwuemesim has permission to conduct research at our school.

Regards

  
Ms T.M. Mashigo  
PRINCIPAL





## Annexure F: Letter to Participants



UNIBESITHI YAN PRETORIA  
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA  
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA

### Department of Education Management and Policy Studies

308 Ella Marie  
Corner 13th Street  
De Wet Street  
Edenvale, 1609

11 April 2019

Dear Participant,

#### INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE IN A RESEARCH

My name is Lydia Iruoma Ikwuemesim. I am a registered student for a Masters' degree in Education management, Law and Policy Studies (MEd) at the University of Pretoria. One of the requirements of the completion of the Masters' programme is that I must conduct a research and write a report about my work. I, therefore, invite you to participate in my research. The title of my study is **"Educators' experiences of the implementation of language policy affecting foreign nationals"**. The purpose of the study is to understand how educators' in your school experience the implementation of language policy affecting foreign nationals.

Once you understand what the study is about, you can decide if you want to participate or not. If you agree, you are requested sign the consent form attached to this invitation letter as consent for your participation in the project.

The process of fieldwork is detailed below:

- The data collection process will be in the form of semi-structured interviews, where you will be requested to spend some time sharing your experiences on the implementation of language policy affecting foreign nationals in your

school. You will also be requested to share how schools deal with the language challenges foreign learners experience while at school.

- I intend to be at the school for two sessions in two days after school to avoid disruptions of teaching and learning (the first day will be for research activities, which will take 45 to 60 minutes and one day for member checking 30 minutes)
- To ensure the anonymity and confidentiality of your participation, I will keep your names and that of the school and contribution to the study private except if it is your wish to be named.
- I do not think anything bad or risky will happen to you, as participants, in this study. If problems do arise, you can speak to me and I will consult on the issue, and/or refer them to someone who is best able to help. If there is a serious problem about your safety, I am required to inform the school principal.
- You will receive no incentives for participating in this study. However, I hope that your participation in this study will make you feel good about themselves.

Should you have any questions or concerns pertaining to this study, you can contact Dr Nthontho on 012 420 2499.

Yours Sincerely

**Researcher:** Lydia Iruoma Ikwemesim Sign: \_\_\_\_\_



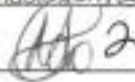
**Student number:** 18250492

**Telephone:** +27 83 765 9990

**E-mail:** [mamasiperry@gmail.com](mailto:mamasiperry@gmail.com)

Supervisor: Dr Nthontho

Sign: \_\_\_\_\_



**Telephone:** 012 420 2499

**E-mail:** [maitumeleng.nthontho@up.ac.za](mailto:maitumeleng.nthontho@up.ac.za)

Annexure G: Consent form from participant

**CONSENT FORM**

I, \_\_\_\_\_ (Full names and Surname), agree to participate in the research conducted by Lydia Iruoma Ikwuemesim at the school. I am aware that the research has got nothing to do with my school and my participation is voluntary. I am also aware that I am free to withdraw my participation at any time should I wish to do so, and my decision will not be held against me.

I understand that my contact time will not be disturbed, and I grant the researcher permission to use some of my after-school hours.

I understand that my identity, that of my school and all that I will say in this research activities and tape-recorded interviews will remain anonymous and confidential.

I also understand that I will be expected to provide written and oral comments on the draft report of the interviews.

I grant permission that the research activities may be tape-recorded for research purposes and understand that these will be stored safely.

I have received contact details of the researcher and supervisor should I need to contact them about matters to this research.

Signed: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

26/08/2019

Note: Name and signature of the example have been deleted

## Annexure H: Interview schedule



UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA  
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA  
TUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA

### Interview schedule for teachers and school principals

Time of interview: \_\_\_\_\_ Duration \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Place: \_\_\_\_\_ Pseudonym: \_\_\_\_\_

Interviewer: \_\_\_\_\_

Interviewee \_\_\_\_\_

Male/Female \_\_\_\_\_

Race: \_\_\_\_\_

Study title: "Educators 'experiences of the implementation of language policy affecting foreign nationals".

Study purpose: To understand your experience on implementation of language policies affecting foreign nationals in your school.

Interview procedure: The interview will consist of fifteen questions of which you are not obliged to answer all of them should you feel uncomfortable to do so.

Note: There are neither wrong nor right answers in this interview.

**Remember:**

1. Everything we share and discuss will be treated as confidential and will not be revealed to a third party. I am interested in your personal understanding and experiences of implementation of the language policy affecting foreign nationals.
2. You are welcome to seek clarity should the need be
3. Everything we share and discuss will be audio recorded.
4. You can stop participating at any time without giving any reason

*Are there any questions that you would like to ask for clarification before we start?*

**Interview questions**

1. What do you understand by the concept foreign learners?
2. Have you got foreign learners in your:
  - a) School? (Principal)
  - b) Class? (Teachers)
3. What is the language of teaching and learning at your school?
4. What is the language of the school? (find out if 3 differs from 4 during interview.ie are the teachers adhering to the language of the school during teaching and learning)
5. What do you understand by the concept language policy?
6. What are your roles in implementing the language policy of your school?
7. How do you accommodate foreign learners as you perform the above role?
8. How does your roles contribute to the success or failure of the implementation of language policy in your school? (This question depends on whether the teachers are adhering to the language of the school or not)
9. How do you attend to foreign learners with language barriers during the teaching and learning? (teachers)
- 10 How do foreign learners in your school respond or react to language policy especially when the school language is neither their home language nor their language of learning?
- 11 How does the presence of foreign learners in your school affect your decisions in implementing language policy? (Principal)

- 
- 12 How does the presence of foreign learners in your school affect your teaching and learning process? (teachers)
- 13 What are the challenges foreign nationals in your school face in adapting to your school language policy?
- 14 How does the school overcome above challenges?
- 15 What are the reactions of host learners towards foreign learners in the school / class?

*Is there anything else you would like to share regarding your experiences of implementation of the language policy affecting foreign nationals?*

Concluding remarks

Thank you for taking your time to share with me this important and valuable information.

I kindly request that you avail yourself for further clarity should I need it

**Researcher:** Lydia Iruoma Ikwuemesim

Telephone: +27 83 765 9990

Supervisor: Dr Nthontho

**E-mail:** [maitumeleng.nthontho@up.ac.za](mailto:maitumeleng.nthontho@up.ac.za)

Student number: 18250492

Email: [mamasingerly@gmail.com](mailto:mamasingerly@gmail.com)

Telephone: 012 420 2499

**Researcher:** Lydia Iruoma Ikwuemesim Sign:

Supervisor: Dr Nthontho Sign:



The image shows two handwritten signatures in black ink. The top signature is for Lydia Iruoma Ikwuemesim, and the bottom signature is for Dr Nthontho. Both signatures are written over horizontal lines.