

**AN IMPLEMENTATION ANALYSIS OF THE LANGUAGE POLICY IN  
BASIC EDUCATION IN SELECTED SCHOOLS IN ETHEKWINI  
MUNICIPALITY**

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# DECLARATION

I,..... declare that this dissertation is my own original work. This dissertation has not been submitted for any degree or examination at any other university or institution. The dissertation does not contain other persons' writing, unless appropriately acknowledge.

Student's Signature \_\_\_\_\_

Date \_\_\_\_\_

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My motto kept me motivated: *“The only person stopping you is yourself; the sky is the limit and only time is our enemy.”*

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AS WITNESSES (1) \_\_\_\_\_ (2) \_\_\_\_\_

# Abstract

The Department of Basic Education (DBE) in its 2013 budget speech announced that from 2014, a new policy will come into effect mandating the learning of an African language in all schools. The advent of the language policy in basic education meant that every school in South Africa will teach an obligatory vernacular to its pupils irrespective of race, culture or ethnicity. This research is predicated on the role of low-level (street-level bureaucrats) government workers (teachers) in the implementation of this policy. The study explored the preparedness and capacity of teachers to implement the vernacular policy; possible constraints to the implementation of the policy, and the extent to which the use of discretion and autonomy by teachers impact the implementation of the policy. The study did not focus on the material capability of the schools, but explored the behavioural aspects of teachers towards the language policy and its connotations. Qualitative research method was used for the study. The study comprised sixteen (16) participants that were conveniently selected from four schools (two from rural areas and two from urban areas) in the eThekweni municipality. The research found that the timing of the proposed compulsory vernacular was fundamentally untimely and premature. However some respondents were willing to implement the policy as they felt it was the right thing to do. On the issue of discretion/autonomy, the study found that teachers' discretion was only dependent on the extent to which the policy is subtle in its guidelines. This meant that the policy was likely to be implemented on the basis of contextual factors rather than strict policy specifications. The study therefore recommends that the DBE must ensure that stricter policy guidelines are followed during all implementation phases.

**Keywords:** language, policy, street-level bureaucrats, implementation, vernacular, education, discretion, coping mechanism

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# LIST OF ACRONYMS

CRL Rights Commission	Commission for the Promotion and Protection of the Rights of Cultural, Religious and Linguistic Communities
DAC	Department of Arts and Culture
DBE	Department of Basic Education
FL	Foreign Language
HOD	Head of Department
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
LIEP	Language-in-Education Policy
LoLT	Language of Learning and Teaching
M&E	Monitoring and Evaluation
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MTE	Mother-Tongue Education
NLP	National Language Policy
NCS	National Curriculum Statement
NSC	National Senior Certificate
OBE	Outcomes Based Education
PanSALB	Pan South African Language Board
SA	South Africa
SAIRR	South African Institute of Race Relations
SGB	School Governing Board

# CHAPTER ONE

## Background

### Statement of the Problem, Key Questions, Objectives and Purpose of the Study

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#### INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides the contextual background of the study. The chapter centres on the statement of the problem that deals with background to the research. The contextual description in this chapter puts into perspective why the study is warranted. It looks at the objectives, key questions of the study, and the purpose of this study. Lastly, the chapter provides an overview of what the thesis entails.

#### 1.1 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Language has always played a crucial role in the socialization of the young. Undoubtedly, it can be said that it is a catalyst for social change, inclusiveness and social cohesion. Language has always been considered as a key component of a people's identity and one which is worth preserving. All societies in one way or the other ensure that their official languages are taught in schools as part of the academic curricula (Department of Basic Education, 2011).

According to Silva (1997), the attempt of the Apartheid government to introduce Afrikaans as a language of instruction in black schools, ousting English in some subjects, was the trigger which ignited the Soweto uprising of 1976. Afrikaners had certainly acquired an infamous reputation of being an oppressive language amid the black majority (Silva, 1997). Language is a very sensitive

issue in South Africa; hitherto vernaculars had not been introduced as compulsory languages in schools. Vernaculars have always been regarded as the least favourable languages, yet they are indigenous to South Africa and are spoken by the majority of the populace. These languages have been side-lined due to the claims that they are underdeveloped, difficult to learn and do not possess the requisite sophistication to be used in education as Languages of Learning and Teaching (Davis, 2013).

South Africa being one of the most diverse societies in the world is confronted with a huge challenge when it comes to implementing any language policy, since it has eleven official languages (Beukes, 2008). For South Africa, any language policy is somewhat confronted with the challenge of diversity. In education, the issue of implementing vernacular is bound to affect pupils differently due to differences in language and culture. Rarely has the implementation of radical social policy affected society evenly in South Africa. The reason for that is the social stratification that divide the well-resourced multiracial schools from the under resourced township and rural schools.

## **1.2 CONTEXTUAL DESCRIPTION**

Successfully industrialized societies around the world pride themselves for being developed and for being progressive. Education and stable language use are at the forefront of this development and progress. Education is known to be an instrument of poverty alleviation – improving the standard of living of a people and a beacon of hope for the poor and underprivileged. With regards to learning outcomes, South Africa's education performance is the lowest amid all middle-income countries (Department of Basic Education, 2011:27). According to the World Economic Forum (2014), education through ICT is a way forward for development. For this to materialize, African literacy levels need to improve for children and adults to become devoted readers. Children must first be able to read, comprehend and learn in their mother-tongue. The lack of emphasis on mother-tongue has hindered progress on youth literacy in specific regions, standing at 72% in Sub-Saharan Africa (World Economic Forum, 2014).

Language is one of the instruments that unify people; it preserves the culture of many communities around the world. Most societies use language as a means to identify and distinguish themselves from the other. The history of language is one filled with pride and honour throughout communities of the world. In South Africa, the Apartheid system “brought with it prolonged segregation by race, but also language, with a ferociousness not seen in any other country during the twentieth century” (Department of Education, 1997:16). The history of South Africa is immersed in the intentional attempt to develop one language at the expense of others – it is one characterized by language supremacy (Silva, 1997). This volatile history of the country makes any language question to be perceived through racial and ethnic lenses. In order to redress this injustice of the past, section 6, Act No. 108 of the 1996 Constitution recognized 11 official languages (Department of Arts and Culture, 2003). The Constitution also recognizes the rights of students to be taught in their native language. Despite this official recognition, not all of these languages are given equal regard in their use. According to Wright (2012), South Africa has an admirable post-apartheid Language-in-Education Policy (LIEP), but the policy is intricately entangled with National Language Policy (NLP) which is extensively recognized not to be working. Alexander (2003) argued that there is no doubt that in practice the state bureaucracies as well as most of the political leadership are trapped in the language-is-a-problem paradigm. That is to say, the high level of failure rate is caused by lack of proficiency in English at the expense of the use of vernacular in vernacular dominated schools.

The Department of Education’s (1997) norms and standards regarding language policy, published in terms of the South African Schools Act, 1996, clause 5 (6)(1), stated that the Schools Governing Boards (SGBs) must stipulate how the individual school will promote multilingualism through using more than one language of learning and teaching “by offering additional languages as fully-fledged subjects, and/or applying special immersion or language maintenance programs, or through other means approved by the head of the provincial education department” (Department of Education, 1997:3). Such autonomy could be identified as a challenge to the implementation of any policy. Given that it is a self-regulatory policy, SGBs

could improvise and try to come up with implementation strategies that may result in outcomes different from those envisaged in the policy.

To redress the problem of unequal use of language, the DBE decided to introduce compulsory vernacular language in all public schools. In the 2013 budget speech, by the Minister of the DBE, Angie Motshekga, announced that “we believe good grounding in a learner’s home language is essential. In 2014, a new policy will come into effect mandating the learning of an African language in all schools” (Department of Basic Education, 2013:1). According to this statement it will be compulsory for all pupils in South Africa to learn at least one vernacular. In essence, the *Action Plan 2014: Towards the Realization of Schooling 2025*, is in several ways the country’s first all-inclusive long-term sector plan for schools which might see the language issue being taken seriously (Department of Basic Education, 2013). The Action Plan, which will be implemented incrementally until 2025, will see all pupils learning three languages; first language (mother-tongue), first additional language and second language (Jones, 2013).

### **1.3 OBJECTIVES**

This study was informed by the following objectives:

1. To find out whether teachers have been adequately prepared to implement the proposed policy.
2. To establish possible challenges to the implementation of the policy.
3. To explore the extent to which teachers’ discretion and autonomy will impact on the implementation of the proposed policy.

### **1.4 KEY QUESTIONS OF THE STUDY**

- ✓ Are teachers adequately prepared and capacitated to implement the language policy in basic education?

- ✓ What are the possible constraints to the implementation of the language policy in the current basic education environment?
- ✓ To what extent can the influence of teachers' discretion and autonomy influence the desired implementation of the language policy?

## **1.5 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY**

The purpose of this study was to analyse the proposed implementation of the language policy in basic education, in selected schools, in light of the interest generated by the notion of teaching compulsory vernacular in public schools in South Africa. The study examined possible relevant variables, i.e. teacher apathy, perception and capacity and their effects on the implementation process of the vernacular policy in basic education. Implementation is a crucial part of any policy. More importantly, implementers play a key role in the success/failure of any given policy. This study analysed the anticipated dynamics of the implementation process of the vernacular policy. The study is opportune because it sought to explore the internal and external imperatives that could impact on teachers when implementing the policy. Thus the study focuses on the responses of teachers (the street-level bureaucrats) as major role-players in the policy cycle (Lipsky, 2010).

## **1.6 SUMMARY OF CHAPTERS**

### *Chapter two*

This chapter focuses on relevant literature from the broader international, African and domestic (SA) domains, related to the subject matter of the study.

### *Chapter three*

This chapter presents the theoretical framework and conceptual approaches used in this research. The chapter unpacks the concept of implementation focusing particularly on Street-Level Bureaucracy.

#### *Chapter four*

Chapter four contains the research methods; research design, sampling frame and technique for data collection.

#### *Chapter five*

This chapter presents the findings of the study. It systematically lays down the views of the respondents and methodically brings meaning to the information they gave.

#### *Chapter six*

This chapter is the discussion (data analysis) and summative chapter of the research. It also provides recommendations based on the research findings.

### **CONCLUSION**

The chapter has presented an overview of the research. It examined the various parts of this research including the statement of the problem, contextual description, key questions, objectives and the structure of the research. The goal of this chapter was to serve as an introduction and background to the research. The following part explores issues related to multilingualism, bilingualism, second language immersion, second language acquisition and other important research that have been done in South Africa on language.

# CHAPTER TWO

## LITERATURE REVIEW

### Global and African Perspectives on Multilingualism and the South African Two Schools of Thought

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#### INTRODUCTION

This chapter gives a general idea of earlier research dealing with issues in the use of vernacular, second language acquisition and second language immersion. In addition, the chapter explores issues ranging from language of communication to the Language of Learning and Teaching. Furthermore, the chapter examines research conducted in the African continent with a particular focus on the discrepancies of the use of colonial languages at the expense of indigenous languages. The literature review on South Africa focuses on language use and language policy.

#### 2.1 GLOBAL PERSPECTIVE ON LANGUAGE

It is believed that young children are the fastest and most efficient acquirers of second language (Collier, 1989). Collier argued that from birth through to age 5, children acquire enormous amounts of first language phonology, vocabulary, grammar, semantics, and pragmatics, but the process is not at all complete by the time children reach school age (7). The second argument of the author holds that second language acquisition is not entirely dependent on age. Collier (1989) argues, as long as cognitive development is continued through age 12, the age by which first language acquisition is essentially completed, acquiring a second language becomes an easy task. Thus, as long as the first language cognitive development process is completed, learning a second language becomes a less demanding task through extrapolation.

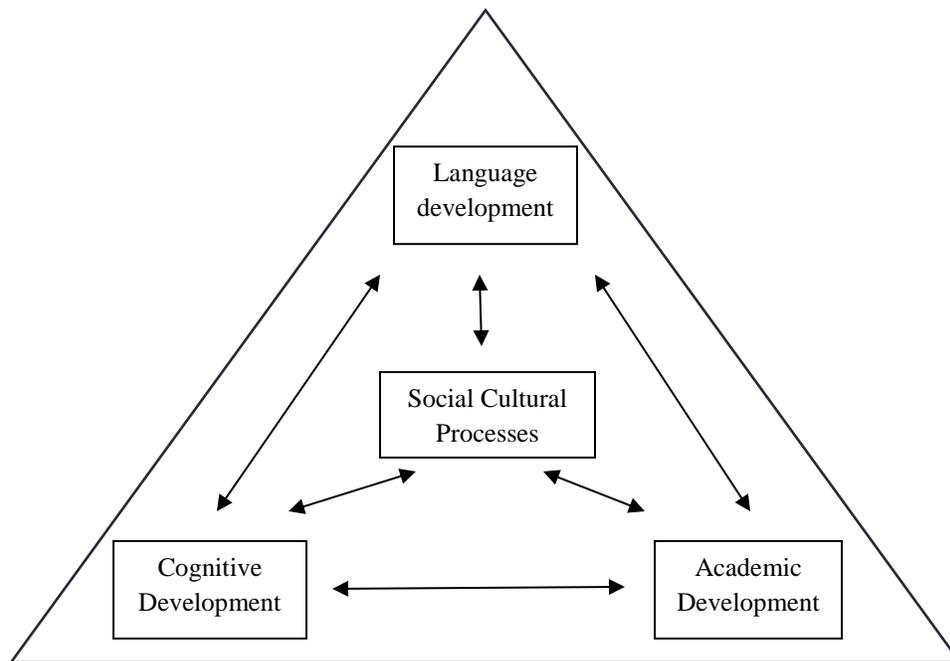
Birdsong and Molis (2001) hold that there is a period in a child's life where second language proficiency and capability needs to be developed. Thus the younger they start learning a second language the better their proficiency. In other words, there is a critical stage where both primary and secondary language competency can be developed. In their study, Birdsong and Molis (2001:326) noticed that exposure to second language before the age of 5 years assures native-like performance in infants. According to Kibler (2010), studies of student discourse conducted from a sociocultural perspective found that first language (L1) use can be an important scaffolding strategy in solving problems, managing tasks and goals, and accessing language forms. Students often report that first language (L1) use is a helpful tool while completing group second language (L2) tasks

Ivey and Broaddus (2007) conducted an experimental research in the United State of America, investigating literacy engagement among adolescent Latino students just beginning to read, write, and speak English. Their goal was to assess how difficult it was for Latino adolescent immigrants to learn English language in terms of reading, writing and speaking. The formative experiment was to facilitate engaged reading and writing in a language arts classroom of seventh- and eighth-grade native Spanish speakers who were assigned to a team composed solely of second-language learners for the entire school year (Ivey and Broaddus, 2007). They found that even though self-selected books and a variety of other books available in English were used, there were signs that a lack of engagement with the content was a problem due to limited vocabulary in English (Ivey and Broaddus, 2007). The use of dictionaries slowed down the writing process to a tedious pace and students lost track of what they had written and what they were trying to say, as a result lost interest.

Collier (1995) was interested in studying the time it takes for second language learners to develop proficiency and complex language syntax. To achieve this, Collier (1995) came up with a model for sociocultural, linguistic, academic, and cognitive processes in language development, where cognitive processes are interdependent and complex. To understand the processes occurring in language acquisition during the school years, it is important to recognize

the complex, lifelong process that people go through in acquiring first language and the parallel processes that occur in second language acquisition (Collier, 1995).

**Figure 2.1. Collier's Language Acquisition Model**



(Collier, 1995 :2)

The model is based on social structural processes, language development, academic development and cognitive development. Collier (1995) holds that social structural processes feature the individual student going through the process of acquiring a second language in school. Language development consists of the subconscious aspects of language development, as well as the metalinguistic, conscious, formal teaching of language in school, and acquisition of the written system of language. Academic development includes all schoolwork in language, arts, mathematics, the sciences, and social studies for each grade level, grades R-12 and beyond. Cognitive development deals with language teaching, simplification of content, structure, and sequenced language curricula (Collier 1995).

Due to Globalization, English has gained prominence in different parts of the globe in the past few decades. Nikula (2005) analysed classroom discourse in Finnish classrooms where English was the object of study, and content-based classrooms where non-language subjects were taught in English. The study found, though “English does not have an official status in Finland but skills in English are highly valued and this is also reflected at the level of education” (Nikula, 2005:27). However, there is still little known about the ways in which the use of English as the medium of instruction affects classroom discourse (Nikula, 2005). In support of the finding of Nikula’s (2005) research, Merisuo-Storm (2007) found that in Finland, traditional language teaching has been criticized for providing pupil with neither the necessary skills nor the courage to communicate with speakers of other languages. According to (Merisuo-Storm, 2007:226), “the use of a foreign language as a medium of instruction also in other lessons than actual language lessons can be an effective method of developing versatile language skills”.

The skill of being able to utter more than one language is both an advantage and also a social benefit. Christian (1994) holds that two-way programmes typically share the goals of bilingual proficiency, which is academic achievement and positive cross-cultural attitudes. Nonetheless they vary a great deal in the approach and strategy they use to move toward those goals. Two-way bilingual programs integrate language minority and language majority students and provide instruction in and through two languages for dissemination of information and for greater content understanding. It is also important for fluent speakers of English to have an opportunity to learn other languages. Christian (1994) stated that research has demonstrated that students who speak the majority language of the wider society benefit from an immersion experience for language learning and do not suffer academically when instruction is provided by means of a second language.

By uniting more than one group of students, two-way bilingual programs help to expand overall language competence by conserving and enhancing the language resources that minority students bring with them to school and promoting the learning of other languages by English speakers (Christian, 1994). This approach integrates operative and practical language teaching methods,

thus allows flexibility in teaching and enhanced content understanding for students. Christian (1994) concurs with other educational experts that language is best developed within a content-based curriculum rather than as the object of classroom instruction. By integrating students from two language groups in a classroom, two-way bilingual programs offer the language learners access to native speakers and this inspires a certain level of cohesion (Christian, 1994).

Languages and multilingualism are part and parcel of the enlarged Europe. Vez (2008) established that Europe is diverse, and for the European Union to prosper languages must be seen as bridges that give the union the means to communicate with each other, to understand each other's cultures, and to build on shared values. In effect, language becomes the very essence of cohesion rather than economic trade. This is quite important given that "The European Union is founded on 'unity in diversity': diversity of cultures, customs and beliefs -and of languages" (Vez, 2008:12).

The dominance of English in the field of research, communication, technology, science, and economics, has made it a much favoured Foreign Language (FL) over others, as a result interest in learning of other FLs has weakened in Europe. Henry and Apelgren's (2008) research into the language attitudes of pupils in Sweden, appeared to bare out the concerns about the effects of the domination of the English language globally. According to Henry and Apelgren (2008:608),

Swedish pupils are found to be very good at English, very confident in their own abilities and, of all the participating nations (Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Holland, Norway, Spain and Sweden), it was the Swedish pupils who were most positive to English, both as a language and as a school subject. However, when it comes to second FLs which, in Sweden, children start learning in the sixth grade of school (average age = 12).

Humphreys and Spratt (2008) researched the use of FLs in Hong Kong, China. The results revealed quite a distinct pattern of motivations toward the various languages. In the study, English and Putonghua (official language of the People's Republic of China) were perceived as having a greater instrumental value than other languages. English is a compulsory language in

Hong Kong schools – it plays a significant role in commerce and trade, media and popular culture. The importance of learning foreign languages has been made significant by Globalization and the need to communicate and share information.

In Canada, language immersion was established in the 1960s. Students involved in early immersion programmes gained fluency and literacy in French at no apparent cost to their English academic skills (Cummings, 1998). Within a year of the introduction of formal English language, the author found that art students catch up fast in most aspects of English standardized test performance. Usually students required additional time to catch up in English spelling but by grade 5 there were normally no differences in English test performance between immersion students and comparison groups whose instruction were entirely through English (Cummings, 1998). Genesee's (1994) research showed that second language immersion students acquire functional proficiency in French (in Canada) or in other second languages<sup>1</sup>.

## **2.2 MULTILINGUALISM IN POST-COLONIAL AFRICA**

The African continent possesses a unique story when it comes to language in general and language in education. Brock-Utne (2010) argues that in educational policy, even in policies on education for all, the role of language is seldom considered in Africa. English and French seem to dominate the language spectra in Africa. They are *lingua franca* of many African countries. The injustice done to the African people by forcing them to be educated through languages that do not resonate with them has been the concern of many African educationalists as well as of African Ministries of Education (Brock-Utne, 2010).

Educational change in Sub-Saharan Africa since the 1990's, is a diverse and complex issue (Chisholma and Leyendecker, 2008). As a result, Chisholma and Leyendecker (2008) argued that

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<sup>1</sup> Language Immersion is a method of teaching a second language in which the learners' second language (L2) is the medium of classroom instruction. Through this method, learners study school subjects, such as mathematics, science, and social studies, in their second language.

in most African countries, policy and curriculum implementation do not follow the predictable path of formulation-adoption-implementation-reformulation, but is re-contextualized through multiple processes that compromise reaching the objectives. Chisholma and Leyendecker (2008) hold that teachers' values, practices and beliefs shape the outcomes of implementation and that the way to understand implementation is to start with an examination of practice.

One of the Millennium Development Goal's attentions focused on curricula policy and practice that sought to detect the direction African policies ought to take (Chisholma and Leyendecker, 2008). A few countries in the world can claim not to be influenced by what is happening in the international landscape. The United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (2012), holds that for the MDGs to be effective, all people need to be included. Language is the key to inclusion and is at the centre of human activity, self-expression and identity. The United Nations is convinced that language is a very important instrument for the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals (Modisaotsile, 2012).

In the African context, multilingualism is not unusual; most African people speak more than one language, either as vernacular or as a mixture of vernacular and a European language, such as English and French (Bunyi, 1999:339). A related observation could be made regarding many if not all the African countries, where there is a widespread tradition of multilingualism (Wolff, 2010). In a continent where multilingualism is a norm, it is hard to believe that there are virtually no studies on early childhood language acquisition in general, and multilingualism in particular (Wolff, 2010).

Employing languages that the people themselves have mastered facilitates the transference of technology and know-how, to those who need them most. Using local languages also enhances democracy (Stroud, 2003). When children are taught in a language they understand they get to pass and improve. Language becomes valuable when a doctor is assessing a sick patient,

especially in a poor country. This means that people relate better and understand better what is communicated to them through their own language.

Globalisation has had a profound economic, political and social impact on the African continent. Stroud (2003) holds that in order to counterbalance the negative effects of globalisation local communities need to keep a firm grip on the management of language programmes. Indigenous language programmes require the support of the community, and ideally should be designed and managed by the local communities in order to succeed. In many developing contexts, including advanced economies like South Africa, educational language policies are ordered in a top-down manner, oblivious to needs and opinions of the masses (Stroud, 2003).

According to Alexander (1999), the neo-colonial language policy and practice of the overwhelming majority of independent African states is a consequence of technical, resource-related as well as class factors<sup>2</sup>. Most of the previously colonised African states never changed their state structures after independence; the state structures and patterns of governance remained unaltered (Alexander, 1999). This has been attributed to a number of factors including the lack of “trained language planners and language professionals, including teachers, lexicographers, interpreters, translators, etc.”, (Alexander, 1999:1).

Bunyi (1999) reveals that indigenous African languages have suffered de-legitimization and devaluation in education, both in colonial and post-colonial Africa. In Kenya for instance, the use of English as the medium of education contributes to differential education treatment and this perpetuated inequality. The author argues that it is the colonial languages that have enjoyed pride of place in formal education in Africa, and ironically it is indigenous African languages that continue to be neglected in the formal education of African people. In Kenya, the English language has become the language of political power and socioeconomic status (Bunyi, 1999).

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<sup>2</sup> Neo-colonial language policy, refers to the language policies adopted post-colonialism

Although Somali is the mother-tongue of over 95 per cent of the population of Somalia, the country adopted English, Italian, and Arabic as its official languages after independence in 1960. Due to disagreement and debate concerning religious, official, and political demands, no agreement could be reached with regards to an appropriate script for the Somali language (Warsame, 2001). As soon as the authoritarian military regime came to power in the 1970s, the Somali script was decided on and imposed on Somali society in a top-down approach. This is when the country's writing system was decided in favour of Latin script (i.e. it is predicated on the letters from classical Latin alphabets); it was chosen because it was considered to be phonetic, it had precise distinctions of all the sounds – vowels and consonants (both short and long), and it was considered to be grammatically sound (Warsame, 2001).

Warsame (2001) argues that developing the Somali language brought about necessary changes in the school system of Somalia. The language of instruction in school had to be Somali, which offered a great advantage to students. Thus for the first time in the history of the country and Africa, the whole of Somalia acquired a standardised educational system (Warsame, 2001). Warsame (2001) argues that the principle of “Somalisation” was by far the most ambitious and arguably the most successful policy initiative on language in Africa. Perseverance

In Sierra Leone, the language debate was reintroduced by a new Education Policy (1995) that endorsed the usage of Sierra Leonean vernaculars as a medium of instruction during the first three years of primary schooling, and as subjects of study at high schools and tertiary institutions. By its very nature, “Sierra Leone is a multilingual country with indigenous and exogenous languages” (Kamanda, 2002:196). The author holds the same view as Bunyi (1999) that language policies in Africa either aimed at a total rejection of vernacular in official administration or lacked political willingness to implement.

Hovens (2002) focused on experimental bilingualism in Nigeria and Guinea-Bissau. Both of these countries introduced temporary bilingual programmes in pilot schools and compared

assessment outcomes and pupil-teacher engagement amongst bilingual and monolingual ex-colonial language schools (Hovens, 2002). The result showed that students who were taught in bilingual settings performed better than those that were taught in monolingual ones. The author observed that the classes of schoolchildren doing bilingualism were more stimulated, interactive, and relaxed compared to their monolingual counterparts.

Few studies have been conducted in African classrooms to demonstrate how teacher-practice or malpractice impacts on education. To facilitate better education it is important that teachers and pupils use a language they both understand and are comfortable with (Alidou, Boly, Brock-Utne, Diallo, Heugh and Wolff, 2001). According to Alidou, et al (2001), multilingualism and bilingualism in Africa are a norm because on average African people speak more than one language.

## **2.3 SOUTH AFRICAN CONTEXT**

### **2.3.1 Language and Diversity in South Africa**

South Africa is a very language-conscious society. This is partially as a result of the cultural diversity that exists in the country and the racial history that precedes the current democratic dispensation. “The Bantu Education Act of 1953, brought education in South Africa under central government control” (Pluddemann, 1999:327), this affected the quality of education Africans received. The Act provided a period of four years of Mother-Tongue Education (MTE), after which instruction across the curriculum were administered through English and Afrikaans (Pluddemann, 1999).

Following the successful struggle against Afrikaans as the medium of teaching and learning, English became a dominant language in the South African public and educational spheres. English was adopted as LoLT in schools. The introduction of the 1997 language policy ushered in multilingualism to ensure the use of vernacular in education and public spaces. The policy

introduced eleven official languages. Pluddemann (1999) holds that the introduction of multilingualism and eleven official languages caused tension – this tension is evident in communities made up of different people and cultures, where every language seeks dominance over others. According to Pluddemann (1999:329),

Historically, the languages associated with the colonial occupation of South Africa, Dutch and English, enjoyed high status at the expense of the indigenous languages. Under apartheid, these inequalities were extended to entrench the dominance of Afrikaans and English in all areas of public life, as well as in the public mind.

According to Webb (1999), the South African language policies are a mismatch. That is to say there is incongruity between policy and official practice in government. In fact the rest of Africa suffers from this “mismatch” except for the successes in Tanzania and Somalia. The basis for the failure of these language policies is the lack of proper language policy implementation frameworks, Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E) tools and political will. According to Webb (1999, 357),

It is clear that serious attention must be given to the apparent inability of African governments, including the South African Government, to implement a policy of multilingualism in education in a meaningful way, that is, a policy which will lead to an appropriate and a far more meaningful role for the African languages in educational development.

In South Africa, racism goes hand and glove with language discrimination and ethnic division. Painter and Baldwin (2004) in their study found that racism remains a reality in modern South Africa. Racism has persisted even in democratic societies where discrimination is illegal and human rights are entrenched. Language diversity always has elements of oppression especially in contexts where certain languages claim dominance over others. Alexander (1989) notes that the language question, like that of colour is one that confronts South Africans in every public social space.

Speaking one's language of choice forms part of the constitutional right to freedom of expression. One can choose to express him/herself in whatever language s/he chooses. According to Act 108 of the 1996 Constitution of South Africa, everyone has the right to use any of the eleven languages and to participate in the cultural activity of their choice. Contrary to the constitutional principle of language parity, language practices in virtually all of the country's institutions point to a different reality (Kamwangamalu, 2000; Beukes, 2009). Currently there is language hegemony in South Africa where English dominates. There is an unofficial hierarchical rank and it constitutes English at the top, Afrikaans in the middle, and African languages at the bottom (Kamwangamalu, 2000; Beukes, 2009).

### **2.3.2 South African Language Policy (Two Schools of Thought)**

The Department of Basic Education (DBE) embraced the implementation of the vernacular policy in basic education because it held, it was long overdue. The main argument of the DBE was that the introduction of vernacular policy will create cohesion in a highly divided society (Mtshali, 2013). Davis (2013) reported that the department's argument is underpinned by the conviction that introducing the vernacular policy in education could create an environment where students are taught in a language they understand, appreciate and are most comfortable with. In addition the DBE seeks to preserve language and culture through basic education; this could be a success story if the policy is implemented willingly and correctly, to provide unity and inclusiveness. Social cohesion is one of the reasons the DBE wanted to start introducing the vernacular policy. The move within basic education is paralleled by at least one initiative in higher education, as the department follows in the footsteps of the University of KwaZulu-Natal (Davis, 2013). The University of KwaZulu-Natal introduced isiZulu as a compulsory module for all first year students in 2014.

The Minister of Basic Education in a report by Mtshali (2013) claimed that learning outcomes were poor because of low language proficiency and poor academic literacy in underprivileged schools. According to Mveli (2013 cited in Davis, 2013), research has confirmed this on various occasions, but very little has been done by institutions or civil societies to address this problem.

Research has shown that if students are taught from an early age to use more than one language they are able to develop proficiency and can even do better than monolinguals.

A question that has been asked more often is whether language policy and weak teaching practice in the foundation phase (grades one to three) are the root cause of poor learner performance both at that level and beyond (Dale-Jones, 2013). Dampier (cited in Dale-Jones, 2013) argued that the failure of policy has been to compel learners who grow up speaking isiZulu, Sesotho, Tshivenda, and so on, to acquire English, a notoriously difficult language within a ludicrously short space of time. The author further argues that if English is so essential to South Africans, then steps should have been taken, or should be taken, to introduce the language at home because to introduce it at school is already too late. This indicates that language is not the problem that causes students to fail but the problems are multifaceted. Arguably, the introduction of the language policy will not resolve the problems in education that have persisted for a long time.

There have also been arguments about language policy and practice in relation to mathematics. Essien (2012 cited in Dale-Jones 2013) argued that swapping (code-switching) between languages in the classroom is detrimental to the learning and teaching of mathematics. That is to say transition from home language to English is a critical step for mathematics. Dale-Jones (2013) stated that one needs to mediate the transition to English as the LoLT, and there has to be competent teaching of English in grades one to three so that students do not drown in grade four. Consequently, if the policy is to be introduced, there should be an appropriate training of teachers to manage the transition into different linguistic contexts as well as the training of teacher educators. Failure to do so might spell disaster and even lead to policy failure (Dale-Jones, 2013).

Wright (2012) rejects the notion that the problem in South Africa's rural schools is the Language of Learning and Teaching. This argument counteracts the one that is held by the Department of

Basic Education. Wright's argument is that language is not a barrier in learning, is therefore not important. Wright (2012) proposes that instead of tackling the problem of education quality in rural areas head-on by re-educating and developing teachers, it has become commonplace for people, even experts to overlook the importance of teacher training and capacity building. Similarly, Silva (1997) holds that the reality is that the high cost of multilingualism is beyond the reach of South Africa, and English is the only 'neutral' national language available to government. Places like the University of Stellenbosch use Afrikaans as a language of teaching and learning.

### **2.3.3 Barriers to Vernacular Language in Basic Education in South Africa**

Much has been written about the dominant role of English in South Africa. There is a perception that there is a large-scale shift towards the use of English at the expense of local Languages (Dyers, 2008). The shift is far more marked in middle-class and upwardly mobile black and mixed-race families in South Africa (Dyers, 2008). The socio-economic status of these families compels these two groups to be exposed to different kinds of influences which include language. The parents of these middle-class families send their children to multi-racial schools to be taught in either Afrikaans or English, because there is a wide belief that these multi-racial schools have "good" education compared to township and rural schools where blacks dominate.

According to a study by the South African Institute of Race Relations (SAIRR), more than 60% of South African pupils choose English as their LoLT (SAIRR, 2012). In numerical arrangement, 7.6 million pupils wanted to be taught in English even though isiZulu was the most widely spoken home language, which more than 3.1 million pupils speak, the survey indicated (SAIRR, 2012). However, less than a third of these pupils chose to be taught in isiZulu. The same trend was true of other vernaculars. The decline in the use of African languages was as a result of choices that parents made early on in their children's' schooling careers (SAIRR, 2012). When white schools were opened to black pupils in the early 90s, black parents sent their kids in their numbers to former white-only schools, not just for a superior education, but more importantly, so that they could be proficient in English (Dlanga, 2011). The argument continues that some parents went so far as forbidding their children from speaking their mother-tongue but English at

home (Dlanga, 2011). This is the case because some parents believe that their children get better if they are proficient in English.

Shortage of teachers has always been a stumbling block in basic education. There are always not enough teachers, equipment or materials to carry out the duties of education. There are almost 25 000 schools in the country with an average of 500 pupils in each. For a new subject to be introduced each school would need to employ at least two new teachers to teach it; which accumulates to approximately 50 000 new teaching positions (Mtshali, 2013). Mtshali (2013) hold that this shortage of teachers is not only in terms of the number of teachers able to teach but the number of teachers who are already teaching but are not in support of the policy and will be unwilling to implement it. A shortage of teachers may also mean willing teachers that do not have the support and necessary information to implement the language policy. Thus government needs to own up as to why the National Language Policy is not flourishing in practice. The formulators of the policy undoubtedly misconstrue the dilemmas facing teachers on daily basis, particularly in the rural language classroom (Wright, 2012).

## **CONCLUSION**

The Literature review has opened up a wide range of issues. The chapter began with a broad review of multilingualism from an international perspective, narrowed it down to an Africa language perspective and further down to the South African experience. Research has been done on language policies, but more research needs to be done on language policy implementation. This literature revealed that South Africa has a unique legacy of multilingualism, and all users of endorsed languages ought to be given the opportunity to practice and develop their language without any hindrance. The next chapter deals with the theoretical framework which delimits the bounds of this research. It focuses on the theory of street-level bureaucrats, and incorporates discretion/autonomy and copying mechanism.

# CHAPTER THREE

## Theoretical Framework

### Implementation, Street-Level Bureaucrats Theory, Discretion and Coping Mechanisms

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#### INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the theoretical framework that was used in the study. This research is based on public policy implementation; thus the chapter begins with a general discussion on public policy implementation. Of particular importance is the role played by implementers in policy implementation. These are followed by a review of the roles street level bureaucrats play in the implementation of public policy. The chapter discusses how street-level bureaucrats use their autonomy and discretion as coping mechanisms in policy implementation.

#### 3.1 IMPLEMENTATION

Public policy is indispensable for any government. Government conduct is communicated and expressed through this process. The ideology and paradigm of any political party in government is proposed through laws and policies. Consequently, the role of government in facilitating appropriate implementation cannot be emphasised enough.

Public policy is a statement of intent or an action plan to transform a perceived problem into a future solution (Cloete and de Coning, 2011). Hill (1997) sees public policy simply as a decision, one that embodies the idea of action (rational action) or inaction; a decision-making process which produces change and responds to resistance of change. For Dye (2013:3), “Public policy may regulate behaviour, organize bureaucracies, distribute benefits, or extract taxes – or all of

these things at once” (Dye, 2013:3). This view categorises public policy into distributive, regulatory, self-regulatory and redistributive policies. Public policy making is a process of evolution, involving distinctive stages (series of activities) or a cycle (Hill, 1997). The policy process is a manifestation of the political system. A regime in power exercises its authority through the use of policies. Though public policy happens in stages it is still far from being a neat, step-by step process; rather the process happens simultaneously, each part collapsing into the others (Dye, 2013).

It is significant to discuss what public policy tries to achieve before, during and after implementation. Mazmanian and Sabatier (1989) hold that the problem with implementation is that the outcome is usually quite different from the original intent. This is caused by the fact that the implementation process involves many stakeholders that have their own ideas of how the policy ought to be implemented. Until a policy is implemented no stakeholder understands or can foresee the challenges ahead, they can only speculate. This is why Parsons (1995:461) argues that “Implementation is deceptively simple: it does not appear to involve any great issues”. Furthermore, Parsons (1995) argues that public policy is not limited to intended courses of action but can sometimes have unintended outcomes. The implementation of public policy can impact people in a way government never envisaged or planned and that impact could have positive or negative consequences.

According to Mazmanian and Sabatier (1989), there are two ways to understand public policy implementation. The first is through the practitioners who want to know about the implementation process in order to decide which instruments need to be considered and which levers need to be pulled for the program to work. The second is through the human behaviour and organizations that implement the action policy rather than the specific instruments and levers that policy makers can manipulate. The second approach is informed by the realization that there are different experiences amid policy makers at the top and bottom.

Programme implementation is concerned with what happens to a policy or a program after its formulation and adoption stage (Matland, 1995). Lane (1987) holds that implementation has a double meaning. It implies giving practical effect or execution on one hand and the fulfilment of task on the other hand. Colebatch (2002) defines implementation as first a vertical process where implementation decisions authorized at the top (also known as forward mapping) coincide exactly with outcomes at the bottom and the horizontal dimension where implementation is a shift from desired outcome to the process and the people through which it would be accomplished. Implementation in this sense is a series of activities undertaken by government, its institutions and employees to achieve the goals and objectives articulated in policy statements (Tummers and Bekkers, 2012). According to O'Toole (2000), policy implementation is what develops between the establishment of an apparent intention on the part of government to do something, or to stop doing something, and the ultimate impact in the world. The act of implementation is a multi-organizational practice, which makes it a "muddled through" process (Lindblom, 1959).

According to Mazmaniana and Sabatier (1989), implementation is concerned with the degree to which the actions of implementing officials and target groups coincide with the goals embodied in an authoritative decision. In implementation analysis, the top-down and the bottom-up are the two classical approaches that are often employed. The top-down model takes the statutory mandate as its starting point. Consequently, it places "emphasis on clarity, rule promulgation, and monitoring which brings to mind the Weberian bureaucrat making independent decisions based on merit and technical criteria, free from political influence" (Matland, 1995:148). This approach is often used to analyse and explain government policies. The top-down model is known for its exclusive emphasis on the statute of framers as key actors in the domain of policy cycles. This is why the approach views "local actors as impediments to successful implementation, agents whose shirking behaviour needs to be controlled" (Matland, 1995:148).

### **3.1.1 Top-Down Rational System Approach**

Public policy is mostly an initiative from central government; decision-makers do not act alone in the policy process. Colebatch (2002) holds that public policy is a continuous process and that the initiative does not necessarily always have to come from the top. However there are some scholars that think that there are people at the top who are well suited to find the appropriate means of achieving some given ends (Harsanyi, 1969 cited in Miyakawa, 1999).

Scholars hold that the top-down approach to policy making is an elitist model which focuses on the role of leaders in business, finance, media, and government (Dye, 2013). “Top-down theorists see policy designers as the central actors and concentrate their attention on factors that can be manipulated at the central level” (Matland, 1995:146). This implies that policy makers in the central government know best what the people on the ground need. This is why Pressman and Wildavsky (1973 cited in Parsons, 1995) argue that the rational model is imbued with the idea that implementation is about getting people to do what they are told, and keeping control over a sequence of a programme of control which minimizes conflict and deviation from the goals set by the initial policy hypothesis.

The introduction of the language policy in South African basic education is a top-down initiative. The top-down approach to such a policy might prove to be cumbersome as the introduction of Outcomes Based Education unsuspectingly fell apart because no consultative process was followed to include teachers who are key players in the implementation of any policy related to basic education (Alexander, 2003). Agreeably, OBE did work in other countries such as Canada and Australia, but these countries are far more developed than South Africa and the gap between the rich and the poor is one thing that undermined OBE in South Africa.

This top-down model downplays the importance of lower-level actors in the policy cycle. Parsons (1995) holds that the rational choice is essentially a prescriptive theory in the sense that it may be found in scientific management because too much emphasis is placed on the definition

of goals by the top rather than the workers at street level. Authority figures like ministers may be trying to pass directives down the line, but lower-level participants may be trying to pass business up the line, seeking authoritative endorsement for their plans to improve implementation (Colebatch, 2002). As a result of these weaknesses of the top-down approach, Matland (1995) argues that the top-down perspective is more appropriate in the early planning stages.

### **3.1.2 Bottom-Up**

According to Lipsky (2010), a more realistic understanding of implementation can be gained by looking at a policy from the view of the target population and the service deliverer. That is to say, policy must be meaningful to the clients (pupils in this study). Sabatier (1986) argues that, in contrast to the top-down approach which focuses on policy decisions made at the top, the bottom-up approach of Hjern *et al* (1981 cited in Sabatier, 2008), identifies the network of actors involved in service delivery in one or more local areas and asks them about their goals, strategies, activities and contacts. This kind of approach views implementation from the perspective of relevant stakeholders. Key proponents of the bottom-up approach call this “backward mapping”, in which the implementation process and other relationships are mapped backwards from implementer to highest policy designers (Birkland, 2011). The author argues further, that the bottom-uppers recognize that goals are ambiguous rather than explicit, and that conflicts not only with goals in the same policy area, but with norms and motivations of the street-level bureaucrats are inevitable. Teachers in this regard play a very important role as they implement each policy according to what they deem appropriate for their situation.

## **3.2 STREET-LEVEL BUREAUCRATS THEORY**

Most forms of policy implementation depend on street-level bureaucrats for execution. Street-level Bureaucrat is a term coined by Michael Lipsky in the 1980s to describe the actors at the low end of the implementation chain; such as teachers, social workers, medical personnel and police officers, who implement policies at the point of contact with the policy’s target population

(Lipsky, 2010). The essence of these actors is that they are constantly torn by the demands of service recipients to improve effectiveness, responsiveness, value and efficiency of service delivery (Lipsky, 2010). Consequently, the role of street-level bureaucrats in the implementation of policy can never be overlooked. Hill (1997) suggests that policy may fail for one of a variety of reasons related to implementers' knowledge and expertise. "The policy-making roles of street-level bureaucrats are built upon two interrelated facets of their positions: Relatively high degrees of discretion and relative autonomy from organizational authority" (Lipsky, 2010:13).

Hudson (1997) argues what is important in public policy is the concentration upon the behaviour of street level personnel – those actors who do the actual work. Lipsky (2010) further argues that street-level bureaucrats are partly policy makers, as they exercise wide discretion in decisions and this permits them to make policy – their individual actions add up to organizational behaviour. Similarly, Colebatch (2002) holds that those who give effect to policy also shape what it is. Hence teachers like other street-level bureaucrats exercise discretion and this means that formulated policies are different from implemented policies, since these street level personnel add their variations to the policy depending on their attitudes and other contextual factors.

Lipsky (2010) believed that street-level bureaucrats make policy in two related respects. Firstly they exercise wide discretion in decisions and this permits them to make policy with respect to significant aspects of their interactions with citizens. Secondly, their individual actions add up to agency behaviour. Street level discretion promotes workers' self-regard and encourages clients to believe that bureaucrats hold the key to their well-being.

To a large extent, street-level bureaucrats are consistently criticized for their inability to provide responsive and appropriate service (Lipsky, 2010). Like other policy makers they work under environments which condition the way they perceive problems and frame solutions. However these conditions may not always be present. Lipsky (2010) holds that some of these street-level bureaucrats often experience their jobs in terms of inadequate personal resources, even when part of that inadequacy is attributable to the nature of the job rather than rooted in some personal

failure. Street-level bureaucrats work with inadequate resources in circumstances where the demand will always increase to meet the supply of service. According to Lipsky (2010) street-level workers have broad discretion with respect to the utilization of resources. Appropriately, they can never be exempted from the implications of significant complaint and accountability.

This conceptual framework is fundamentally important as it addresses directly the implementers on the ground, the job they do and the multifaceted nature of their challenges. Public servants play a crucial role in translating government intension into service. Lipsky (2010) holds that although public servants are normally regarded as low-level employees, they contribute fundamentally in public service; they constitute service delivery. Teachers in public schools translate policy into action. Consequently, their actions or inactions have a potential to affect policy outcomes.

### **3.2.1 DISCRETION AND AUTONOMY**

Often the rules to implement do not always apply to specific situations. In response to this disjuncture, line workers develop coping mechanisms. They simplify the nature of their job or assume routines so that they feel they are doing their job; this is possible because they have a certain degree of discretion or autonomy in their work (Tummers and Bekkers, 2012). Evans (2010 cited in Tummers and Bekkers, 2012) notes that, for workers discretion can be seen as the amount of freedom the implementer can exercise in a specific context.

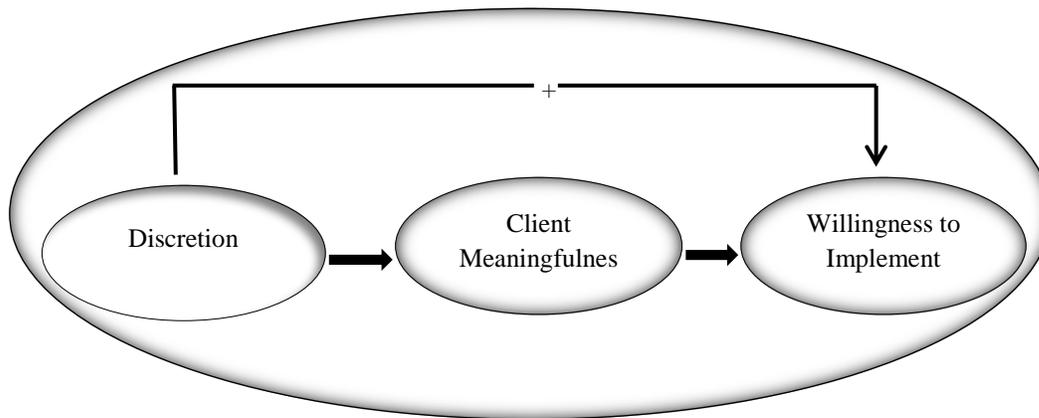
When street-level Bureaucrats feel they do not have enough discretion their willingness to implement policy is negatively affected (Tummers and Bekkers, 2012). Furthermore, when street-level bureaucrats experience more discretion their client meaningfulness is positively influenced. Client meaningfulness speaks of the insight of professionals about the benefits they enjoy for implementing the policy for their own clients. Thus they need to be convinced that they are helping their clients by implementing the policy (Tummers and Bekkers, 2012). This is to say

implementers can see that the policy will contribute to the welfare of the clients. This realization induces them to do more when it comes to implementing the policy.

### **3.2.2 Discretion**

Discretion concerns the perceived freedom of policy implementers in terms of the type, quality and quantity of sanctions and rewards delivered (Lipsky, 2010). According to Lipsky (2010), street-level bureaucrats are professionals. The assertion that they exercise considerable discretion is fairly obvious. Irrespective of their ineffectuality at times, they sometimes become so astute in their jobs that they acquire specialist status. Street-level bureaucrats work in jobs characterized by relatively high degrees of discretion and regular interaction with citizens (Lipsky, 2010). Street-level bureaucrats would not be able to do their work properly if they did not have discretion. Bottom-up models lay great emphasis on the fact that street-level implementers have discretion in how they apply policy (Parsons, 1995). Furthermore, “It is argued that when street-level bureaucrats have a certain degree of discretion the policy will be made more meaningful for the clients” (Tummers and Bekkers, 2014:3). In this regard meaningfulness is related to the concept of usefulness i.e. policy should be useful to the client for street-level bureaucrats to implement wilfully.

**Figure 3.2.1.1 Proposed theoretical framework regarding the two main effects of discretion**



Source (Tummers and Bekkers, 2012:8)

### 3.2.2.1 Client Meaningfulness

Implementation is only important to teachers if it is meaningful and useful to their clients (pupils). Teachers will ensure failure of any policy if it was considered as being detrimental to their pupils. Client meaningfulness is the perception among street-level bureaucrats that their implementing of a policy has value for their own clients. Client meaningfulness is therefore about the perception of the street-level bureaucrat vis-à-vis their clients (Tummers and Bekkers, 2012).

### 3.2.2.2 Willingness to Implement

Another aspect of street-level bureaucrats' role is their desire to maintain and expand their autonomy (Lipsky, 2010:10). This aspect contributes a share towards the will to implement as long as the discretion granted by the policy is also enhanced. Lipsky (2010) holds that there are three reasons why discretion is important for street-level bureaucrats when they do their job. First, their work situations are too complicated to be reduced to rigid program formats; secondly, the work they deal with require a certain level of judgment on the job and circumstantial

flexibility is indispensable; and thirdly, discretion promotes workers' self-regard and encourages clients to believe that workers hold the key to their well-being (Lipsky, 2010).

At street level, bureaucrats noticeably create capacities to act with discretion and hang on to discretion capacities they have enjoyed in the past (Lipsky, 2010). This tool can be useful when new policies come into effect, but it is potentially destructive to other policies such as regulatory policies that do not tolerate insubordination or disregard of the chain of command. Street-level Bureaucrats cope with their demanding jobs by privately modifying the scope of their authority. As a result they provide service alternatives through rationalization to meet the shortcomings of the policy head-on by contextualizing the policy.

Accountability is complicated in street-level bureaucracy because workers at street level are hard to control. Responsible discretion is thus required of those who deliver policy. Due to diminished accountability, street-level bureaucrats are a hard group to monitor and control, and this means that discretion is susceptible to abuse. Thus these workers may indeed make policy in the sense that their separate discretionary and unsanctioned behaviour add up to patterned agency behaviour overall (Lipsky, 2010). Due to their position "street-level bureaucrats are widely expected to exercise discretion in the course of their work, managers must design ways to insure accountability" (Lipsky, 2010:221).

### **3.2.3 COPING MECHANISMS**

One of the important strategies that street-level implementers develop is the ability to assess the clients they serve and this gives them a head start (Lipsky, 2010:152). In consequence an open classroom requires an assessment of the clients. The coping mechanisms street-level bureaucrats develop are often unsanctioned by managers of their agencies (Lipsky, 2010:180). According to Nielsen (2006:863), "Coping mechanisms are not just a way to avoid frustration, but also a way

to gain satisfaction”. The exercise of creating coping mechanisms brings a sense of ownership of the policy that brings satisfaction to the implementer as they feel they are effecting change.

According to Halliday, Burns, Hutton, Mcneill, and Tata (2009:406),

The coping mechanisms suggested by Lipsky are three-fold; first, street-level bureaucrats develop patterns of practices—routines and stereotyping—to limit demands on their time and resources; second, they modify the concept of their job to narrow the gap between objectives and resources; third, they modify the concept of their clients to render the inevitable gap between objectives and accomplishments more palatable.

These mechanisms sometimes deviate from the requirements of policy but they do make objectives achievable. These mechanisms are not always conformant to the requirements of the policy at large but they often achieve the goals. There are many issues that force teachers to use their discretion. Some are due to ambiguous policies, inadequate resources and excessive workloads.

### **3.3 STREET-LEVEL BUREAUCRAT THEORY AFTER LIPSKY**

#### **3.3.1 Sabel**

The concept of street-level bureaucrats heightened the tension between rule following and discretion. For Sabel (2010), discretion became the conventional understanding of official action into an inevitable and severely limiting constraint on administrative effectiveness and accountability. Front-line officials face decisions of intricate complexity so far removed from regulation that they habitually exercised discretion in means that cannot be effectively assessed. The one factor that might be neglected could be the negative impact made by the practice of discretion in an attempt to improve the performance of pupils by teachers, or improving the lives of people by medical practitioners. The objective is that street-level bureaucrats exercise

discretion and influence the application of policy in line with organizational concerns (Sabel, 2010). This means achieving the end goals sometimes justify the means of acquiring those goals.

### **3.3.2 Nielsen**

The behaviour of the street-level bureaucrats may either undermine the policy objectives or direct effort towards other goals than the ones chosen throughout the policy process (Nielsen, 2006). In essence the behaviour of street-level bureaucrats might not be directed at avoiding frustration for satisfactory implementation, but could be intended at reaching other ulterior interests. In addition, the failure to consider multiple interests that converge in policy implementation is a factor that often results in implementation failure. (Nielsen, 2006:865).

### **3.3.3 Halliday**

According to Halliday *et al* (2009), Lipsky's understanding of street-level bureaucrats came with the complacency of being critical of the role and duties of street-level bureaucrats. Lipsky almost overlooked the important role played by departmental control and the orders of the department. This includes going beyond the parameters that delimit the scope of the policy which often lead to ambivalent outcomes. According to Halliday *et al* (2009:406),

Part of the enduring appeal of Lipsky's work is his sympathetic portrayal of front-line officials. He captures, without criticism, the very human dilemmas and senses of alienation these officials encounter when implementing public policy. A notable aspect of this theme is Lipsky's description of coping mechanisms—general responses officials develop to deal with the challenges brought about by inadequate resources, few controls, indeterminate objectives, and discouraging circumstances.

The author claims that there is one unexplored aspect of the street-level bureaucrats' scholarship; that aspect is the engagement of public professionals with other professionals. Inter-professional engagement is an aspect of street-level bureaucracy with an increasing significance because of emphasis on multi-actor, multi-organizational, multidisciplinary, and a cooperative style of governance.

### **3.3.4 Jewell and Glaser**

Jewell and Glaser (2006) in their research on human service organizations with welfare workers appreciated how line workers interpret regulations and implement program goals in their interactions with clients, and how the decisions they make touch lives in profound ways. Due to discretion these line workers had developed ways to communicate new behavioural prospects on teaching clients frequent intricate rules governing access to related resources, develop sufficient relationships to counsel and motivate them, and identify and coordinate relevant services (Jewell and Glaser, 2006). These works demonstrated that public policy is mainly a re-enactment of the actions of frontline personnel in the implementation process.

### **3.3.5 Mutereko**

Mutereko's (2009) research focused on the implementation of the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) by teachers (street-level bureaucrats) in a private Christian school in Pietermaritzburg. The study sought to explore the levels of discretion, autonomy and coping mechanisms employed by school teachers at a private school in the implementation of the NCS (Mutereko, 2009). The author focused on the experience of teachers in determining the extent of their discretion when it comes to implementing the NSC. The author's theoretical framework of street-level bureaucrats neglected the importance of client meaningfulness in the sense that teachers' discretion was also determined by the usefulness of policy for their clients. According to Tummers and Bekkers (2014) client meaningfulness is about the perception of the street-level bureaucrat that a policy is valuable for clients. If the policy is not beneficial its implementation is stalled. Nonetheless the omission can be attributed to the fact that discretion does not have a theoretical framework nor does autonomy and coping mechanism.

## **CONCLUSION**

The objective of the theoretical and conceptual framework was to demonstrate an understanding of concepts and theories which are important to the topic of this research paper. This research focuses on implementation, thus the use of street-level bureaucracy theory was appropriate and

fitting. The concept of discretion is given an analytic model which includes client meaningfulness and willingness to implement. This chapter also examined research and developments in the theory of street-level bureaucrat after Michael Lipsky. The chapter that follows looks at the research methodology.

# CHAPTER FOUR

## Methodology

### Research Design, Study Population, Sampling Frame, and Limitations

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#### INTRODUCTION

This chapter contains the research design which gives the justification as to the relevance of qualitative research instead quantitative research in this study. It describes the study population, sampling frame and gives the structure of the interview questions (semi-structured interviews). Finally, it gives in a nutshell the approach adopted for data analysis.

#### 4.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

##### 4.1.1 Qualitative research

Qualitative research method is appropriate for this study because it aimed to explore perceptions towards the introduction of vernacular policy in basic education (Terre Blanche, Durrheim, and Painter, 2006). Kumar (2012) states study designs in qualitative research are more appropriate for exploring the variation and diversity in any aspect of social life, whereas in quantitative research they are more suited to finding out the extent and diversity of this variation. Furthermore, qualitative research aim “to understand, explain, explore, discover and clarify situations, feelings, perceptions, attitudes, values, beliefs and experiences of a group of people” (Kumar, 2012:104).

Qualitative method is flexible and allows for better access to detailed information through interviews. This is unlike quantitative research which deals mainly with statistical data. Terre Blanche, et al (2006) hold that quantitative research is more of an abstract exercise. This makes it

difficult to capture the deep sentiments of participants. Qualitative research, however, tells a great deal about the experiences and perceptions of respondents (Terre Blanche et al., 2006).

This design is adequate, appropriate and applicable to this study. According to Mack, Macqueen, Guest, and Namey (2011:1-2),

The strength of qualitative research is its ability to provide complex textual descriptions of how people experience a given research issue. It provides information about the “human” side of an issue – that is, the often contradictory behaviours, beliefs, opinions, emotions, and relationships of individuals. Qualitative methods are also effective in identifying intangible factors, such as social norms, socioeconomic status, gender roles, ethnicity, and religion. Qualitative research can help us to interpret and better understand the complex reality of a given situation and the implications of quantitative data.

Quantitative research, though an excellent tool for structured research was not fitting for this research since “in quantitative research, the measurements and classification requirement of the information that is gathered demand that study designs are more structured, rigid, fixed and predetermined in their use to ensure accuracy in measurement and classification” (Kumar, 2012: 104 ). For this study the voice of the participants is more important since the research is based on the attitudes of teachers towards the language policy. Quantitative research is very often limited by the use of hypothesis which needs to be proven or disproved, and this limits the information that could be gathered from participants.

According to Mack et al (2011), the three most common qualitative methods explained in detail in respective modules are participant observation, in-depth interviews and focus groups. Each method is particularly suited for obtaining a specific type of data. This study focused on using in-depth interviews, as “in-depth interviews are optimal for collecting data on individuals’ personal histories, perspectives, and experiences, particularly when sensitive topics are being explored” (Mack, et al, 2011). This study focused on the individual experience of teachers. In qualitative research design, data collection and research questions are adjusted according to the needs of the research (Huberman and Miles, 2002).

One advantage of qualitative methods in exploratory research is the use of open-ended questions. This gives participants the opportunity to respond in their own words rather than forcing them to choose from fixed responses as the quantitative method does (Mack, et al: 2011). Open-ended questions of qualitative research have the ability to induce replies that are expressive and prominent to the participant, sometimes unanticipated by the researcher. This study design invoked an intricate web of unexplored and under investigated issues.

#### **4.1.2 Exploratory Research**

This is when a study is carried out with the aim to either explore an area where little is known or to investigate the possibilities of undertaking a particular research study. According to (Terre Blanche et al., 2006:44), “Exploratory studies are designed as open and flexible investigations”. This study’s rationale was based on the exploration of public servants’ (teachers) perceptions towards the vernacular policy. It was important in this study to use exploratory research since it is ideal for small-scale study.

#### **4.2 STUDY POPULATION**

The study was carried out in four schools (two of these schools are rural schools while the other two are urban schools) in the eThekweni municipality. The reason for having two schools from a rural area is the fact that rural schools are most affected by government initiatives, and programmes (Modisaotsile, 2012). One of the schools was a multiracial high school from a suburb within the municipality, and another a township high school from one of the local townships. The other two schools were rural high schools within the eThekweni metro.

## **4.3 SAMPLING FRAME**

### **4.3.1 Non-Probability Sampling**

The sampling strategy used in this study is non-probability sampling. This strategy does not employ the rules of probability theory, it does not ensure representativeness, and is mostly used in exploratory research (Sarantakos, 2005). It was considered appropriate because this study is exploratory in nature. Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2005) stated that non-probability samples may be especially useful in pilot studies in which a preliminary form of a questionnaire has to be tested. Qualitative studies use non-probability sampling because the number of elements in a population is either unknown or cannot be individually identified (Kumar, 2012).

Teachers were selected for being an integral part of the education system, which makes them an obvious and convenient choice for studies related to the education system. Teachers in their profession are an easily accessible population. According to Welman, et al (2005), non-probability sampling is frequently used for reasons of convenience and economy.

### **4.3.2 Purposive Sampling Technique**

Participants in this study were selected by means of purposive sampling. According to Terre Blanche, *et al* (2006), the technique of sampling depends not only on availability of participants but on their willingness to participate. Purposive sampling is “used in exploratory research or in field research” (Neuman, 2011:276). This allows the researcher to select relevant subjects for the project (Sarantakos, 2005). Race and experience are a contributing factor in this study as teachers with many years in teaching resent change, while other races that have teachers that speak only the English language find it very hard to adapt to linguistic changes and even to adopt to other languages (Silva, 1997). Selecting teachers on the basis of age was excluded on ethical basis, since for some people age tends to be a sensitive issue, which could lead to an emotive response rather than a rational one. Thus it was relevant to use the number of years teaching as a selection criterion.

All teachers from all four schools that have taught for more than fifteen years were interviewed, and only the teachers meeting this criterion were interviewed because of their deep understanding of the challenges and hardships in the teaching profession (Child, 2013). In addition, older teachers tend to be resistant to change, especially change that is related to their style of teaching. Most of these older teachers have created routines with regard to how they teach – embracing a form of change to these teachers is like abandoning a cultural commitment (Davis, 2013).

Although teachers are affected differently based on the subjects they teach, the selection of teachers within the school was based on the common variable of experience. Four teachers from each school were purposively selected. In selecting these teachers, it was paramount that each of these teachers specialised in teaching one subject to avoid duplication and redundancy. In total, four teachers were selected from each of the identified four schools resulting in a total sample of sixteen respondents that were interviewed.

#### **4.4 RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS**

Data collection was based on in-depth interviews, which contained semi-structured interview questions. The reason for using interviews is that they “yield insights into people’s biographies, experience, opinions, values, aspirations, attitudes and feelings” (May, 2001:120). This method allows a researcher to formulate questions as they come to mind around the issue being investigated (Kumar, 2012). Semi-structured interviews allow the interviewer to use probes with a view to clearing up vague responses, or to ask for elaborative answers. These are not possible when using a survey (Welman, et al., 2005).

## **4.5 DATA ANALYSIS**

Data collected for this study were analysed thematically. According to Terre Blanche, et al (2006:338) “Thematising is another way of summarizing text, by reading through a body of material and identifying recurrent themes or categories”, and these themes are presented as discourse. Thematic analysis is a method for identifying, analysing, and reporting patterns within data (Braun and Clarke, 2013). Thematic analysis goes beyond calculating obvious words or expressions; concentrates on detecting and dissecting both hidden and unhidden ideas contained in the data. Thematic analysis focuses on identifiable patterns of behaviour. Inductive approach in analysis was used (Hennink, Bailey and Hunter, 2011). The inductive approach is based on the assessment of a body of material and identifying recurrent themes or categories (Terre Blanche, et al, 2006).

## **4.6 LIMITATIONS OF STUDY**

This research undertook an exploratory outlook on a significant national vernacular policy in South African public schools and was conducted in eThekweni Municipality. As a consequence of the methodology, the study encountered a number of limitations presented below:

- Cancellation of interviews at short notice. As a remedial measure, some teachers had to be replaced. Though some of these teachers were a second or a third choice, the information they gave was plausible, dependable and expansive.
- Choosing participants on the bases of experience in teaching was a reasonable limitation as the perspectives of new recruits in the teaching profession would have been valuable. Nonetheless, the more experienced teachers gave rather detailed information based on their experience in implementing previous policies. This served to suggest that the more experienced teachers had more to share, and their selection was vindicated.
- The gatekeepers (in this case, principals) ensured that the interview process was strictly monitored and some of the questions were censored due to stringent supervision by the

principals. However this issue was later addressed by conducting interviews after school hours.

## **CONCLUSION**

This chapter has described the research design used in this research. The methodology of this research was guided by the research title, objectives of the study, key questions, and research design. The research targeted four schools in rural and urban areas. This was done to compare the perceptions of teachers from rural, township and suburban schools within eThekweni municipality. The interview process was integral for gathering important information in order to capture detailed data and nuanced responses, which gave a full scope of the individual's perceptions towards the policy. The following chapter presents the findings of the research.

# CHAPTER FIVE

## Data Presentation

### Interpretation Context, Vernacular Dynamics and Language Institutions

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#### INTRODUCTION

This chapter covers the data interpretation process. This interpretation revolves around three major themes 1) Interpretation Context which deals with the reactions of respondents; 2) Language and Interpersonal Relations which involves issues of underdeveloped vernacular and development of vernacular; 3) the Role of Language and Institutions; the role of language in the South African society, as it brings to the fore the importance of institutions in dealing with issues of language preservation and vernacular development thereof.

#### 5.1 INTERPRETATION CONTEXT

Due to the anonymity clause, names of all the teachers and schools were omitted in presenting the findings of the research. In addition, names of respondents were also omitted and replaced with the following codes:

##### **Township School**

Participant one from Township school = T1

Participant two from Township school = T2

Participant three from Township school = T3

Participant four from Township school = T4

## Rural Schools

Participant one from rural school = R1

Participant two from rural school = R2

Participant three from rural school =R3

Participant four from rural school = R4

Participant five from rural school = R5

Participant six from rural school = R6

Participant seven from rural school = R7

Participant eight from rural school R8

## Suburb School

Participant one from suburb school = S1

Participant two from suburb school = S2

Participant three from suburb school = S3

Participant four from suburb school = S4

**5.1.1 Table 1: Participants' Demographics**

<b>Number of Participants</b>	<b>Race</b>	<b>School Location</b>	<b>Method</b>
Four	All black	One Township school	Interview
Eight	All black	Two rural schools	Interview
Four	Two Indians and two Caucasians	One Suburb	Interview

### 5.1.2 Table 2: Participants' Table

<b>Coded Participants</b>	<b>School Location</b>	<b>Respondents' Race</b>
T1	Township	Black
T2	Township	Black
T3	Township	Black
T4	Township	Black
R1	Rural	Black
R2	Rural	Black
R3	Rural	Black
R4	Rural	Black
R5	Rural	Black
R6	Rural	Black
R7	Rural	Black
R8	Rural	Black
S1	Suburb	Caucasian
S2	Suburb	Caucasian
S3	Suburb	Indian
S4	Suburb	Indian

### 5.1.3 Perception/Reaction of Respondents to the Policy Announcement

In exploring the personal views of teachers about the policy, it emerged that there is a negative perception of the policy. For instance, (T1) noted that the policy was attempts by government merely to treat the symptoms of the problem. The major concern was that the introduction of the policy will result in increased failure rates for pupils, especially those in rural and township areas (S4). (S4) stated that the policy was a recast of old ideas that failed in the past.

Teachers were frustrated by the fact that the DBE did not consult the relevant stakeholders before announcing the policy on language in 2013. They claimed that the department was

responding to political and internal pressures to perform and to improve the pass rate and the minister was personally feeling the seriousness of the situation. As a result, the department came up with a superficial attempt at fixing a recurring problem of increased failure rates amid pupils. (S2) noted that *“the Department of Basic Education is moving far ahead of its time”*. (S3) claimed that the *“University of KwaZulu-Natal had put pressure on the Department of Basic Education for not investing on the development of vernacular for all these years”*. According to these participants, the department had hastily moved to try and parallel the university’s resourcefulness on the issue of vernacular development and had hastily done so without any due consideration.

Most respondents noted that the DBE sometimes blatantly ignored the views of the SGBs, principals, HODs and teachers. This view is apparent in the fact that the department ignored all the concerns of translation raised by teachers (T4). One of the major concerns was that the language policy will, to some extent undermine and even oppress other languages, especial if the discretion to choose a vernacular language rested with the SGBs.

The DBE favours central planning when it comes to policies in basic education. According to (R2), *“Government is unnecessarily imposing itself, by trying to control every aspect of basic education, yet it fails to deliver textbooks timely to most of these rural and township schools”*. Top-down approach to policy formulation is one of the major causes of public policy failure in basic education (Dye, 2013). Hitherto, backward making has not been considered as a likely alternative for policy formulation in basic education.

Participants in the study noted that some interventions in basic education seem to be done through shortsighted policies or merely formulated to achieve certain objectives. Thus (T4) argued that this particular policy was motivated by ulterior motives: *“there are clandestine reasons for this policy”* (T4). The claim was that the policy had nothing to do with improving the failure rate of pupils but was based on furthering the minister’s political career.

## 5.2 LANGUAGE AND INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS

### 5.2.1 Language Development

Most teachers did not see the implementation of this language policy succeeding without proper support. This is supported by (R5's) statement that *“this policy is bound to create problems for students as full language translation has not been achieved in isiZulu or any other vernacular except for the so called Afrikaans”*. Vernaculars are the least developed languages in South Africa and without any doubt harnessing an undeveloped language requires a huge amount of resources (i.e. teaching equipment, time, human capital and finance). Respondent (T3) indicated that *“students will fail because their proficiency in either of the languages (English and isiZulu) will be substantially affected”*. Thus attempts to use isiZulu as a language of teaching and learning is hindered by lack of terms, definitions, and translation.

The general consensus amongst teachers was that there is a lack of planning towards the compulsory vernacular policy and other policies in the department. They claimed that the policy is a short-sighted and premature attempt to increase pass rates of learners without any due consideration to the quality of education. This could be a huge problem for teachers since vernaculars do not have enough terminology to be used as a formal language of basic education let alone academic learning. Some also felt that there are no significant gains for students – viewing the policy as being irrelevant to students at this moment. Others noted the policy will cripple the progress teachers have made in helping their pupils to pass, as a consequence defeat the purpose of teaching. The argument from (T4) was that the Minister of Basic Education is trying to leave a vacuous legacy since the DBE had previously failed dismally to successfully implement policies such as National Senior Certificate (NSC), Outcome-Based Education and the National Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement. The teachers from the multiracial schools included in the study attested that the failure of students is sometimes caused by poorly qualified teachers (S1 and S3). A group of 253 mathematics teachers from KwaZulu-Natal performed dismally when tested with a past matric paper; where the average pass mark was 57

per cent, and a third of them receiving below 39 per cent (Bansilal, Brijlall and Mkhwanazi, 2014)

Equipping teachers for the implementation of new policies has always been a challenge for the DBE. According to (R7), some “*teachers lack knowledge in English, translation and crucial writing skills*”. Due to the nature of the policy, (R8) said that “*failure rates on critical subjects such as science, mathematics, and natural science would significantly affect pupils’ performance*”. Thus the translation of such subject jargons is a requisite for the proper implementation of any language policy. It is therefore not surprising that (R1) made the following statement: “*I would find it very challenging to explain for students, as well as I should; I find myself failing to do my job properly sometimes*”. In addition, (T3) noted that one of the things teachers will do is “*put in extra hours; but my growing concern is that we never get paid for the extra effort we put in*”. Teachers take it upon themselves to make sure the policy is implemented as per the department’s requirement. They are willing to improvise since the DBE has showed no signs of entrenching mechanisms to implement the vernacular policy.

### **5.2.2 Formal Vernacular**

One of the fundamental issues that hindered the progress and development of vernacular in South Africa is the fact that there is no official distinction between formal and informal vernacular. In this regard the language is susceptible to unnecessary and unexpected changes. Such inconsistencies make vernacular an unlikely candidate for teaching and learning. Respondent (T2) alluded to the fact that “*If you want to use vernacular as languages of teaching and learning, you must first make a distinction between spoken and unspoken isiZulu. Then you must make sure that there is formal and Informal isiZulu and that will give the language the dignity and respect it so deserves*”. The usability of vernacular as a scholarly language is predicated on it being formal enough to assume the position of substituting English. When language is formal it acquires authority and respectability (Child, 2013). Its recognition as a formal language gives it the elevation required to be used by scholars, and it also gives it a possible chance of development.

### 5.2.3 Informal Language

Some of the challenges mentioned were that indigenous languages have developmental flaws; i.e. some words have unofficial multi-pronunciations and uncertain meanings, which showed a fundamental lack of harmonization for them to be used as tools for teaching and learning. This challenge underpinned the emergence of “*Zunglish*” due to the deficiencies and inadequacies of vernacular (isiZulu). Respondent (R4) noted that “*learning is not just about passing a subject, but it is about understanding and applying the knowledge learnt*”. This respondent was concerned that the use of “*Zunglish*” was not helpful to pupils even though teachers’ were trying to ensure that learners pass, even if the use of “*Zunglish*” impairs the students’ proficiency to read, write and speak in either isiZulu or English.

The innovation from a teacher’s standpoint was an organic process which emerged out of necessity. Since educators in most rural and township schools have high proficiency in vernacular, they try to use both isiZulu and English to ensure effectiveness in teaching. The use of “*Zunglish*” is a form of code-switching. Teachers held that it is a unique form of teaching. These teachers explained code-switching as using vernacular to explain a phenomenon written in English. Accordingly, code-switching is seen as a form of unqualified translation of one language to another in a sentence format to simplify the meaning. On the other hand “*Zunglish*” is used in an even more informal manner, such that in one sentence teachers can haphazardly use both isiZulu and English words in an unstructured sequence.

As a key component of “*Zunglish*”, some of the key technical terms in a subject are unqualified derivations from the English vocabulary. For example: terms like, computer: *icomputa*; pen: *ipeni*, are commonly used “*Zunglish*” terms. These alterations are common features in the use of “*Zunglish*”; where an isiZulu prefix and suffix are added to an English base to form a new isiZulu term. For instance these words can be used in such a style in a sentence: “*Kuncono*

*ukusebensisa 'icomputa' ngoba 'ipeni' alikwazi 'ukuprogramma' ulwazi*". This translates as "it is better to use a computer than a pen because it could programme software".

"Zunglish" has an advantage over isiZulu which does not have "r" in its alphabetical table. The conspicuous absence of "r" in isiZulu means that it falls short as it does not reap the benefit of having a twenty-sixth (26<sup>th</sup>) letter in its consonants and vowels. The use of "Zunglish" is therefore good for transferring simple meanings. However, for complex text, the meaning of knowledge is mostly lost in translation. This is why (T1) pointed out that *"teachers are not professional translators, thus the job of translating for students puts extra burden on us as teachers, and no mechanisms are put in place to assist us and our learners"*. One question that arose was on the sustainability of the innovation and the possible negative or positive impact it has on the pupil's ability to read, write and speak both isiZulu and English.

Despite its possible limitations, "Zunglish" brought meaningful learning to pupils. However, this should be considered as a short-term fix since it can impact on the implementation of the vernacular policy negatively due to its informal nature. The negative impact is that "Zunglish" develops randomly and there is no systematic way of using it. This could cause students to under-develop their language cognition in reading, writing, and speaking in English language and isiZulu. Some of these issues are cultured in the teaching profession in South Africa. As a prerequisite, the education department should have assessed some of these issues before the implementation of the policy. Hence, teachers will continue to derive words from English to ensure the success rate of their pupils.

#### **5.2.4 Policy Precedence**

Understanding and familiarity with the new vernacular policy was the first item explored in the interviews. As the research commenced, it was evident that most teachers knew about the policy. However, all attested that they were never formally informed that the first stage of implementation would begin in 2014. Nevertheless, the policy was to be phased in incrementally.

The concern raised was that of poor communication between the DBE and teachers, as well as, SGBs. Respondent (T3) noted that government lacked the ability to “*disseminate information to School Governing Bodies early and timely*”. This lack of timely communication has had implications for the implementation of any policy.

Evidently this policy will be cast under the shadow of the failed Outcomes Based Education – a policy that failed due to the ineffectuality of monitoring and evaluation frameworks, and a vacuous implementation model. Respondent (S4) stated that “*implementation in black schools could be a stumbling block because of the overcrowded classrooms; schools depend on the money they get by the number of pupils they have in their schools; increasing the number of teachers could spell disaster for the resources*”. The participant’s view was informed by the Department of Education’s (1997) policy which holds that allocation of funds in schools must be expressed both in absolute and per learner terms. This position was informed by the need for schools to become accustomed to thinking about their total costs per learner.

### **5.2.5 Policy Conceptualisation**

Some teachers were frightened that the policy was not going to be adequately explained, leaving teachers to make up their own mind in terms of what works and what does not work in their environment. For the policy to have any meaning for pupils, teachers will have to use oversimplified language terms in either English or isiZulu to disseminate information. However, respondents (R3), (R2) and (T2) raised complaints about the unreasonableness of the pay they get for teaching, with (R6) pointing out that “*teachers demand more incentives on their salary*”.

Respondent (R1) observed that “*the issue is not with the language, it is students not being motivated enough*”. This is based on the misconceived notion that black students complacent and uncompromising (R2), and according to (R1) “*some pupils asked, if there is any significance in going to school when most graduates are not employed*”. The participant was astounded by the question and recognized that the problem is bigger than envisioned (T4). What this meant is that

the DBE had been relentless in treating the symptoms of the problems instead of dealing with the causes of the problems. These problems extend to the post-school realm where students that have been shortchanged by basic education suffer when they exit school in grade 12. When they pursue tertiary education, they take longer to finish their first qualification. Most of these pupils exit institutions of higher learning as unemployable graduates (informally referred to as half-cooked graduates) and are mostly ill-prepared for the work environment. Consequently, they stay at home without any formal employment.

## **5.3 ROLE OF LANGUAGE AND INSTITUTIONS**

### **5.3.1 Role of Language in South Africa**

Teachers understood the importance of an inclusive language policy to unite the diverse people of South Africa. They also embrace the role of language in ensuring that future generations do not walk the same path as their parents in the struggle of being recognized in South Africa. Respondent (T2) noted that “*South Africa is a very language conscious society, sometimes language is used to judge a person’s social status depending on how well the person commands the English language, especially amongst blacks*”. This is a clear view of how language is viewed in South Africa. This corresponds to Silva’s (1997) argument that much of the value attached to English resides in its position as an international language, and divergence from the international standard will tend to disempower second-language speakers and make communication more difficult. This has been construed as a contributing factor to black parents’ push for their children to learn more of English than vernacular (Silva, 1997). The dominant notion is that English has more use-value in the post-school environment than any vernacular language at present.

### **5.3.2 Teachers’ Views on the Role of Language**

Teachers acknowledge that some schools will handle the implementation of this language policy in basic education well because of the resources they possess, especially schools in suburban

areas and fairly funded township schools with politically connection principal. Along this line of thought, (R8) held that *“the principal knows all too well how important it is to be connected to the right kind of people in government, to ensure that funds are never delayed – textbooks and other materials are always delivered on time”*. This meant that implementation is dependent on political dynamics. As a repercussion, language policy becomes a mere symbol of how far government can flex its muscles.

Teachers were more worried about the long-term implications of the policy, as some held that the policy will perpetuate, cripple and even impair the learning of pupils, especially those from under-resourced schools (S4). Of particular concern for the participants was the view that the ability of these students to communicate in English will be significantly weakened. Teachers from the multiracial schools thought their schools will not be significantly affected, since Afrikaans is now on the vernacular list (S2). This meant they can carry on without any change because they already have Afrikaans as a subject; they will only need to rearrange the naming of the languages as first language, first additional language and second language. According to (R6), *“English and Afrikaans appeal to a wider audience. I would not be surprised if some of the African dominated schools start to adopt Afrikaans as their vernacular; however in the new South Africa any language is fair game”*. This implies that language dimensions have changed in South Africa since 1994.

### **5.3.3 Pan South African Language Board (PanSALB) and the Commission for the Promotion and Protection of the Rights of Cultural, Religious and Linguistic Communities (CRL Rights Commission)**

The presence of robust translation bodies responsible for the development of technical terms is indispensable in the continuous development of South African vernacular. The responsibility of the PanSALB is to ensure that all languages get the same recognition in the country. The Pan South African Language Board Act 59 of 1995 amended as PanSALB Amendment Act of (1999), focuses on five areas of language: status language planning; language in education; translation and interpreting; lexicography, terminology and place names; development of

literature and previously marginalized languages, language rights and mediation research, (Pan South African Language Board, 1999). Teachers involved in this study felt that the board had not done enough to promote language parity in schools. Respondent (S2) held that *“the PanSALB has not done any research on the existence and implication of “Zunglish” in education, nor is the board aware of its existence, yet it claims to be catering for language needs of the country”*. This is an indication that the DBE needs to endorse a framework that will work in conjunction with the board’s objectives to ensure that curriculum related textbooks are translated for every school that will be using vernacular as LoLT.

The CRL Rights Commission is part of the constitutional chapter nine institutions that promote and protect the right to practice one’s culture, religion and, most importantly, the promotion of linguistic freedom. This commission is empowered by the legal framework – Act 19, 2002 Commission for the Promotion and Protection of the Rights of Cultural, Religious and Linguistic Communities Act (Cultural, Religious and Linguistic Rights Commission, 2002). Its obligation is thus to make sure that everyone is represented. The role of this institution is not only to protect thereof, but to develop frameworks for recognition. Hence working together with the DBE and PanSALB these entities of government can achieve the language policy objectives.

## **CONCLUSION**

This chapter has presented participants’ responses into structured and meaningful themes. The chapter dealt with the perceptions and reactions of respondents to the announcements of the policy. It dealt extensively with the issue of language development, including formal and informal development of vernacular. The chapter also touched on the role of language in education, and on teachers’ views on the role language plays. Finally, it looked on the role played by language promoting institutions. The following chapter discusses the findings of the research and makes pertinent recommendations.

# CHAPTER SIX

## Data Analysis

### Discussions, Analysis and Conclusions

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#### INTRODUCTION

The study had set out to explore the views of teachers on the implementation of the vernacular policy in education. This chapter contains three major themes: 1) Reciprocal obligation; 2) extended implementation dynamics; 3) theoretical Implication. The first theme focuses on policy implications, the teachers' dissatisfaction with the DBE, teacher quality and training, and the absence of rigorous M&E frameworks. The second theme touches on the issues of language translation and development, and dogmatic (ideological) application. The third theme is based on crucial implications of the street-level bureaucrats' theory (discretion and coping mechanism). Finally, the chapter closes with empirical findings, conclusion, and recommendation.

#### 6.1 RECIPROCAL OBLIGATION

##### 6.1.1 Policy Implication

The proposed compulsory vernacular policy is the latest intervention by the democratic government and is preceded by Department of Education's Language in Education Policy of 1997, and Department of Arts and Culture National Policy on Language Policy Framework of 2003, which achieved less. A compulsory vernacular in basic education would be a third attempt by the democratic dispensation to promote indigenous languages. This initiative has attracted both positive and negative attention. Supporting the initiative is South African Press Association (2013), as it stated that South Africa had a unique legacy of multilingualism, and all users of endorsed languages ought to be given the opportunity to practice and develop their own

languages. The rationale for introducing language policies in South Africa has been to induce social cohesion, inclusiveness, and preservation of culture. Interestingly, Silva (1997) held that the reality is that the high cost of multilingualism is beyond the reach of South Africa. That was based on the fact that language is a trivial issue compared to poverty and unemployment in South Africa.

There are two key players that determine the successes/failures of policies in the education system: policy formulators and those tasked with the responsibility of implementing the policy. The formulators are the minister, director-generals, senior managers, managers and other relevant bodies while the implementers are the School Governing Bodies, principals, teachers and other affected parties. What was striking with regards to this policy was that most teachers pointed their blame toward the top management and failed to appreciate their contribution toward the problem(s). Some teachers blamed the DBE for being under-compensated. There is an undeniable link between the lack of funds and the teachers' role in basic education, as teachers seek for more incentives and wage increases vis-à-vis teaching (Davis, 2013).

### **6.1.2 Teacher's Dissatisfaction**

One of the findings of this research was that teachers blamed all their day-to-day work challenges on the DBE and almost completely ignored their role and contribution toward policy failure. Most teachers in public schools complain about wasteful expenditures such as late and non-delivery of teaching materials. According to a report compiled by the DBE, district offices were failing to monitor school book deliveries because it is impossible even to contact many schools to check the successful delivery of teaching materials (John, 2012). The apparent resentment teachers have toward the DBE stemmed from teachers' view that they were being underpaid and not properly incentivised to do their jobs. Surprisingly, these teachers wanted to be incentivized for doing their "job". Inasmuch as the teaching profession is one of the underpaid professions in South Africa; a teacher in basic education on medium (average) salary earn around R 160 000 per annum (ANON, 2014). Nevertheless, these teachers like all other civil servants

get enough incentives a civil servant considers to be basic (i.e. tax-breaks and government subsidies).

### **6.1.3 Dissemination of Information**

The sharing of information is crucial for the development of any organization, whether public or private. The DBE was accused of being inconsiderate to teachers and those who implement its policies. A clear illustration of this is the fact that most teachers pointed out that their knowledge of the proposed vernacular policy in basic education was through informal means, such as the media and through word of mouth. Wright (2012) argued that information and support goes a long way in the implementation of any policy. Teachers were concerned that the policy was going to be implemented in 2014, while they had not received any formal announcements or appropriate information on the policy. This lack of timely information for preparations meant that teachers would lack information and relevant knowledge on the policy. Teachers felt that the vernacular policy will be introduced in the same inefficient manner as the Outcome-Based Education, which failed dismally due to frail implementation strategies. This symbolizes a department in crisis, a department unable to frame its strategic plans and put them into effect.

### **6.1.4 Teacher Quality and Training**

The role of teachers is important in the implementation of any education-related policy. Ivey and Broaddus (2007) discovered that teacher support is crucial in enabling pupils to grasp content effectively. Thus proper training for teachers becomes crucial and indispensable. The process of implementation is most definitely affected by the quality of teachers implementing it, and the training these teachers received thereof. It is for people, even experts, to overlook the importance of teacher training and capacity building (Wright, 2012). The fundamental impact this has had on the education system is more evident now than ever before since this is an information age where teachers need to be well informed and adequately trained to serve their quickly developing pupils.

During the interviews, some of the teachers noted that the kind of training they were given during Apartheid was below par by any standard. Their training was structurally and strategically designed to yield a kind of teacher that would eventually produce a particular kind of pupil. Majority of rural and township school teachers form a large portion of those teachers and most of these teachers were never reskilled by the new democratic dispensation when the education system was reformed (Dlanga, 2011). The German education system had a similar experience in the eighties. According to the Organization of Economic Co-operation and Development (2011), it is possible that Germany's teachers were a major source of the problem of pupil failure, due to a gap between a younger inexperienced group of teachers and an aging group of teachers. One reason for the weakness of the education system after the eighties was a severe over-aging of the teacher population. This is somewhat similar to what the South African education system is experiencing. Dale-Jones (2013) alludes to the importance of continues training of teachers for the implementation of any education policy, which means for policy to be introduced there should be an appropriate accompanying programme for the training of teachers.

### **6.1.5 Rigorous Monitoring and Evaluation Framework**

Language preservation and the creation of a multilingual South Africa seem all too utopian to materialize. The policy on teaching vernacular in school(s) poses unique challenges as it seeks to repair the rifts caused by diversity. The problem with the DBE, stem from the complacency towards creating realistic and rigorous public policy monitoring and evaluation frameworks. Feedback provided by the monitoring of the implementation processes necessarily helps in the planning-formulation-implementation-evaluation and re-planning process. Giving feedback to teachers as to their progress in terms of implementing the language policy could be a form of support needed to encourage grass-root implementers (teachers). Webb (1999) argued that the South African language policy is a mismatch; that is to say, there seemed to be a significant mismatch between policy and official practice in government. The author argued that serious attention must be given to the apparent inability of African governments, including the South

African government, to meaningfully implement, monitor and evaluate a policy of multilingualism in education.

Rarely has the DBE had a rigorous M&E framework to ensure that its policies are guided by relevant input-output-outcome performance measures and indicators. These frameworks can also be used in monitoring and evaluating the effectiveness of introducing capacity building and teacher training programmes. An M&E structure targeting the vernacular language policy is indispensable in making sure that the policy reaches its objectives and makes the intended impact.

## **6.2 EXTENDED IMPLEMENTATION DYNAMICS**

### **6.2.1 Language Translation and Development**

Language issues in South Africa are handled by the Pan South African Language Board (PanSALB). As referred to in chapter five, one of the roles of the entity is to ensure that all official languages are developed and preserved. The concern that teachers had was that they did not have a structure within the DBE responsible for the development of vernacular. The only lexicon they had was an isiZulu book-dictionary called *iNqolobane*. This book contains old isiZulu words that neither cater for nor accommodate new developments in isiZulu. IsiZulu language does not yet have the sophistication necessary to be a LoLT. In addition, isiZulu does not have academic (formal) or technical terms related to subject areas that some teachers teach. This is one of the reasons why most teachers use derived English words. Language translation and preservation play an intrinsic role in the development of any language. The use of code-switching has discredited and disharmonized the use of isiZulu as a language of teaching and learning. Essien (2012 cited in Dale-Jones 2013) argued that swapping between languages (code-switching) in classroom is detrimental to teaching and learning in general. IsiZulu as a LoLT will need further development for it to benefit pupils.

It is the University of KwaZulu-Natal that has recently been making advances in the development of isiZulu as a respectable and academically accredited language; the university has put in place structures and systems in place to translate and develop isiZulu through the Department of Teaching and Learning (by hiring language researchers and translators). That being said cooperation amid PANSALB, CRL Rights Commission, DBE, DAC and institutions of higher learning is imperative for the development of vernacular.

These institutions have a chance to change the ways in which vernacular is perceived in South Africa. Dlanga (2011) argued that most black parents send their children to white schools not only for better education but for better English proficiency. Some parents even go as far as forbidding their children from using mother-tongue at home (Dlanga, 2011). This grim approach to vernacular has a potential not only to affect negatively the Department of Basic Education's effort to preserve language and create social cohesion and inclusiveness, but could affect pupils' willingness to learn a vernacular language. The task of the DBE is to first revamp and transform the image of all vernaculars.

### **6.2.2 Dogmatic Application**

In every country around the world, education plays a specific role in a child's life, from the day they enter school to the day they leave school. This means that every child from the day s/he enters school is trained towards fulfilling a particular end, transcendentally, the ability to learn a particular skill. The South African education system does not appear to have an obvious ideology driving its education system. Cummings (1998) states that for immersion education to attain its maximum potential, it must be integrated into an educational philosophy that goes beyond just the discipline of applied linguistics. Through the observation the most successful countries in the world like China, Germany and United States of America, it seems they all have a particular philosophy that underpins their basic education system. According to Sargent (2006), Chinese goal of economic development in the policy rhetoric is in the emphasis placed on the cultivation of a creative and innovative workforce capable of enhancing China's global competitiveness; the

cultivation of creativity and critical thinking is to be achieved later through the transformation of teaching practices. In the bid to achieve this goal, Chinese children are encouraged to learn English as it is an international language of business and economics. Germany's current reappearance on the global economic scene is due in some measure to the combination of formal schooling and apprenticeship, which makes Germany one of the most industrially stable countries in the world (Organization of Economic Co-operation and Development, 2011). In addition, every child in Germany must learn the German language. China's focus on education is driven by the need to compete on the Global Political Economy, whilst Germany's is based on the need for practical experience typical of a country basing its economic development on Industrialization. The US education system is based on the pupils' individualism, self-optimization and self-realization (Merry, 2009). Thus South Africa before pursuing this goal of language it must define what its education seeks to achieve in the short, medium, and long term. Focusing on what teachers can contribute to the profession of teaching.

## **6.3 THEORETICAL IMPLICATION**

### **6.3.2 Street-Level Bureaucrats Theory (Discretion and Coping Mechanisms)**

The role of street-level bureaucrats remain an indispensable part of any implementation process, either bottom-up or top-down. The findings of this research demonstrated that discretion can be ambivalent. The development of or use of "*Zunglish*" by street-level bureaucrats (teachers) was a reflection of what discretion can become when left unchecked. Though this development was innovative, it is not suitable and sustainable in the sense that it did not benefit or enhance the students' abilities to read, write and speak in either English or isiZulu. As Lipsky's (2010) claimed that street-level bureaucrats are partly policy makers as they have discretion in making certain decisions failed to appreciate the fact that discretion can also be as a destructive force. The extent of discretion must always be delimited by the scope of policy prescript.

Essentially, all teachers and Student Governing Boards, like many other professionals, are afforded a certain amount of discretion in conjunction with the requirement of policies.

Nevertheless, teachers will always opt for what works in their environment irrespective of straying from the policy goals. This is consistent with Lipky's (2010) argument that street-level bureaucrats are partly policy makers. Hence the innovative "*Zunglish*" as a coping strategy is the evidence of teachers' discretion going astray. This is so because schools are free from interference. Teachers, as street-level bureaucrats capitalized on this because they always seek to simplify the nature of their job (Tummers and Bekkers, 2014).

Contrary to Tummers and Bekkers (2014), client meaningfulness and willingness to implement are not necessarily predicated on teachers' (street-level bureaucrats') preferences but on the fact that teachers are compelled to perform their duties. Teachers understand that sometimes having personal preference toward policy can have a detrimental effect on their pupils. As a result, they create mechanisms in order to make implementation less daunting. Halliday, et al (2009), mentioned that implementers develop patterns of practice that limit demands on their time and human resources. To ensure that they meet their obligations, teachers sometimes put in extra working hours and sometimes work during school holidays to guarantee that their pupils get the kind of education that will enable them to unleash their full potential. The objective of having discretion is to have the platform to create coping-mechanisms for easier implementation.

Teachers saw the underdeveloped vernacular as a major problem for this policy. Teachers believed that their long years of teaching experience was their best coping mechanism and was going to be useful in the long run as they implement policy incrementally. Sometimes government misconstrue the dilemmas facing teachers on a daily basis because they do not understand what challenges teachers, especially the teachers in underprivileged areas, go through (Wright, 2012); hence teachers count on their experience of dealing with government inefficiencies as a recourse for their situation. It stands to reason that the education system in South Africa lacks the capacity to demand accountability from teachers. Case in point, teachers counting on experience, is a sign of policy mismatch because there is incongruence between policy objectives and official practice in the implementation process (Webb, 1999).

Teachers felt there was a lack of consultation with them as key stakeholders in the policy implementation process. The DBE has not accessed the structural functionality of the implementation of vernacular in basic education through thorough consultation with teachers. The attempt to implement this policy without thorough consideration and consultation could have significant consequences for the policy. Top-down approach scholars think that there are people at the top who are well suited to find the appropriate means of achieving some given ends (Harsanyi, 1969 cited in Miyakawa, 1999). Pressman and Wildavsky (1973 cited in Parsons, 1995) argued that the rational model (top-down) is imbued with the idea that implementation is about getting people to do what they are told. Though that might be true for some policies, the intricacies of vernacular in South Africa require prior consultation of the implementers as well as the masses given the nature of South African society. The introduction of vernacular policy in basic education should account for the fact that South Africa is a very diverse society. Above and beyond that, all official languages share parity of esteem however not all vernacular can be developed simultaneously without putting pressure on the financial resources and human capital. Central planning is an important part of the policy process but is not all-encompassing it forms part or a whole.

Lack of resources was a major problem for teachers as they complained that language was not an immediate concern. According to Silva (1997), high cost of multilingualism is beyond the reach of South Africa. The important problem was that pupils were failing because the learning environment and infrastructure were not conducive for teaching and learning. Schools do not have enough teachers (there are approximately 25 000 schools in South Africa with an average of 500 pupils), equipment or materials to carry out their duties; (Mtshali, 2013). Teachers as street-level bureaucrats modified the scope of their job to narrow the gap between objectives and resources and made sure their accomplishments are satisfactory (Halliday, et al, 2009). Teachers can narrow the gap because the extent of their discretion and ability to create coping mechanism is not restrained or restricted by limited resources. As a result, some teachers work overtime and during school holidays. The table below is a summation of the analysis.

**6.3.2.1 Table 3: Schematic Analysis**

	<b>Street-Level Bureaucrats</b>	<b>Discretion</b>	<b>Coping Mechanism</b>
<b>Training and Capacity</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• No support for teachers</li> <li>• Lack of reskilling and capacity building initiatives for teachers</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lack of effective M&amp;E frameworks causes teachers not attend workshops or involve themselves in programmes</li> <li>• Lack of desire for teachers to self-develop</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Complacency and ineffectuality in class</li> <li>• Counting on experience to get them through</li> <li>• Putting in extra hours</li> </ul>
<b>Constraints</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Not enough incentives for teaching professionals</li> <li>• Teachers were not properly informed</li> <li>• No translation mechanisms put in place for teachers of vernacular</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Extent of discretion immeasurable in its current form</li> <li>• Determining what works for pupils</li> <li>• No stringent accountability measures</li> <li>• Schools are free from interference</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Developing “Zunglish”</li> <li>• Code switching</li> <li>• Increasing the standard of teaching through exploring alternative sources.</li> </ul>
<b>Teachers’ Perception</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lack of consultation</li> <li>• Shortage of resources</li> <li>• Late delivery of teaching material is always a stumbling block for teachers and pupils</li> <li>• Vernacular policy untimely and misplaced</li> <li>• Lack of political will from government will leave teachers unsupported</li> <li>• Underdeveloped vernacular a major problem for this policy.</li> <li>• Vernacular as a LoLT is bound to affect pupils’ ability to perform well in class.</li> </ul>		

## 6.4 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The teachers that participated in this research complained that no kind of formal training is ever given to teachers timeously. Teachers accused the DBE of being unprofessional and ineffectual. Such conduct made teachers to be underprepared and incapable of implementing any policy. The timing of the proposed compulsory vernacular policy was viewed as untimely and premature. Participants in the study argued that the attempt is merely geared towards increasing the pass rate of pupils.

The South African education is confronted by challenges, including undertrained teachers, lack of teaching materials, unfurnished classrooms and mud schools. This is predicated on and caused by the divide within the education sector, where township/rural schools are underprivileged and suburban schools are more resourced and advantaged due to historic structural social engineering practices.

A rigorous programme needs to be established that will deal with accessing teachers' competency in their subject area and their literacy skills in vernacular. The programme would have to be clear as to what it wants to achieve in a specific, measureable, realistic and timely manner.

Language development has always been an issue in the education sector, due to diversity and cultural boundaries that tacitly limit the potential of the education system. However language alone cannot be said to be the lone cause of failure in schools nor can failure of pupils be reduced to language inefficiencies. The capacities of teachers to use their proficiency in both English and vernacular needed to be harnessed to enrich pupils and to produce positive outcomes. Teachers should not sought persuasion through incentives to attending language development workshops and language symposiums.

Vernacular does not yet possess well developed lexicon, preposition and configuration to produce sophisticated complicated shades of meaning in words. The composition of vernacular is sometimes limited by the inability to produce multidimensional syntax and rich lexicon. These factors limit the extent of teaching and learning in vernacular. It is apparent that the issue of vernacular development and cultural diversity have not been revised and properly considered by the DBE. The outsourcing of language practitioners and consultants that would deal specifically with the development of vernacular can be a useful long term strategy.

The South African education system has failed dismally to develop an education system that is reflective of the ideals of the South African people (i.e. a system that will deal with structural poverty and seek to reduce the illiteracy gap between the rich and the poor). Education is a component through which the aspirations of a people are realized. Language and education are the instruments through which those aspirations can be realized. Thus language and education must play a clearly defined role in society. The philosophy of basic education must revolve around community development, development of entrepreneurs, poverty alleviation and the role these play towards economic growth and development. South Africa is still a redistributive society where the majority is indigent. The education system must therefore find ways to achieve social parity, and not allow the status quo to remain unchanged.

This study and its result are a miniature reflection of the KwaZulu-Natal area, specifically within the eThekweni Municipality. Though this study was conducted in the province of KwaZulu-Natal, its findings could be a microcosmic reflection of what is happening in other provinces. This research was an implementation analysis of the proposed vernacular policy in education (South African basic education) in the EThekweni Municipality. The study was mainly based on street-level bureaucrats (teachers) and how they exercise their discretion and autonomy when implementing policy in basic education. This analysis focused on three major themes: Reciprocal Obligation; Extended Implementation Dynamics and Theoretical Implications.

## **6.5 RECOMMENDATION**

Language is a powerful instrument for bringing about unity, inclusiveness and social cohesion. Nonetheless language development is essentially an organic process which needs to be mapped backwards and its development ought to be a bottom-up initiative for it to have any chance of succeeding and making an impact. This process can never be left to chance. Therefore, government needs to devise a feasible approach to introducing vernacular in South Africa since the preceding top-down attempts had produced limited results.

As an exploratory research, this study has achieved what it set out to achieve. It has revealed that discretion, if left unchecked, has a tendency of not following the mandate of policy objectives. In the case of teachers as implementers and partly as makers of policy, this research has shown that teachers face a number of challenges, some of which are beyond their control. The role of an implementer is to implement policy irrespective of shortage of resource or lack of recourse. The DBE must ensure that implementing any policy is a meaningful and enjoyable experience for teachers, not just mere policy symbolism. Teachers' abilities can never be undermined and their contribution in society should never be treated as trivia because the future of South Africa rests in their hands.

What happens in class is too often left to teachers to decide and that is one of the reasons why it is difficult to successfully implement policy in basic education. Thus the development of an implementation model is needed, that will stipule the goals and objective of the policy and how those are to be achieved over a period of time.

### **6.5.1 Suggestions for Future Research**

A study on how principals' autonomy impact on teachers' discretion in the process of implementation can be ideal. Principals follow a chain of command; their conduct affects those below them. The principal's firm leadership or complacency thereof has a serious consequence for the pupils and teachers involved. Hence the nature of the relation between the variables is determined by the principal's leadership style.

A study focusing on the importance of experience in teaching can be a worthwhile research. There is a widely accepted assumption that experience is the best teacher, and that experience is all-encompassing at the expense of continuous training. It would be interesting to test the truthfulness of that hypothesis with regards to language implementation. This will entail testing the scope and extent of experience required when implementing vernacular in such a diverse society as South African, and how it could impact the education system and society in the long run. This is predicated on the research findings of a recent study conducted by Bansilal, Brijlall and Mkhwanazi (2014) which found that teachers performed dismally when they were given a previous year's matric mathematics paper.

A research thesis focusing on vernacular in public schools would be worthwhile, with the focus on Theory of Change as a theoretical framework. As the theory of change defines all the building blocks required to bring about long-term goals by exploring the weaknesses, opportunities, strengths and threats to the initiative.

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# Appendices

## Appendix One

### INFORMED LETTER OF CONSENT

Dear Research Participant

I am student currently completing a Master's Degree in Social Sciences (Public Policy) at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Howard College. My research top is *An Implementation Analysis of the Language Policy in Basic Education in Selected Schools in eThekweni Municipality*.

You have been identified as an individual that may make an important contribution to this study through the honest and accurate answers you may provide during the questioning session of this interview. The information you provide will not be used for any purposes other than those of the study intended. Hence, I wish to assure you that all information provided will be treated with the strictest confidentiality. We will also provide secrecy, if requested (the information provided will not be used in the study unless provided by a third party).

Your participation is voluntary and no payment or any benefit will be given to you for your participation in this study. If you feel uncomfortable at any time during the interview, you are free to withdraw from the study.

Thank you for your time and assistance. Your information is greatly appreciated.

Yours Sincerely

Researcher

**Siphamandla Warren Khumalo**

076 4591 191

#### **Project Supervisor Details**

(School of Social Sciences: Project Supervisor)

Andrew Okem

Okem@ukzn.ac.za

#### **DECLARATION**

I..... (Full name of participant) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this letter and the nature of this research project, and I consent to participating voluntarily in this research project. I understand that I have freedom to withdraw from the study at any time, should I so desire.

**SIGNATURE OF PARTICIPANT .....**

**DATE.....**

## Appendix Two



### Gatekeeper Letter

To whom it may Concern

This is a Masters Research in Social Science (Public Policy). This research is based on the topic *An Implementation Analysis of the Language Policy in Basic Education in Selected Schools in eThekweni Municipality*. This research is based on the analysis of teacher behavior and attitudes as government employees, towards the implementation of the language policy in basic education. This study sought to explore the challenges teachers face when it comes to the implementation of a policy of this nature and magnitude. This study looks to explore the copying mechanisms that teachers employ when faced with such a complex situation.

This letter is to ensure that the school chosen for this research will be afforded anonymity if it so wishes; not only of the names of the teachers that will be participating but also of the school names and its principal. Pseudo-names will be used to ensure anonymity.

The school was chosen because of its proximity.

Project Researcher

**Siphamandla Warren Khumalo**

Project Supervisor

**Andrew Emmanuel Okem**

School of Social Sciences (Public Policy)

Appendix Three



**Interview Guide**

1. Location of study .....
2. Responsibility of respondent.....
3. Number of years in teaching .....
4. Race .....
5. What do you know about the language policy in basic education to be introduced in 2014?

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6. Do you think the timing for the introduction of this language policy in basic education by 2014 is opportune?

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7. What matters do you see affecting or improving the learning capacity of pupils with regards to the proposed language policy?

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8. What are your feelings towards this language policy?

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9. Have you been adequately equipped to implement the policy? Please say more about your response

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10. What are the possible challenges to the implementation of this policy?

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11. How will you address these challenges?

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12. What do you think are the possible challenges with regard to using vernacular in your subject area?

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13. Will you be able to implement the language policy as the department of basic education envisions? ( Please justify your response)

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14. Looking close at the school differentiation within KwaZulu-Natal do you see the policy having the same effect across board?

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15. What do you think is the role of teachers in this policy process?

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16. Do you think the implementation of the policy will improve learners' academic performance?  
Please justify your response?

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