Language Policy and Practice in a Multilingual Classroom: managing linguistic diversity in a Namibian high school
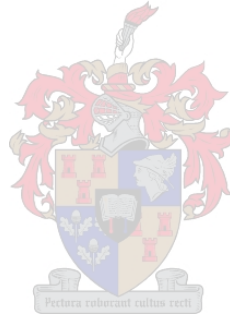
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Thesis submitted in fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of MA in Intercultural Communication

Stellenbosch University

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DECLARATION

By submitting this thesis electronically, I declare that the entirety of the work contained therein is my original work, that I am the sole author thereof (save to the extent explicitly otherwise stated) and that I have not previously, in its entirety or in part, submitted it for obtaining any qualification.

Henry Amo Mensah

March 2014

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my dear wife, Afia and my three lovely children, Amma, Yaa and Kwaku.

ABSTRACT

This study examines the language policy and implementation outside and inside the classroom in a multilingual and multicultural international school. Specifically, it aims at giving an insight into how linguistic and cultural diversity is managed at Windhoek International School (WIS). It takes a specific interest in the kinds of language policy that determine which languages are used in education in a context where both teachers and learners are L1 speakers of a considerable number of different languages.

The participants in this study are multilingual learners and teachers of WIS. The study uses data from the school records, a questionnaire, interviews and observation. Questionnaires are administered to a total of 20 Grade 9 learners and 20 teachers, after which structured interviews takes place between five learners and five teachers. The analysis of the data is descriptive, interpretive and explanatory. The findings of the study are that the language policy at WIS is articulated in such a manner that it encourages monolingual norms although the school's community is multilingual. English is the MoI, used in official communication across the school and also as a language of communication with the school's stakeholders. Other European languages, namely- French, German and Portuguese are officially taught as modern foreign languages. Significantly, none of the local Namibian languages are taught in the school. However, the school does not bar its learners and teachers from using their LotE especially outside of the classroom. The study also shows that the language ecology at WIS demonstrates a situation of polyglossia where English is on top of the language hierarchy.

From the findings, it is suggested that since WIS recognises the multilingual and multicultural composition of its learners and teachers, its whole school policy should be looked at again to reflect current thinking in language-in-education policy. The policy should place emphasis on dynamic bilingualism by supporting and encouraging the teaching and learning of LotE, including local indigenous languages, as a means of scaffolding and as a means of bridging knowledge development in the school. However, for purposes of examination, the school should place emphasis on the extensive use of English to enable its learners to meet the requirements of external examiners.

OPSOMMING

Hierdie studie bestudeer die taalbeleid en implementering daarvan binne en buite klaskamerverband, by 'n veeltalige en multikulturele internasionale skool. Spesifiek, is die doel om insae te gee in hoe talige en kulturele diversiteit by Windhoek Internasionale Skool (WIS) hanteer word. Dit stel belang in die verskillende soorte taalbeleid wat bepaal watter tale in onderrig en leer gebruik word in 'n konteks waar sowel die onderwysers as die leerders eerstetaalsprekers is van 'n aansienlike aantal verskillende tale.

Die deelnemers in hierdie studie is veeltalige leerders en onderwysers aan die WIS. Die studie gebruik data wat bekom is uit skoolrekords, vraelyste, onderhoude en deur waarneming. Die analise van die data word gedoen in die vorm van beskrywing, interpretasie en verduideliking. Die bevindinge van die studie hou in dat die taalbeleid aan die WIS so geartikuleer is dat dit eentalige norme ondersteun, alhoewel die gemeenskap wat deur die skool bedien word, veeltalig is. Engels is die medium van onderrig (MvO/MoI) aan die skool, word in amptelike kommunikasie binne die skool gebruik, en is ook die kommunikasietaal by alle belanghebbendes van die skool (ouers, borge, ens.). Ander Europese tale, naamlik Frans, Duits en Portugees, word as moderne vreemde tale binne die skool se leerplan aangebied. Heel opvallend, word geeneen van die plaaslike Namibiese tale in die skool aangebied nie. Ten spyte van hierdie taalreëlings word leerders en onderwysers van die skool nie beperk in die gebruik van ander tale as Engels (LotEs) nie, veral buite die klaskamers. Die studie toon aan dat die taalomgewing by WIS tekenend is van 'n sg. poliglossiese gemeenskap waar Engels in die taalhiërargie bo-aan te staan kom.

Die bevindinge suggereer dat die WIS, in die lig van hulle erkenning van die veeltalige en multikulturele samestelling van die leerders en onderwysers, sy skoolbeleid in die geheel behoort te heroorweeg, sodat dit belyn word met die mees resente denke oor taal-in-onderrig-beleid. Die beleid behoort op dinamiese tweetaligheid klem te lê deur die onderrig en leer van ander tale as Engels (LotEs), ook plaaslike inheemse tale, aan te moedig en te ondersteun. Dit moet so gedoen word dat dit as "steierwerk"kan dien in die oorbrugging wat nodig is vir leer deur medium van 'n tweede of vreemde taal. Daarbenewens word aanbeveel dat die skool vir eksamineringsdoeleindes aandag skenk aan die uitgebreide gebruik van Engels, sodat leerders in staat is om aan die vereistes wat eksterne eksaminatore stel, te beantwoord.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CAS: Creativity Action and Service

CIE: Cambridge International Examinations

CIS: The Council of International Schools

EAL: English as an Additional Language

IB: International Baccalaureate

IBDP: IB Diploma Programmes

IBMYP: Middle Years Programme

IBO: International Baccalaureate Organisation

IBPYP: IB Primary Years Programme

IGCSE: General Certificate Secondary Education

KG: Kindergarten

L1: First language

L1s: Home languages

LiEP: Language-in-Education Policy

LotE: Languages Other than English

LSD: Learning Support Department

MOESS: Ministry of Education Science and Sports

MoI: Medium of Instruction

NEASC: New England Association of Schools and Colleges

PRAESA: Project for the Study of Alternative Education in South Africa

TLF: India's Three Language Formula

UN: United Nations

UNESCO: United Nations Scientific and Cultural Organisation

WIS: Windhoek International School

LIST OF TABLES

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

At the risk of sounding too verbose and violating the rules of acknowledgement, I express my deep and profound gratitude to my supervisor, Professor Christine Anthonissen, for her support and guidance from the beginning of this thesis to its logical conclusion. Mine is not one of those mere platitudes and empty clichés of acknowledgement, but a deep seated appreciation and debt of gratitude.

Next, I would like to thank my mother, Ante, who has been my anchor through all the changing scenes of my life and whose love for me has remained "as constant as the northern star"; and also to my late father, Paapa, who instilled in me the love for knowledge. I would also like to thank my siblings Lily, Atta and Amma and indeed my in-laws Herbert and Paa Kwasi who are my brothers from other mothers for the support they have always given me.

To my friend and brother Christian Gogovi whom I know will be livid with me for not telling him I was pursuing a Master's in Intercultural Communication, I say a big thank you for your support. Those discussions we had about language shaped this thesis.

It will be the height of ingratitude if I do not acknowledge Naomi Visser and Christine Smit who responded to some unreasonable requests I made without a whimper. I also owe a debt of gratitude to all my lecturers during the postgraduate diploma programme in Intercultural Communication.

Finally, I would like to thank the principal of WIS, Ms. Margaret Reiff, who readily agreed that I should use data from WIS for this study and also to all the parents, teachers and learners who agreed to participate in this study.

Above all, I thank the Lord God Almighty for granting me the strength and wisdom to undertake this research.

CONTENTS

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the study

This study examined the language policy which gave guidelines regarding how linguistic and cultural diversity was managed in a multilingual classroom at Windhoek International School (WIS). Specifically, the study investigated classroom practices in a multilingual school that may illustrate the implementation of such a language policy.

WIS is one of a small number of private and independent schools in Namibia. It serves the educational needs of the international and local community. The student body represents a diverse range of student nationalities and cultures which include a tapestry of languages. The school's motto is "An International Community of Learners" and the school aims at preparing "its diverse student body to engage positively with the global community in the spirit of the International Baccalaureate". The school's community is made up of students, teaching and non-teaching staff and parents. It is a co-educational day school, which offers educational programmes from toddlers through to Diploma students in Grade 12. The school had a total population of 446 learners (at the time of writing the thesis in 2013). The number of learners in the preschool section in 2013 was 70. In the primary school section, there were 201 learners while the middle school had 86 learners. In the secondary school there were 89 enrolled learners. For the purpose of this study, the focus is on learners and teachers.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Although in studies of language structure, there is a presumption that all languages are equal and in sociolinguistic terms, there is an ecological perception which holds that all languages should be allowed to flourish (Hymes 1992), this is rarely the case in practice. Various social circumstances determine that in most multilingual communities, some languages are given preferences over others in public spaces such as schools (Bourdieu 1991). Where the governing body of an educational institution adopts one language as a lingua franca and medium of

instruction (MoI), the demands of developing proficiency in that MoI for examination purposes are considerable. The study, thus, examined language policy regarding the status and use of various languages in a multilingual educational community in Namibia and related the policy to classroom practices which illustrated the gap between policy and practice in a multilingual classroom.

1.3 Aims and objectives of the study

The objectives of the study were to reflect on language policy and the theoretical notions of multilingualism and policy implementation both inside and outside of the classroom at WIS. It aimed to give an insight into how linguistic and cultural diversity was managed in a multilingual classroom and, in addition, to:

i.   reflect on language policy and its implementation in general and in particular at WIS;
ii. give an overview of how the concept of multilingualism has been defined and used in recent studies;
iii. examine how multilingualism occurred at WIS where students from a variety of backgrounds studied for the International General Certificate Secondary Education (IGCSE) and International Baccalaureate (IB) programmes;
iv. examine the ambiguity inherent in embracing multilingualism in the educational programme and at the same time requiring students to have a high level of English proficiency for their academic advancement;
v.   examine how linguistic diversity was managed in the school; and
vi. suggest ways for improving teaching and practices through attention to language policy.

1.4 Specific research questions

Regarding the teaching of English and Geography to Grade 9 students at WIS, the research sought to find answers to the following questions:

1. How did the teaching and learning practices in the classroom represent the multilingualism of the community?

2. How did the communicative practices noted in learner – teacher interaction outside of the classroom represent the multilingualism of the community?

3. What kind of tolerance/encouragement was there for the use of languages other than the MoI (English) both inside and outside of the classroom?

4. What practices were currently in use inside and outside of the classroom that were likely to contribute to the development and maintenance of the L1s of learners where their L1s were languages other than English (LotE)?

5. What were the observable effects of multilingual communicative practices on the development and use of English as MoI? and

6. What kind of language policy was overtly followed at WIS and to what degree was this policy explicitly articulated in the classroom practices of the school?

1.5 Methodology

The theoretical positions evident in received work on multilingualism in education that is important to this study were thoroughly examined. The variety of conceptions of 'multilingualism' that are used in theoretical reflection was highlighted with a view to finding those that best fit the particular context of this study. A thorough understanding of this concept was essential to answering the research questions. In order to establish the multilingual composition of teachers and learners at WIS, sociolinguistic profiles of some learners and teachers were compiled. As the study was qualitative, the sampling technique was purposive in that the participants were selected on the basis of their multilingual repertoires. As will be clear from the various sources of data presented, the study used a mixed method approach.

The first source of data was the school's records. Data were accessed from the school records on how many languages are represented as L1s among learners and teachers as well as the numbers of L1 speakers of each language. The school records were used to find information on the different linguistic backgrounds of teachers and students. The school records also provided data on the number of students whose tested levels of English proficiency indicated that they needed additional lessons in the MoI. In addition, the study established the number of local Namibian languages that were represented among learners in the school.

Besides existing records of the demographic information, the research instruments used in this study were observation, questionnaires and interviews. The data for the sociolinguistic profiling of the school community were obtained from teachers and students through questionnaires and interviews. Questionnaires were administered to a total of 20 Grade 9 learners and 20 teachers, after which structured interviews took place between five learners and five teachers. The information gained from the above procedures was supported by the researcher's observations of language use in the classroom. Two classroom situations attended by the learners in the same grade in which two different subjects (namely, English and Geography) are taught were observed.

The analysis of the data was descriptive, interpretive and explanatory. In answering, the set of specific questions in section 1.4 above, the study determined how and in what domains English was used; how and in what domains other languages were used; what participants' language use-preferences were; and how the school responded to the linguistic diversity of its population. With a view to addressing the overarching questions set in section 1.2 and in achieving the aims set in section 1.3, the descriptive analysis was considered in relation to the literature on multilingualism and language policy. The empirical findings were then interpreted, explained and critically assessed in terms of the language policy of the school.

1.6 Structure of the study

The thesis is divided into six chapters. Chapter One which is the introduction gives the background and delimitations of the study. Chapter Two provides the context and background of WIS. Thus, it gives a description of the linguistic landscape of the school which includes a description of the repertoires and policy that determines language practices in the school. Chapter Three gives a review of the relevant scholarly literature which informs the study and positions it within the field. Chapter Four describes the methodology, the kind of data required and how the data were collected. In Chapter Five, the data analysis as it is done within the set framework, is presented and then in Chapter Six, I give an interpretation and critical assessment of the data as well as findings and suggestions for improved practices in the particular – and similar – multilingual context(s).

CHAPTER TWO

THE LINGUISTIC LANDSCAPE OF WINDHOEK INTERNATIONAL SCHOOL AND THE NATIONAL, CULTURAL AND LINGUISTIC COMPOSITION OF LEARNERS AND TEACHERS

2.1 Introduction

This chapter will provide a description of the specific context to which the study refers. It will explain why WIS was selected as the site for the research and also present the historical background and organisational structure of WIS and its academic curriculum. It will describe the nature of multilingualism in the school and give an overview of its official written Whole School Language Policy which has to be ratified by the Board of Trustees.

It will then give details of the linguistic, national and cultural composition of learners and the languages they speak across the various school activities. These will include languages represented as home languages (L1s) of learners and a description of the linguistic repertoire of teachers, that is, which languages the teachers speak as L1s and the full range of other languages that they speak, the local Namibian languages that learners and teachers speak and their number and the number of learners in each grade. Such a quantitative description will serve to characterise the nature of multilingualism within the school community.

In doing this, the chapter will give a broad overview of the linguistic landscape[1] of the entire school before focusing on a section of the secondary school for a more detailed description and analysis to be presented in Chapter Five.

2.2 Windhoek International School: site for the study

WIS was selected as the site of the study for a number of reasons. The first reason is that the school is one of a small number of private and independent schools in Namibia. It was established to serve the educational needs of the international and local community of the capital city, Windhoek. The school has elected to follow a curriculum that is developed and endorsed for

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[1] Technically 'linguistic landscape' refers to public displays of language in forms of signs, labels, names of shops etc. However, in this study, it is used to refer to the overall linguistic situation or context at WIS.

their students achieving the IGCSE. In addition, it is the only school in Namibia that offers the IB programme. Thus, in terms of what is taught, the school subscribes to an educational programme which intends to prepare students for advanced tertiary education in an international market. A school with such an international positioning is of particular interest when it comes to the recognition of indigenous language varieties while also giving access to a global language. Furthermore, the school was selected because the student body represents a diverse range of nationalities and cultures which include a tapestry of languages. Moreover, most of the students who come from outside of Namibia will spend only two to three years in the school before their parents who are in the country for international assignments leave for duty posts in other countries. The idea is that such students will receive a foundation that will allow easy integration into a new educational environment elsewhere. The school is thus a constantly – changing site where learners of different nationalities and cultures meet.

2.3 Historical background and organisational structure of Windhoek International School

WIS was founded in 1990, by Mrs. Bodil Reske-Nielsen, a Danish expatriate, the same year that the United Nations (UN) Security Council Resolution 435 of 1978 was finally implemented. Thereby South Africa's 'protectorate' control of the country, which was introduced after World War II, was brought to an end and the country attained independence.

The school is governed by a Board of Trustees consisting of a maximum of eleven members. The executive head is a principal who has an administrative function. He is assisted by two vice-principals, one who oversees the primary school section and a second who takes responsibility for the secondary section. WIS is fully accredited by the American-based New England Association of Schools and Colleges (NEASC) and the Council of International Schools (CIS), an organisation to which more than 330 schools worldwide are affiliated. WIS is authorised by the International Baccalaureate Organization (IBO) to offer the IB Primary Years Programme (IBPYP), IB Middle Years Programme (IBMYP) and the IB Diploma Programmes (IBDP) developed for students between 16 and 19 years old, all intended to offer coherent and internationally-recognised curricula.

2.4 Academic curriculum at Windhoek International School

WIS runs two academic programmes, namely, the Cambridge International programme based on the Cambridge system used in the United Kingdom and the International Baccalaureate (IB) programme based in Cardiff, also in the United Kingdom. These academic programmes prepare learners for participation in well-organized international educational examinations.

The preschool and primary school (Kindergarten KG, Year 1 through Year 6) offers the Primary Years Programme of the International Baccalaureate (IBPYP) while the middle school (Year 7 to Year 9) offers the Middle Years Programme of the International Baccalaureate (IBMYP). These two programmes lay the foundation for the International General Certificate of Secondary Education (IGCSE) to which the curricula lead, and for the International Baccalaureate Diploma Program (IBDP) to which the curricula of Years 12-13 lead.

2.4.1 International General Certificate of Secondary Education (IGCSE)

The IGCSE which was developed by the Cambridge International Examinations (CIE) in 1985 is an academically rigorous and specialised English language international curriculum for 14 to16 year olds. It is part of the Cambridge Secondary 2 stage which is offered to learners to prepare them for International Baccalaureate (IB) and (CIE) A-level. The IGCSE encourages learner-centered and enquiry-based approaches to learning. It develops learners' skills in creative thinking, enquiry and problem – solving, giving learners excellent preparation for the next stage in their education. According to the guidelines provided by this programme, participating schools are allowed to build a core curriculum, extend it to suit their learners and introduce cross-curricular perspectives.

The programme has clearly defined learning outcomes and content which means that it is compatible with other curricula and is internationally relevant and sensitive to different needs and cultures. The IGCSE is, thus, an international alternative to many popular national curricula. However, unlike many school-leaving qualifications, the IGCSE is not a group award or "certificate of education". It is a qualification based on individual subjects of study, meaning a learner receives an IGCSE qualification for each subject he/she takes. Typical "core" curricula for IGCSE candidates include a First Language, Second Language, Mathematics and the

Sciences, namely, physics, chemistry and biology. IGCSE candidates then choose a number of additional courses ranging from Social Sciences to Creative Arts (Cambridge International Examinations, IGCSE 2012).

The programme also provides a broad and flexible study programme and covers subjects from a variety of areas: Languages, Humanities, Social Sciences, Mathematics, Creative, Technical and Vocational. It is intended to be suitable for students whose first language may not be English and this is acknowledged throughout the examination process in that a degree of leniency in grammaticality is afforded in other subjects aside from English Language.

The IGCSE develops learner knowledge, understanding and skills in subject content, applying knowledge and understanding to familiar and new situations, intellectual enquiry and flexibility and responsiveness to change. In addition, it places emphasis on working and communicating in English and developing the cultural awareness of its learners (Cambridge International Examinations, IGCSE 2012).

2.4.2 International Baccalaureate Diploma Programme (IBDP)

The IBDP that follows on the IGCSE is an academically challenging and balanced programme of education that prepares learners aged 16 to 19 for success at university and in life. It has been designed to address the intellectual, social, emotional and physical well-being of learners. The Diploma Programme prepares learners for effective participation in a rapidly evolving and increasingly global society as they develop physically, intellectually, emotionally and ethically and acquire breadth and depth of knowledge and understanding. Learners who study for the IB study courses from six subject groups and at least two languages. Through this, they gain an understanding of their own culture and others. The learners make connections across traditional academic disciplines and explore the nature of knowledge through the programme's unique Theory of Knowledge (ToK) course. They also undertake an in-depth research into an area of interest through the lens of one or more academic disciplines in the extended essay; and enhance their personal and interpersonal development through creativity, action and service (CAS) (IBO, The IB Diploma Programme 2011).

The IB recognises the important role language plays in all the IB programmes. The IB believes

that language is central in developing critical thinking skills which are important for the development of intercultural awareness, international mindedness and global citizenship (International Baccalaureate 2013 – 24: 22). The IB acknowledges that multilingualism is now the norm in multicultural educational classrooms. The IB suggests the use of the L1 and other languages to differentiate tasks and activities so that learners' prior knowledge can be activated in the classroom (International Baccalaureate 2013 – 2014: 22).

Furthermore, the IB posits that every diploma teacher is a language teacher. Thus, the IB requires all IB diploma teachers to be language teachers who understand that the value of multilingualism is to ensure that learning is open and inclusive. In addition, the IB adds that recognising the multilingual and multicultural composition of learners can help affirm learners' identities and autonomies (International Baccalaureate 2013 – 2014: 22).

2.5 Medium of instruction (MoI)

At WIS, the MoI is English. However, French, German and Portuguese are offered as first and second language subjects from Year 1 onward. Other languages may be offered on L1 – level as requested but then in in the extra-curricular afternoon programme. The school has a Portuguese Learning Centre funded by the Portuguese government which provides Portuguese language classes for modern foreign language students of the school and the centre also runs adult classes in the evenings.

The school has a department for English as an Additional Language (EAL) which supports the teaching of "standard English" and is responsible for designing academic programmes for learners whose tested English proficiency has indicated that they need additional lessons in English to cope with the studies in the classroom and to participate effectively in the school's community. In other words, EAL support inside and outside of lessons is provided to students who have little or no prior knowledge of English until they reach a sufficient level of communication to enable them to be able to use English effectively both inside and outside the classroom. The need for the EAL department is motivated by the fact that since English is the MoI, learners need a high proficiency in English to be able to participate effectively in the lessons and also be able to write examinations which are conducted in English. The department

is run by two teachers; one for primary school and the other for middle and secondary schools. A well – qualified team from the Learning Support Department (LSD) supports EAL learners. Learners with learning difficulties are provided with a range of learning support opportunities by the LSD.

2.6 Multilingualism at Windhoek International School

Multilingualism at WIS can be conceptualised on two levels: at the level of the individual and at the level of the school as a community. At the individual level, every learner speaks more than one language and, therefore, can be said to be bi- or multilingual. The language most widely listed as L1s are English, Portuguese, French and German, Afrikaans and Oshiwambo.

As a practical necessity for pedagogical purposes and for purposes of communicating across cultural and linguistic backgrounds, every student is required to be proficient in English- if not as an L1, then as an L2. English is the MoI across all subjects except when other languages are being taught. Similarly, every teacher in the school is at least bilingual, with some who know and use up to six different languages.

The school expects a particular standard variety of English to be used in teaching and learning. However, among the teachers and learners, a number of different varieties are found. In the prescribed work, the language standard is set by the curriculum developers- that is, by educationists living and working in the USA or the UK. The expectation is that the language used as MoI and for official communication should be Standard English. Although at times the differences between different varieties of English are subtle or superficial, these have been noted and well documented. Regardless of the particular varieties represented, the school holds the view that instruction in the "standard language" is the responsibility of all teachers in all subject areas. Such an instruction also holds for the teaching of English as a school subject.

At the level of the school community, the learners who come from a variety of ethnic, cultural and linguistic backgrounds form a linguistic community that can be described as multilingual. As a matter of policy, the school encourages the use and development of different languages. In addition, requirements of the two examination bodies, namely- the CIE and the IB, are that each learner must study at least one other language apart from English. At the secondary level, CIE

requires each learner to study an L1 which could be English or another language that the school offers and then a foreign language. Where a learner studies English as L1, he/she needs to study another language, for example, French, German or Portuguese as a foreign Language. There is also the possibility of opting for German or Portuguese as L1. French and Portuguese are taught at all levels as L2. The situation is similar at the IBDP level where English is taught as L1 and the other languages are offered as foreign language subjects. Although almost 50% of the students are Namibians, none of the local Namibian languages are taught in the school.

2.7 Whole School Language Policy at Windhoek International School

The school itself recognises both the individual and societal multilingualism of its learners and teachers. As a result, the school has developed an official written Whole School Language Policy. The IBO requires such an official school policy, which in this case has been developed but has not yet been ratified by the Board of Trustees.

The purpose of the Whole School Language Policy is to outline and communicate the school's shared beliefs about languages and language learning. The school recognises that language development is integral to learners' academic progress. It also recognises that in this particular context, learners are expected to access a curriculum in a language other than their mother tongue. In the language policy, it is clearly stated that the school embraces the diversity of a language – rich community with the various cultures, nationalities and identities. In this regard, the aim of the school "is to develop a culture of acceptance of all languages, first language, mother- tongue and second language, foreign language, English as an Additional Language, and provide an inclusive, authentic context for learning in all areas of the curriculum" (Windhoek International School, Whole School Language Policy 2012: 2).

The school also recognises the intricate interplay between language learning culture, identity and international – mindedness. However, even as the multilingualism of the school is acknowledged, English is singled out as the working language in which the school communicates with its stakeholders and in which it is committed to providing a range of services for the implementation of its programmes. English is also the school's internal working language, in which most operational and development activities take place. It is the language of its

governance, management and academic committees. All formal, semi – formal and informal communication, verbal or written, is required to be in English for the sake of fairness and transparency.

It is clear from the discussion above that based on its written policy, WIS recognises individual multilingualism to the extent that each student is encouraged to speak his/her L1 and a language apart from English even though English is the lingua franca of the school. Yet on the whole with the prominence given to English, one can say that the policy is articulated with a monolingual bias.

2.8 Data from school records

In order to gain an impression of the national identities and the linguistic and cultural backgrounds of learners and teachers across the school, access to the school records was requested and obtained. The school is made up of four sections, namely, preschool, primary school, middle school and secondary school

2.9 Enrollment numbers

As mentioned earlier in section 1.1, the number of learners in the preschool section in 2013 was 70. In the primary school section, there were 201 learners while the middle school had 86 learners. In the secondary school section, there were 89 enrolled learners. Thus in total the school had a learner population of 446.

2.10 Varieties in terms of nationalities among learners

In the preschool learners were found to be representative of 23 nationalities. The primary school had 37 nationalities represented, while in the middle school, there were representatives of 33 different nationalities. In the secondary school section, there were representatives of 30 nationalities. It is clear that the primary school which has the largest number of pupils also represents the most diverse group of nationalities. The middle and secondary schools had the least number of students although in terms of represented nationalities the preschool was the least diverse.

2.11 Language distribution among learners across the school

The following sections will detail the variety of languages that are represented at the school and the numbers of speakers of each language. This is given specifically to emphasise the nature and extent of the multilingualism that is represented in this school community. Data from the records of the school indicated that there was indeed a very wide range of languages that were presented in the school.

2. 11.1 English as L1

At the preschool level, 41 learners reported English as their L1. In the primary school 125 learners reported English as their L1 while in the middle school 49 learners reported English as their L1. In the secondary school 48 learners reported English as their L1. Across the entire school 263 reported English as their L1. The distribution of L1 speakers of English across the different sections of the entire school is presented in Table 2.1 below.

Table 2.1: L1 Speakers of English across the entire school

Sections of the School	L1 Speakers of English
Preschool	41
Primary	125
Middle	49
Secondary	48
Total	**263**

2. 11. 2 Namibian languages as L1

A total of eight Namibian languages are reported as L1 and spoken by 90 learners across the entire school. Five Namibian languages were spoken among the preschoolers. These were Afrikaans (3), Otjiherero (7), Oshiwambo (5), Damara (1) and Nama (1). Eight Namibian Languages were spoken among primary school learners. These were Afrikaans (20), Herero (2), Oshiwambo (11), Damara (2), Nama (1), Otjiherero (4), Odonga (1) and Oshindonga (1). Five Namibian languages were represented as L1 across middle school. These were Afrikaans (11), Otjiherero (4), Oshiwambo (3), Herero (2) and Oshindonga (1). In the secondary school,

however, four Namibian languages were spoken. These were Afrikaans (5), Otjiherero (2), Herero (2), and Oshiwambo (2). In all a total of 90 learners reported eight Namibian languages as their L1 which was spoken across the school. The distribution of L1 speakers of Namibian languages across the entire school is presented in the Table 2.2:

Table 2.2: Total number of L1 speakers of various Namibian languages across the entire school

Languages	Number of speakers in pre-school	Number of speakers in primary school	Number of speakers in middle school	Number of speakers in secondary school	Total number of speakers
Afrikaans	3	20	11	5	**39**
Otjiherero	7	4	4	2	**17**
Oshiwambo	5	11	3	2	**21**
Damara	1	1	X	X	**3**
Nama	1	1	X	X	**2**
Oshindonga	X	1	1	X	**1**
Odonga	X	1	X	X	**1**
Herero	X	2	2	2	**6**
Total	**17**	**41**	**21**	**11**	**90**

Clearly, the number of Namibian languages represented in the school reflects the multilingual reality in Namibia. In the country there are 13 written languages with standardised orthographies (PRAESA, Occasional Papers No 37: 9).

2. 11. 3 Other African languages reported as L1

Seven other African languages spoken by eight learners as L1 are represented in the school. In the preschool, no other African language was reported as L1. In the primary school the learners reported the following other African languages as their L1s. These are Chichewa (1), a language spoken in Zambia and Malawi and Tigrigna (1). One learner in the middle school reported Chichewa his L1. In the secondary school, the learners reported the following other African languages as their L1s. These are Kiswahili (2), Tigrigna (1), Amharic (1), and Kikuyu (1). Table 2.3 shows the various African languages reported as L1 and the number of speakers in the primary, middle and secondary schools.

Table 2.3: Total number of L1 speakers of African languages reported across the entire school

Languages	Number of speakers in pre-school	Number of speakers in primary school	Number of speakers in middle school	Number of speakers in secondary school	Total number of speakers
Chichewa	X	1	1	X	**2**
Tigrigna	X	1	X	1	**2**
Kiswahili	X	X	X	2	**2**
Ahmaric	X	X	X	1	**1**
Kikuyu	X	X	X	1	**1**
Total	**X**	**2**	**1**	**5**	**8**

2. 11. 4 Other European languages reported as L1

Eight European languages spoken by 79 learners as L1 are represented in the school. The European languages reported as L1s by the preschoolers are Portuguese (6), Spanish (3), Czech (1) and German (2). In the primary school the learners reported the following European languages as their L1s. These are Portuguese (12), German (9), French (8), Spanish (2), Finish (2) and Czech (1). Learners in the middle school reported the following European languages as their L1s. These are Portuguese (6), German (5), French (2), Spanish (2) Russian (1) and Dutch (1). In the secondary school, the following European languages were reported as L1s. These are Portuguese (9), German (8), French (2), Finish (2), Spanish (1) and Dutch (1). Tables 2.4 below shows the various European languages and the number of speakers of these languages in the various sections of the school.

Table 2.4: Total number of L1 speakers of European languages reported
across the entire school

Languages	Number of speakers in pre-school	Number of speakers in primary school	Number of speakers in middle school	Number of speakers in secondary school	Total number of speakers
Portuguese	6	12	6	9	**33**
German	2	9	5	8	**16**
French	X	8	2	2	**12**
Dutch	X		1	1	**2**
Spanish	3	2	2	1	**7**
Czech	1	1	X	X	**2**
Finish	X	2	X	2	**4**
Dutch	X	X	X	1	**1**
Russian	X	X	1	X	**1**
Total	**12**	**33**	**17**	**24**	**78**

Finally, seven other languages spoken by 21 learners are represented across the school. They are as follows: in the preschool, one learner reported Japanese as his L1 while three learners reported Hebrew as their L1. In the primary school, the following languages were reported as L1s by the learners. These are Hebrew (4), Hindi (1), Chinese (1), Japanese (1), Arabic (1), and Myanmar (1). Learners in the middle school reported other languages such as Hindi (2) and Arabic (1), as their L1s. In the secondary school, the following languages were reported as L1s by the learners. These are Malayalam (2), Hebrew (2) and Hindi (1). Tables 2.5 shows the other languages reported as L1 and the number of speakers of each of those languages.

Table 2.5: Total number of L1 speakers of other languages reported across the entire school

Languages	Number of speakers in pre-school	Number of speakers in primary school	Number of speakers in middle school	Number of speakers in secondary school	Total number of speakers
Hebrew	3	4	X	2	**9**
Hindi	X	1	2	1	**4**
Japanese	1	1	X	X	**2**
Arabic	X	1	1	X	**2**
Malayalam	X	X	X	2	**2**
Myanmar	X	1	X	X	**1**
Chinese	X	1	X	X	**1**
Total	**4**	**9**	**3**	**5**	**21**

2. 12 Varieties of nationalities (teachers)

The records of the teachers showed their nationalities. The number of teachers in the school including teaching assistants was 43. As far teachers were concerned, 20 nationalities were represented across all the sections of the school.

2.13 Language distribution among teachers across the School

There was no information regarding their L1s and any other languages they knew and used from the records of the school. From informal interactions with the teachers, the following data was gathered about their language profile. Across the entire school, eleven teachers reported English as their L1 while 32 teachers reported LotE as L1. Five teachers also reported knowledge of other languages (see Table 2.20). At the preschool level none of the teachers reported English as his/her L1. Six teachers reported English as L1in the primary school. In the middle school, none of the teachers reported English as their L1. In the secondary school 5 teachers reported English as their L1.

Three different languages were identified as the L1s of the teachers and assistants in the preschool. These were Afrikaans (2), Oshiwambo (1), and Herero (1). Three teachers mentioned that they knew and used three languages as their home language in the primary school. These were Shona (1), Afrikaans (1) and Oshiwambo (1). In the middle school teachers identified five

different languages as their L1. These were Portuguese (2), Dutch (1), Kikuyu (1), Zulu (1) and Afrikaans (4). In the secondary school five LotEs were mentioned as L1 by the teachers. These are Afrikaans (10), Kikuyu (1), Yoruba (1), Twi (1), Russian and Malayalam. Besides these languages identified as home languages, some teachers indicated that they knew and used languages such as Rukwangali, Hindi, Tamil and Kannada as L2s or L3s.

Four Namibian languages were represented by teachers across the school, namely, Afrikaans (17), Oshiwambo (2), Rukwangali (1) and Herero (1). Other languages spoken as L1 by teachers were Russian (2), Polish (1) Shona (1), Portuguese (2), Dutch (1), Kikuyu (1), Yoruba (1), Twi (1), and Zulu (1).

Table 2.20   L1s of teachers across the school

Language	Preschool	Primary school	Middle school	Secondary school
English (L1)	X	6	X	5
Afrikaans (L1)	2	1	4	10
Oshiwambo (L1)	1	1	X	
Herero (L1)	1	X	X	X
Otjiherero (L1)	X	X	X	X
Damara (L1)	X	X	X	X
Nama (L1)	X	X	X	X
Odonga (L1)	X	X	X	X
Oshindonga (L1)	X	X	X	X
Shona (L1)	X	1	X	
Kikuyu (L1)	X	X	X	1
Zulu (L1)	X	X	1	X
Yoruba (L1)	X	X	X	1
Twi (L1)	X	X	X	1
Polish (L1)	X	1	1	X
Dutch (L1)	X	X	X	X
Russian (L1)	X	1	X	1
Portuguese (L1)	X	X	1	X

X indicates that none spoke that language

2.14 Summary

The data from the school records provided information about the nationalities and the linguistic profile of learners and teachers at WIS. It has been established that WIS is an appropriate site for the study because the school is multilingual and multicultural. In the next chapter, the scholarly literature on language policy, language-in-education policy and multilingualism will be reviewed.

CHAPTER THREE

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the theoretical framework for this study will be set out. An understanding of this framework is essential to answering the research questions outlined in this study. The chapter will begin with a reflection on language policy and its implementation in general. A working definition of "language policy" will be given to show how policy can be overt (explicitly written in binding documents) or covert (implicitly expressed in institutional practices). The role of language policy in deciding on the MoI in schools and how language ideology is reflected in the choice of the MoI in a multilingual context will be attended to. Furthermore, the chapter will provide an overview of how the concept of 'multilingualism' has been defined and used in recent studies. The purpose of this is to provide a framework for the study of classroom practices observed and recorded in this study, where in terms of linguistic identity the students and teachers have a multilingual repertoire and yet the MoI is articulated in accordance with monolingual norms. The chapter will examine how particular language policy issues may be embodied in the classroom situation.

Finally, the chapter will refer to literature that explains how language has the potential to create different identities, using the concepts of 'cultural convergence' and 'cultural divergence', and in understanding the concept of 'cultural diversity'. In short, the chapter reflects on language policy and its implementation, multilingualism as a sociolinguistic phenomenon in general and particularly in language policy and practices in multilingual secondary education. It will refer to circumstances where English is the MoI, that is, where English is used as a lingua franca in the education of multilingual learners.

3.1.1 Defining language policy

Language policy is the outcome of planning processes intended to address possible language conflicts regarding which languages to use and to develop in multilingual spaces such as public institutions, nation states, or even supra-national bodies. In multilingual communities, where the

languages of various members have varying statuses, language policies take care of providing (or withholding) language rights.

Shohamy (2006: 47 – 48) describes language policy, whether it is explicitly or implicitly given, as the "primary mechanism for manipulating and imposing language behaviours as it relates to decisions about languages and their uses in education and society". In addition, Shohamy (2006: 48) states that through language policy, "decisions are made regarding the preferred languages to be used, where, when and by whom". One of the functions of a language policy is to decide between multilingual or monolingual strategies in the organisation of discourses within public institutions (Wolff 2010: 2). Shohamy (2006: 50) makes a distinction between overt and covert language policies. Overt language policies refer to "those language policies that are explicit, formalised, *de jure*, codified and manifest" while covert language policies refer to those that are "implicit, informal, unstated, grassroot and latent". This distinction between overt and covert policy, she argues, is used to elaborate the differences between the narrow and broader meanings of the term "language policy". She notes that the explicitness of a policy does not guarantee that a language policy will be implemented. Very often the application of policy as it is clear in language use is in opposition with stated policies.

According to Schiffman (1996: 3) language policy, that is, the outcome of "decision-making about language" is inextricably connected to linguistic culture. He defines linguistic culture as:

> [the] sum totality of ideas, values, beliefs, attitudes, prejudices, myths, religious strictures and all other cultural "baggage" that speakers bring to their dealings with language from their culture. Linguistic culture is also concerned with the transmission and codification of language and has bearing also on the culture's notions of the value of literacy and the sanctity of text (Schiffman 1996: 2-3).

Thus Schiffman (1996: 3) advocates an approach to the study of language policy that incorporates both the overtly declared policies and the covert *de facto* language policies. He believes that this approach will assure due recognition of the mismatches between what is provided in the law and what happens in practice. He argues that defining language policy with an emphasis on its explicit and overt features is inadequate. According to him, such a definition ignores or overlooks the cultural notions about language that may profoundly affect the implementation of a language policy.

Shohamy (2006: 50) also works with this distinction in her reference to "real" and "declared" language policies. She contends that the real language policy is one which can be observed, understood and interpreted. She contrasts this with the declared policy that is given in official documents, even though in many instances it is not reflected in the language practices of a given community. Language policy exists even where it has not been made explicit or established by authority.

Spolsky (2004: 2153) has pointed out that even where there is a formal written language policy, its effects on language practices is neither guaranteed nor consistent. Thus, it is through the study of language practices that the covert language policy may be determined. Spolsky (2004: 2153) has proposed a framework that shows the difference between policy and practice. First, he refers to what he terms "language beliefs" which are the ideologies that underlie each language policy. Second, there is the "language practice" which he defines as the ecology of language that focuses on the actual language practices that take place in the particular context. Third, he introduces the term "language management" to refer to the formulation and proclamation of an explicit plan or policy, usually but not necessarily written in a formal document, about language use in institutional settings.

3.1.2 Studies on language-in-education policy in multilingual contexts

According to Spolsky (2004: 2155), one of the most important domains where language policy is applied is the educational environment. Shohamy (2006: 76) broadly defines language-in-education- policy (LiEP) as a way through which authorities create *de facto* language practices in educational instructions. Specifically, she contends that LiEP refers to how policy decisions about language in the contexts of schools are made in relation to home languages; thus the LiEP determines which language(s) will be used as MoI. Very often in multilingual communities, the MoI is the L2 of a significant number of learners. In such circumstances, the authorities manipulate and impose language decisions in such a way that they turn ideology into practice through formal education. Nonetheless, on some occasions, LiEP is also used to introduce alternative language policy if there is a demand from different sections of the educational community such as from grassroot organisations.

LiEP always implies some form of language choice. Such a choice may be exercised by a body

with authority over a defined group of people such as the school governing body. It may be made explicit in the formal language management in the planning decisions of an authorised body; alternatively, it may be implicitly given in established practices where the choice was informally made by those in power. Shohamy (2006: 77) states that in these situations, the LiEP is more difficult to detect as it is "hidden" from the public eye. Thus the policy would have to be gleaned from real language practices through the study of textbooks, teaching practices and especially testing systems.

A number of basic questions arise regularly in LiEP. First and foremost is the decision regarding the language to be used as a MoI. In state (public) schools, there is often little choice left to the school itself. The case may be different in private schools where such a decision may rest with the governing body, parents, the examining authority or a combination of several participants. The choice may be made explicit in the formal language management decisions of an authorised body or it may simply be introduced by undocumented mutual agreement. The school may select a single language as its desired MoI or it may decide to use more than one language in classrooms.

This study takes a particular interest in the kinds of language policy that determine which languages are used in education in a context where both teachers and learners are L1 speakers of a considerable number of different languages. The factors that determine the language policy of a school may include the sociolinguistic situation in which the school has been established, the school's ideology which often is not explicitly given but implicitly articulated in the organisational structures and practices, the wide distribution of a dominant language of wider communication such as English or French in African countries and the particular understandings of language rights circulated within the school as a community of practice.

In Namibia, for instance, its LiEP has been influenced by its history, linguistic diversity and educational goals. Historically, unlike other Anglophone African countries, English was not a colonial language in Namibia. Formerly, a German colony and later administratively entrusted to South Africa, the languages of power were German and Afrikaans. It was only after independence in 1990 that the Namibian constitution proclaimed English as its official language (Constitution, Republic of Namibia 1990 Sub-Article 3.1). As far as the linguistic diversity is

concerned, there are thirteen written languages which have standardised orthography in the country (PRASE-Occasional Papers No. 37: 9). Educationally, the choice of language for education has been motivated by the desire to take advantage of the linguistic capital of English (Ruiz 1984). Namibia's LiEP recognises the instrumental role of language in the realisation of educational goals and works with the presumption that all languages are equal in terms of language structure. It has worked with the ecological perception which holds that all languages should be allowed to flourish, and thus acknowledges the cultural value of the indigenous Namibian languages. While recognising the sociolinguistic reality of various language communities, it decided that one language should be used as MoI and lingua franca.

Specifically, the Discussion Document which eventually became the Language Policy for schools in Namibia (2003: 1 – 4) stipulates that the MoI for the early years, that is, (Grade 1 – 3) should be the L1 of learners. As of Grade 4, English becomes the only MoI. The rationale for the policy is that for concept formation, literacy and numeracy attainment, it is necessary that learners be taught in their L1. Schools that wish to use English as the only MoI as from the first school year are only allowed to do so with the permission of the Minister of Education. Grade 4 is the stage where it is expected that there will be a full transition from learners' various L1s to English, while the L1 is expected still to be taught as a subject. In addition, every learner is required to learn two languages from Grade 1 onwards with one of them being English. Foreigners could, however, study only one language (The Language Policy for Schools in Namibia: Discussion Document 2003: 1 – 4). These are governmental requirements for public school where the state prescribes the policy. However, there are no such prescriptions as far as private schools are concerned.

The language of education in multilingual societies has always been a concern of educators. As a result a number of studies have been done on LiEP in schools in different countries. For example, De Klerk (2002) focused on the decision of Xhosa-speaking parents in South Africa to send their children to English-medium schools. Other research has looked at the status of English in urban townships of Gauteng which is a multilingual community (Slabbert and Finlayson 2000). Probyn et al. (2002) have been concerned with the gap between the theory and practice of South African LiEP. Other studies have addressed the controversy that surrounds which language to use in schools in Ghana (Owu-Ewie 2006; Davis & Agbenyega 2012) or have

explained the tensions that arise in translating multilingual language policy into classroom practice for multilingual populations seeking fair access to a globalizing economy (Hornberger and Vaish 2009). Further research has examined the inherent contradictions in language policy that embraces multilingualism at the national level but is applied differently in the school setting (Nyaga & Anthonissen 2012).

De Klerk's (2000) study in Grahamstown in the Eastern Cape Province of South Africa found that among the reasons parents gave for choosing an English – MoI school for their children were the need for a better education, the recognition that English is an international language and the hope that English would open the door to more job opportunities for their children.

Slabbert and Finlayson (2000: 128) who undertook an ecologically informed study of language use and identity documented the high status of English among black people, for whom use of English marks the speaker as "educated, affluent, serious or authoritative". In a related work, they note the ongoing threat to multilingual education posed by the common perception of English as a language of access (Finlayson and Slabbert 2004). From the research it became obvious that although at the macro and policy levels multilingualism is deemed to be a right, in the classroom and at the micro levels English monolingualism is the practice.

Similarly, Probyn et al. (2002) in their investigation into the language policy and practice in four Eastern Cape districts in South Africa revealed an obvious gap between the policy goals and what actually happened in schools (Probyn et al 2000: 1). For instance, from a theoretical perspective, the research argued that although policy at the national level in South Africa was a response to particular political imperatives and pedagogical perspectives, the practical implementation of the policy in these schools was determined by a different set of imperatives (Probyn et. al. 2002: 31). In addition, it was clear that school governing bodies were not well equipped to make decisions about school language policy which met the requirements of the national LiEP. Furthermore, economic imperatives to acquire English overrode considerations of multilingualism and additive bilingualism that were expressed in the policy.

Hornberger & Vaish (2009) investigated the tensions in translating multilingual language policy into classroom practice in three different countries, and especially attended to the contradictory

role of and quest for English as an instrument of decolonisation for multilingual populations seeking fair access to a globalising economy. The research focused on access to the linguistic capital of English and how multilingual classroom practice tries to meet the demands of the community for that access. It looked at English as MoI at policy and classroom levels in India, Singapore, and South Africa separately and comparatively. Indeed the language ideology of all the three countries, at both official and popular levels encompassed a view of multilingualism as a resource.

In India, Hornberger and Vaish (2009) uncovered that despite India's Three Language Formula (TLF) of 1968, many Indian children are educated in a language which is not their mother tongue. Singapore's bilingual policy with English as MoI and mother tongues taught as second languages leaves the linguistic capital of multilingual children who speak a pidginized variety of English (informally referred to as "Singlish") out of the equation, since the school MoI is Standard English. In South Africa it emerged that though its Constitution of 1994 embraces multilingualism as a national resource, raising nine major African languages to national official status together with English and Afrikaans, in practice an unequal dispensation remained. Even after the abolition of apartheid in 1994, for various reasons including the upward mobility afforded by English, large numbers of African language-speaking parents seek to place their children in English – MoI schools. The Hornberger and Vaish (2009) study shows up the conflict between a drive for English on the one hand and spreading the value of multilingualism on the other. However, the same study (2009: 12) concluded that the use of mother tongue in the classroom, or as in the case of Singapore the judicious use of the quotidian register, can be a resource through which children can access Standard English while also continuing and indeed cultivating multilingual practices inclusive of their own local languages.

In Ghana, although the country's MoI policy stipulates the use of the L1 of localities as the MoI from primary year one to three and English as MoI from primary year four onwards (MOESS 2008), the empirical findings of Davis and Agbenyega (2012: 346) showed that the language policy was not being enforced in practice. The study revealed that Ghanaian headteachers and teachers had a more positive attitude towards English as MoI than towards the L1 of learners because of the perceived prestige of English in the Ghanaian society, its supposed linkage with high academic performance and its economic value.

Nyaga and Anthonissen (2012) refer to language-in-education policy in Kenya, where a gap between *de jure* and *de facto* policy is apparent and little progress has been made in implementing a policy that encourages the use of Kenyan mother tongues in early primary school education. In – class observation and interviews with teachers indicated that in the urban and peri – urban schools, where the learner population is highly multilingual, the policy has not been implemented in line with its explicit intention. Even in the rural areas where there is comparatively minimal diversity, practical aspects of the use of the mother tongue in education seemed not to be in accordance with the policy provisions. In spite of the diversity of languages in Kenya, the most important languages in education are Kiswahili and English which are widely used as lingua francae. In late primary and secondary education and even at the early primary school level, English is the only language of formal testing.

3.1.3 Bilingualism and bilingual education

An understanding of multilingualism and multilingual education should begin with definitions of "bilingualism" and "bilingual education". Anderson and Boyer (1978) define "bilingual education" as the use of two or more languages as MoI in subjects other than the languages themselves. Baker (2001) defines bilingual education as education in more than one language which may also include more than two languages. Garcia (2009: 9), on the other hand perceives bilingual education as an instance in which learners' and teachers' communicative practices involve the use of multiple multilingual practices that ensure that the learners get the best from these practices. Earlier Lambert (1974) referred to by Garcia et al. (2011: 2) explains that bilingualism could either be subtractive or additive. In education subtractive bilingualism refers to a system in which, the L1 as MoI is taken away and replaced by the L2. This results in a monolingual system where an L2 becomes the sole language – of – learning for a number of learners. In additive bilingualism, an L2 is added to an L1 as MoI without any loss of the L1. Subtractive and additive bilingualism are linked to the concepts of 'language minorities' and 'language majorities' respectively. According to Garcia et al. (2011: 2), language minorities usually experience subtractive bilingualism as they study in a language which is different from their L1. In other words, the L1of language minorities is taken away as they learn the school language. Conversely, learners from a language majority within a multilingual context usually experience additive bilingualism as they are likely to learn the school language in addition to

their home language. The argument for additive bilingualism is that it is socially and cognitively beneficial, whereas subtractive bilingualism results in the replacement of learners' home language as the MoI so that effectively the L1 is reduced in terms of its value in knowledge development.

Garcia et al. (2011: 1), considering the transformation that bilingualism has undergone in the 21st century, propose the concepts of 'recursive' and 'dynamic' bilingualism. The theoretical basis of these two new models of bilingualism is that language practices of bilinguals are complex and interrelated and not simply linear (Garcia et al. 2011: 3) as additive and subtractive bilingualism seem to suggest. According to Garcia et al. (2011: 3) recursive bilingualism refers to cases where bilingualism is developed after the language practices of a community have been suppressed. In this situation, language minority communities who have experienced language loss and then attend bilingual schools in the hopes of revitalising their languages undergo a process of recursive bilingualism. Since they already have an L1, they do not start as simple monolinguals. Rather, they recover bits and pieces of their existing language practices. They develop bilingualism that continuously reaches back to move forward (Garcia et. al. 2011: 3). On the other hand, dynamic bilingualism refers to language practices that are multiple and try to adjust to the multilingual learning environment. Dynamic bilingualism refers then to the different uses of multiple language practices that enable multilingual individuals to communicate in multilingual environments.

Garcia et al. (2011) in a case study of two New York City (NYC) high schools reports on how bilingual education used effectively can reflect the realities of bilingual learners. These schools placed emphasis on dynamic bilingualism that responded to learners' complex bilingualism- that is, instead of using the top – down approach where bilingualism is enforced by school authorities and teachers, bilingualism was enacted from the learners' and teachers' own bilingual language practices (Garcia et. al. 2011: 2). The schools encouraged Spanish – English bilingualism in the education of their Latino students in spite of the fact that some of the learners lacked proficiency in one or the other language (Garcia, et. al. 2011: 10). This approach derived its authority from the school's Language Allocation Policy which stated that in subjects that laid emphasis on the acquisition of knowledge of content, a learner could be permitted and encouraged to switch to his/her native language if he/she found difficulty in comprehending the content in the MoI.

3.2 Multilingualism: definition, overview, and use in recent studies

The term "multilingualism" is used to refer to (i) the ability of an individual to use two or more languages often at varying levels of proficiency and (ii) the phenomenon of a community of speakers who know and use multiple languages. "Multilingualism" is often employed as an antonym of the term "monolingualism" where the latter refers to the knowledge and use of a single language at the individual or community level. The notion of 'monolingualism', according to Bourdieu (1991), has its origins in the concept of 'linguistic habitus' which is the set of unquestioned dispositions related to thinking about, valuing and using languages. Gogolin (1994) refers to "monolingual habitus" as the deep-seated habit of assuming monolingualism as the norm in a linguistic community. In other words, monolingual habitus refers to the dominant linguistic notion that accepts the homogeneity of languages and cultures in a nation state. In the educational context, it accepts that only certain official languages are appropriate as the MoI. Transferred to the classroom context, "monolingual habitus" refers to the situation where it is wrongly assumed that all learners are a homogenous group and can be taught using a single MoI (Gogolin 1994).

A multilingual person, broadly defined, is one who knows and can communicate in more than one language, be it productively (through speaking, writing, or signing) or receptively (through listening, reading, or perceiving) (Baker and Jones 1998). A person, according to more traditional definitions, may be called multilingual if s/he uses her or his languages on a regular basis and is able to switch from one to another wherever it is necessary (Ludi 2000: 25). A functional definition of "multilingualism", however, will refer to how a multilingual person is able to adjust his or her language choice to a particular context and to shift from one language to the other, if necessary, independently of the balance between his competencies (Ludi 2000: 15).

The focus of scholarly interest in multilingualism is not on linguistic competence alone; it is also on the conditions in which multiple languages are acquired and used. Being multilingual normally entails that speakers conduct their daily lives in two or more languages. In some circumstances, different languages represent different cultures. This does not mean a perfect, harmonised, unhindered membership of many cultural communities. In fact, currently the possibility of a 'culture of multilingualism' where one of the markers of a given culture is the

knowledge and use of various languages is also considered.

It should be noted that the term "multilingualism" only encompasses one aspect of multiculturalism – the aspect of multiple or diverse languages. Becoming multilingual thus entails, in most cases, the development of an intercultural communicative competence (Ludi 2000: 16). "Intercultural communicative competence" is defined as a combination of the knowledge and mindfulness of other cultures, its norms and the specific communication skills needed to communicate effectively with people from other cultures (Ting – Toomey 1999: 226-229).

One of the distinctions that often facilitate any discussion of the topic of multilingualism is the one mentioned in the introduction above, namely, between individual and societal multilingualism. Individual multilingualism concentrates on the multilingual individual and what it means to know and use more than one language. Societal multilingualism primarily concentrates on the interplay between languages in a community that accommodates speakers of various languages. Studies on societal multilingualism also entail an interest in political, economic, social, educative, cultural and other determining forces. Therefore, a multilingual society is a society in which more than one language is used as L1, where many speakers are themselves bi-or multilingual, but some may be monolingual speakers of a single one of the community of languages.

Other studies that topicalise multilingualism turn attention to phenomena such as 'diglossia' or 'polyglossia' that typically are found in communities where a variety of languages co-exist. These terms usually give expression to a perceived inequality and hierarchies of power and prestige (Wolff 2010: 2). 'Diglossia' is the use of two different languages in a community with a functional differentiation (Fergusson 1959). "Diglossia" is a concept which contributes to the comprehension of the relationship between multilingualism and social power (Ferguson 1959). According to Ferguson (1959), 'diglossia' produces the hierarchical status of the language society – which refers to a High Variety (High Prestige) with a Low Variety. 'Polyglossia', on the other hand refers to the use of three or more languages in a community with a functional differentiation, shared language value system and common norms.

Bourdieu (1991), states that 'linguistic markets'-that is, the space(s) in which human beings use language is/are inevitably hierarchical. In other words, 'linguistic markets' give different values to different languages and people's competence in these languages. In most multilingual societies, quite often each language uniquely fulfills certain roles and represents distinct identities and all of them complement one another to serve "the complex communicative demands of a pluralistic society" (Jegede 2012: 40). In section 3.2.1 various definitions of "multilingualism" will be discussed in more detail as this thesis requires clarity on what counts as 'multilingualism' and how this phenomenon is accommodated in education, specifically in the school where the study is located.

3.2.1 Three approaches to studies of multilingualism

Wolff (2010: 2) identifies three approaches to the study of multilingualism related to various interests. These are related to territorial perspectives on multilingualism, institutional perspectives on multilingualism, and individual and social perspectives on multilingualism. Territorial perspectives on multilingualism deals with the geographical distribution of languages across territories such as countries. Institutional perspectives on multilingualism deal with an interest in language practices in any social, cultural, religious, educational or political institutions. Finally, individual and social perspective on multilingualism deals with language behaviour, that is, patterns of language use amongst individuals and definable groups of speakers. Related to individual and societal multilingualism are questions of language choice or themes such as the pragmatics of speech acts, the ethnography of communication, and multiple language acquisition.

This study will consider multilingualism from an institutional perspective in that it investigates the policies that direct language practices in a multilingual education institution, namely, the WIS in Namibia. It also takes an individual and social perspective in that it has to consider relevant aspects of individual and societal multilingualism that have an effect on language choices within the institution, as well as on the achievement of educational success of multilingual learners enrolled at WIS.

3.3 Definitions of multilingual education

Multilingual education refers to the use of two or more languages as MoIs. Multilingual education and bilingual education are similar to the extent that both instances involve the use of more than one language in education (Baker 2001; Garcia 2009). UNESCO adopted the term "multilingual education" in 1999 in the General Conference Resolution 12 to refer to the use of at least three languages, an L1, a regional or national language and an international language -in education. Hornberger (1990: 213) states that multilingual education is an instance of biliteracy "in which communication occurs in two (or more) languages in or around writing".

3.4 Issues in multilingual education

Hornberger (2009) argues that multilingual education offers the best possibilities for preparing coming generations to participate in constructing more just and democratic societies in the globalised and intercultural world. Hornberger (2009: 2) states that multilingual education begins from the knowledge that learners bring to the classroom and moves toward their participation as full and crucial actors in society – locally, nationally and globally. Through the use of different languages in the curriculum, children develop multiple language practices. This is effective when a wide range of languages are accepted and tolerated in the classroom.

Again, Hornberger (2010: 1-3) writing on multilingual education policy and practice and lessons learnt from indigenous experience argues that multilingual education becomes possible if they are recognised in national policies. She refers to the Bolivian education reform law of 1994 which implanted multilingual education in what was termed as "bilingual intercultural education". In addition, she says that the success of multilingual education depends on the cooperation of teachers and local communities. She argues for a bottom – up local support in the implementation of multilingual education programmes. Furthermore, she posits that models of multilingual education should reflect linguistic and socio-cultural histories and goals particular to each context. Hornberger (2009: 10) says that hybrid multilingual classroom practices offer the possibility for teachers and learners to access academic content through the linguistic resources they bring to the classroom while simultaneously acquiring new ones. Finally, she advances the

point that classroom practices can foster transfer of language and literacy across languages and modalities.

According to Garcia et al. (2011: 2), such a situation leads to multiple translanguaging practices. She defines translanguaging as the multiple discursive practices that individuals use. Garcia (2009) uses the term translanguaging to refer to the educational practices that use bilingualism as a resource in the classroom. Translanguaging takes the position that bilinguals have one linguistic repertoire from which they strategically select features to communicate effectively. Again Garcia (2009) states that translanguaging has the potential of allowing bilinguals to use their entire linguistic repertoire to develop language practices that allow them to learn demanding content.

Ruiz (1984) argues for the 'language as a right' orientation. His position is that language is a basic human and civil right and every individual, especially those in the minority, has the right to use their own indigenous languages. He further argues that linguistic discrimination constitutes discrimination within every facet of social life where language is used (Ruiz 1984: 22). He, however, concedes that an exhaustive list of language rights is impossible. Yet he points out the close linkage between the 'language as a right' orientation and 'language as a resource orientation'. Ruiz (1984: 373) suggests that the intrinsic value of a language makes it a valuable resource to the individual and community. Ludi (2000: 14) states that multilingual competencies are regarded as linguistic resources opened to participants of a community for socially important exchanges. The totality of these resources constitutes the linguistic repertoire of a person or a community and may include the different languages, dialects, registers, styles and routines spoken.

Corson (1993: ix) supports the social justice principle as far as language use in education is concerned. He advocates for the inclusion of minority languages in educating minority language children. He argues that including minority languages in education is fair and just and also has the potential to protect the life chances of learners who would otherwise have had no access to social contexts where their minority languages are used. He also argues that learners are likely to suffer cognitively and academically if they are put in learning environments where they have to use the majority language. He suggests an approach where schools will strike a balance between

a view of language being socially valuable on the one hand and intellectually valuable on the other (Corson, 1993:7).

On the teaching of language minority learners, Garcia (1990: 153) argues for the twin principles of social justice and social practice. She insists that it is only when the L1 of language minority learners is included in pedagogical practices that any educational system can claim to be observing these two principles. Particularly, the social justice principle places premium on the strength of bilingual learners and communities. According to Garcia (1990: 153), such language practices do not threaten the identities of the learners. Rather, they contribute to the maintenance of high academic standards. She further links these practices to linguistic human rights which are the individual and collective language rights that every individual has because of they are human, and are necessary, in order for an individual to fulfil his or her basic needs and live a dignified life (UNESCO: Universal Declaration on Linguistic Rights 1996).

According to UNESCO (2009: 83), multilingualism in schools is now practised in many countries, where national educational objectives have made social cohesion one of the priorities of public investment in education. According to UNESCO, language policies that support multilingualism, language learning and endangered languages are central to the long term sustainability of cultural diversity. Multilingual education uses values from more than one language in teaching and learning. It is intercultural in that it recognises and values understanding and dialogue across different lived experiences.

3.5 Multilingualism and issues of culture and identity

Language is believed to be an identity marker. For instance Muaka (2011: 217) posits that language is at the core of identity construction in multilingual and multidialectal environments where language choices have to be made. In multilingual classrooms where learners from different linguistic and socio – cultural backgrounds converge to acquire knowledge, the choice of language is likely to have far reaching consequences for the quality of education (Jegede 2012: 40). Language – minority students often face challenges in linguistically diverse schools where they are expected to learn and use a new language in the course of their studies. Often this

new language and culture is different from what they have learned at home (Terry and Irving 2010: 111).

As was mentioned in the introduction of this chapter, the potential for language to create different identities in the multilingual classroom where there are learners with a variety of different languages has an implication for cultural difference and at the same time cultural convergence around a common language which in this case is the MoI. "Cultural convergence" is defined as the phenomenon that people worldwide increasingly share the same values, customs, world view, kinship system and social organisation. Conversely, "cultural divergence" describes the trends of different cultures to integrate and at the same time, retain their unique characteristics (Guirdham 1999: 70-72). The study thus takes a particular interest in how language can at once create cultural convergence and cultural differences.

Finally, language has the potential to influence the process of academic socialisation. For instance, Morita (2004) investigated how language and culture could affect the process of academic socialisation. The study which was an in-depth analysis of the academic discourse socialisation experience of a doctoral student provided an understanding of the challenges faced by the student in the process of becoming socialised into academic discourses. In this research, Morita (2004) sought to find out the complex, situated process by which learners from different cultural and linguistic backgrounds become socialised into academic discourses and practices. The research found that for the learner, the classroom was a place where he/she constantly negotiated his/her competence, including language abilities, membership in his new academic communities and multiple, sometimes conflicting identities (Morita 2009: 449). The learner's greatest challenge was the use of English in order to function effectively in the academic community. He came to the conclusion that differences in language, culture and gender that were constructed locally and interactionally within an academic community affected the student's participation both inside and outside the classroom. In the research into learners' experiences of being multilingual in a Kenyan public school, Spernes (2012: 201) found that through the use of Nandi, which was the learners' L1 and English which was MoI, the learners acquired multiple linguistic identities. They were confident regarding the domains in which they used different languages. As multilingual speakers, they were able to choose language according to the factors such as the participants, situations, themes and purpose of the conversation.

Since in multilingual classrooms learners from different linguistic and socio-cultural backgrounds whose L1 is different from the MoI are likely to experience far − reaching consequences for the quality of education, the study will seek to find out whether there are times when another language is used as- "scaffolding", that is, as a means of improving understanding and developing insight that is translated into English afterwards. In addition, it will find out whether there are occasions when some students appear to feel marginalised because they are limitedly proficient in English and if there are how such learners are encouraged to participate in the learning process

3.6 Summary

This chapter has discussed issues relating to language policy, LiEP in multilingual contexts, bilingual and multilingual education. Regarding LiEP in multilingual environments, the chapter has shown that very often there is a conflict between policy at the national level which usually responds to particular political imperatives and pedagogical perspectives on the one hand and a different set of perspectives on the ground on the other. Often there is a gap between policy goals and what actually happens in schools. While at the macro − levels multilingual norms are advocated, monolingual practices are implemented at the micro − levels. It has described the various kinds of bilingual education, namely, subtractive bilingualism, additive bilingualism, recursive bilingualism and dynamic bilingualism and has concluded that dynamic bilingualism is the best form of bilingual education (Garcia et al. 2011: 3) because it uses multiple language practices that allow multilingual individuals to communicate in multilingual educational environments. The review of the scholarly literature on multilingualism and multilingual education has brought into relief the different dimensions of multilingual education. The chapter has mentioned that multilingual education offers the best possibilities for preparing coming generations to participate in constructing more just and democratic societies in our globalised and multicultural world (Hornberger 2009). The chapter has also advocated for Ruiz's (1984) 'language as a right' orientation and Corson's (1993: ix) the social justice principle as far as language use in education is concerned.

The next chapter discusses the methodology and data collection methods for the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

METHODOLOGY AND DATA COLLECTION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter will describe the methodology of the study, which includes a description of the kind of data required and how the data were collected. It will explain why a qualitative research methodology was adopted and what the value is of taking a descriptive, interpretive and explanatory approach to the insights gained within a single school.

To recap, the study is interested in the problem of a mismatch between language policies and their application in schools, particularly regarding the choice of which language(s) will feature as MoI. Associated with this are concerns about the role of multilingual repertoires in education, and in learners' success (or lack thereof) in learning. The specific questions the study set out to answer (see section 1.5) are the following:

1. How do the teaching and learning practices in the classroom represent the multilingualism of the community?,
2. How do the communicative practices noted in learner – teacher interaction outside of the classroom represent the multilingualism of the community?,
3. What kind of tolerance/encouragement is there for the use of languages other than the MoI (English) both inside and outside of the classroom?,
4. What practices are currently in use inside and outside of the classroom, which are likely to contribute to the development and maintenance of the L1s of learners where their L1s are Languages other than English (LotE)?,
5. What are the observable effects of multilingual communicative practices on the development and use of English as the MoI?, and
6. What kind of language policy is overtly followed at WIS and how is this policy more and less explicitly articulated in the classroom practices of the school?

The data for the sociolinguistic profiling of the school community were obtained from teachers and learners through questionnaire and interviews. This information was supplemented by the

researcher's observations of language use in real classroom situation. The classrooms of two different subjects attended by Grade 9 learners were observed more closely. These were an English classroom and a Geography classroom. As the study is qualitative, the sampling technique was purposive and the participants were selected on the basis of their multilingual repertoires.

The first source of data was the school's records. Information was drawn from the school's records on how many languages are represented as L1s among learners and teachers as well as the number of L1 speakers of each language. The school records were used to find the different linguistic backgrounds of teachers and students and the number of students whose tested levels of English proficiency indicated that they need additional support in strengthening their proficiency in the MoI. In addition, the survey determined the number of local Namibian languages, besides English and other international languages that were presented among learners and teachers in the school. As mentioned already, besides the existing records of the demographic information, the research instruments for this study were observation, questionnaires and interviews. Questionnaires were administered to a total of 20 secondary school teachers and 20 Grade 9 learners, after which semi – structured interviews took place between the researcher and five teachers and five learners.

4.2 Qualitative research

According to Berg (2000), the purpose of a qualitative research approach is to gain information about facts about a situation that cannot be quantified in meaningful terms. In other words, qualitative research investigates the qualities of a phenomenon instead of its quantities (Henning 2010). There are a number of reasons for using the qualitative approach in this study. One such reason was that the study wanted to find out how the concept of 'multilingualism' operated in a natural setting involving learners from different cultural and linguistic backgrounds. In this light, the study adopted an approach where the data collections method was to be multidimensional- that is, using a mixed – method approach and the data analysis would be multi – perspectival. It was envisaged that the research would be open – ended and to a large extent exploratory. In order to achieve, the aims and objectives of the study, the case study method was used.

According to (Berg, 2004: 283), the case study method may be defined as a process of gathering adequate information in a systematic manner about a particular person, social setting, social group or an event. The purpose of this method is to allow the researcher to find out in fine detail and with sufficient depth how the person or social group operates or functions in real circumstances.

4.3 Data collection

As has been indicated, a variety of different instruments were used in data – collection in order to gain information from many perspectives as possible. The various instruments and methods of data collection are discussed in sections 4.3 to 4.4.

4.3.1 Data from the school records

The collection of data from the school records spanned a period of one month during which information was accessed and recorded in a format suitable for this study. The school records were made up of the directory of learners and staff and records of learners whose proficiency in English was so low that the needed lessons in EAL.

4.3.2 Data collected by means of a questionnaire

The questionnaire (see appendixes B and C) developed and used to collect data from both learners and teachers was divided into three parts, requesting (i) relevant personal, social and educational background of learners and teachers, (ii) their linguistic profiles, and (iii) their language biographies. Regarding their general personal backgrounds, the first section of the questionnaire sought to find out the age ranges of learners and teachers, their home language (which was mostly) their L1, gender, country of origin, nationality and the number of years they have studied or taught at WIS respectively.

The second section of the questionnaire regarding the linguistic profile consisted of a table that required learners and teachers to fill in all the languages that they knew, even if they were not proficient in them. In addition, on the scale of 1 – 5 where 1 indicated 'excellent' and 5 'poor', the learners and teachers were asked to rate their ability in each language in the skills of understanding, speaking, listening, reading and writing. They were also required to mention

where and when they used the language(s) they indicated that they knew. In this research "knowing" is operationalised as 'understanding', 'speaking', 'reading' and 'writing'. Even where the respondent indicated that he 'knew' the language poorly, he/he was deemed to 'know' the language. The rationale behind this was to find out the individual multilingualism of the learners and teachers in line with the definitions of Baker and Jones (1998) who define a multilingual person as one who can speak and communicate in more than one language, be it actively (through speaking, writing, or signing) or passively (through listening, reading, or perceiving) or in Ludi's (2000) terms a person who uses her or his languages on a regular basis and is able to switch from one to another wherever it is necessary.

The third part of the questionnaire was the section that focused on the language biography of learners and teachers. This section asked the learners and teachers to state briefly where they learnt the language(s) they claimed they knew and where they came across them for the first time. Another question sought to find out whether they would like to improve their proficiency in the languages they knew. Finally, they were also to state the value they got from knowing those languages. The rationale for these questions was to find out the linguistic repertoire of each learner and teacher and also WIS as a community and also to elicit from the participants whether they were aware of the value of multilingualism as a linguistic resource or not. Information gained with this instrument will be presented, analysed and interpreted in Chapter 5 (section 5.6).

4.3.3 Data collected by means of interviews

In order to confirm the responses given in writing and to gain more detailed information about the language knowledge and use of learners and teachers, the study asked a select number of learners and teachers to be interviewed. A semi – structured interviews took place between the researcher and five teachers and five learners. The interview was scheduled in a manner that would elicit the kind of information required to answer the research questions (see a copy of the schedule in appendixes D and E). Care was taken not to prompt participants in such a way that they would give answers they thought would be desired, rather than honest and reliable responses. The interview was divided into four parts in which each participant was asked to give some comment on their personal background and their language use inside and outside of

the classroom. Regarding the language used in the classroom, the interview aimed at finding out whether there were occasions that languages other than English were used in classroom, who used them and what the circumstances of such use were. It also sought to find out if they were confident in using English outside the classroom.

With regard to language use outside the classroom, the questions here focused on which languages learners and teachers used in communication with their friends and colleagues outside of the classroom, which languages teachers used in communication with the learners outside of the classroom and which languages learners used in communication with teachers outside of the classroom. The questions sought to find out not just the languages which languages learners and teachers used, but also why they used them in other social domains such as in cell phone texting and writing emails. Another area of interest was their choice of language in entertainment, such as watching television or listening to the radio, where receptive rather than productive preferences are involved.

Finally, the interview intended to find out which language(s) learners and teachers used at home, specifically with whom the learners and teachers used specific language(s) with and for which purpose. The rationale for these questions was to answer the specific research questions in section 1.5 (repeated in 4.1 above).

4.3.4 Data collected in classroom observation

In order to access reliable information during the observation sessions, an observation guide was developed to assist the researcher in the process of observation (see appendix F). The researcher observed the Geography and English lessons. The total number of hours of observation was two hours and forty minutes. Each lesson which was observed for eighty minutes was recorded. In the observation, the researcher could ascertain the number of learners in each classroom at the time of the observation and could confirm the languages represented as learners' L1s, the L1 of the teacher, which LotEs were used, how often LotEs were used, the circumstances in which LotEs were used, the occasions when students communicated in LotEs, how the teacher reacted to students who communicated their LotEs and whether or not the teacher used LotE in the classroom. In addition, the questions sought to find out the circumstances of introducing LotE into the classroom interactions and whether LotEs ever

functioned as 'bridging' in the development of knowledge. Finally, the questions sought to find out whether LotEs were used as 'scaffolding', whether some students felt marginalized because of their limited proficiency in English and above all how the learners were encouraged to participate in the learning process. Observation was used because according to Silverman (2000: 34) observing what happens in the classroom allows the researcher to observe what participants in a research study actually do and not what the participants think they do. In this study observation was used to complement the questionnaire and interviews.

4.4 The observer's paradox

According to Labov (1972: 209), "the aim of linguistic research in the community must be to find out how people talk when they are not being systematically observed; yet we can only obtain these data by systematic observation.' However, observation can be affected by the "Observer's Paradox". The "Observer's Paradox" states that the presence of the observer changes the condition of the observed. In order to minimise the observer's paradox, Leedy & Omrod (2010) state that during observation, there are two options open to the researcher. The researcher can observe as a relative outsider or he/she can assume the role of an observer – participant. In this study, the research combined both roles.

4.5 Approaches to analysis of the data

For the purpose of analysis the school records were grouped and examined under the following headings:

1. Enrollment numbers of learners by preschool, primary, middle and secondary schools-,
2. Speakers of English, both learners and teachers, as L1-
3. Learners' and teachers' LotEs-
4. Namibian languages spoken by learners and teachers at preschool, primary, middle and secondary schools-
5. Nationalities of learners and teachers- and
6. Tests that gave indication of learners' proficiency in English.

The data collected by means of questionnaire were grouped under the following themes:

1. Biographical data of learners and teachers-
2. Linguistic profile of learners and teachers-
3. Proficiency of learners and teachers in English (MoI)- and
4. Proficiency of teachers and learners LotEs.

The data collected by means of interviews were grouped under the following themes:

1. Language proficiency of learners and teachers as a way of confirming the responses given by respondents in the questionnaire-
2. Language used in the classroom by learners and teachers- and
3. Language used outside of the classroom by learners and teachers.

The data collected by means of observation were grouped under the following themes:

1. Language(s) used by both learners and teachers in the classroom-
2. Teachers' reaction to the use of other languages apart from the MoI in the classroom-
3. Teachers' use of other language(s) apart from the MoI in the classroom- and
4. LotEs used for 'scaffolding' in the classroom.

4.6 Ethical considerations

Ethical considerations were paramount in this research. The process for ethical clearance was strictly adhered to. The researcher sought permission from the authorities of WIS to use the school as a site for the research. Learners, teachers and parents were approached to agree to participate voluntarily in the research and their consent was obtained with the signing of the consent form after they had been given time to read it thoroughly. The research commenced after the ethical clearance had been granted.

4.7 Summary

The study used a mixed – method approach to data collection and analysis with the aim of giving a complete picture of the state of multilingualism at WIS. In the next chapter the data will be analysed in detail using a combination of descriptive, interpretive and explanatory methods.

CHAPTER FIVE

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter the different kinds of data collected will be described, and then the various kinds of information obtained through the data collection will be interpreted. The data will then be triangulated with a view to answering the research questions, commenting on pertinent matters of multilingualism and language policy at WIS, which illustrates language uses related to the MoI in a private school in Namibia.

5.2 Data collected by means of the school records

Quantitative information in the form of enrollment numbers (gained from access to certain sections of the school records) gives an impression of the distribution of languages across the whole population of WIS. As has already been mentioned in section 2.9, the number of learners in the preschool section in 2013 was 70. In the primary school section, there were 201 learners while the middle school had 86 learners. In the secondary school there were 89 enrolled learners. Thus in total, the school had a learner population of 446. The reason for the uneven distribution of the enrollment numbers is that the preschool is made up of two year groups, namely KG 1 and KG 2. The primary school is made up of six different year groups (Year 1-Year 6). The middle school is made up of three year groups (Year 7-Year 9) and the secondary school is made up of four year groups (Years 10 to Years 13).

In addition, as mentioned earlier in in section 2.11.1, at the preschool level, 41 learners reported English as their L1. In the primary school 125 learners reported English as their L1 while in the middle school 49 learners reported English as their L1. In the secondary school 48 learners reported English as their L1. Across the entire school 263 reported English as their L1. Thus a total of 183 learners knew and used LotEs.

In the preschool, five Namibian languages were reported as L1. In the primary school eight Namibian languages were spoken as L1 while in the middle school five Namibian languages

were represented. In the secondary school four Namibian languages were reported. Thus the lowest number of Namibian languages was reported in secondary school. The reasons for this language distribution are that the largest population of the school is in the primary school where there is a large concentration of Namibian learners. In the secondary school which has the lowest population of local Namibian learners, Namibian languages are the least represented.

In the preschool 16 learners reported six other languages as their L1. In the primary school 47 learners reported 15 languages as their L1 while the in middle school 22 learners reported ten other languages as their L1. In the secondary school 32 learners reported 13 other languages as their L1.

Although a large number of learners listed English as their L1 may seem to be a homogenous group, the come from different first language communities and do not all have the same national (and related cultural) backgrounds. The 183 learners who listed LotEs as their L1s formed a heterogeneous group because between them, they listed 29 different languages as their L1s. From the presentation of the language variety at WIS, it is evident that there is a wide variety of languages in this school community. Compared to those who list English, there is a relatively small numbers of L1 speakers of each of the languages listed as LotEs.

The school records also list what parents give as the L1 of their children when they register for the first time. The school does not ask more about learners' knowledge of other languages. Thus, the school records do not indicate whether learners knew more languages as L2s or L3s. Considering the fact the MoI is English, one can assume that by the time learners with LotEs as L1 reach the second year of primary school (if not earlier), they will be at least bilingual in that they will be proficient (on at least a basic level) in their L1 and English. Many, however, know more languages but official records do not show this. Also, one has to bear in mind that some distinctions between languages are constructed with the assumption of monolingualism and that asking a parent to list what they think is/are the L1 or L1(s) of their children could be constructing a false linguistic identity. The ways in which data is captured do not allow for the possibility that multilingualism may be the primary identity and also a determining feature of learners' language biographies.

In addition, to listing home languages, the school records also showed the nationality of learners. In the preschool, learners were found to be representative of 23 nationalities. The primary school had 37 nationalities represented, while in middle school, there were representatives of 33 different nationalities. In the secondary school section, there were representatives of 30 nationalities. The primary school which has the largest number of pupils also represents the most diverse group of nationalities. The middle and secondary schools had the least number of students although in terms of represented nationalities the preschool was the least diverse. Nevertheless, overall, it is clear that a very wide range of nationalities are represented and thus this will correlate with linguistic diversity.

Assessments that give an indication of learner's English language proficiency were obtained from the LSD. These pieces of information are also stored on the school's computer database and teachers have access to them. The LSD assesses every new learner upon their enrollment in the school. A copy of the Assessment Interview form is attached (see appendix G). The assessment covers the social/emotional condition of the learner, his/her work attitude, ability to concentrate and his/her language and mathematical skills. It is significant to note that language skill in the entrance assessment referred to English language proficiency of the learner and not LotEs.

The language assessment is divided into three parts. The learner is assessed for his/her receptive, expressive and writing skills through a standardised English test which is made up of vocabulary, verbal reasoning, comprehension, and writing and conversation exercises. However, the learner's spelling skills are not assessed. Regarding receptive skills, the learner is tested on how well he/she can follow instructions in English. For the expressive skills, the learner is assessed on his/her fluency skills – that is, how well the learner is able to express him/herself in English in informal conversation. Finally, the assessment of written skills covers grammar, namely – tenses and vocabulary. Though the learner is not specifically tested on his/her spelling ability, the reports that the researcher accessed had comments such as "her spelling skills, when writing this piece, revealed several difficulties" for the student whose spelling skills were deemed to have failed to meet the requirements of the overall assessment. An example of the language assessment for a learner whose tested level of English is low and therefore needed EAL support read as follows:

Listening and speaking: Alexxo easily followed instructions. He was able to express himself fluently in English.

Reading: His reading according to the Schonell Reading Test was at an age level of 9:6. He was able to read the words although not always fluently. He needed time to decode certain words. He also indicated that he did not understand the meaning of all the words.

Spelling: The Schonell Spelling Test was administered. Alexxo's spelling age was 8:4. Mistakes made were "broat" for "brought", "wighl" for "while", "stade" for "stayed", "jone" for "join" and "iyorn" for "iron".

Writing: Alexxo could write full sentences with limited grammar mistakes. He tended to write words phonetically.

The report from the LSD is forwarded to the EAL department and the necessary programme to bring such a learner to an acceptable level of English proficiency is planned for him/her. The record accessed by the researcher showed that after the assessment interview has been completed by the LSD, the EAL department also administers more English – specific assessments. Based on an oral interview, and a couple of writing assignments, the EAL department determines more specifically, the actual level of proficiency/ability (or *in*ability as the case would be), to decide how much and what type of support to provide. According to the data from the EAL department, if a learner has very little or even zero comprehension in MoI (neither spoken nor written) he/she receives full EAL support (five periods a week; one per day). Where a learner can converse a bit (understand and speak), but only using Basic English, he/she receives a lot of support (three periods per week). Where a learner has fairly good conversational skills, but cannot read/write well in the MoI due to lack of proficiency, he/she receives two periods a week of instruction in the MoI with a focus on grammar/literacy skills. The data accessed showed that in all cases, the programme works on a continuum, starting with most basic of concepts and working through to grammar/sentence construction skills acquisition.

The report obtained from the EAL department indicated the level of speaking proficiency of the learner and his/her literacy skills. The report also mentioned if the learner was enrolled in any

other English course elsewhere with the aim of improving his/her proficiency in English. Depending on the level of the learner's proficiency, the department will suggest the number of lessons she should receive in order to reach the necessary level of proficiency to effectively participate in lessons. The number of learners whose tested levels of English proficiency indicated that they needed additional lessons in the MoI was 21 (see appendix H).

Another kind of information gathered from the school records which gives an indication of levels of multilingualism refers to the teachers. As already mentioned in section 2.12, the staff component across all the sections of the school represented 20 nationalities. Across the entire school, eleven teachers knew and used English as L1 while 32 teachers knew and used LotEs as L1s (see section 2.13). At the preschool level, none of the teachers had English as their L1. The three different languages that the teachers and assistants knew as their L1 and could use to assist young learners from non – English families were Afrikaans (2), Oshiwambo (1), and Herero (1). In the primary school, six teachers had English as L1 while three teachers mentioned that they knew and used three LotEs as their home language. These were Shona (1), Afrikaans (1) and Oshiwambo (1). In the middle school, as in the preschool, no teachers had English as their L1. The seven different languages they gave as their L1s were Portuguese (2), Dutch (1), French (1), German (1), Kikuyu (1), Zulu (1) and Afrikaans (4). In the secondary school five teachers had English as their L1. Six teachers mentioned LotE as their L1. These were Afrikaans (3), Kikuyu (1), Yoruba (1), Twi (1), Russian (1) and Malayalam (1).

The Namibian languages represented by teachers across the school as L1s were three, namely-Afrikaans, Oshiwambo and Herero. Other languages spoken as L1 by teachers were Russian (2), Polish (1) Shona (1), Portuguese (2), Dutch (1), Kikuyu (1), Yoruba (1), Twi (1), and Zulu (1). Thus unlike the learners, Afrikaans featured as language most known and used as L1 by teachers. Seventeen teachers indicated that Afrikaans was their L1. Eleven teachers mentioned English as their L1. Like the learners, the teachers knew and used a wide variety of LotEs as their L1.

Information gained from the school records confirm that WIS is a truly multilingual community in which teachers as well as learners come from a wide range of different L1 communities. Although the MoI is English, the majority of learners and teachers have LotEs as their home languages. It is obvious that a lingua franca is required in such a context. Considering (i) the

language policy of Namibia after 1991, and (ii) that the main centre of the particular school system is based in the USA (see section 2.3), it is not surprising that English is the chosen lingua franca. Furthermore, the school records confirm that the majority of learners and teachers are at least bilingual but in more cases are multilingual in that they know and use more than two languages, even if not in the school context. What is not clear from the school records is how learners and teachers use the variety of LotEs that they know in the process of teaching and learning- either formally- in the classroom or informally- in other ways of making sense in transferring and developing knowledge and academic skills.

5.3 Data collected by means of the questionnaire

This section describes the kind of data that was obtained from the learners and teachers through the questionnaire. The information provided by the questionnaire gave insight into the age, level of education and personal history of 20 learners and 20 teachers and the linguistic repertoire of all 40 participants.

5.3.1 Biographical data of learners and teachers

The questionnaires elicited biographical data of learners, namely- their ages, how long they had been in the school and which nationalities they represented. The learners whose data were collected in this way were those who study both English (compulsory subject) and Geography (an optional subject) in Grade 9.

Two of the learners were aged 17, nine were aged 16 and another nine were aged 15. The learners were of different nationalities. These were Namibian (7), Angolan (3), Australian (1), Portuguese (5), British (1), and Kenyan (1). Two learners were of dual nationality, namely, Namibian and German. The gender distribution was as follows: male (10) and female (10). Three of the learners had been in the school for five years, three for two years and 12 between six months and two years.

Similarly, questionnaires were also administered to the 20 teachers. The questionnaire for teachers sought information on nationalities of the teachers and how long they had been teaching at WIS. The responses from the questionnaire showed that the teachers had a variety of

nationalities. These were Namibian (10), South African (1), French (1), American (1), Mozambican (1), Kenyan (1), Nigerian (1), Russian (1), Dutch (1), Irish (1) and Canadian (1). The gender distribution was as follows: female (16) and male (4). One teacher had been teaching in the school for ten years, another five years while the rest had been teaching in the school between two and three years.

5.3.2 Linguistic Profile of learners and teachers

The learner – participants who were grade 9 learners in the secondary school listed the following languages as their L1s: English (5), Portuguese (5), Afrikaans (3), German (2), Herero (2), Otjiherero (1), Damara (1) and Swahili (1). Table 5.1 below shows languages the learners listed as their L1s.

Table 5.1: Languages listed as L1 by the learners

Languages	Number of Speakers
English	5
Portuguese	5
Afrikaans	3
German	2
Herero	2
Otjiherero	1
Damara	1
Swahili	1

The learner – participants indicated that they knew and used the following languages as L1 or L2: English (20), Afrikaans (10), French (9), German (7), Portuguese (7), Spanish (5), Herero (2), Otjiherero (1), Damara (1), and Swahili (1).

Four learners stated that they knew five languages, 12 learners mentioned four languages as the languages that they knew and four learners pointed out that they knew three languages. All the learners were multilingual. There were no bilinguals or monolinguals among the learner – participants. Table 5.3 below shows the languages the learner – participants listed that they knew.

Table 5.2: Languages the learners listed that they knew

Languages	Number of Speakers
English	20
Afrikaans	10
French	9
German	7
Spanish	5
Herero	2
Otjiherero	1
Damara	1
Swahili	1

5.3.3 Languages listed as L1 by the teachers

The teacher – participants who were all teachers in the secondary school indicated that they knew the following languages as their L1: English (4), Afrikaans (6), French (1), German (2), Portuguese (2), Malayalam (1), Russian (1), Yoruba (1) Kikuyu (1) and Dutch (1). Table 5.3 below shows the languages that the teachers listed they knew as L1.

Table 5.3: Languages the teachers listed that they knew as L1

Languages	Number of Speakers
English	4
Afrikaans	6
French	1
German	1
Portuguese	2
Malayalam	1
Russian	1
Yoruba	1
Kikuyu	1
Dutch	1

Languages that the teachers mentioned they spoke as L2 or as additional languages were English (20), Afrikaans (10), French (8), German (6), Portuguese (4), Spanish (3), Dutch (3), Zulu (1), Xhosa (1), Oshikwanyama (1), Hindi (1), Tamil (1), Kannada (1), Malayalam (1), Xistwa (1), Kiswahili (1), Changana (1), Rukwaangali (1), Nama (1), Swahili (1), Kikuyu (1), Dholuo (1), Russian (1) and Yoruba (1). Similar to the learner profiles, there were no monolinguals among the teacher – participants. Table 5.4 shows the total number of languages

that the teachers listed that they knew.

Table 5.4: Languages the teachers listed that they knew

Languages	Number of Speakers
English	20
Afrikaans	10
French	8
German	6
Portuguese	4
Spanish	3
Dutch	3
Zulu	1
Xhosa	1
Oshikwayama	1
Hindi	1
Tamil	1
Kannada	1
Malayalam	1
Xistwa	1
Kiswahili	1
Changana	1
Rukwangali	1
Nama	1
Swahili	1
Kikuyu	1
Dholuo	1
Russian	1
Youruba	1

5.3.4 Proficiency of learners and teachers in English

"Language proficiency", according to Farhady (1982: 116) is the partially measurable ability of a speaker to use the languages he/she knows. Briere (1972: 332) defines proficiency as the degree of competence or capability in a given language demonstrated by an individual at a given point in time. In this study, the working definition for proficiency is based on the two definitions provided by (Farhady 1982; Briere 1972) so that in this study language "proficiency" is defined as the degree of competence or capability in a given language demonstrated by an individual at a given point in time together with the ability of the individual to use language for real purposes.

In the questionnaire participants were requested to rate their language proficiency on a 5-point lickert scale. In order to give meaning to this conceptualisation of proficiency, the study posits that a learner or teacher, who understands, speaks, reads, and writes a language on the levels of 1-3 on a scale of 1-5 (where 1 equals "excellent" and thus is at the top end of the scale) was highly proficient in the language. Thus a rating of 1-3 would indicate proficiency as "excellent", "very good" or "good". A learner or teacher who indicated his/her knowledge on the scale as 4 or 5, that is, "not good" and "poor" was perceived to have low proficiency in a language.

Regarding proficiency in the use of different languages, the learners indicated that they were most proficient in English. All 20 learners indicated that they knew English. Thirteen of the learners maintained that they had an "excellent" understanding of English while seven said they had a "very good" understanding of English. With regard to their speaking of English, 14 learners indicated that they could speak English excellently while five claimed that they had "very good" English speaking skills. One learner, however, said her English speaking ability was "good". Regarding reading, 14 out of the 20 learners said that they could read English excellently, four said their English reading skills were "very good", one learner indicated he had "good" reading skills and one indicated his reading skills were "not good". With regard to writing, ten said they wrote English excellently, two said their writing was "very good", five indicated that their writing was "good" while three claimed that their writing was "not good". None of the learners, however, said their writing was "poor". Regarding where they use English, the learners all said that they used English at home and in school. In addition, many of these learners said they used it everywhere and all the time.

The teachers also indicated that they were most proficient in English. All 20 teachers indicated that they knew English. Thirteen of the teachers pointed out that they had an "excellent" understanding of English while five indicated that their understanding was "very good". Two said that their understanding was "good". Regarding their speaking skills, 12 indicated that they had "excellent" speaking skills, five "very good" speaking skills and three had good speaking skills. With regard to reading, 14 teachers indicated that they could read English excellently, four had "very good" reading skills and two had "good" reading skills. Eleven of the teachers indicated that their writing was "excellent", six said their writing was "good", two teachers mentioned that their writing was good while one pointed out that her writing was "poor". All 20

teachers who spoke English as an L1 or as an additional language testified to its importance for professional communication purposes and also for reaching out to the larger community of English speakers. Those who had English as L1 learnt it at home and at school while the others learnt it only at school. All the teachers mentioned that they used English everywhere while they used the other languages they knew in different domains such as home, during social activities and in church.

5.3.5 Proficiency of learners and teachers in LotE

The language that featured most prominently on the list of languages the learners knew after English was Afrikaans. Ten out of the 20 learners knew Afrikaans. In terms of understanding, four learners said that they had an "excellent" understanding of the language, another four had "very good" understanding of Afrikaans, and one said his understanding was "good" while another said hers was "not good". Regarding their speaking proficiency, two learners indicated that it was "excellent", two said that it was "very good" and another two said it was "good". Three learners, however, said their speaking of Afrikaans was "not good" while one said his speaking of Afrikaans was "poor'. Next, two learners mentioned that they could read Afrikaans excellently. One had a "good" reading ability in Afrikaans although five indicated that their reading of Afrikaans was "not good". Two of the respondents maintained that their reading of Afrikaans was "poor". None of the learners indicated that they had a "very good" reading ability in Afrikaans. Regarding writing Afrikaans, two learners said they could write Afrikaans excellently, one said her writing of Afrikaans was "not good" while eight said their writing was "poor". Regarding where and when they used Afrikaans to communicate, the learners had the following responses: some said with family at home and in the village, socially, and in school with friends. One student indicated that although he understood Afrikaans very well, he hardly used it.

Next, some of the learners indicated that French was a language that they knew. In all nine learners said they knew French. However, none had an "excellent" or "very good" understanding of French. Four learners stated that their understanding of French was "good". Four also pointed out that they did not have a "good" understanding of French while one said his understanding was "poor". Regarding their speaking proficiency, none of the learners said

that they had "excellent" speaking skills nor did they mention that their speaking proficiency was "very good". However, four mentioned that their speaking proficiency was "good". Another four mentioned that their speaking was "not good" and one of the learners mentioned his speaking of French was "poor". With regard to reading ability, none of the learners said their reading was "excellent". Similarly none of them indicated that it was "very good". Five said their reading of French was "good", with three indicating that their reading was "not good" while one said that his reading was "poor". With regard to their writing proficiency, none of the learners said their writing was "excellent". Similarly none said it was "very good". Four indicated that they had "good" writing ability in the language while three mentioned that their writing was "not good" with two indicating that their writing of French was "poor". With regard to where and when they used French, the majority of them said they used it during French lessons. The learner whose responses were consistently "poor" said he used it for fun at home while another respondent said he spoke it only when he was in France. Significantly, the last time he went to France was four years ago which implied that he had not spoken French in the last four years.

German was also mentioned as a language that the learners knew. Seven out of the 20 learners responded that they knew German. One learner said she had an "excellent" understanding of German, two "very good" understanding, three "good" understanding and one "not good" understanding of German. With regard to speaking, one learner said she could speak German excellently, three said they had a "good" speaking ability in the language while 1 said his speaking ability was "poor". None of the learners had a "very good" speaking ability in German. Regarding learners' proficiency in reading German, one said she could read German "excellently", another one said her proficiency in reading German was "very good", four learners indicated that their reading proficiency was "good" while one said his ability to read German was "not good". Regarding the level of writing, one learner said she could write excellently, four indicated that their writing ability was "good", two indicated that their writing of German was "not good". None of the learners said that their writing proficiency was "very good". Regarding where and when they used German as a medium of communication, the learners gave the following answers: some said they used it at home, others indicated they used it in school during German lessons, yet the one learner who had excellent proficiency in all the

domains of use and who had a dual nationality (German and Namibian) said she used it often when she was on holiday in Germany. Others used it during swimming lessons at home, with friends and also socially. One learner indicated that he enjoyed reading comics in German.

The learners also mentioned Portuguese as a language they knew. In all, seven of the learners indicated they had knowledge of Portuguese. Four said they had an "excellent" understanding of the language, one indicated he had a "good" understanding. However, none said they had a "good" understanding or a "not good" understanding of the language. Two learners, however, indicated that their understanding was "poor". Regarding their speaking proficiency, three said their speaking of Portuguese was "excellent", none had "very good speaking" ability, one indicated that his speaking of Portuguese was "good" while none indicated that their speaking was "not good". Three learners mentioned that they spoke Portuguese "poorly". With regard to reading three said they could read Portuguese excellently, one indicated that his reading was "very good" and none indicated that his reading was "good". Two of the learners, however, mentioned that their reading of Portuguese was not "good" while one indicated that his reading of Portuguese was poor. Regarding their writing proficiency, one learner said his writing of Portuguese was "good", another learner said his writing was "very good", while another mentioned that his writing was "good". Two learners, however, indicated that their writing of Portuguese was "not good". Similarly two other learners said their writing was "poor". Regarding where and where they used Portuguese, the learners had the following answers: they spoke it with friends at school and at home as well as during Portuguese lessons.

Five out of the 20 learners indicated that they knew Spanish. None of them had an "excellent" understanding of Spanish, one had "very good" understanding of it, and three indicated that they had a "good" understanding of it, while none stated that their understanding was "not good". However, one learner mentioned that his understanding was "poor". In addition, none of the learners could speak it "excellently" or had "very good" speaking ability in it. Two learners indicated that they had a "good" speaking ability in Spanish. Another two also said their speaking of the language was "not good" while one mentioned that he spoke Spanish poorly. With regard to reading, one learner said he could read Spanish excellently and another said her reading skills were "very good". Two learners, however, pointed out that their reading of Spanish was "not good" while one learner pointed out that his was "poor". Regarding where

and when they used Spanish, they said they spoke it with friends and at home. One learner mentioned that she used it in Spain.

Two of the learners indicated that they knew Herero. One of them said that she understood, spoke, read and wrote it excellently, while the other mentioned that she had a "very good" understanding of it with "good" speaking and reading skills. However, her writing was "poor". Regarding where and when they used it, they mentioned at home and in the village. One learner mentioned that she knew Otjiherero, a regional dialect of Herero. She indicated that her understanding and speaking of Otjiherero were "excellent". She added that while her reading was "very good", her writing was 'not good'. She also mentioned that she used Otjiherero at home and in school. One learner stated that he knew Damara. He indicated that he had a "very good" understanding of it but he was "not good" at speaking and his reading and writing were "poor". He spoke Damara at home with his mother. One learner said she knew Swahili. She had a "very good" understanding" of it with "good" speaking and reading ability. She was also "good" at writing it. She used Swahili at home with her parents.

In response to the question of where they had first learnt English, all of them said that they learnt English at home while they were growing up. They mentioned how later in preschool their English was strengthened and how their English learning had continued during their entire education. Similarly those who mentioned Portuguese, French and German as L1s indicated that they learnt them at home and later in school. The respondents who indicated they knew the following languages: Spanish, Damara, Afrikaans, Otjiherero, Herero, Swahili said that they learnt them mainly at home. The languages the learners indicated they wanted to learn better were English, German, Spanish, French, Afrikaans and Damara. In addition, they pointed out that because English was a world language, they found it the most important language. One learner said she wanted to learn French better because it was a beautiful language. Another said she wanted to learn Spanish better in order to be able to communicate with her step-mother at home while the learner who wanted to learn German better (although he had earlier mentioned that she had an "excellent" proficiency in understanding, speaking reading and writing) said that was because she had a dual nationality and she wanted to be more proficient in German so she could communicate better while away in Germany. One learner said she wanted to learn Afrikaans better so that she would not lose her knowledge of it, while another learner said he

wanted to learn Damara better because it was his L1.

Ten teachers knew Afrikaans. Five teachers indicated that they understood Afrikaans excellently while three mentioned that their understanding was "very good" with one teacher pointing out that his understanding was 'good'. Regarding speaking, four teachers mentioned that they could speak Afrikaans excellently; three stated that their speaking skills were very "good" while one said that his speaking was "not good" and another indicated that his was "poor". On reading, five teachers said they could read excellently, three indicated that their reading was "good" and one said her reading was "not good". In terms of writing Afrikaans, three said that their writing was "excellent", another three indicated that theirs was "very good", one said hers was "good" while two mentioned that their writing was "poor".

All the teachers who mentioned that Afrikaans was their L1 said that they learnt it first at home and later at school. They added that they all used it at home and sometimes at school to communicate with colleagues who understood it. Furthermore, they mentioned that Afrikaans was important to them because it was a language that they used at home, with friends and for purposes of socialising. One teacher mentioned that she attached great importance to Afrikaans because it was her culture. Other teachers who knew Afrikaans as an additional language gave various reasons for their use of it. For example, one teacher mentioned that she read Afrikaans newspapers and it also enabled her to communicate with many people who spoke Afrikaans in Namibia.

Eight teachers said that they knew French. Two mentioned that they understood French excellently while one said her understanding of French was "very good". Another said his understanding was "good", yet another said her understanding was "not good" and three said their understanding was "poor". With regard to speaking French, two mentioned that their speaking was "excellent"; another two mentioned that their speaking skills were "good" while four indicated that their speaking was "poor". In addition, two teachers mentioned that their reading of French was "excellent", one said her reading was "very good", another said her reading was "good" while four mentioned that their reading was "poor". Regarding writing, two mentioned that they could write French "excellently", with two stating that their reading was good and four mentioning that their writing was "poor". Like the other languages, those whose

L1 was French learnt it at home and later at school. They used French for professional purposes and socialising.

Six teachers mentioned that they knew German. Three of the teachers said they had "excellent" understanding of German with two saying that they had a "very good" understanding and one mentioning that her understanding was "poor". On speaking, two teachers said they spoke German excellently, one said her speaking of German was "very good", two mentioned that their speaking was "good" while one mentioned that her speaking was "poor". Regarding reading, two teachers mentioned that they could read German excellently, one mentioned that her reading was "very good" with one mentioning that her reading was "not good" and yet another stating that her reading was "poor". Regarding writing, two teachers mentioned that they could write German excellently, one mentioned that her writing was "very good", one said her writing was "good" while another said her writing was "poor". The two teachers who spoke German as L1 learnt German at home and then later at school. They used German at home with family and at school. The others who learnt German at school watched television in German and used at work and sometimes when they were socialising.

Four teachers knew Portuguese. Three of the teachers mentioned that their understanding, speaking, reading and writing were all "excellent" while one teacher indicated that her understanding, speaking, reading and writing were all "poor". The two Portuguese teachers who spoke Portuguese as L1 mentioned that they learnt Portuguese at home and later at school. They both used Portuguese with students and colleagues at work since they were Portuguese teachers.

Three teachers mentioned that they knew Spanish. One teacher said her understanding of Spanish was "excellent" and two teachers mentioned that they had a "good" understanding of Spanish. The teacher who said her understanding was excellent mentioned that her speaking of Spanish was also "excellent'. Two teachers mentioned that their speaking was also good. Two teachers mentioned that their reading of Spanish was "very good" with one mentioning that her reading was "good". Finally, regarding writing one teacher said her writing was "very good" with another mentioning that hers was "good" while yet another stated that hers was "not good". One of the teachers mentioned that she learnt Spanish while she lived in Guatemala for a year. She mentioned that although she would wish to improve her proficiency in Spanish because of her

love of South American culture and its people, time constraints were making it difficult for her to do so. Thus, she hardly used Spanish and was therefore losing her proficiency in it. The other teacher mentioned that she did a basic course in Spanish in order to be able to communicate with her family from South America.

Three teachers knew Dutch. One teacher who is Dutch and knew it as L1 said her understanding, speaking, reading and writing were "excellent". Two teachers said their understanding was "good". One said her reading was "good". Another said her speaking was "good". Regarding reading, one said her reading was "good" while the other said her reading and writing were "poor". The other teacher who said she knew Dutch said that her speaking and writing were "poor". The teacher who mentioned that Dutch was her L1 mentioned that she learnt it at home and later at school. She added that she attached great value to it. She also mentioned that it was the language in which she communicated with friends and family and with the larger Dutch society. The other teacher said she learnt Dutch during her 13– year stay in the Netherlands. She spoke Dutch with her Dutch friends. Finally, one of the teachers said she learnt it at college and from watching television programmes in Dutch.

A number of teachers mentioned languages they knew individually as L1 or L2. One teacher mentioned that he knew Zulu which he understood, spoke, read and wrote excellently because Zulu was his L1. The same teacher said he knew Xhosa. While he had a "very good" understanding of Xhosa, his speaking of it was "not good" but his reading and writing were "good". He learnt Zulu from home which is his L1 while he learnt Afrikaans at school and Xhosa at the university in Cape Town. He mainly used Zulu at home. He used Afrikaans sometimes at home. He, however, mentioned that he hardly used Xhosa.

A teacher who is an American said apart from English which was his L1, he knew Oshikwayama but his understanding, speaking, reading and writing were all "poor". He learnt Oshikwayama as a young adult in 1998 during his Peace Corps training in the north of Namibia. He used Oshikwayama with Namibian friends.

A teacher who is Indian but has a Namibian nationality mentioned that she knew Hindi, Tamil, Kannada and Malayalam. She understood and spoke all these languages excellently. However

her reading and writing of Malayalam and Tamil were "poor". With regard to Hindi, her reading and writing were "good". She also mentioned that her reading and writing of Kannada were "very" good. According to her she learnt Malayalam at home and Hindi and Kannada in school. She also learnt Tamil and Malayalam from friends during social interactions. She used Malayalam at home and Hindi, Tamil and Kannada with friends in very informal situations. She said she would like to learn all the other languages better because they allowed her to survive in India. She also added that all these languages had a link with each other and made living in India easier.

Another teacher knew Xistwa, Kiswahili and Changana. He stated that Xistwa was his L1. He understood and spoke Xistwa excellently and his reading of Xistwa was "very good" and his writing was also "good". He also knew Kiswahili, but with "not good" understanding and speaking skills. He, however, said that his reading of Kiswahili was "good" but his writing was "poor". With regard to Changana, he said he understood it excellently with "very good" speaking and reading skills as well as with good writing skills. He used Xistwa with parents, friends, and family in Mozambique. He said he learnt Kiswahili at school and used it only in school. He learnt Changana while socializing with his friends and so spoke it with friends and family in Mozambique.

Another teacher who is Canadian and teaches English as an Additional Language (EAL) indicated that she knew Rukwangali. Her understanding was "not good" although her speaking was "good". Her reading was "poor" while he writing was "not good". According to her she came across Rukwangali in the Kanango region in Namibia. She used Rukwangali to communicate with people from Kanango. She mentioned that she wished she was more proficient in Rukwangali because she needed the language for professional purposes. She also mentioned that a better understanding of Rukwangali would help her to understand some of the indigenous languages of Namibia such as the Oshiwambo dialects. In addition, she indicated that one also got better social services in Namibia when one spoke the local languages. She added that the indigenous Namibians were always happy and surprised when they heard a white foreigner speaking an indigenous language. In addition, she posited that the use of any indigenous language immediately endeared the foreigner to the indigenous people and the foreigner was likely to get the best help possible in almost every circumstance. It also helped

prevent the situation where the indigenous people would attempt to cheat when one was purchasing goods and services.

Yet, another teacher indicated that she knew Nama. However, her understanding, speaking, reading and writing were all "poor". According to her, she learnt it in the South of Namibia where she grew up and used it any time she visited there. She indicated that Nama helped her to understand the culture of the large group of people in the south of Namibia.

Another teacher who is Kenyan mentioned that she knew Swahili, Kikuyu and Dholuo. Her understanding, speaking, reading and writing of Kikuyu and Swahili were "good". However, her understanding and speaking of Dholuo was "not good" and her reading and writing were "poor". She learnt Kikuyu and Swahili at home. She continued to learn Swahili and Dholvo in school. She mentioned that she would like to learn Swahili better and be more proficient in it because it made her feel more Kenyan. However, she does not use Dholuo at all.

One teacher also mentioned that she knew Russian which was her L1. Her understanding was "very good" and she rated her speaking, reading and writing as "very good". She has been speaking Russian since birth and also continued to learn it in school. She used Russian at home and with her family in Russia. She also indicated that she would like to learn Russian better because it represented her culture and origins. Finally, one teacher said he knew Yoruba. His understanding and speaking were "excellent" while his reading and writing were "good". He spoke Yoruba at home and with the Nigerian community in Namibia. Yoruba was of great value to him because it was a mark of his cultural identity.

As already stated in section 5.3.3, the questionnaire requested participants to rate their language skills on a 5-point lickert scale. In order to give meaning to this conceptualisation of proficiency, the study posits that a learner or teacher, who understands, speaks, reads, and writes a language on the levels of 1-3 on a scale of 1-5 (where 1 equals "excellent" and thus is at the top end of the scale) was highly proficient in the language. Thus a rating of 1-3 would indicate proficiency as "excellent", "very good" or "good". A learner or teacher who indicated his/her knowledge on the scale as 4 or 5, that is, "not good" and "poor" was perceived to have low proficiency in a language.

From the learners' responses to the questions posed in the questionnaire, the following conclusions are reached on their levels of proficiency in the languages they listed. For example, as far as English is concerned, 20 learners indicated that they were proficient in their *understanding* of it. In terms of *speaking* again 20 learners were proficient. On an assessment of *reading* proficiency 19 learners indicated themselves as being proficient, while 17 mentioned that they were proficient in *writing* English. One leaner indicated that his proficiency in terms of *reading* English was low while three learners mentioned low levels of proficiency in their *writing*.

Nine learners out of the ten who mentioned that they knew Afrikaans, pointed out that in terms of *understanding* they had a high proficiency with six indicating that they had a high *speaking* proficiency. Five indicated that their *reading* proficiency was high while two mentioned that their *writing* was high. In terms of low proficiency, one mentioned that his *understanding* was low; four indicated low proficiency in *speaking* and seven said that their *reading* proficiency was low while eight said their writing proficiency was low.

Though nine learners mentioned that they knew French, it is important to note that four of them mentioned that they were "good" at understanding, speaking reading and writing it and thus had a relatively high proficiency in it. Five learners thus had low proficiency in terms of understanding, speaking, reading and writing French.

Out of the seven learners who mentioned that they knew and used Portuguese, five indicated a high proficiency in understanding Portuguese, four in speaking it, another four in reading it and four indicated a high proficiency in writing it. Two learners indicated a low proficiency in understanding it, three in speaking in speaking it, another three in reading it and yet another three in writing it.

Three out of the five learners who mentioned that they knew and used Spanish indicated a high proficiency in their understanding of Spanish, two in speaking it, two in reading it and another two in writing it. Three learners pointed out that they had a low proficiency in understanding, speaking, reading and writing it.

Two learners who listed Herero as their L1 indicated a high proficiency in understanding, speaking and reading it. While one of the learners stated that her understanding, speaking,

reading and writing were all "excellent", the other indicated that her understanding was "very good", while her speaking and reading were "good". However, her writing was "poor" which showed that she had a low proficiency in writing.

One learner who indicated she knew Otjiherero indicated that she was highly proficient in understanding, speaking and, reading it. However she had a low proficiency in writing it. The learner who mentioned that he knew Damara indicated that he had a "very good" understanding of it, indicating a high proficiency in it. However as far as speaking, reading and writing were concerned his proficiency were low. Finally, the learner whose L1 was Swahili indicated that she was highly proficiency in understanding, speaking, reading and writing it.

The conclusion that can be drawn from the analysis above is that in terms of the hierarchy of the languages the learner participants indicated they knew, English is the most widely used language and the one with the highest status. In numbers of L1 – speakers English is followed, in descending order, by Afrikaans, French, Portuguese, German, Spanish, Herero, Otjijerero, Swahili and Damara.

As regards the teachers, all the 20 of them presented a high proficiency in English in terms of understanding, speaking and reading. Nineteen of the teachers indicated that their proficiency in writing English was high, which means that one of the teachers is not a confident writer. It is possible that in a standardised proficiency test, there would be other results.

All nine teachers who mentioned that they knew Afrikaans indicted a high proficiency in terms of understanding. Eight mentioned a high proficiency as far as speaking and reading was concerned while seven said that their writing proficiency was high. Thus in terms of low proficiency one teacher had a low proficiency in reading and two mentioned that their writing proficiency was low.

Of the eight teachers who mentioned that they knew French, four indicated a high proficiency in understanding, speaking, reading and writing while another four mentioned that their understanding reading and writing were low.

Five of the seven teachers who mentioned they knew German indicated a high proficiency in their understanding and speaking. While three said that their reading proficiency was high, four

indicated that their writing proficiency was high. With regard to low proficiency, one teacher mentioned low proficiency in understanding; another indicated a low proficiency in understanding while three mentioned that they had a low proficiency in reading with two mentioning that their writing was low.

Of the four teachers who mentioned their knowledge of Portuguese, three stated that their proficiency in understanding, speaking, reading and writing were high while one indicated that he had a low proficiency in it as far understanding, speaking, reading and writing were concerned.

Three of teachers who indicated that they knew Spanish said their proficiency in understanding; speaking and reading were high while two stated that their proficiency in writing was high. However, one mentioned that she had a low proficiency in writing. All three teachers who mentioned that they knew Dutch had a high proficiency in it.

The teacher who mentioned that he knew Zulu and Xhosa mentioned that his proficiency in both languages were very high in terms of understanding, speaking, reading and writing. In addition, the teacher who mentioned she knew Hindi, Kannada, Tamil and Malayalam said she had a high understanding, speaking, reading and writing proficiency in understanding Hindi and Kannada. However, although her proficiency in understanding and speaking of Tamil and Malayalam were high, her proficiency in reading and writing were low. Moreover, the teacher who mentioned she knew Swahili, Kikuyu and Dholuo mentioned a high proficiency in understanding, speaking, reading and writing Swahili and Kikuyu but a low proficiency in understanding, speaking, reading and writing Dholuo. The teacher, who mentioned she knew Russian as an L1, said that her proficiency in understanding, speaking, reading and writing were high. The same was the case with the teacher whose L1 is Yoruba. His understanding, speaking, reading and writing proficiency was high. Furthermore, the teacher who mentioned she knew Rukwangali had a high proficiency in speaking but a low proficiency in understanding, reading and writing. Finally, the teachers who mentioned their knowledge of Oshikwayama, and Nama indicated their proficiency in these two languages in terms of understanding; speaking, reading and writing were low.

From the above, it can be noted that in terms of the hierarchy of the languages the teacher participants indicated they knew, English is the lingua franca and the language most widely

represented as an L1. Other languages in the teacher repertoires, in descending order regarding number of speakers, are Afrikaans, German, French, Portuguese, Spanish and Dutch. Apart from those who indicated knowledge of Oshikwayama, Rukwangali and Dholuo, the teachers mentioned a high proficiency in the languages they knew. The other languages which the teacher participants knew and in which they indicated that they had a high proficiency were Hindi, Kannada, Tamil, Malayalam, Xistwa, Kiswahili, Changana, Swahili, Dholuo, Russian, Yoruba, Oshkwayama and Rukwangali. Although these languages confirm the linguistic diversity of the community, mere numbers do not testify to the status of the languages. Nevertheless, it is common cause that English is the language with the highest "currency", while in Namibia Afrikaans is also quite widely used, in many cases also as lingua franca. The ranking of other indigenous languages cannot be commented on, as no specific information was collected on them. However, in informal discussion there does seem to be some degree of inequality regarding the power relations between the various indigenous language communities.

Regarding the languages, they wished to learn better, some of the teachers mentioned that they would like to learn English better in order to write and communicate better at work. Other teachers mentioned specifically that they would like to improve their grammar skills and acquire more vocabulary in English. One teacher mentioned that she wanted to learn Afrikaans better to enable her to communicate with the Namibians who spoke Afrikaans. In order to improve her proficiency in Afrikaans, she intended to speak Afrikaans as much as possible. Yet another teacher said that Afrikaans was important to her because she used it on the farm. She pointed out that she would like to learn Afrikaans better in order to communicate better with her in laws. The teachers who knew French proffered the following reasons for wanting to learn French better. A teacher mentioned that though French was her L1, she still felt the need to study it better not just for herself but for the maintenance of her literature and culture. One teacher mentioned that learning French better will be an asset in her travels to Europe. Another teacher stated that learning French better was likely to increase job opportunities for her. While one teacher stated that she did not feel the need to study French because she did not have a need for it, another mentioned that she spoke French for fun. Yet another teacher stated that knowing a lot of languages fostered intercultural understanding. Another teacher mentioned that she learnt Portuguese at school and would like to learn it better to be able to communicate with the many Angolans in Namibia. One teacher mentioned that she wanted to learn Dutch better because of its

close relation with languages such as German and Afrikaans. The American who knew Oshikwayama mentioned that he was interested in learning it better so he could communicate with friends who knew Oshikwayama. Moreover, one teacher mentioned that he would like to learn Kiswahili better to be part of the larger language community that Kiswahili represents in East Africa.

Multilingualism has been defined in section 3.3 as the ability of an individual to use two or more languages often at varying levels of proficiency. Based on this definition, one can say that all the learner and teacher participants at WIS are multilingual. Both the learners and the teachers who participated in this project knew and used the languages that they knew either productively or receptively (Baker and Jones 1998), with most of them showing a high proficiency in the languages they indicated they knew. In addition, functionally all the learners and teacher participants are multilingual in that they are able to adjust their language choice to different communicative contexts (Ludi 2005:15) such as the classroom, outside of the classroom, in their different social groups and entertainment.

5.4   Data collected by means of the interviews

The purpose of interviewing some learners and teachers was to confirm the responses given in writing and to gain more detailed information about the language knowledge and use of learners and teachers. The researcher used an interview schedule (see a copy of the schedule in appendixes D and E) that acted as a guide so that requisite responses would be elicited to answer the research questions given in section 2.5 of this study. Although the researcher allowed the respondents to express themselves freely, care was taken to ensure that the respondent gave honest answers. As mentioned earlier in section 4.3.3 of the study, the interview was divided into four parts in which each participant was asked to give some comment on their personal background and their language use inside and outside of the classroom.

5.4.1 Languages use in and outside of the classroom

With regard to the language used in the classroom, the interview aimed at finding out whether

there were occasions that LotEs were used in the classroom, who used them and what the circumstances of such use were. It also sought to find out whether the learners and teachers were confident in using English inside the classroom. With regard to language use outside of the classroom, the questions here focused on which languages learners and teachers used in communication with their friends and colleagues outside of the classroom; which languages teachers used in communication with the learners outside of the classroom; and which languages learners used in communication with teachers outside of the classroom. The questions sought to find out not only which languages learners and teachers used, but also why they used them in other social domains such as in cell – phone texting and writing emails. Another area of interest was in their choice of language in entertainment, such as in watching television or listening to the radio, where receptive rather than productive preferences are involved. Finally, the interview intended to find out which language(s) learners and teachers used at home, specifically with whom the learners and teachers used specific language(s) with and for which purpose. The rationale for these questions was to answer the specific research questions in section 1.5 and repeated in 4.1.

Five learners were purposively selected on the basis of their linguistic profile and their willingness to participate in the interview. They were made up of one male and four females. The reason for the gender imbalance is that the male learners were reluctant to be recorded. Each of the learners was bi-or multilingual. One learner, Pedro, reported that he had knowledge of Portuguese which was his L1 and English (L2) which he had been learning for one and a half years. Maria, the second learner, reported that she knew three languages, namely, Afrikaans (L1), English (L2) and French. The third learner, Louisa, said she knew four languages which were Otjiherero (L1), English (L2), Afrikaans and French. The next learner, Ursula, reported her knowledge of two languages, namely, English (L1) and German (L2). The last learner, Sandra, reported that she knew four languages, namely, English (L1), German (L2), Afrikaans and a little bit of Spanish.

Pedro whose L1 was Portuguese and had been studying English formally for one and half years indicated that he needed to improve his proficiency in English in order to participate actively in class and also in order to get a better understanding of the subjects taught. He mentioned that sometimes he used Portuguese in the English and Geography classroom with other learners so

that he will understand the lessons better. He stated, however, that translating some concepts from Portuguese to English and vice versa was difficult and impeded his understanding.

Maria, the learner who mentioned she knew three languages, mentioned that in the French class she spoke to her friends in Afrikaans because she felt more comfortable speaking to them in Afrikaans. She also mentioned that depending on how close she was to another learner she would speak Afrikaans. In addition, she stated that sometimes when the learners who spoke Afrikaans either as L1 or as an additional language spoke to a teacher in Afrikaans first, the teacher responded in Afrikaans but this was rare. She also mentioned that the learners who were Portuguese usually got spoken to in Portuguese because they did not speak English well. She mentioned, however, that she felt confident and comfortable in speaking English in the classroom.

Louisa, who mentioned that she knew four languages, namely- English, Otjiherero, Afrikaans and French, said that she used French during French lessons. However, in other classes she mostly used English although she sometimes she used Otjiherero and Afrikaans with friends who understood the two languages. She pointed out that the modern foreign languages teachers used French, Portuguese and German in their classes. She mentioned that she was very confident in using English because she spoke English fluently.

Ursula, who reported knowledge of English and German, mentioned that she used German during German lessons but indicated that she used only English in all other lessons because she was proficient in English. Finally, Sandra, the learner who also reported knowledge of four languages, said she used German and English during German lessons because she was not proficient in German and English acted as a way of bridging her knowledge. Apart from this, she used English – only in all other subjects.

Pedro said that outside of the classroom, he used Portuguese with his Portuguese teachers because they understood him better. He said that apart from this, he always used English in school. Maria mentioned that outside of the classroom she used mostly English and spoke Afrikaans to one of her friends who was very proficient in Afrikaans. She, however, spoke mostly English with her teachers and only occasionally did she speak Afrikaans to them outside

of the classroom. Louisa mentioned that outside of the classroom, she used English, Otjiherero and Afrikaans. Outside of the classroom, Ursula who knew English and German said she used English with her friends and teachers. Sandra mentioned that outside of the classroom, she used English, German and Afrikaans with her friends but used English and German with her teachers. Though the learners mentioned that they used other languages outside of the classroom, the use of English was predominant. All the learners who were interviewed used English. However, in their interaction with their Portuguese and German teachers outside of the classroom, they sometimes used Portuguese and German.

Pedro mentioned that he watched television and listened to the radio in English in order to improve his English but only watched television in Portuguese occasionally. In addition, depending on the context and with whom he was communicating with, he wrote his emails in Portuguese or English. For example, ordinarily he wrote emails in Portuguese but when he was doing his school work and had to communicate by email with other learners, he wrote his emails in English. Yet Maria, who knew Afrikaans and English and whose favourite television programmes were movies watched them in English most of time. She mentioned that she watched movies in English because they were readily available and the quality was better because of the massive size of the English movie making industry. However, sometimes she watched French and Afrikaans films. She listened to the radio in English and Afrikaans. She mentioned that her parents insisted that she listened to the radio in Afrikaans. With regard to cell – phone messaging, she did this in English and Afrikaans although she wrote her emails solely in English. She mentioned that English was her academic language and since she had always attended schools where English has been the MoI, it was easy for her to use English. Yet at home, she spoke Afrikaans because it was her L1 and her parents insisted she spoke Afrikaans "in order for her to continue being in touch with her roots".

Louisa, who spoke four languages, pointed out that she watched television in English. Her favourite programmes were crime drama because she enjoyed how the mystery in crime drama was solved. Similarly, she listened to English programmes on the radio and her favourite programme were the musical shows which were all in English. In her text messaging and emails she solely used English. Her reason was that although Otjiherero was her L1, she could not write it very well and even though she could write Afrikaans, she found the grammar of

Afrikaans very difficult. At home she mostly used Otjiherero and Afrikaans and a little bit of English.

Ursula and Sandra mentioned that all their favourite television programmes were in English. They watched such programmes as *"The Vampire Diaries"* and *"Beauty and the Beast"*. They both indicated that their understanding of English influenced their choice and watching of English programmes on television. Ursula mentioned that her favourite radio programmes which were the musical shows were in English. However, Sandra did not have a favourite radio programme because she hardly listened to the radio. Ursula mentioned that she sent text messages in only English. However, she sent emails in both English and German. Sandra, on the other hand mentioned that she wrote both her text messages and emails in English because English was easy to write. She mentioned specifically that although she could write German, it was difficult to write. Her writing of Afrikaans and Spanish was poor. At home, Ursula said that she used English (L1) and occasionally used German with her mother. Sandra mentioned that she used English and German and occasionally Spanish at home with her stepmother.

Five teachers were purposively selected for the interview on the basis of their linguistic profile and the subjects they taught. They were made up of one male and four females. Teachers A and B who taught Portuguese as modern foreign language knew six languages respectively. Teacher C who is a learning support teacher mentioned that she knew five languages. Finally, Teachers D and E mentioned that they knew three languages. Teacher D taught French while Teacher E taught EAL. Teacher A who is a Namibian stated that she knew six languages, namely, Portuguese (L1), English, Afrikaans, German, Spanish and French. Teacher B, a Mozambican, mentioned that he knew the following six languages Xistwa (L1), Portuguese, English, Kiswahili, Changana and Spanish. Teacher C who is a Dutch national knew Dutch (L1), English, German, French and Afrikaans. Teacher D who is French mentioned that she knew French (L1), English and Spanish and finally Teacher E who is Canadian mentioned that she knew English (L1), French and Rukukwangali.

The three modern foreign language teachers, namely, Teachers A, B (Portuguese Teachers) and D (French Teacher) taught in Portuguese and French respectively. Teacher C who is a learning support teacher taught in English while Teacher E who is an EAL teacher taught in English but

said she often code – switched between English and learners' L1. She also mentioned that she used online translators to help her translate LotE words into English. She mentioned, however, that she did not use the online translators to translate sentences because according to her "online translation of sentences was bad".

The teachers mentioned that they allowed learners who felt comfortable in their L1s to use them as a way of bridging their knowledge. They mentioned particularly the Afrikaans learners. Very often such learners used Afrikaans when they needed explanation regarding aspects of the lesson that they did not understand. Teacher D, the French teacher, said that sometimes she used English in class to explain concepts that the learners found difficult to understand. In this light, she mentioned that she would like to learn English better so that she could say or write exactly what she thought and felt. She said that "it is sometimes frustrating to not be able to find the most accurate words to express myself".

Outside the classroom, Teacher A said she used English Portuguese and Afrikaans in communicating with her colleagues and learners. Sometimes she communicated in German and French with the German and French teachers respectively. Teacher B mentioned that outside of the classroom he communicated to his colleagues who are Portuguese mainly in Portuguese and in English to other teachers. However, he communicated to his learners in Portuguese and occasionally spoke English with the students who could not speak Portuguese. Teachers E and C mentioned that outside the classroom, they communicated in English with their colleagues and also with their learners.

Teacher A mentioned that she watched television and listened to the radio in Portuguese and English. Her favourite programmes were the news and current affairs programmes. Teacher B watched television and listened to the radio programmes in Portuguese and English. He mentioned that his favourite programmes on the radio were the musical shows which were in English. He watched a lot of soccer games on television which were also broadcast in English. Teacher C listened to the radio in Dutch, English and Afrikaans and watched television in Dutch and English. Teacher D mentioned that she listened to French radio and watched television news in French and English. Finally, Teacher E listened to the radio in English and French and watched the news in English.

All the teachers said that they frequently sent text messages in English but the French teacher mentioned that sometimes she sent text messages in French. Similarly, the teachers mentioned that they mostly wrote their emails in English. Teacher A stated, however, that occasionally he wrote his emails in Portuguese. The same was the case with Teacher B. Teacher C occasionally wrote emails in French, and Teacher D mentioned that she sometimes wrote her emails in Dutch. Teacher E mentioned that all her emails were in English. Clearly the interviews brought to light the different domains of language use such as outside the classroom, entertainment and social networks and how teachers and learners functioned in different contexts in this multilingual setting.

5.5 Information collected in classroom observation

Observation is fundamental to qualitative studies and so the researcher observed two lessons, namely- an 80 – minute lesson in Geography and an 80 – minute lesson in English. It is important to note that before the formal observation took place, the researcher had visited these two classes on two different occasions which lasted 40 minutes each to observe informally how teaching and learning took place in the respective classrooms. These informal observations revealed that in the Geography classes, the lessons were more interactive than in the English classes. Particularly, in the English classes, the learners spent a lot of time reading silently and writing rather than speaking. The teacher explained that he had adopted this approach because he felt reading and writing helped the learners to increase their English proficiency.

The purpose of the formal observation was to find out firsthand what happened in the two classrooms and how linguistic and cultural diversity was managed in a multilingual classroom at WIS. In addition, by observing these two lessons, the researcher sought to find out how the teaching and learning practices in the classroom reflected, made use of or ignored and denied the multilingualism of the community. The researcher played two roles. Initially, he observed as a relative outsider and later as a participant – observer. As a relative outside, the researcher sat and took notes as teaching and learning took place. As a participant – observer, the researcher moved around and asked students questions on why sometimes they code – switched. With this approach, the learners and the teacher were not affected by the observer's paradox because they behaved naturally without feeling intimidated by the researcher's presence.

The observation was guided by 14 questions which were aimed at helping the researcher focus on specific areas during the observation. However, following Leedy and Ormond (2010) as mentioned in section 4.4, the researcher also adopted some aspects of the intentionally free - flowing approach when participating in the lessons to take advantage of unforeseen data as they emerged.

5.5.1 Observation of the English lesson

The English lesson was a double lesson which lasted 80 minutes. There were 20 learners in the classroom. The languages represented in the classroom were as follows: English (20), Afrikaans (10), French (9), German (7), Portuguese (7), Spanish (5), Herero (2), Otjiherero (1), Damara (1), and Swahili (1). Four learners stated that they knew five languages; 12 learners mentioned four languages as the languages that they knew and four learners said that they knew three languages. The teacher was an American whose L1 was English. However, he had indicated that he also knew Oshikwayama which he had learnt as an L2 in 1998 in the north of Namibia while he served as a Peace Corps volunteer there. His knowledge of this language according to him was "poor". Thus, this teacher represents one of the very few participants in the study who were virtually monolingual in the MoI. This would mean that he most likely worked with "monolingual habitus" (Gogolin 1994), thus with limited understanding of how multilingual learners make use of more than one language in their everyday lives and also in learning.

The topic of the lesson was essay – writing specifically on "The Descriptive Essay". The teaching approach was a combination of a lecture by the teacher and question and answer sessions between the teacher and the learners. Occasionally, the learners were allowed to engage each other in discussion. As an English lesson, the MoI was English. The researcher observed that though some learners whispered in their L1 (especially the students whose L1 was Portuguese) no other language apart from English was used during the lesson. The teacher communicated only in English to the students since he was an American and there was no occasion where he used his poor knowledge of Oshikwayama to explain any concept. Indeed, there was no Oshikwayama – speaking learner in the classroom. Thus, no other language functioned as a 'bridge' for the development of knowledge or was used as part of 'scaffolding' literacy practices.

Though no student showed any sign of feeling marginalised because of his/her limited proficiency in English, there were a few occasions when a student sought clarification on the teacher's pronunciation of words. Some of the students explained that his accent sometimes confused them.

5.5.2 Observation of the Geography lesson

The geography lesson lasted 80 minutes. There were 22 learners in the classroom. The reason for the difference in numbers between the English lesson and the Geography lesson is that English is a core subject at WIS and learners are equally divided between two teachers while Geography is an elective subject so the number of learners is dependent on the number of learners who sign up for the course. The languages represented in the classroom were as follows: English (22), Afrikaans (12), French (9), German (7), Portuguese (7), Spanish (5), Herero (2), Otjiherero (1), Damara (1), and Swahili (1). Four learners stated that they knew five languages, twelve learners mentioned four languages as the languages that they knew and four learners pointed out that they knew three languages. The teacher was Irish and her L1 was English. However, she had indicated earlier in the questionnaire that she knew Dutch, French and Afrikaans.

The topic the class was studying was "Essential Map Skills". The learners were engaged in individual work, but were allowed to consult their peers when the need arose. The MoI was English. However, the researcher observed a few occasions when the learners used LotE. For example, students who spoke Portuguese as L1 sat together in a row and sometimes used Portuguese to explain concepts to each other that they did not grasp very well in English. Two students who were L1 speakers of Otjiherero also spoke their L1 to each other. On one occasion, they used the L1 to make a comment on the topic they were studying. However, on another occasion they just spoke Otjiherero regarding a topic that was unrelated to the lesson. The Portuguese mentioned that sometimes they used their L1 to help them to understand aspects of the lesson better. However, the two students whose L1 was Otjiherero stated that communicating in their L1 came naturally to them.

Although the teacher's L1 was English, she did not discourage the students from using their L1. She made the point after the lesson that using their L1 helped the students to grasp the concepts

better; she felt it facilitated the teaching and learning process. She also mentioned that the learners were aware that English was the official language of communication and they could not use their L1 in contexts such as written examinations. Since the teacher's L1 was English, throughout the lesson, she communicated only in English and the learners did not address her directly in any other language.

From the observation, between the teacher and the learners, one can say that no language functioned as 'bridging' the development of knowledge. However, to the extent that the students whose L1 was Portuguese was concerned, code – switching was likely to act as 'bridging' the knowledge gap. There was no instance where another language was used as 'scaffolding'. In addition, no student showed any sign of marginalisation because of his/her limited proficiency in English. Indeed, all the students participated effectively in the lesson. It should be pointed out that in the classroom all the displays on the wall were in English.

5.6 Summary of findings

This section will consider the data described in sections 5.2 to 5.5 above and will interpret the profile developed across the chapter in light of what WIS' LiEP prescribes, what is adhered to, what is narrowly followed and what is not adhered to.

In order to put the findings into perspective, it is important to highlight the key aspects of the official written language policy of WIS. As mentioned in section 2.7, the LiEP of WIS explicitly states the philosophy underlying it. Firstly, it seeks to develop a culture of acceptance of all languages. Secondly, the policy states that its aim is to provide an inclusive, authentic context for learning in all areas of the curriculum. Thirdly, the policy also recognises the cultural value of language, its potential for fostering intercultural understanding and international – mindedness (Windhoek International School 2012: 2).

As a private school three key factors that influenced the school's language policy are the following. Firstly, at the inception of the school, the governing body decided that English should be the official language of communication of the school in line with the official policy of Namibia where English was adopted as MoI in all schools at independence. Secondly, English is singled out as the working language in which the school communicates with its stakeholders and

in which it is committed to providing a range of services for the implementation of its programmes. English is also the school's internal working language, in which most operational and development activities takes place (Windhoek International School 2012: 2). The language policy shows that the English language is the most important language at WIS. It is the lingua franca, MoI and language of official communication. According to the official written policy, English has been adopted as the lingua franca for the sake of "fairness and transparency and also as the working language both internal and external. It is also the language of governance and management" (Windhoek International School 2012: 2). In other words, the policy has elected a language that is intended to create a level playing field for all the members of the WIS community so that all can effectively participate in the activities of the community. In that light, WIS' LiEP supports, promotes and prescribes the use of English. The policy is, thus, unambiguous about its requirement that all learners and teachers be proficient in English even if it is not their L1.

However, the policy itself does not consider the way in which English as MoI privileges English L1 students, so that a "level playing field" is a rather unlikely ideal. English is the only language taught as an additional language to learners who have little or no prior knowledge of it and whose tested levels in the MoI are found to be low. EAL support is offered to accelerate the learners' integration into the mainstream language use. This support is devised to improve learners' understanding, listening and speaking skills in English.

On the basis of the findings in section 5.3.3 concerning the learners' knowledge and use of English, the choice of English as MoI is appropriate. In the interviews and especially observation of school practices, teachers and learners recognise the importance and value of English in their daily lives. English is the language most commonly used at school and at home by both learners and teachers. Although the learners and teachers mentioned that their proficiency levels in English were high, they mentioned that they still wanted to learn it better not only to improve their proficiency but also take advantage of it as a global language. They reported that they watch television and listen to the radio in English; in addition they write emails and send text messages in English. All the learners and teachers who participated in the research mentioned that they wanted to improve their English. The learners particularly indicated a preference for English as MoI, especially because of how it could be of use to them

in their education. It is interesting that none of the learners complained that they felt that the MoI limited their ability to show how well they knew their work. Other research (De Klerk's (2000; Slabbert and Finlayson 2000) has indicated these kinds of concerns in using a single powerful language as MoI in multilingual communities.

It is indicative of monolingual bias that such concerns were not raised. The main reason for English being used widely in school, according to the learners, was that the curriculum was in English and the examinations were set and written in English. The learners also expressed their awareness of being part of a world where English affords mobility and improvement of life chances. In these statements learners echoed a widely recorded view of the importance of belonging to a global village and English was seen as a route to globalisation (Spernes 2012: 200). Teachers, overall, also seemed not to question the monolingual policy of the school. In fact, one of the teachers in the interview mentioned that she found it frustrating that at times she is unable to express her thoughts in English and felt the need to learn the language better. Furthermore, the findings in sections 5.1.2 and 5.1.3 showed that this preference – for – English policy worked best in the classroom where English is the MoI. From the information obtained through the questionnaires, interviews and observation of two lessons, it is clear that (in line with the policy), English is the language most commonly used by teachers and learners whether as L1, L2, or as an additional language. Thus, one can say that English enjoys a privileged position among the many languages spoken in the school.

However, as an institution, WIS is multilingual. Although English is the lingua franca and MoI some of learners and teachers pointed out the importance they attach to their L1s and even languages they use as L2s. They mentioned the need to learn such languages as Afrikaans and French better and in the case of Afrikaans to maintain its cultural value and for the preservation of French literature in the case of French. Some of the learners and teachers also recognised other languages such as Afrikaans, Spanish and German for their utility. The learners and teachers stated that by knowing and using a variety of languages, there was the likelihood that one would develop intercultural communicative competence (Ting – Toomey 1999: 226-229) which is likely to result in intercultural understanding. WIS, thus, demonstrates a 'culture of multilingualism' where one of the markers of a given culture is the knowledge and use of various languages. The data collected by the various instruments all showed that the learner/teacher –

participants know and use a tapestry of languages. The complete list of all languages that the learner/teacher – participants together know are the following Namibian languages, namely, Afrikaans, Herero, Otjiherero, Damara, Nama, and Oshikwayanyama. The learner/teacher-participants also know a number of African languages which are Swahili, Zulu, Xhosa, Xista, Kiswahili, Changana and Kikuyu. In addition, one teacher – participant mentioned her knowledge of the following Indian languages Malayalam, Hindi, Tamil and Kannada. The learner/teacher – participants mentioned that they know the following European languages: English, German, French, Spanish and Portuguese.

On the level of the individual, the learners and teachers could be described as at least bilingual since each individual knows at least two languages. In formal contexts such as the classroom, Student Council meetings and Peer Counselling sessions, the learners indicated that they used English. On the other hand, in informal context such as break time they used other languages usually their L1. The learners said they communicated to each other in any language they felt comfortable in, but when they spoke to each other in mixed – language groupings, they used English. Thus all the learners had a multilingual background with one of the languages being English. For all the learners at WIS, multilingualism forms part of their daily experience. They live in a community where language diversity is part of their daily experience; they have been socialized in an environment which can be described as a multilingual reality. In its language policy, whether overt or covert, one would expect a school such as WIS to take into account the linguistic situation of the community in setting teaching standards and goals.

An interesting perspective in the set of respondents came from the group of Portuguese L1 learners. In the Geography class, this group code – switched between English and Portuguese, and in the follow – up interview after the observation, the learners argued for code – switching practices on the basis of conceptual and affective reasons. The learners with better proficiency in English explained difficult concepts to their peers in Portuguese. These Portuguese learners often used Portuguese informally, among each other, inside the classroom as a means of 'scaffolding'. They bridged the gap between their L1 abilities and their English abilities in developing knowledge and were not barred from using their L1 in such a way. Thus one can say that there was some ambiguity between policy and practice. However, the fact that the policy does not bar both learners and teachers from using other languages other than the MoI outside of the

classroom is a pointer to the fact that outside the classroom multilingual norms are not only prevalent, but possibly even encouraged.

Regarding the development and maintenance of Namibian indigenous languages such as Afrikaans, Oshiwambo or Otjiherero, there is no institutional support. These languages are not only avoided in the formal context, they are also not taught as subjects. Thus Western languages that are not national or official languages in Namibia (such as French and Portuguese) are given more status and better support than those of the many Namibian learners. Thus the kind of additive bilingualism that would acknowledge and support the local Namibian languages is not within reach for the high number of Namibians in the school. A significant proportion of the learners (9%) and teachers (21%) speak Afrikaans, but there is no institutional recognition in the form of teaching it as an elective, or using it in 'scaffolding' learning. Indeed, this contradicts the language policy requirements of the IB, which stipulates that schools should encourage the teaching and learning of host country languages where IB schools are located.

One kind of multilingualism practised at WIS may be described more or less as subtractive bilingualism. This refers particularly to learners who come to the school with knowledge of only their home language and then are immersed into the MoI which is English only. These learners mostly are not allowed to use their L1 in the classroom and they are referred to receive additional lessons in English facilitated by the EAL department. This is to ensure that they integrate into the school and can eventually benefit from the lessons. Thus the school's LiEP indirectly encourages monolingual norms creating a situation of "monolingual habitus (Gogolin 1994).

Another kind of multilingualism that the school supports and acknowledges is the offering of modern foreign languages which are taught as additional subjects apart from English for examination purposes. This could be described as some form of 'additive bilingualism' (Garcia et al. 2011: 2) in that learners with one of these languages as L1 can take it as a subject, and so improve the L1 language skills.

A form of multilingualism that the policy acknowledges but does not support is the use of learners' and teachers' L1s outside of the classroom. As witnessed among the Portuguese L1 learners, many of them switch to their L1 in informal communication where they have a prior knowledge about the various languages people know, and feel that the LotE is appropriate. This

may work to signal a sense of trust among those who share the same repertoire; it may also work to exclude those who do not. If for example, two Otjiherero L1 speakers switch to their L1, it can function as a means of sharing, of signalling closeness, mutual understanding and social support. Much has been written on the various functions of code – switching (Aguirre 1998), and in this school community code – switching is a regular occurrence and many of the established functions of code – switching are demonstrated.

This study has shown that the language ecology at WIS reveals a state of polyglossia, that is, a situation of linguistic hierarchy which privileges English as the most important language. English tends to enjoy a higher status (H) as compared to LotEs. The LotEs only function as language of social communication. English is the only language that receives institutional support and the learners with a low proficiency in it are given additional support to learn it better. This situation leaves little room for real attention to other languages and thus prevents the achievement of a truly and sustainable multilingualism. Yet, one may tend to agree with Jegede (2012) who posits that in a multilingual society, each language uniquely fulfills certain roles and represents distinct identities and all of them complement one another to serve "the complex communicative demands of a pluralistic society". On the whole, however, the education at WIS is not multilingual because it uses English as the only MoI in educating its learners (Hornberger 1990; UNESCO 1999 Baker 2001; Garcia 2009). It fails to meet the basic requirements of multilingual education. In addition, the 'language as a right' and 'language as resource' orientations (Ruiz 1984) are glossed over at WIS. Nor does the language policy at WIS support Corson's (1993) social justice principle. In the light of the above, it is evident that a monolingual language model is not appropriate for the multilingual WIS community. The choice of English only as MoI in WIS' LiEP ignores the existence of other languages and denies the real complexity of the language ecology of the school. For example, the teacher who mentioned the frustration she went through as a result of her inability to express herself in English is indicative of the enormous challenge some teachers face in using a language which is not their L1 as MoI. The need for a language policy that takes into account the complex language situation at WIS becomes imperative. Such LiEP should acknowledge the importance of English as MoI but also recognise that LotE can be useful in curriculum development and teaching and learning practices.

5.7 Summary

The interpretation of the different kinds of data and the various kinds of information obtained has confirmed that the learners and teachers, at WIS, on the individual level are multilingual. For all the learners and teachers, multilingualism forms part of their everyday experience. The learners mentioned that they attached importance to the LotEs because they symbolised their cultural identity. In the classroom for example, although English is strictly the MoI, the Portuguese learners argued for code – switching practices on the basis of conceptual and affective reasons. In spite of this, the school's LiEP indirectly encourages monolingual norms creating a situation of "monolingual habitus (Gogolin 1994). The chapter has shown that the language ecology at WIS demonstrates a state of polyglossia which privileges English as the most important language. The special position accorded English is stipulated in the official written language policy and although the policy claims that the choice of English is to ensure a "level playing field" in reality, a "level playing field" is a rather unlikely ideal. Significantly the development and maintenance of Namibian indigenous languages does not receive institutional support. The multilingualism practised at WIS may be described more or less as subtractive bilingualism. However, some form of 'additive bilingualism' (Garcia et al. 2011: 2) is encouraged because of the demands of the external examination. Thus, Western languages that are not national or official languages in Namibia (such as French and Portuguese) are given more status and better support than those of the many Namibian languages.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I shall refer to the data analysed and interpreted in chapter five, to give an assessment of the data, as well as to summarise findings in relation to the specific research questions set out in chapter one. Finally I shall make a few suggestions for improved practices in this particular school community and in similar multilingual contexts.

6.2 Summary of the study

The objectives of the study have been to reflect on language policy and the theoretical notions of 'multilingualism' and 'policy implementation' both inside and outside of the classroom at WIS. In the process, the study has examined aspects of policy which indicate (and to some extent determine) the status of various languages in a multilingual educational community in Namibia. It has related to the explicit and implicit policy aspects that were investigated to classroom practices. In so doing the study illustrates the gap between policy and practice in the multilingual classrooms at WIS. The study has examined the LiEP at WIS with a view to finding the guidelines regarding how linguistic and cultural diversity is to be managed at this particular school.

From the information gathered through scrutiny of the school records there is no doubt that WIS can be characterized as a multicultural and multilingual educational institution. The multilingual composition of its learners and teachers has demonstrated that every learner or teacher is at least bilingual, with the majority of them being multilingual in that there are more than two languages in the linguistic repertoires of all members of the school community. Through the qualitative methodology and purposive sampling technique adopted in this study the multilingual repertoire of the WIS community was concretely illustrated. The mixed-method approach, which included the use of questionnaires, interviews and observation, has added to eliciting information which has confirmed the multilingual composition of the WIS community. The data analysis, which has

been descriptive, interpretive and explanatory, has shown the various domains in which the different languages of learners and teachers are used.

Specifically, the study has given a detailed description of classroom practices in a small sample of classrooms over a limited period of time, which has illustrated the implementation of the language policy. The outcomes of the investigation confirm a degree of ambiguity inherent in overtly embracing multilingualism in the educational programme while at the same time implicitly honouring monolingual norms by requiring students to have high levels of English proficiency for their academic advancement.

6.3 Assessment of the data

The examination of scholarly literature on language policy, LiEP and multilingualism in education provided the theoretical framework for this research project. Such literature alerted me to the ways in which the status of various languages within the larger community determines how such languages are used in education. Underpinning the language choices and the classroom practices at WIS are matters of language identity and the status of different languages. The gap between policy and practice in these multilingual classrooms are evident in the tolerance towards students' and teachers' use of home languages such as Afrikaans and Portuguese on the one hand, but insistence on English only in the work that is presented for assessment. For example, among the one group of Portuguese L1 learners it was clear that they use Portuguese as "scaffolding" in learning, as well as in signaling a social in-group identity. However, the same group has to show their academic progress in English only and for such purposes high levels of language and communicative skills in English are required.

In this study, the quantitative information gained from access to certain sections of the school records has been important to the extent that it has provided empirical evidence of the rich diversity of languages, nationalities and cultures not only at WIS, but in fact also in the capital city, Windhoek. The school is multilingual both at the individual and institutional levels. This was confirmed by the information gained by means of questionnaires and interviews filled in by or conducted with the school's learners and teachers. The information gives evidence of real-time language use in the classroom and outside of the classroom, shedding light not only on the

linguistic superdiversity of the school community in the large number of different languages represented in the various repertoires, but also on the respondents' preferences in the choice of language in different social domains. It is clear that even with English as the only official MoI, other languages are used in every domain and with different functions. The classroom observation has given the researcher a firsthand experience of the classroom practices with an insight into actual language use in the classroom – as described in chapter 5.

6.4 Assessment of the findings

Firstly, the study sought to reflect on language policy. It was suggested in the review of scholarly literature that one of the primary aims of language policy is to address potential conflicts that may arise in multilingual spaces. Typically, in spaces where a variety of community languages are used, either one of the stronger local languages or a widely distributed international language with high status is selected as lingua franca. In education, the policy can either steer in the direction of greater support of the lingua franca, or in the direction of respect for and maintenance of the local diversity. In the latter case a bilingual education policy is selected with a view to protecting languages with smaller numbers of L1-speakers and to assuring access to education to L1-speakers of languages other than the chosen MoI. Language policy documents are often articulated in very general terms without attention to practical support for contexts where conflict is likely to arise. In education there may be a need to select a single language use in development. Consideration has to go to which kinds of educational resources are available – not only in the form of published work and teaching aids, but also in terms of financial support for development of resources for the languages of lower status.

In the context of WIS, which has been clearly identified as a multilingual community, the conflict that its language policy sought to resolve was which language to use as MoI and lingua franca. Considering the particular organisations to which the WIS is affiliated and the curricula that they work with, the choice of English was inevitable, as it is the only official language of the country, and the language most commonly used as lingua franca among both learners and teachers. The rationale behind the choice of English as MoI, as mentioned above, is explicitly stated in the official Whole School Language Policy. Following Shohamy's (2006: 47-48) reflection on language policy as a manipulation and imposition of language behaviours as it

relates to decisions about languages and their uses in education in society, it is clear that the LiEP of WIS imposes monolingual norms and a situation of "monolingual habitus" on its community of learners and teachers.

The LiEP of WIS can also be described in both overt and covert terms. The written language policy that originates from the school governing body in response to the demands of the IBO is the overt policy. The principles and practices set out in the official written policy make explicit the terms that guide communication in the school. The document addresses the question of the various learning domains and the various languages that the school recognises for use by learners and teachers. English is strictly the MoI, and the modern foreign languages which are also home languages of a number of learners, namely, French, German and Portuguese, are expected to be used when those languages are taught.

The covert aspects of the policy are those that are found implicitly in the daily practices of learners and teachers. The daily practices may be described as multilingual and multi-voiced. The covert policy is one that is not written, but that becomes clear in the ways people use languages, in the way status is afforded, and in how practices implement the official policy (or fail to do so). Schiffman (1996: 30) describes such aspects of covert language policy as aspects of policy that relate to linguistic rights, but are not given in any legal document. Such aspects are covert in that they must be inferred from other policies, constitutional provisions, 'the spirit of the law', or the ways in which regulations are followed. The linguistic culture of WIS has been influenced by the sociolinguistic composition of its learners and teachers, its linguistic landscape and its educational goals. A close look at this landscape betrays the covert policies that are honoured. The school's general educational ideology is a factor in the determination of its language policy. The LiEP at WIS at once takes care of and withholds language rights. It withholds the multilingual rights (as determined in international language rights context) of its teachers and especially its students in the classroom, while at the same time upholding those rights outside of the classroom.

A characterisation of multilingualism at WIS has been arrived at following a close examination of the current theoretical notions of multilingualism presented in scholarly literature on the subject. The study has considered multilingualism from an institutional perspective and has

investigated the policies that direct language practices at WIS as a multilingual educational institution. It has also taken an individual and societal perspective on multilingualism, in that it has considered relevant aspects of individual and societal multilingualism that have an effect on language choices within the institution, as well as on the achievement of educational success of the multilingual learners enrolled at WIS. The findings are that multilingualism at WIS, on one hand, is institutional because the school recognises multilingual practices in the entire school community in supportive terms. On the other hand, multilingualism at WIS can also be described in individual and social terms. The school attempts to determine and manage the language behaviours of learners in its official written language policy. It has emerged from the data collected and the analysis of this data that while the school is multilingual at the individual and the community levels, its policy regarding academic communication and particularly assessment, is largely monolingual.

Considering the above, there appears to be a conflict between policy and practice. At the macro policy level, multilingualism is recognised as a right and a resource, but in the classroom monolingualism is the norm. English, in line with a linguistic capital principle, dominates in the thinking of especially the learners. Most of the students mentioned that English is an international language and its use afforded them the opportunity to communicate with the larger global community. They do not express conflict regarding the prescribed MoI, even if some have learning difficulties that are language related. The school does not seem to be aware of, and therefore does not recognise the advantages that come with multilingual education such as additive bilingualism and dynamic bilingualism. In terms of established multilingual practices the kinds of bilingual education that have been observed, are largely subtractive.

Regarding the specific research questions in section 1.5 of this study, I would like to offer the following fairly succinct answers:

1. As stated earlier, as far as the classroom practices are concerned, monolingual norms are promoted at the expense of multilingual norms.
2. Outside of the classroom, where multilingualism is the norm, the opposite is the case in that multilingual practices of code switching, rephrasing, and using different languages for different functions, are widely accommodated.

3. In the classroom, the use of the MoI, which is English, is encouraged. However, there is some tolerance for the use of other languages, to the extent that teachers do not stop the learners from using their L1 as a means of 'scaffolding' in order to bridge the knowledge gap or construct new knowledge.

4. The development and maintenance of the L1 is felt more outside of the classroom where learners and teachers freely use their L1s. Thus maintenance of local and other home languages is not officially supported. This is particularly true of the indigenous Namibian languages.

5. The multilingual communicative practices do not affect the use of English as the MoI, because the learners and teachers can clearly distinguish between the different domains where they are expected to use English and their various L1s.

6. As mentioned consistently in this study, the policy that is overtly followed at WIS is enshrined in its official written language policy, which gives English a pride of place among the many languages spoken in the school.

The study has considered how recent studies in multilingualism have taken new perceptions of how linguistic biography and repertoire should be understood and how these concepts function in the everyday lives of people. Clearly, the findings have shown that language policies generally work with definitions of language which have a "monolingual habitus". In other words, while the participants of this study live in a context where their experience is multilingual and multi-voiced, the policy is articulated in terms of monolingual norms. Clearly, the education at WIS cannot be said to be multilingual education because it does not rely on values that support the use of more than one language in learning and teaching and thus is also not intercultural (Hornberger 2009: 2). Although the written language policy promotes the values of intercultural education (Windhoek International School, Whole School Language Policy 2012: 2), the curriculum and classroom culture very limitedly embodies such values.

6.5 Limitations of the study

One major limitation of this study relates to the language profile of the teachers in the entire school. The records of the teachers only listed their nationalities. There was no independent data on the language profile of the teachers, thus the researcher had to gather data about the language

profiles of the teachers through interaction with the teachers themselves. Thus, while the language profile of the learners could easily be gathered through access to the school records, this was not so with the teachers.

Another limitation is that, regarding the tested levels of the proficiency in English for new students, the school's records could also not provide the exact scores of the learners whose tested levels of English were so low that they needed additional lessons in the MoI. The scores of the 21 learners (see appendix H) whose tested English, according the EAL department, was low were reached from a combination of interviews conducted by the LSD and EAL department. The explanation for the relatively small number of learners who needed EAL is that all of these 21 learners were newcomers in the school. Older learners are not tested for the English proficiency because it is assumed that once a learner has been in the school for a year, his/her proficiency in English will be high enough to be able to function in English both inside and outside of the classroom.

Furthermore, a limitation of the study is that in both the English and the Geography lessons where the observations took place, the L1 of the teachers was English, which represented the language of power. However, it should be explained that in those classroom observations, apart from the Portuguese students who used LotE in the classroom, all the learners' proficiency in the MoI was such that they could participate in the lessons.

6.6 Suggestions for improved multilingual practices

Since WIS recognises the multilingual and multicultural constitution of its learners and teachers, it is suggested that its Whole School Language Policy should be revisited and improved to better reflect current thinking in LiEP. The LiEP must be seen to support other languages besides English as the policy claims since, from the empirical evidence, there was no indication that the languages the policy claimed to support were being given the requisite support. Some form of L1 maintenance, and use of the L1s of learners in the constructing of knowledge, should be considered.

The policy would be improved if it were to give recognition to LotEs. For example, Afrikaans, which many learners and teachers mentioned as a language they knew and which is one of the

languages widely spoken in Namibia, could be taught as a subject in the school and encouraged and promoted by the school. Other indigenous languages, particularly those where there is an established literacy tradition, (see Ovambo and Herero) could be given similar space in the curriculum.

Another suggestion is that in subjects other than English, the use of other languages besides the MoI should be encouraged as a means of bridging the language and knowledge gaps of learners who come with no or little knowledge of the MoI. Instead of the school supporting subtractive bilingualism, it should move towards additive bilingualism and, ultimately, supporting dynamic bilingualism in order to fully embrace multilingual norms. Following from Garcia et al.'s (2011: 15) assertion that schools with highly linguistically heterogeneous populations have the potential to implement dynamic multilingual policies, it is suggested that WIS should vigorously teach and encourage the dynamic multilingual practices in the school. It is only through this that WIS will be seen to be meeting a fundamental requirement in IB language policy guidelines which support the active learning and use of the host country languages where IB schools are located. The language policy itself should be developed as a resource. This will be in keeping with Hornberger's (1998: 452) position that language education professionals can actively contribute to "the transformative processes of language revitalisation, language maintenance or indeed language shift".

Teachers can be assisted in taking advantage of the occasional code-switching in the classroom. It is also suggested that steps must be taken to monitor, evaluate and improve WIS' LiEP on a regular basis to reflect the linguistic reality of the school since in every school (as suggested by Corson (1999)), the sociolinguistic context is dynamic.

The policy must recognise the fact that the process of implementing the 'language as a resource' perspective will come with its own conflicts as this involves the choice of one language over another and attention to one may infringe on the language rights of others (Hornberger 1998: 454). However, the policy should ensure that such conflicts will be reduced to the minimum and that conflict be resolved by giving proper information on the real value of multilingualism as well as respect for rights more generally.

Current practices in the policy that must be maintained are that for examination purposes, the school should still focus on extensive use of English to enable its learners to meet the requirements of its external examiners and accreditors. The policy should be the same for its communication with its other stakeholders. The policy must maintain its position where English is perceived as a source of linguistic capital which provides opportunities in the global community.

It is recommended that where a learner comes to WIS with little or no proficiency in English lessons in EAL must be introduced and continued over a sufficient period of time, to ensure the easy integration of the learner into the school, both inside and outside of the classroom. In order to make this effective, the L1 of learners should form part of the teaching process where he/she would be allowed to use his L1 freely during EAL lessons.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: WIS Whole School Language Policy

Windhoek International School

Whole School Language Policy

Policy Number:	3.0
Policy Name:	Whole Language Assessment Policy
Contact Officer:	Padmini, Avril, Henry, Brianna
Date Approved by Board:	
Date of Next Review:	Date 1 year from approval for Contact Officer to review policy (or as necessary).
Related Policies:	Whole School Language Policy, Primary Language Policy, Secondary Language Policy. EAL and Mother tongue.

WIS Mission statement: "Windhoek international school prepares its diverse student body to engage positively with the global community in the spirit of the International Baccalaureate."

"Language is integral to exploring and sustaining personal development, cultural identity and intercultural understanding. As well as being the major medium of social communication, it is tightly linked to cognitive growth because it is the process by which meaning and knowledge is negotiated and constructed. It is the main tool for building our knowledge of the universe and our place in it. Language then, is central to learning, as well as to literacy, and is thus closely related to success in school". IB (2008)

The purpose of the Whole School Language Policy is to outline and communicate our shared beliefs about languages and language learning. Language development is integral to student progress and teaching and learning. Windhoek International School has a diverse range of student nationalities, cultures and languages. Many of our students must access a curriculum in a language other than their mother tongue.   We embrace the diverseness of a language-rich community with the various cultures, nationalities and identities that define us as an International School. Our aim is to develop a culture of acceptance of all languages, first language, mother-tongue and second language, foreign language, EAL, and provide an inclusive, authentic context for learning in all areas of the curriculum. We recognize that language learning impacts on culture, identity and international mindedness: to know, to

understand and to be able to communicate our own identity and to promote intercultural acceptance and understanding.

Language, including all strands: visual-viewing and presenting, oral-speaking and listening, written – reading and writing, is the major connecting element across the curriculum and our programmes: PYP, Middle Years, IGCSE, DP. Language is the means by which we analyse student learning and the effectiveness of our teaching and acts as a foundation on which to base our future planning and practice. It is central to our goal of guiding the child, from novice to expert, through the learning process.

 At Windhoek International School the focus is not only on language for its own sake but also on its application across subject areas and throughout the trans-disciplinary program of inquiry. Language enables connections with the wider community and fosters collaboration. It affects every interaction we have, and this means it permeates every aspect of education. We recognize that, since language is central to learning, all teachers are, in practice, language teachers with responsibilities in facilitating communication.   This policy therefore provides a conceptual framework of language and learning that is applicable to all WIS learners and teachers, and gives the WIS community a clear indication of the framework and purpose of Language teaching, learning, assessment and development, and to assist parents and the wider community in fostering home languages.

DEFINITIONS OF LANGUAGE:

Working language and internal working language

English is the working language in which the school communicates with its stakeholders and in which is committed to providing a range of services for the implementation of the programmes.

English is also the school's internal working language, in which most operational and development activities take place. It is also the language of its governance, management and academic committees. All formal, semi-formal and informal communication, verbal or written, is required to be in English for the sake of fairness and transparency.

The school provides selected services and documentation, mainly to support teachers in access languages.   All services and materials needed for the delivery and implementation of the programmes are offered in English.

Curriculum documents

> IB learner profile
> Guides to programme implementation
> IBPYP Language scope & Sequence documents
> IBDP and IGCSE curriculum documents
> Overviews, Schemes of work, Lesson plans
> Student handbooks
> Guides and homework diaries

Assessment & reporting

> Internal and external assessment documents
> Internal and external exam papers, mark schemes, all examination material
> Student Development Portfolio and teacher assessment portfolio
> including trackers e.g. PM benchmark for reading
> Two parent conferences are held per year
> Students' reports

Professional development

> Internal workshop documents and records
> IB Online training available

Other

> Rules and regulations of the school,
> Code of conduct of the community,
> General regulations
> Minutes of organisational, curriculum and other meetings

Policies and procedures

Administrative documents and communications

In addition, the following is provided in English:

Public web site

Online communicator

All marketing and promotional material

Official communication and documentation to CIE, IB and selected documentation to Board committees.

Self-taught languages

Where no teacher is available at DP level, students are offered the option to self-study their mother-tongue as a language, as a school-supported self-taught language. A limited range of services and materials are offered in these languages. This promotes respect for the literary heritage of the student's home language and provides an opportunity for students to continue to develop oral and written skills in their mother tongue while studying in a different language of instruction. In addition, the school may request an examination to be set in languages that are not on the authorized IB list.

First languages

Almost all learners study English as a first language. There is also the possibility of opting for German or Portuguese as first language.

Second languages

German, French and Portuguese are taught as second languages and selected services and materials are offered in these languages. French and Portuguese are taught at all levels, while German is offered in the middle years and at IGCSE and DP levels. At DP level, English can be chosen as a second language if the first language is a self-taught language or German or Portuguese. At IGCSE and DP levels, students may learn a second language privately if that language is not taught in the school.

Language of instruction

English is the language of instruction across all subjects except when other languages are being taught. Standard English is used in all instances except in special cases where teachers are required to use other varieties of English for pedagogical purposes, for example the use of academic English in certain essays. We believe that standard language instruction is the responsibility of all teachers in all subject areas.

> *"Language stands at the centre of the many interdependent cognitive, affective and social factors that shape learning."*   *(Corson, 1999)*

English as an Additional Language (EAL)

At WIS, we ensure that the needs of EAL learners are identified and provided for and that that all EAL learners are integrated into mainstream education. EAL support, in and out of lessons, is provided to students who have little or no prior knowledge of English until they reach a sufficient level of communication to enable them to be able to use English effectively across the curriculum, and both in and out of the classroom, using appropriate methods and strategies of teaching and learning that address the needs of EAL learners. It is also ensured that the parents or guardians of EAL learners understand school information and offer interpreting/translating services if needed. Resources are developed that will enhance the linguistic and conceptual understanding of EAL learner and links are fostered between the home, the school and the community for EAL learners.

Learning support

In addition, we recognise that different people develop competence in the use of language at varying paces and therefore, we ensure that differentiation skills are applied as required in the teaching and learning. We also believe that language teaching and learning should be consistent and appropriate to the age and ability of the student. Our learning support department offers comprehensive learning support and recommends individual special consideration for students with special educational needs, learning difficulties and/or disabilities. Within the PYP students can receive literacy support for phonological development, spelling, comprehension within reading and writing. Special arrangements include appointing a trained scribe, reader, prompter,

practical assistant/aide or communicator.   The learning support department also informs and trains teachers and teaching assistants to manage with special learning needs or difficulties of students.

Responsibilities of the school

The school is responsible for providing authentic contexts for language teaching and learning in all areas of the curriculum that are a reflection of, and relevant to, the community of learners, and to the educational theories underpinning the programme.   The availability and location of adequate resources for successful achievement is ensured, including world classics, culturally diverse reading material, contemporary works, diverse styles, sources from magazines, the news, pictures, theatre, cinema and publicity.

Responsibility of the teacher

Teaching and learning language tasks are designed in such a way as to be appropriate to students' learning needs, varied, challenging and directly aligned to the curriculum unit and classroom pedagogy. A literature-based approach to learning language, reading for meaning, focusing on meaning when reading and writing and student-selected reading materials according to interest level is encouraged, with students building on his or her own learning, and leading to appropriate cooperative discussion in the classroom.   A variety of scaffolded learning experiences are accessible—with the teacher providing strategies for the writing as a process and nurturing appreciation of the richness of language and using literature as a means of understanding and exploring.

Language is considered as a trans disciplinary element throughout the curriculum, and integrated language development is promoted. A teaching approach that sees making mistakes in language as inevitable and necessary for learning is encouraged, that uses language for creative problem solving, information processing and research using multimedia resources.

Responsibilities of the learner

The learning process simultaneously involves learning language—as learners listen to and use language with others in their everyday lives; learning about language—as learners grow in their understanding of how language works; and learning through language—as learners use language as a tool to listen, think, discuss and reflect critically on information, ideas and issues (Halliday 1980). Learners listen, talk, read and write their way to negotiating new meanings and understanding new concepts. Literacy, including oral and visual literacy as well as the ability to read and write, becomes increasingly important as greater demands are placed on learners as participants in the learning process. Learners are encouraged to recognize that competency in language, and in more than one language, is a valuable life skill, a powerful tool both in societal communication and as a means of personal reflection.

Furthermore, learning that language and literature are creative processes encourages the development of imagination and creativity through self-expression. Literature is concerned with our conceptions, interpretations and experiences of the world. The study of literature can therefore be seen as an exploration of the way it represents the complex pursuits, anxieties, joys and fears to which human beings are exposed in the daily business of living. It enables an exploration of one of the more enduring fields of human creativity, and provides opportunities for encouraging independent, original, critical and clear thinking. It also promotes respect for the imagination and a perceptive approach to the understanding and interpretation of literary works.

Responsibility of the academic coordinators

The academic coordinators oversee the review of curriculum on a regular basis making sure to use the most up to date documents and establishing the best practice of language use to develop a strong WIS language curriculum.

Assessment

The assessment of language is defined in the assessment policy.

Professional development

The school supports ongoing professional development for all staff members. This includes face-to-face training sessions, online workshops and in-house instruction and support.

Reference(s)

Making the PYP happen: A curriculum framework for international

Primary education *2009*

Primary Years Program: Language Scope and Sequence *2009*

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IBDP Language A guide

Policy History

This policy was updated by based on submissions from the Language Committee and the whole teaching staff, October 2012.

The policy was reviewed and updated by Anthony Millward, Primary Principal October 2010.

Document Acceptance

This policy is endorsed by the school's management and the Staff Association.

Signed   Principal

Date

This policy is endorsed by the Policy Committee

Signed.   Chairperson of Policy Committee

Date

This policy is approved by the School Board of Windhoek International School.

Signed.   Chairperson of School Trust Board

Date

Appendix B: SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE FOR LEARNERS

Language Policy and Practice in a multilingual classroom: a study of how Diversity is managed in a Namibian High School

Thank you for taking part in this study. Please take a few minutes to fill this questionnaire. It should take no longer than 20 minutes. Your participation is voluntary and responses are anonymous.

A. BACKGROUND OF LEARNERS

Date of Birth   Years as a student at WIS

First Language   Gender   M   F

Country of Origin   Age

B. LINGUISTIC PROFILE

Fill in all the languages you know, even if you are not very proficient in them. Then on the scale of 1 to 5 (where 1 is excellent and 5 is poor), rate your ability in each language for the skills listed in columns (ii) to (v) (understanding the spoken form, speaking, reading and writing). In the last column indicate where you use/come across each language most often.

i	Ii	iii	iv	v	vi
Languages	Understand	Speak	Read	Write	When/where you use this language

1=Excellent; 2=Very Good; 3= Good; 4=Not Good; 5= Poor

C. LANGUAGE BIOGRAPHY

For each of the languages you know, state briefly WHERE you LEARNT it or where you came across it for the first time.

For each of the languages you know, state whether you would like to learn to use it better. Briefly say what value it has for you to know that particular language.

Appendix C: SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS

Language Policy and Practice in a multilingual classroom: a study of how Diversity is managed in a Namibian High School

Thank you for taking part in this study. Please take a few minutes to fill this questionnaire. It should take no longer than 20 minutes. Your participation is voluntary and responses are anonymous.

A. BACKGROUND OF TEACHERS

Date of Birth   Years of teaching at WIS

First Language   Gender   M   F

Country of Origin   Age

B. LINGUISTIC PROFILE

Fill in all the languages you know, even if you are not very proficient in them. Then on the scale of 1 to 5 (where 1 is excellent and 5 is poor), rate your ability in each language for the skills listed in columns (ii) to (v) (understanding the spoken form, speaking, reading and writing). In the last column indicate where you use/come across each language most often

I	ii	iii	iv	v	vi
Languages	Understand	Speak	Read	Write	When/where you use this language

1=Excellent; 2=Very Good; 3= Good; 4=Not Good; 5= Poor

C. LANGUAGE BIOGRAPHY

For each of the languages you know, state briefly WHERE you LEARNT it or where you came across it for the first time.

For each of the languages you know, state whether you would like to learn to use it better. Briefly say what value it has for you to know that particular language.

Appendix D: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR LEARNERS

Language Policy and Practice in a multilingual classroom: a study of how Diversity is managed in a Namibian High School

The purpose of this interview is a follow up to the questionnaire teachers answered on the use of language within and outside the classroom at Windhoek International School (WIS). The answers will be used to complement the data gathered through the questionnaire on how multilingualism is used and enabled in the classroom and outside of the classroom at WIS.

A. BACKGOUND OF LEARNERS

Date of Birth   Years of student at WIS

First Language   Gender   M ☐   F ☐

Country of Origin   Age

B. LANGUAGE USED IN THE CLASSROOM

1. This school teaches through the medium of English. Are there times when languages other than English are used in the classroom?
2. If you sometimes use any language other than English in the classroom, who are you speaking to and what will the circumstance be?
3. If teachers sometimes use any language other than English in the classroom, who are they speaking to and what will the circumstance be?
4. Do you feel confident and comfortable communicating in English in the classroom?

C. LANGUAGE USED OUTSIDE OF THE CLASSROOM

1. Which languages do you use in conversing with your friends outside of the classroom?

2. Which language do you speak to your teachers outside of the classroom?

3. Which are your favourite TV programmes? In which language are the broadcast?

4. Explain why it is your favourite programme?

5. What language(s) do you mostly use in communicating:

    a.   in cell phone texting?

    b.   in writing emails?

Explain your use of languages in these kinds of communication

6. Which language(s) do you use at home?

Explain your use of languages at home: with whom do you use which and for which purposes.

Appendix E: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR TEACHERS

Language Policy and Practice in a multilingual classroom: a study of how Diversity is managed in a Namibian High School

The purpose of this interview is a follow up to the questionnaire teachers answered on the use of language within and outside the classroom at Windhoek International School (WIS). The answers will be used to complement the data gathered through the questionnaire on how multilingualism is used and enabled in the classroom and outside of the classroom at WIS.

A. BACKGOUND OF TEACHERS

Date of Birth   Years of teaching at WIS

First Language   Gender   M   F

Country of Origin   Age

B. LANGUAGE USED IN THE CLASSROOM

1. This school teaches through the medium of English. Are there times when languages other than English are used in the classroom?
2. If you sometimes use any language other than English in the classroom, who are you speaking to and what will the circumstance be?
3. If learners sometimes use any language other than English in the classroom, who are they speaking to and what will the circumstance be?
4. Do you feel confident and comfortable communicating in English in the classroom?

C. LANGUAGE USED OUTSIDE OF THE CLASSROOM

Which languages do you use in conversing with your friends or colleagues outside of the classroom?

1. Which language do you speak to your learners outside of the classroom?

2. Which are your favourite TV programmes? In which language are the broadcast?

3. Explain why it is your favourite programme?

4. What language(s) do you mostly use in communicating:

   a. in cell phone texting?

   b. in writing emails?

Explain your use of languages in these kinds of communication

5. Which language(s) do you use at home?

Explain your use of languages at home: with whom do you use which and for which purposes.

Appendix F: CLASSROOM OBSERVATION GUIDE

Language Policy and Practice in a multilingual classroom: a study of how Diversity is managed in a Namibian High School

1. In classroom observation, I shall be observing, taking notes and making recordings with attention to questions such as the following:
2. How many students are there in the classroom?
3. How many languages are represented as L1s among students?
4. What is the L1 of the teacher?
5. How often are other languages used?
6. In which circumstances are other languages used?
7. When do students communicate in a language other than English?
8. How does the teacher react to students communicating in another language apart from English?
9. Does the teacher sometimes use a language other than English (i) in initiating a communicative event, or (ii) in response to a learner's communicative initiative?
10. What are the functions of introducing a language other than English in classroom interactions?
11. Do the other languages ever function as "bridging" in the development of knowledge?
12. Are there times when another language is used as "scaffolding", that is, as a means of improving understanding and developing insight and the insight then translated into English afterwards?
13. Do some students appear to feel marginalized because they are limitedly proficient in English?
14. How are such students encouraged to participate in the learning process?

Appendix G: ASSESSMENT INTERVIEW – SECONDARY SCHOOLS

ASSESSMENT INTERVIEW – Secondary School	
Name: Rika Antonia Ausiku	**Date of assessment**: 9/4/2013
Gender: Female	**Assessed by:** Ronel Bosch
Nationality: Namibian	**Date of Birth:** 4/4/2000
	Age: 13 years 0 months
First Language: English	**Previous School(s):** Amazing Kids (Jan – April 2013)
Other languages: Afrikaans and Rukwangali	**Educational history**: International School of Lusaka (June 2005 – June 2009). Glen Allen Primary School USA (Sep 2010 – Sep 2011). Col E Brooke Lee Middle School (Sep 2011 – Dec 2012). Her reports indicated that she was in Grade 6 in the 2011-2012 academic year, and in Grade 7 till December 2012.
Foreign language at previous school: French	
Family Status: Second child. Living with parents and one brother.	**Age appropriate for:** Year 8
	Assessment for: Year 8

Social/ emotional

Rika seemed reserved and shy. She was friendly and well-mannered. On her application form her mother stated that she can benefit from support related to social skills. The Maryland Student Withdrawal/Transfer Record indicated - *Current school year attendance 10 days present, 65 days absent as of date 19 December 2012*. Gathered from the short passage that she wrote, her life in America was difficult. She will benefit from emotional support and resilience building if enrolled at WIS.

Work attitude/ ability to concentrate

Rika was able to sustain attention during the assessment. She followed a slow and precise approach.

Language

The Vocabulary, Verbal Reasoning and Reading Comprehension tests give an indication of a child's verbal ability compared to his/her peer group. Verbal ability is necessary to perform well in school. Scores are given as Stanines (a score ranging from 1 – 9, with 1 being the lowest and 9 the highest). Stanines 1 to 3 can be considered as below average, 4 to 6 as average and 7 to 9 as above average.

- Vocabulary (word knowledge): Stanine 8
- Verbal Reasoning (indication of verbal cognitive abilities): Stanine 7
- Reading Comprehension (understanding and application of written language): Stanine 6

Rika wrote a short piece about herself. Her writing revealed a fluency in thoughts. She made no grammar and spelling mistakes.

According to her previous school assignment scores, dated 19/12/2012, her score for English was 80%.

Mathematics Rika received 46.5% for the Mathematics Entrance Assessment to Year 8. According to her previous school assignment scores, dated 19/12/2012, her score for Mathematics was 80%.
Science According to her previous school assignment scores, dated 19/12/2012, her score for Science was 87%.
Medical: Wheezing/shortness of breath
Recommendations: Rika is age appropriate for Year 8. Her progress in Grade 7 seems satisfactory. There is no information available about her progress in 2013 at Amazing Kids. There are concerns about Rika's social-emotional wellness.

Placement: year	**LS Coordinator:**
Middle School Coordinator:	**VS Principal:**

Appendix H: EAL INFORMATION

EAL Students 2013

NAME	COUNTRY/LANGUAGE of ORIGIN	YEAR LEVEL
Armindo (Dario) Alves	Angola / Portuguese	6
Kirk ?? (Cong Cong)	China / Chinese	7
Lordyan Manuel	Angola / Portuguese	7
Andrea David	Angola / Portuguese	9
Jose Ribeiro	Portugal / Portuguese	10
Idealton Manuel	Angola / Portuguese	10
Thalia Pinhasov	Israel / Hebrew	11
Henrik Dahlgren	Sweden / Swedish	11

NAME	COUNTRY/LANGUAGE of ORIGIN	YEAR LEVEL
Armindo (Dario) Alves	Angola / Portuguese	7
Beatriz Fernandes	Brazil / Portuguese	7
Hu Anxun	China / Chinese	7
Ayobami Adeoye	Nigeria / Local Dialect + 'Nigerian' English	7
Abduelbare Al Nami	Libya / Arabic	7
Lordyan Manuel	Angola / Portuguese	8
Joana Diogo	Portugal / Portuguese	8
Jaber Almotasim	Libya / Arabic	8
Yan Minghau	China / Chinese	8
Abdal Moamen	Libya / Arabic	9
Kiami Rodrigues	Angola / Portuguese	9
Victoria Turgeneva	Russia / Russian	10
Kimia Fotouhi Ghiam	Iran / Persian	12

Appendix I: ETHICS COMMITTEE APPLICATION FORM

RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE: HUMAN RESEARCH

(HUMANIORA)

ETHICS COMMITTEE APPLICATION FORM

Application to the University of Stellenbosch RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE: HUMAN RESEARCH (HUMANIORA)
for clearance of new/revised research projects

This application must be typed or written in capitals

Name: HENRY AMO MENSAH

Position/Professional Status: TEACHER, WINDHOEK INTERNATIONAL SCHOOL, ENGLISH

Affiliation: Research Programme/Institution / Department:
Please indicate (√) if you are a registered student at SU?

YES	√
NO	

If yes, for which degree/programme are you registered?

Please specify the relevant Department at SU: General Linguistics

Who is your supervisor? Prof C. Anthonissen

Your telephone and extension no.   Code: +264   no. 0817448145

Fax: NOT APPLICABLE   Code: no. NOT APPLICABLE

Email address: hamjay2000@yahoo.com

Title of research project: (*Do not use abbreviations*)

Language Policy and Practice in a Multilingual Classroom: managing linguistic diversity in a Namibian High School

Where will the research be carried out?

Windhoek and Stellenbosch

All the following sections must be completed (Please tick all relevant boxes where applicable)

1. **FUNDING OF THE RESEARCH: How will the research be funded?**
   Student's own resources

2. **PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH:**
   MA degree in General Linguistics

3. **AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH:** *(Please list objectives)*

   This research will attempt to provide more insight into language policy at Windhoek International School which gives guidelines regarding how linguistic and cultural diversity is managed in a multilingual classroom. Particularly, it will investigate classroom practices in a multilingual school that may illustrate implementation of such language policy. The objectives of the study are to reflect on language policy, the theoretical notions of multilingualism and policy implementation both in the classroom and outside of the classroom at Windhoek International School.

   1. reflecting on language policy and its implementation in general and in particular at Windhoek International School
   2. giving an overview of how the concept of multilingualism has been defined and used in recent studies;
   3. examining how multilingualism occurs at Windhoek International School where students from a variety of backgrounds are studying for the International General Certificate Secondary Education (IGCSE) and International Baccalaureate (IB) programmes;
   4. examining the ambiguity inherent in embracing multilingualism in the educational programme and at the same time requiring students to have a high levels of English proficiency for their academic advancement; and
   5. examining how linguistic diversity is managed in the school.
   6. suggesting ways for improved practices.

4. **SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH** *(give a brief outline of the research plan – not more than 200 words. Include who will do what, when, where and for how long to gather data.)*

   Henry Amo Mensah is the researcher. I shall do a comprehensive literature review of the subject. I shall also access data from the records of Windhoek International School. I shall observe two clasroom situations attended by the same learners in which two different subjects are taught namely, an English language classroom and a Geography classroom. Questionnaires will be administered to students and teachers and they will also be interviwed. The data collection will take two weeks.

5. NATURE AND REQUIREMENTS OF THE RESEARCH

5.1 How should the research be characterized *(Please tick ALL appropriate boxes)*

5.1.1 Personal and social information collected directly from participants/subjects	**x**
5.1.2 Participants/subjects to undergo physical examination	
5.1.3 Participants/subjects to undergo psychometric testing	
5.1.4 Identifiable information to be collected about people from available records	**x**
5.1.5 Anonymous information to be collected from available records	**x**
5.1.6 Literature, documents or archival material to be collected on individuals/groups	**x**

5.2 Participant/Subject Information Sheet attached? (*for written*)

YES	**x**
NO	

5.3 Informed Consent form attached? *(for written consent)*

YES	**x**
NO	

5.3.1 If informed consent is not necessary, please state why:
Consent to be gained from all participants, as well as parents of learner-participants

NB: If a questionnaire, interview schedule or observation schedule/framework for ethnographic study will be used in the research, it must be attached. The application cannot be considered if these documents are not included.

5.4 Will you be using any of the above mentioned measurement instruments in the research?

YES	**X**
NO	

6 PARTICIPANTS/SUBJECTS IN THE STUDY

6.1 If humans are being studied, state where they are selected:
6.2 Please mark (√) the appropriate boxes:

Participants/subjects will:	YES	NO
be asked to volunteer	X	
be selected	X	

6.2.1 State how the participants/subjects will be selected, and/or who will be asked to volunteer:
See attached proposal
6.2.2. Please mark (√) the appropriate boxes:

Participants/subjects are:	YES	NO
Will SU student, alumni of staff data be used in this research		x
Will interviews be conducted with SU student, alumni of staff		x
Will questionnaires be used and distributed on SU campuses		x
Will electronic questionnaires be placed on the SU website?		x

6.3 Are the participants/subjects subordinate to the person doing the recruiting?

YES	some
NO	

6.3.1 If yes, justify the selection of subordinate participants / subjects:
Colleagues are not subordinate; learners are subordinate simply as part of the educational hierarchy – not selected in a way that would compromise learners or the answers they give.

6.4 Will control participants/subjects be used?

YES	
NO	x

6.4.1 If yes, explain how they will be selected:

6.5 What records, if any, will be used, and how will they be accessed? Have you obtained formal permission to use these records?

6.6 What is the age range of the participants/subjects in the study?

Students are between the ages of 15 and 17. Teachers are all adults

6.6.1   Will consent from guardians/parents be obtained for participants/subjects 17 years and younger?

YES	x
NO	

If YES, please attach the appropriate forms.

6.6.2   If NO, please state why:

6.7 Will participation or non-participation disadvantage the participants/subjects in any way?

YES	
NO	x

6.7.1 If yes, explain in what way:

6.8 Will the research benefit the participants/subjects in any direct way?

YES	
NO	x

6.8.1 If yes, please explain in what way:

7. PROCEDURES

7.1 Mark research procedure(s) that will be used:

Literature	x
Documentary	
Personal records	x
Interviews	x
Survey	x
Participant observation	x
Other (please specify) _____ _____	

7.2 How will the data be stored to keep it safe and prevent unauthorized access? What happens to the data on completion of the research?

The data will be stored in my house under lock and key. The data will be destroyed after the research.

7.3 If an interview form/schedule; questionnaire or observation schedule/framework will be used, is it attached?

YES	x
NO	

7.4 Risks of the procedure(s): Participants/subjects will/may suffer:

No risk	√
Discomfort	
Pain	
Possible complications	
Persecution	
Stigmatization	
Negative labeling	
Other (please specify) _____ _____	

7.4.1 If you have checked any of the above except "no risk", please provide details:

8. RESEARCH PERIOD

(a) When will the research commence: June

(b) Over what approximate time period will the research be conducted: 4 months

9. GENERAL

9.1 Has permission of relevant authority/ies been obtained?

YES	x
NO	

If yes, state name/s of authority/ies: Department of General Linguistics, Stellenbosch University and Windhoek International School, Windhoek, Namibia.

9.2 Confidentiality: How will confidentiality be maintained to ensure that participants/subjects/patients/controls are not identifiable to persons not involved in the research:

The questionnaires and interviews are all anonymous and no names and specific designation will be mentioned

9.3 Results: To whom will results be made available, and how will the findings be reported to the research participants?

Department of General Linguistics, Stellenbosch University
Windhoek International School

The results will be reported as a thesis report and as a journal article.

9.4 There will be financial costs to: No financial costs

participant/subject	
institution	
Other (please specify) _____ _____	

9.4.1 Explain any box marked YES:

9.5 Research proposal/protocol attached:

YES	x
NO	

9.6 Any other information which may be of value to the Committee should be provided here:

Date: 17TH JUNE 2013   Applicant`s signature HAM _____

Who will supervise the project?

Name: Professor Christine Anthonissen

Programme/Institution/Department: MA Intercultural Communication, General Linguitics, Stellenbosch University

Date: Signature: _____

Director/Head/Research Coordinator of Department/Institute in which study is conducted:

I declare that this research proposal has been approved by the relevant Department or Faculty and that it complies with acceptable scientific research standards.

Name:

Date: Signature: