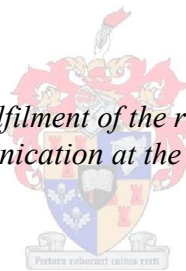


English lingua franca in the South African tertiary classroom: recognising the value of diversity

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*Thesis presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree
MA in Intercultural Communication at the University of Stellenbosch*



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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.

Linda Scott

December 2015

DEDICATION

To my precious grandchildren, Kyle and Sheila, in recognition of your language challenges as CODA. Go forward and achieve success. I love you to the moon and back.

ABSTRACT

Globalisation has led to the use of English lingua franca (ELF) in many international classrooms and in the majority of the South African tertiary education institutions. The South African situation and use of ELF is grounded in the historic developments of the country and an understanding that it is an international requirement for individuals to have access to English language skills to enable them to realise their potential and participate fully within South African society (CHE, 2002:4). While the development of the previously neglected field of African languages as scientific and academic languages remains a priority, examining the use of ELF in the South African tertiary classroom is essential; therefore, this study explores the use of ELF in the South African tertiary education classroom to understand the role of linguistic diversity in the learning environment. Particular attention is directed to the linguistic repertoires of students, their codeswitching behaviour and instances of miscommunication. The study was conducted at a university of technology and participants were observed during group work sessions, which culminated in a formal assessment. Questionnaires were also utilised to gain further data for analysis.

Findings indicate that the role of English as a global economic language should not be underestimated. However, the promotion of multilingualism is advocated and attention should be given to not only the promulgation of language policies, but also their implementation. Furthermore, flexibility in language should be encouraged, with a move away from the traditional use of one language for teaching and learning to a translanguaging classroom and an assessment environment, which brings to the forefront the benefits of translanguaging, where one language is used to reinforce and increase understanding in the other languages (Garcia & Wei, 2014:64). This will assist students to reach their full potential in the tertiary education environment.

OPSOMMING

Globalisasie het gelei tot die gebruik van Engelse lingua franca (ELF) in baie internasionale klaskamers, sowel as in die meerderheid van Suid-Afrika se tersiêre onderwysinsitute.

Die Suid-Afrikaanse situasie en die gebruik van ELF is gegrond op die historiese ontwikkelings in die land. Elke student moet, om sy volle potensiaal te ontwikkel en volkome deel te wees van die Suid-Afrikaanse gemeenskap, Engels taalvaardig wees, wat in elk geval 'n internasionale vereiste is (CHE, 2002:4).

Terwyl die ontwikkeling van Afrika-tale (wat voorheen nie so baie aandag gekry het nie) as 'n wetenskap- en akademiese taal steeds die voorkeur geniet, moet die ondersoek in die gebruik van ELF in die Suid Afrikaanse klaskamers gesien word as 'n uiters belangrike onderwerp. Hierdie navorsing ondersoek die gebruik van ELF in die Suid-Afrikaanse tersiêre klaskamer. Die doel is dan om die rol van linguistieke diversiteit in die leeromgewing, naamlik die klaskamer, na te vors. Spesifieke aandag is gegee aan die studente se linguistieke vaardighede, kodewisseling en kommunikasiebreuke.

Hierdie navorsing is gedoen by 'n universiteit van tegnologie en deelnemers is waargeneem tydens groepwerksessies. Die waarnemings is ten slotte saamgevat in 'n formele assessering. Vraelyste is ook gebruik om inligting te verkry vir verdere ontleding. Bevindings het bewys dat die rol van Engels as 'n globale ekonomiese taal nie onderskat moet word nie. Alhoewel die bevordering van veeltaligheid bepleit word, moet aandag nie net gegee word aan die teorie van taalbeleide nie, maar ook aan die uitvoering hiervan. Buigsaamheid moet verder in taalonderrig aangemoedig word deur weg te beweeg van die tradisionele gebruik van slegs een taal vir onderrig en leer. Daar behoort dus meer as een taal in die klaskamer en op assesseringsgebiede gebruik te word; dit sal lei tot die versterking en beter verstandhouding tussen tale (Garcia & Wei, 2014:64). Dit sal leerders ondersteun om hulle volle potensiaal te bereik in 'n tersiêre onderwys-omgewing.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CHE	:	Council for Higher Education
DoE	:	Department of Education
ELF	:	English lingua franca
L1	:	First language/mother tongue
L2	:	Second language (in order of acquisition)
NS	:	Native speaker
NNS	:	Non-native speaker
TL	:	Target language

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I did not come to be in this place by accident. My journey has been one filled with many blessings and some of the most supportive family and friends I could wish to have by my side. There are too many to mention, but I know you are aware of the role you have played in my life; accept my everlasting appreciation.

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My children, Nicholas and Natasha, you are my inspiration, my motivation, and fill my heart with pride.

Jenni, you always offered unwavering support and pushed me to succeed. I thank you for that.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION	i
DEDICATION	ii
ABSTRACT	iii
OPSOMMING	iv
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	v
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	vi
LIST OF TABLES	xi
LIST OF FIGURES	xii
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background	1
1.3 Contextualising the problem	3
1.4 Research design	7
1.5 Chapter Outline	8
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW	9
2.1 Introduction	9
2.2 An overview of linguistic diversity within tertiary institutions	9
2.3 The South African tertiary education system	11
2.3.1 An historical overview of language in South Africa	17
2.3.2 The rationale for English lingua franca in education in post-apartheid South Africa	21
2.4 English lingua franca in tertiary education	23
2.4.1 Global English lingua franca	23
2.4.2 English lingua franca in the South African classroom	28
2.4.3 The danger of the practice of linguistic hegemony in education institutions	30
2.4.4 English lingua franca: promoting skills and knowledge	35
2.5 Group work and problem solving	39
2.6 Codeswitching and linguistic repertoire	40

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DATA COLLECTION	46
3.1 Introduction.....	46
3.2 Research methodologies	46
3.2.1 Literature review.....	46
3.2.2 Empirical research	46
3.3 Ethical considerations.....	47
3.4 Data collection.....	48
3.4.1 Sampling frame.....	48
3.4.2 Data collection activities and instruments	49
3.4.3 Preparation activities (1A and 2A)	50
3.4.4 Presentation activities (1B and 2B)	53
3.5 Analysis of data	56
3.5.1 Activities 1A and 2A	56
3.5.2 Activities 1B and 2B.....	56
3.5.3 The questionnaires	56
3.6 Analysis of ELF features in the data.....	57
3.6.1 Linguistic repertoires	57
3.6.2 Codeswitching	58
3.7 Conclusion	62
CHAPTER 4: DATA ANALYSIS	63
4.1 Introduction.....	63
4.2 Language profiles of participants	64
4.3 Collection of data.....	67
4.4 Activity 1A and 2A.....	68
4.4.1 Linguistic repertoires	68
4.4.1.1 Activity 1A	68
4.4.1.2 Activity 2A	71

4.4.1.3	Activity 1B and Activity 2B	77
4.4.2	Codeswitching	77
4.4.3	Miscommunication and/or Clarification.....	85
4.5	Activity 2A and 2B – The Presentation.....	89
4.6	Results of questionnaire.....	92
4.6.2	Gender of participants.....	92
4.6.3	Age of participants.....	92
4.6.4	L1 of the participants’ parents	93
4.6.5	Number of languages spoken by the participants	94
4.6.6	Participants’ perceptions of the groups.....	96
4.7	Conclusion	97
CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION		98
5.1	Summary of the study.....	98
5.2	Conclusions.....	98
5.2.1	Language policy in tertiary education	99
5.2.2	Language profile of students in a tertiary education institution	100
5.2.3	Miscommunication	100
5.2.4	Codeswitching	101
5.2.5	Answering the research questions	102
5.2.6	Emerging themes	104
5.3	The contribution of the study and implications for educational practice	105
5.4	Limitation of the study and recommendations for further research	105
5.6	Concluding remarks/Recommendations.....	106
BIBLIOGRAPHY.....		108
ANNEXURE A: CONSENT FORM.....		117
ANNEXURE B: ETHICAL CLEARANCE FROM RESEARCHER’S UNIVERSITY		122

ANNEXURE C: ETHICAL CLEARANCE FROM UNIVERSITY WHERE STUDY WAS CONDUCTED.....	123
ANNEXURE D: QUESTIONNAIRE	124
ANNEXURE E: INSTRUCTIONS FOR PRESENTATION.....	129
ANNEXURE F: MARK SHEET FOR PRESENTATION	130
ANNEXURE G: INSTRUCTIONS FOR PRESENTATION	131

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1	Higher Education Institutions in South Africa	13
Table 2.2	Example of the language policies of some South African public higher education institution	15
Table 2.3	Mid-year population estimates for South Africa by population group, 2014	19
Table 2.4	Important ELF research	25
Table 3.1	Participants in Activity 1A	51
Table 3.2	Participants in Activity 2A	52
Table 4.1	Word count of linguistic repertoire of groups for Activity 1A	69
Table 4.2	Word count of linguistic repertoire of groups for Activity 2A	72
Table 4.3	Comparison of linguistic repertoire for Activity 1A and 2A	73
Table 4.4	Marks for Activity 1B and 2B - Presentations	89
Table 4.5	Participants' rating of how well they speak languages	96
Table 5.1	Examples of translanguaging exercises	107

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1	ELF as classroom language in this study	5
Figure 2.1	Resources in an ELF classroom	43
Figure 3.1	Sampling frame in relation to population and sample	49
Figure 4.1(a)	Initial survey: Number of languages students are able to speak	64
Figure 4.1(b)	Initial survey: Languages of students in a class	65
Figure 4.2	Initial survey: Number of home languages (L1s) in a class	66
Figure 4.3	Initial survey: Home languages (L1s) in a class	66
Figure 4.4	Linguistic repertoire of groups for Activity 1A	70
Figure 4.5	Linguistic repertoire of groups for Activity 2A	72
Figure 4.6	Comparison between the overall averages of groups during Activity 1B and Activity 2B	90
Figure 4.7	Gender of participants	92
Figure 4.8	Age of participants	93
Figure 4.9	L1 of participant's parents	94
Figure 4.10	Number of languages spoken by participants	95

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Students attending tertiary education institutions within South Africa will undoubtedly encounter a wide range of lecturers and fellow students with differing socio-cultural and language identities. South African education continues to face many challenges, one of them being the 11 official languages of the country and the use of English as the predominant lingua franca in the classroom. In South Africa, the use of a lingua franca occurs in the classroom situation where a need exists for a diverse group of students with different first languages (L1s) to work together to achieve a common goal. According to Meierkord (2000), the use of lingua franca may be *intranational* or *international*, *intranationally* being the use of English in a country like Brazil or Japan, and *internationally* as the use of English between Brazilians and Japanese.

In the South African tertiary education situation, the majority of universities use English lingua franca (ELF) *intranationally*. The South African Council of Higher Education (CHE) (2002:1), in the Language Policy Framework, states that “[o]f the 21 universities, 16 use English as the language of tuition”, and further observes that the remaining universities are following suit rapidly.

This study explores the use of ELF in the South African tertiary education classroom, with particular attention to the linguistic repertoires of participants, instances and reasons for codeswitching and miscommunication or clarification to avoid miscommunication.

1.2 Statement of problem

With regards to the tertiary classroom, the Council on Higher Education (CHE) (2013:211) recommends that the content of courses and a flexible curriculum design should include a number of different activities such as essay-writing and group work. Group work forms an integral part of the classroom situation, and it is necessary to investigate the role of ELF in a group work situation. Although there is an abundance of published research literature on lingua franca in the learning and working environments, a need exists for more research to

be conducted on this topic within the South African tertiary education classroom context, where it is not uncommon to find that most of the official languages are represented in one class at the same time.

This thesis investigates the multilingual repertoires and language choices of a diverse group of students in a group-work situation where the lingua franca is English. It is important to carry out this investigation as students with different L1s need to be able to communicate effectively with one another. Group work is considered an important pedagogic tool and the optimal use of this tool requires exploration, while at the same time investigating language usage within the group to ensure the student in a tertiary education situation achieves the required outcomes. The CHE (2013:19) states that there is a “need to deal constructively with diversity in students’ educational, linguistic and socio-economic background”. Students with differing linguistic repertoires and resources need to be able to reach joint goals while making optimal use of available resources.

2. Research questions

The primary research question under investigation during the course of this study is:
Is diversity in languages beneficial in an English lingua franca classroom?

In order to answer this primary research question, the following secondary research questions will guide the study:

- What linguistic resources are used in a group work situation in an English lingua franca classroom when participants of the same L1 work together in the same group?
- What linguistic resources are used in a group work situation in an English lingua franca classroom when participants who do not share an L1 work together in the same group?
- How do students in a group work situation experience their learning environment when placed in a group with participants who share their L1?
- How do students in a group work situation experience their learning environment when placed in a group with participants who do not share the same L1?

- What, if any, are the identifiable differences in the goal outcomes between learners who share the same L1 and work together in the same group and those learners who do not share the same L1 and work together in the same group?

1.3 Contextualising the problem

According to the CHE (2001:6), it is a common occurrence to have many different home languages represented in a single institution. Even though the Ministry of Education recognises the dominant languages of English and Afrikaans in the education system of South Africa they note that this situation could change if another one of the South African languages was able to progress to a level that would make it usable for higher education (CHE, 2002:6,10). However, certain provisos were added to the Language Policy for Higher Education concerning the promotion of other South African languages. These include the development and study of South African languages and literature, encouraging learning institutions to develop their curriculum in these fields of study, programme funding and the monitoring of developments in these areas (CHE, 2002:13,14). To date, English and Afrikaans remain the prevailing languages of instruction at higher education institutions (HEIs) and, therefore, this study will attempt to examine ELF in the classroom of a higher education institution.

ELF is a means of communication for individuals who differ in their home languages. Seidlhofer (2005:339) states that ELF exchanges take place between non-native speakers (NNSs) of English, and there is no denying that English is considered as a global lingua franca. In an educational context, it is important to understand whether the use of diverse linguistic repertoires brings a higher level of learning and the achievement of outcomes in the tertiary classroom situation, as there is a growing need to ensure effective communicative skills amongst diverse individuals.

Elder and Davies (2006:282) state that it is possible to classify ELF in the following ways during group work in the classroom:

- ELF 1 – A group using English for interaction and NNSs make up a portion of the group
- ELF 2 – A group of NNSs using English for interaction and they all share the same L1

- ELF3 – A group using English for interaction made up of NNSs who all share the same or similar L1s, which is based on standard English (SE)
- ELF4 – A group using English for interaction and where English is used for interaction and the participants are NNSs of English Post-colonial or World Englishes such as Indian English.

This study investigates the interaction of group members and their linguistic repertoire in an ELF2 group as compared to members in an ELF4 group. In the ELF 2 group, the participants are NNSs with the same L1, and in the ELF 4 group, the participants are NNSs and do not share the same L1. Elder and Davies (2006:283) assert, “English is increasingly being used as a vehicular language among interlocutors who do not speak one another’s language”. Crystal (1995) concurs and states that there has never been a language spoken by as many NNSs, and these speakers outnumber speakers for whom English is their L1 (see also Dewey, 2007:332).

The investigation of ELF in a group work situation in the tertiary classroom in South Africa will bring about some understanding of the linguistic repertoires of students. It highlights the ELF classroom interactions, specifically in the context of group work and interactions among bilingual and multilingual interlocutors in a tertiary institution, and the repertoires that they rely upon within their different groups. Figure 1.1 below depicts the contextualisation of this study in the frame suggested by Smit (2005:65), using the four resources specific to the study.

As noted in Figure 1.1, the resource of the community of multilingual sojourners in this study is made up of 25 tertiary education students who were observed during the research. These bi- and multilingual students completed a group work task on the preparation for a presentation that the educator evaluated. The institutionalised purpose is that of completing their tertiary education and relates to the subject that the abovementioned presentation forms part of, in this instance, the subject of language literacy that is one of the prerequisite subjects that the students need to complete.

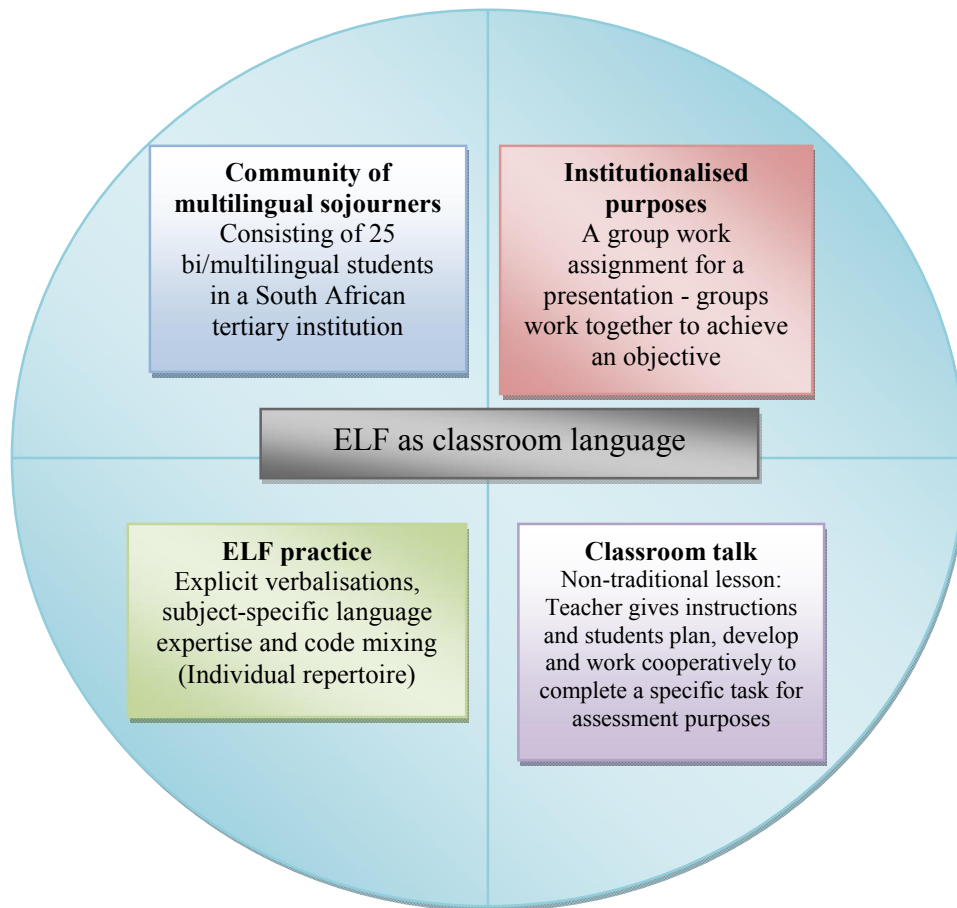


Figure 1.1: ELF as classroom language in this study

Source: Adapted from Smit (2005:68)

Upon being given the instructions, the classroom talk involved communication amongst the students themselves with the purpose of planning, developing and presenting a group talk on a specific topic. The ELF practices incorporated a pragmatic discourse and involved communication, established practice and individual repertoire (Smit, 2005:69). The communication occurred between the students as they attempted to work cooperatively on the problem and make meaning of it while finding the best possible way to represent the presentation topic. In the construction of shared histories and experiences, “ELF interactions are instrumental for developing community-internal practices that are relevant beyond the momentary interactional needs” (Smit, 2005:66) and these characterise ELF interactions. Individual repertoires include every bi- and multilingual students’ linguistic repertoires during the ELF communication. These resources combined to form the frame of the study, which will be discussed in further detail in the following chapters.

Various researchers have defined and discussed the value of group work. Generally, group work is seen as working together towards a common goal. Dooly (2008:1) believes that amongst others, collaborative learning, cooperative learning, and collective learning all have the incorporation of group work in common and that collaborative learning ensures that students become responsible for “one another’s learning as well as their own”. Constructivism is the basis of this form of learning, because “knowledge is constructed, and transformed by students” (Dooly, 2008:1). When students work together in small groups to complete an academic task, collaborative learning takes place (Anderman & Anderman, 2009:214). However, the learning outcomes will not be reached in the collaborative learning process if students do not share their ideas with each other effectively, or if they do not work together and collaborate with the other members in the group to reach the goal (Anderman & Anderman, 2009:215).

Cohen (1994:3) defines collaborative learning as “students working together in a group small enough that everyone can participate on a collective task that has been clearly assigned”, and states that some researchers support these small groups as they could add to and develop “conceptual learning and higher order thinking” in students engaged in this type of activity. Gokhale (1995:1) echoes this belief, stating “Proponents of collaborative learning claim that the active exchange of ideas within small groups not only increases interest among the participants but also promotes critical thinking”. However, even though the advantages of collaborative learning are evident, there is a dearth of research at tertiary level, notwithstanding the fact that tertiary education literature places emphasis on the benefits of collaborative group work. Gokhale (1995:1) states that there is an increase in the emphasis that is being placed on the benefit of teamwork in the working environment.

Cohen (1994:1-35) notes that there are a number of barriers to the collaborative learning process and reaching the goals of the task. These include “off-task behavior ... social loafing ... unequal interactions ... negative interactions ... no interactions ... interactions may be of low quality ... social status differences”. However, when considering the group work of an ELF tertiary classroom situation, with a group having diverse linguistic repertoires, a further barrier could be added to this list that would prevent the students from reaching the desired outcomes, this being difficulty in achieving effective discourse while using only ELF, and this would incorporate the need for participants to use their L1 together with the ELF.

Smit (2010:404) states that the most important undertaking of discourse in an ELF classroom is to attain successful outcomes, while Roberts (1996) defines discourse as “organized around a series of conversational goals and the plans, or strategies” that are developed by participants within the group in order to achieve the goals. This definition could be incorporated in an educational context, whereby the problem-solving discourse situation in an ELF classroom could be analysed to discover whether goals, plans or strategies are put into place and developed to achieve successful outcomes using only ELF, or whether using L1s together with the ELF would promote the achievement of better outcomes.

1.4 Research design

The participants in this study are students who have entered their first-year at a university of technology in southern Gauteng province, where the language of instruction is English. The participants, who are L1 speakers of Sesotho, Setswana, Sepedi, isiZulu and Tsonga participated in two classroom activities. Permission was obtained from the participants by means of a consent form, to observe their interaction during two group work sessions, and to use the information gathered as research data for further analysis (Annexure A). Ethical clearance for conducting this study was obtained from the relevant authorities at Stellenbosch University and the university of technology (Annexure B and C).

The two activities, divided into two parts each, that were conducted to obtain data for analysis were:

Activity 1A: During a group work activity, L1 speakers of a specific language were placed in a group with other L1 speakers of the same language. There were five groups, each group consisting of participants with the same L1. The groups were provided with a topic to prepare for presentation in class. This activity required all participants to work together with the other members of their group on the planning and preparation thereof. During these planning and preparation stages, the researcher evaluated each group. Each group was also videotaped during the activity. The videos were then transcribed and analysed.

Activity 1B: The participants in their groups were required to do a presentation on the information that was prepared during Activity 1A and they were assessed by the researcher and a colleague.

Activity 2: This activity took place under the same test conditions as Activity 1, except for a change in topic. This ensured that data collected remained as stable as possible. For this activity, the participants were divided into groups where they were not placed with speakers of the same L1. All participants in each group had different L1s. The evaluation of the groups was the same as for Activity 2 and the videos were transcribed and analysed.

Activity 2B: The participants in their groups were required to do a presentation on the information that was prepared during Activity 2A and they were assessed by the researcher and a colleague.

At the end of Activity 2B, each participant was requested to complete a questionnaire relating to their experience working with the different groups (Annexure D). Data from this questionnaire were coded and analysed by the researcher. The analysis of the data collected from these activities provided answers to the primary and secondary research questions.

1.5 Chapter Outline

This thesis is divided into five chapters. Chapter 1, as the introduction, has provided the background and research objectives of the study. Chapter 2 places the study in context and provides a historical overview of education in South Africa, leading up to the decision to implement ELF in the South African classroom. Chapter 3 highlights the research methodology, data collection activities, instruments, participants and the analysis of ELF features within the data. Chapter 4 provides the analysis of the collected data. Chapter 5 follows with an overview of the study, conclusions and emerging themes, recommendations, limitations of the study, suggestions for future research, culminating in the concluding remarks.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Whereas the previous chapter introduced the study, provided an overview thereof and highlighted its purpose, this chapter intends to extend the theoretical review in order to provide a framework within which the study was situated and the relevant data analysed, as well as enabling it to be contextualised within the field of intercultural communication studies and specifically linguistic repertoires. This chapter commences with an introduction on the linguistic diversity of students within a tertiary institution and the motivation for electing a lingua franca within an educational institution. Thereafter, the attention will be on the South African tertiary education situation with the provision of an historical overview of language in South Africa, the ideals of government, and the relevant education departments governing this issue. A global overview of ELF and the possible problems associated with this will follow, including juxtaposing linguistic hegemony and diglossia, on the one hand, with the benefits of ELF such as mobility and employability, on the other hand. Lastly, literature related to group work within a diverse linguistic situation will be examined, with specific reference to the linguistic repertoires and codeswitching of participants within a group. This examination will be aimed at motivating the underlying focus of the research, which is to attempt to uncover ways of achieving successful, goal-oriented intercultural communication within a linguistically diverse group at a tertiary institution.

2.2 An overview of linguistic diversity within tertiary institutions

In many parts of the world, but specifically in Europe, the practice of education offered in languages different from the national or majority language occurred very rarely; however, globalisation has had an effect on tertiary education, which has caused this to change (Smit, 2010:59). The effects of globalisation led to the introduction of the Bologna Declaration, signed in 1999, wherein the nations of Europe committed themselves to making tertiary education more accessible to staff and students across national systems (Smit, 2010:70; Phillipson, 2006:15). The Bologna Process could be considered a label for the internationalisation of higher education (Phillipson, 2006:15); however, it appears equally concerned with having a business role and preparing students for the labour market

as it is for maintaining cultural diversity. According to Phillipson (2006:16,24), in the Bologna Process, internationalisation is synonymous with ELF in higher education, however it is essential that “higher education institutions formulate and implement policies to create balanced forms of multilingualism”. Gorter, Cenoz, Nunes, Riganti, Onofri, Puzzo and Sachdeva (2009:5) define multilingualism as referring to “the ability to use more than two languages” and state that it is the result of a number of different factors:

- Historical or political movements such as imperialism or colonialism
- Economic movements in the case of migration
- Increasing communications among different parts of the world and the need to be competent in languages of wider communication
- Social and cultural identity and the interest for maintenance and revival of minority languages
- Education because second and foreign languages are part of the curriculum in many countries
- Religious movements that result in people moving to a new country.

Globalisation has a profound influence on the use of language in tertiary education institutions. According to Block and Cameron (cited by Coleman, 2006:1), globalisation is “a complex phenomenon, with positive and negative social impacts, embracing economics, culture, identity, politics and technology.” Initially, during the Middle Ages and the Renaissance, higher education was only for a select group of people. However, this is no longer the case and the onset of globalisation has provided for the implementation of further changes to entrance to these institutions. Coleman (2006:3) states that today a globalised market owns higher education. With this globalisation comes the need to adopt a common language of instruction, and the adoption of English is often the natural course of action because of its global status (Coleman, 2006:4).

In a country such as South Africa, with its wide range of cultural and ethnic diversity, it is important to understand and manage such diversity, and the education system plays a defining role in this understanding and management, providing the future workforce with the tools to recognise and value diversity. There is no doubt that having 11 official languages in South Africa presents numerous challenges, especially to educational institutions who have to weigh up the feasibility of affording education in every institution

to every student in his/her mother tongue, or to have separate educational institutions for every language in every area. This invariably leads to a decision by the responsible education department or institution to maintain a monolingual or bilingual institution and to elect a lingua franca for the institution.

However, there remains the need to approach the use of a lingua franca in an institution with caution and to investigate issues relating to the use thereof. These issues include whether linguistic hegemony is the result of the election of a specific lingua franca, whether the use of the lingua franca promotes the skills and knowledge of students, whether codeswitching assists or hinders the successful outcomes of tasks, whether group work should incorporate codeswitching because it assists outcomes or whether it should be discouraged because of negative effects, and the benefits of embracing the linguistic repertoire of all students within the classroom situation of a tertiary institution.

2.3 The South African tertiary education system

According to Bamgbose (1999:14), the right to receive an education in the language of choice for the South African student is protected by the Constitution and the South African Schools Act of 1996, which guarantee this right. However, this is not always practical, especially in the case where an “escape clause” is included in an education policy, as is the case in the Section 6(3)(a) of the Constitution where the language choice is subject to “taking into account usage, practicality, expense, regional circumstances and the balance of the need and preferences of the population as a whole or in the province concerned” (Bamgbose, 1999:19).

According to Frath (2010:2), the educational policies of colonialists usually ignore the local languages and impose their own language; the colonised then accept the superiority and reject their own local culture. Hibbert and Van der Walt (2014:4) state, “higher education is becoming increasingly multilingual because of internationalisation drives, the expectations of transnational students and the effects of colonialism”. This would suggest that the practice of using ELF in the tertiary classroom in South Africa should not exclude the possibility that students will bring multilingual discursive practices with them into the classroom. Rather than insisting on a monolingual ELF classroom environment, it would be wise to continue investigations into the use of these practices with a view to

understanding the implications or disadvantages and embracing the benefits thereof if they, in any way, assist in the academic achievement of students in tertiary institutions.

According to researchers, academic performance in tertiary institutions, and particularly for South African Black students who study in a L2, is a cause for concern (Mashiya, 2014:145; Ngcobo, 2014:123; Van Rooy & Coetzee Van Rooy, 2015:31). There are a number of reasons for the poor academic performance, reflected in many research studies in universities within South Africa, and “low academic literacy in the language of learning (i.e. English which is their second language)” is one of the reasons that is mentioned repeatedly by researchers (Ngcobo, 2014:123). Embracing multilingualism in conjunction with ELF in the tertiary education classroom could be a way to increase academic performance and throughput rates. According to Ngcobo, the throughput rates consist of a 70% dropout rate, with 14% of the remaining 30% taking longer to complete their studies because of failing, and less than 5% of graduates being between 20 to 24 years for Black students.

In an attempt to examine the language policies of South African higher education institutions in South Africa, the following information is relevant. There are 4 028 registered higher education institutions in South Africa, as published in the statistics released by the Department of Higher Education and Training in South Africa (DHET, 2014). Table 2.1 provides the list of the types of higher education institutions as well as the number of students enrolled in these institutions.

Table 2.1: Higher Education Institutions in South Africa

	Public Higher Education Institutions	Private Higher Education Institutions ¹	Public Further Education and Training Colleges	Private Further Education and Training Colleges ²	Public Adult Education and Training Centres	Private Adult Education and Training Centres ³	Total
Total Number of institutions	23	119	50	536	3150	150	4 028
Number of students enrolled	953 373	97 487	657 690	115 586	306 378	8 690	2 139 204

Sources:

Public Higher Education Institutions: 2012 HEMIS database, extracted in October 2013.

Private Higher Education Institutions: Annual reports submitted by private HEIs to the DHET, August 2013.

Public FET Colleges: 2012 Annual Survey of Public FET Colleges.

Private FET Colleges: 2012 Annual Survey of Private FET Colleges.

Public and Private AET Centres: 2012 Annual Survey of AET Centres.

Public and Private AET Centres: 2012 Annual Survey of AET Centres and 2012 Snap Survey of AET Centres.

From Table 2.1, it can be noted that there are 23 public higher education institutions, however, two new higher education institutions were opened in 2014, namely the Sol Plaatje University and the University of Mpumalanga. The enrolments for these universities do not appear on Table 2.1, as they were opened subsequent to the statistics being published. For the purposes of this study, investigations and references to tertiary education institutions are limited to these 25 institutions. These institutions consist of 12 traditional universities, seven comprehensive universities and six universities of technology, which are located throughout South Africa (Tshamano, 2014:7). The term traditional university refers to universities that have remained unchanged, university of technology refers to the previously named technikons that were changed to universities of technology by the Minister of Education in 2003, while the comprehensive universities are a combination of a traditional university and a university of technology because they offer programmes from both areas of study (Tshamano, 2014:9).

Section 29 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996) provides that:

Everyone has the right to receive education in the official language or languages of their choice in public educational institutions where the education

¹ Private higher education figures are unaudited.

² The number of private FET Colleges reflects the number of institutions registered with the Department.

³ The number of private AET Centres reflects the number of institutions registered with the Department.

is reasonably practicable. In order to ensure the effective access to, and implementation of this right, the state must consider all reasonable educational alternatives, including single medium institutions, taking into account-

- (a) equity
- (b) practicability
- (c) the need to redress the results of past racially discriminatory laws and practices.

The provisions of the Constitution should work together with a number of other policies and guidelines to implement language policies in the tertiary institutions, *inter alia*:

- **The National Report Commission of 1996** – The commission was required to report to government on the transformation and restructuring of higher education in South Africa.
- **The Education White Paper 3: A Programme for the Transformation of the Higher Education System, 1997** – This is the policy basis for the transformation of higher education in South Africa with, amongst others, the principles of equity, access, quality education, success and democratisation of the higher education sector.
- **The Higher Education Act (101 of 1997)** – The Minister responsible for higher education is given the responsibility for providing a broad policy framework that guides the higher education section in the determination of language policies. Subject to this policy framework, the council of a higher education institution, with the concurrence of its senate, determines the language policy relevant to that institution.
- **The Language Policy for Higher Education (2002)** – The Minister released this policy as a directive to guide the universities on the promotion of the use of African languages alongside English and Afrikaans in the university sector (Tshamano, 2014:2-6).

The researcher undertook an investigation into the available literature on the language policies currently in place within the tertiary education institutions in South Africa. However, there does not appear to be a current updated list of the 25 tertiary institutions, which contains the essence of their language policies. This led to an examination into the available information on the Internet of the universities regarding their language policies. The researcher discovered, when checking the websites of the universities, that these

documents are difficult to uncover, and in a number of cases could not be located. This implies that if a student decides to “receive education in the official language or languages of their choice” as stated in the Constitution (1996), the first problem would arise when the student tried to locate the language policy of the university. Once the policy was located, the student would have difficulty understanding the actual content of the language policy because many of them appeared to be complex and contradictory, as elaborated upon in the discussion on Table 2.2.

The website of the University of the Free State contained a heading of ‘Language Policy in South Africa Database’ with a subheading ‘Higher Education Language Policies’, which was utilised for information on policies (<http://humanities.ufs.ac.za/content.aspx?id=535>). The policies for 14 universities were listed on this database and upon examination of these, it was apparent that the Constitution and other legislation, such as those mentioned above, informed the language policies for these institutions. However, it should be noted that not all of the language policies could be accessed. The following information was gathered from some of the accessed language policies:

Table 2.2: Example of the language policies of some South African public higher education institution

UNIVERSITY	PRIMARY TUITION LANGUAGE(S)	OTHER LANGUAGES THAT WILL BE CONSIDERED OR THE UNIVERSITY IS COMMITTED TO DEVELOPING
Wits University	English	Sesotho
North West University	English and Afrikaans	Setswana and Sesotho for teaching-learning purposes
University of Cape Town (UCT)	English	
University of KwaZulu-Natal	The University strives towards the progressive provision of teaching, learning and assessment in IsiZulu, English, Afrikaans and Sesotho sa Leboa insofar as it is reasonably practicable to do so.	
Unisa	The University will make tuition available in the official languages of South Africa on the basis of functional multilingualism	
Rhodes University	English	... supports the national commitment to ensuring that language should not act as a barrier to equity of access and success.
Vaal University of Technology	English	
University of Limpopo	English	
University of KwaZulu-Natal	English	isiZulu
Central University of Technology, Free State	English	Afrikaans and Sesotho
Stellenbosch University	Afrikaans, English	isiXhosa

It should be noted that not all the universities are included in the Table 2.2; only a selection are incorporated for the purposes of comparison and a general idea of the language policies in South African universities. Generally, the universities all promote multilingualism in their language policies, in line with the suggestions in the legislation; however, not many of them appear to be implementing these language policies. The majority of universities investigated stated that the primary tuition language was English, with a couple including Afrikaans and the University of KwaZulu-Natal striving towards the “progressive provision” for teaching and learning in IsiZulu, English, Afrikaans and Sesotho sa Leboa. The traditional and comprehensive universities appear, without exception, to require a specific level of proficiency in English as a prerequisite for enrolment in any of the courses offered. Regarding universities of technology, according to Tshamano (2014:194), the Cape Peninsula University of Technology “is the only university of technology in South Africa whose language policy does not insist on English competency as a criterion for admission of students to study with the institution (except in the case of foreign students).”

This reveals the complex and contradictory nature of enrolment and study in the language of personal choice (from the 11 official languages) in a public university in South Africa. Apart from the first hurdle of the required level of proficiency in English, the student could have difficulty discovering which subjects or classes are offered in any of the universities in the language of his/her choice, and this is further aggravated by the high rates of unemployment and poverty in South Africa, leading to a lack of access to technology for many students completing their high school.

Tshamano (2014:190) investigated the implementation of language policies in universities of technology in South Africa and concluded that the implementation of these language policies should be considered a national priority as the English literacy levels of the majority of students enrolled at these universities is alarming low, and the implementation of policies will go a long way in addressing the success rate of students. This conclusion should include the other public universities in South Africa. According to Alexander (2011:2), the colonial history of South Africa has led to the implementation of English as the language of power and “language policies are governmental strategies designed, mostly consciously, to promote the interests of specific classes and other social groups”. However, he is of the opinion that in post-apartheid South Africa, the principle and practice of

language planning takes place, but there is a clear lack of implementation thereof, which causes a failure in the successful delivery of the language plan, causing to “reduce it to mere lip service” (Alexander, 2011:3).

2.3.1 An historical overview of language in South Africa

The landing of the British at the Cape in the nineteenth century brought with it the introduction of the English language to South Africa, which led to the establishment of English as a southern African language (Silva, 1997). English spread from the initial arrival at the southern tip of Africa to the Eastern Cape with the arrival of the 1820 settlers, moving northwards to the 1848-1862 settlements in Natal (now KwaZulu-Natal), then westerly because of diamond mining in Kimberly in 1870 and then north easterly towards the Witwatersrand (now Gauteng) with the advent of gold mining in 1886 (Silva, 1997).

According to Silva (1997:20), “English has evoked differing reactions in the different South African language communities”. These reactions include the feelings of resentment by the Dutch community who initially established a colony in the Cape and were unwilling to embrace English after the British conquest of the colony. In addition, the attempts to make English “the sole language of the law and of education, even in the overwhelmingly Dutch/Afrikaans-speaking rural areas”, caused deep anger and an escalation of hostility by the Afrikaans speakers toward English, especially during the Boer War (1899-1902) when “English became *die vyand se taal*” (the language of the enemy) (Silva, 1997). By the end of the nineteenth century, many black communities had been introduced to English and it was used in mission schools as the lingua franca, leading to a fluency in many black educators, writers, ministers and political leaders such as John Knox Bokwe, John Tengo Jabavu, Gwayi Tyamzashe and Sol Plaatje, resulting in the perception that ELF was the language of the social elite (Silva, 1997:20).

Even though English maintained its position as being perceived as the language of the social elite, it also became known as a language of the resistance and many Afrikaners in South Africa viewed English as the language of oppression; thereafter, once the National Party came into power in 1948, Afrikaans was the language that was favoured, even though English was the other official language (Silva, 1997:20). During the 1950s, there was much debate around whether to use “tribal languages” or “English, the ‘international

language” (Alexander, 1999:4). The National Party used the “UNESCO declarations on the importance of using vernacular languages as media of instruction in schools in order to justify and beautify its racist curriculum, which the world came to know as Bantu education” (Alexander, 1999:5). After 1960, African languages were viewed as a problem rather than a resource by the post-colonial states of Africa, and during the apartheid years in South Africa, these languages were considered to be of no economic or cultural value (Alexander, 2011:6).

In his article entitled “One step forward, two steps back”, Alexander (2011:7) insightfully documents the historical overview of the language policy and planning in South Africa post-apartheid, referring to it as having “exhilarating potential and great expectations being squashed at regular intervals”. The commencement of the arbitration process regarding the language dispensation in the new South Africa was two sided: the one side comprising the white minority, mainly represented by the National Party, who were clearly committed to retaining English and Afrikaans as official languages; and the other side, the liberation forces represented by the African National Congress, who were pressing for the institution of English as the only official economic and political language (Alexander 2011:7).

The black elite of South Africa believed that English proficiency held the key to integration, emancipation and empowerment (Alexander 2011:7), and the leaders at that time would have opted for English as the only official language. This did not occur, however, because the representatives of the black majority could not justify agreeing to affording English and Afrikaans equal status without according the same prominence to all the indigenous languages. If they had done this, the political ramifications would have been highlighted as the adoption of a neo-apartheid language policy, which their followers would have opposed (Alexander 2011:7). Hence, the 11 official languages of South Africa came into being, namely Afrikaans, English, isiNdebele, isiXhosa, isiZulu, Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda and Xitsonga. Silva (1997:2) is of the opinion that notwithstanding the treatment of English as a “‘Cinderella’ language in official circles from 1948-94, English was too powerful to be adversely affected”; it retained its position of dominance as the language of higher education, commerce, science and technology, and communication.

Between 1995 and 2007, starting with the Constitution of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996), various legislation has been implemented to ensure that the rights of every individual are respected with regard to their choice of language and use of mother tongue, as well as promoting and giving reverence to other languages within South Africa that have not been designated as official languages (Alexander 2011:8). Narismulu (2001:57) points out that even though the Constitution of South Africa tries to recognise 11 languages, it “ends up reinforcing English as the official language by default”. Narismulu (2001:57) believes that students are the professionals of the future and will be using English to exercise their power; therefore, they have a right to this information and should be warned of this incongruity.

According to Statistics South Africa (Stats SA, 2014), an estimate of the mid-year population for South Africa is 54 million, made up as follows:

Table 2.3: Mid-year population estimates for South Africa by population group, 2014

Population group	Number	% of total population
African	43 333 700	80,2
Coloured	4 771 500	8,8
Indian/Asian	1 341 900	2,5
White	4 554 800	8,4

Source: Stats SA (2014)

Table 2.3 indicates that the majority of South African children are African, while the minority are made up of Coloured, Indian/Asian and White. The Africans in this table are referred to as a combination of the different ethnic groups, namely Ndebele, Northern Sotho, Pedi, Southern Sotho, Swazi, Tsonga, Tswana, Venda, Xhosa, Zulu and includes the Khoi and the San people (Piombo, 2009:49). Therefore, if language is used as the proxy for ethnic identification, it can be assumed that the majority of South African children, being African, do not have English as their home language.

In the South African schooling system, the governing bodies of the school in accordance with Section 6(2) of the South African Schools Act determine the language of learning and

teaching (LOLT) of a school (Department of Basic Education, 2010). LOLT refers to the medium of instruction through which learning, teaching and assessments for all subjects are facilitated. In 2007, the majority of learning in the school system (65%) took place via the medium of English and the second most common language of learning amongst learners was Afrikaans at 12%. The most common African languages were isiZulu and isiXhosa at 7% and 6% respectively. However, these figures differ for the Foundation Phase grades, where in 2007 the percentage of learners by LOLT in Grade 1 were isiZulu at 23.4%, English at 21.8% and isiXhosa at 16.5%. In Grade 2 they were English 23.8%, isiZulu at 21.7% and isiXhosa at 15.0%. In Grade 3, they were English 27.7%, isiZulu at 20.1% and IsiXhosa at 14%. However, there was a dramatic change in Grade 4 where the top three LOLTs in schools were English 79.1%, Afrikaans 12.3% and isiXhosa at 3.1% (Department of Basic Education, 2010). In the grades following this, English and Afrikaans continue to be the dominant mediums of instruction in the classroom.

South African children acquire their mother tongue at home and then from an early age, probably five or six years old, when they start school, they could attend a school with their mother tongue as LOLT, but from Grade 4 onwards, they are likely to have English as the LOLT. Generally, children from other countries acquire their mother tongue and then, upon entering the education system in their country, their schooling continues in their mother tongue throughout (*inter alia*, English, French, Japanese) making it easier for their acquisition of scientific knowledge and concepts, as opposed to the South African learner whose academic progress is often hampered by cognitive difficulties associated with second language acquisition (Nakusera, 2004:127).

Together with language, culture is the other equally important element necessary to improve the standing and competitiveness of the African student; language is considered a tool vital for dreams, expressing desires, and having a consciousness, as well as being the place where images are located (Nakusera, 2004:127). Even though this study recognises the equal value of language and culture to the student, it is necessary to focus more on the element of language and building an awareness of the fundamental value of language to the success of the student, including the role of language in the cognitive development and expression, as well as the acquisition of knowledge (Chumbow, 1998:52).

2.3.2 The rationale for English lingua franca in education in post-apartheid South Africa

During his address to the Afrikaans Taal and Kultuurvereniging (ATKV), former President Thabo Mbeki states,

For the building blocks of this nation are all our languages working together, our unique idiomatic expressions that reveal the inner meanings of our experiences. These are the foundations on which our common dream of nationhood should be built. (Mbeki, 1999)

These are words that form the introduction for the Language Policy of Higher Education released by the Ministry of Education (CHE, 2002:3), and the policy document continues by highlighting the fact that in accordance with the values of the South African Constitution, all the languages of South Africa should work together, and languages that were marginalised previously should be advanced.

Individuals should be able to have adequate access to language skills, as language plays a critical role in contributing to people realising their full potential and enabling them to participate fully within South African society (CHE, 2002:4). In the Language Policy of Higher Education (CHE, 2002:4-5), it is stated that access and success for students have been and continue to be hampered by language because there has been a lack of development of African languages as scientific and academic languages and also due to the lack of proficiency of students in English and Afrikaans. Higher education within South Africa faces the challenge to “ensure the simultaneous development of a multilingual environment in which all our languages are developed as academic/scientific languages” (CHE, 2002:4-5). This is confirmed by a study at the Cape Peninsula University of Technology regarding the factors that students perceive as having an impact on their performance (Favish, 2005:281). The results indicate that students find language of tuition to be a primary factor influencing performance, and home language speakers of languages other than English and Afrikaans have negative perceptions of the way in which the lecturers accommodate their L1 (Favish, 2005:283). Narismula (2001:50) contends that tertiary education institutions that draw students from schools that formerly fell under the Bantu education departments have a duty to attend to issues of education in the light of the historical oppression, while De Kadt (2005:20) states that there have been “few serious

efforts ... to accommodate indigenous languages more adequately” in tertiary education institutions.

In the development of the policy framework for language in higher education, the CHE addresses the following issues:

- Instruction languages
- South African languages research and academic study fields
- Foreign language studies
- Policies and practices for institutions that promote multilingualism in tertiary education (CHE 2002:9)

The design of the above policy framework promotes multilingualism and improved equity and access to higher education by:

- Developing South African languages as mediums of instruction
- Developing strategies for promoting student proficiency in tuition languages
- Retaining and strengthening of Afrikaans as a language of scholarship and science
- Promoting the study of South African languages and literature
- Promoting the study of foreign languages
- Encouraging multilingualism in institutional policies and practices (CHE, 2002:15,16)

In a proposal for undergraduate curriculum reform in South Africa (CHE, 2013:17,83), one of the major structural problems identified as contributing to the need for undergraduate curricula enhancement is to meet contemporary local and global conditions, which includes “broadening the curriculum to include learning that is professionally and socially important in the contemporary world (such as additional languages)”, and it further identifies the problems that the majority of tertiary students deal with such as a difficulty with the medium of instruction because English is a second, third or fourth language. Based on the context where English is not the L1 of students, the suggestion is to develop multiple literacies, inter alia language-related issues, and it is recognised that integrating language-related material into discipline-based modules is an unrealistic goal. There should be a recognition that there is a difference in discourses, conventions and practices of disciplines and, therefore, generic language modules are not suitable, making hybrid modules the viable solution (CHE, 2013:233). However, although this document (CHE, 2013)

addresses language and literacy, there appears to be a lack of engagement regarding English as a medium of instruction.

Rassool (2015:203) views multilingualism as the core of the implementation of education policy in South Africa because the post-Apartheid government chose to have 11 official languages as a means of redress, and each province could choose the official language that suited its linguistic groups. The power of choosing language policies for individual schools was allocated to the governing bodies of the schools. On the other hand, referring to the international use of ELF, Frath (2010:4) offers a matter for contemplation when he states that the issue of opting for a lingua franca is “an anthropological phenomenon, something that happens without conscious decision-making. English has been “chosen” by *vox populi* and since it is well suited for that purpose, we might as well keep it”. There appears to be little point in rejecting ELF in tertiary education based on the international use of the language and the benefits for students (dealt with in more detail in Section 2.4.4), but the core of the language policies in education should include multilingualism to prevent a learner’s academic progress being hampered by cognitive difficulties related to second language acquisition and to prevent unduly disadvantaging any learning for reason of language differences.

2.4 English lingua franca in tertiary education

This section attempts to clarify the term lingua franca, create an understanding of ELF in tertiary educational institutions, and highlight the implications of ELF in tertiary education.

2.4.1 Global English lingua franca

The term lingua franca originated from the Arabic *lisan-al-farang*, which was a go-between language that Arabic speakers used to communicate with people who travelled from Europe (House, 2003:557). Seidlhofer (2005:339) posits that ELF “has emerged as a way of referring to communication in English between speakers with different first languages” and also that it is a language of contact for persons who do not share a common language or culture. From its origins, English as a lingua franca later became an acceptable language of commerce, but in the present global English its major characteristics are its “functional flexibility and its spread across many different domains”, which has led to the

number of non-native speakers (NNSs) being substantially larger than the number of native speakers (NSs) (House, 2003:557). There is also a threat to the possession of English by native speakers; while a new range of non-native English languages are emerging because of the contact between English and other languages in the world (Gorter *et al.*, 2009:8). Smit (2005:67) posits that the definition on which researchers have agreed upon for ELF is that it “refer[s] to the use of English amongst multilingual interlocutors whose common language is English and who [usually] communicate in a country or area in which English is not used in daily life.”

South Africa is a new democracy, and the Constitution (1996) has acknowledged equal acceptance and value to 11 official languages. Therefore, it is important that these languages be developed and preserved. When a language does not serve a purpose or is not used, it is in danger of extinction. Globally, there are eight languages that are L1s for 40% of the population, namely Mandarin, Hindi, Spanish, English, Bengali, Portuguese, Arabic and Russian, and over 4000 languages are spoken by less than 2% of the population; hence, there is a danger of extinction for many world languages (Gorter *et al.*, 2009:4), and it is important that efforts are made to preserve the South African languages.

English is considered to be, and accepted as, a global lingua franca, irrespective of whether it carries with it negative connotations with regard to power struggles or whether it is embraced by the majority. This acceptance has led to a paradoxical situation where on the one hand “a vast majority of verbal exchanges in English do not involve any native speakers of the language at all”. On the other hand, however, the native speakers are the “custodians over what is acceptable usage” (Seidlhofer, 2005:339), which has led to the need for empirical studies on the nature and usage of ELF.

ELF has been researched since the 1990s. Smit (2010:60) documented the history of ELF research as set out in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4: Important ELF research

RESEARCHERS	RESEARCH FOCUS
Hüllen (1982); Smith (1984)	Language planning issues – on a macro level
Firth (1990); House (1996); Meierkord (1996)	Commencement of micro-level studies
Jenkins (2000) Seidlhofer (2001)	ELF pronunciation Conceptual gap
Mauranen (2003)	First corpora of spoken ELF
Kordon (2006); Pözl and Seidlhofer (2006)	Casual conversation
Ehrenreich (2009); Nickersson (2005)	Business encounters
Björkman (2009); Mauranen (2006); Smith (2010)	Tertiary Education
(See) English Today (2008); Intercultural Pragmatics (2009); International Journal of the Sociology of Language (2006); Nordic Journal of English Studies (2006); Mauranen and Ranta (2009)	Finalisation of three corpora – ELFA, VOICE and ACE and empirical studies in mainly European and Asian countries

Source: (As cited by) Smit (2010:60-61)

It is important for further research to build on this current body of knowledge. Phillipson (2006:21) recommends research be undertaken in:

- English as a lingua franca
- The interaction of English NSs with NNSs
- Strengthening foreign languages in higher education.

Although these areas are recommended for European studies, South Africa would benefit from similar studies being conducted in the South African context, which would increase the body of knowledge specific to the needs of the country and provide a platform for the development of teaching and learning practices.

In European tertiary institutions, instruction through ELF is used to attract larger groups of international students and enables educational discourse to take place between them (Smit,

2005:62). The reason why English becomes the instruction language of choice is because in many institutions it is often the only language that students have in common; therefore, the choice is based on ELF enabling education for more students, rather than ELF being chosen because the institution wants to improve the language skills of students (Smit, 2005:62). In South Africa, educational institutions should consider a shift in the role of English in tertiary education from that of improving English skills to a function of enabling further education. This functionality of English is highlighted by John Simpson, chief editor of the Oxford English Dictionary, in his statement that his own English is more difficult to understand than the English of his continental colleagues. This is because his English is “a functional language for communication between native speakers”, as opposed to his colleagues whose English is a “functional language for communication between second-language users” (as quoted by Phillipson, 2006:21).

According to Smit (2005:63), diversity of languages and cultures should be embraced, supported and understood rather than focussing on holding on to established language norms and the expectations of exonormative correctness, with the view that English is the participants’ lingua franca. The same could be considered for tertiary education within South Africa, where more emphasis could be placed on the acceptance of and endonormative standard for English that moves away from the rigid rules of the exonormative standard and that is more suited to the communication and practical needs and usage of the people of the 11 different language groups within South Africa

House (2003:557) identifies the important elements of a lingua franca as:

- Negotiability
- Variability in terms of speaking proficiency
- Openness to an integration of forms of other languages.

ELF is a language that shows a full linguistic and functional range and it serves as a means of communication for persons who do not share a native tongue or a common culture (House, 2003:557). In discounting that fact that ELF is not an interlanguage, a pidgin or a language that is restricted for special purposes, House (2003:559) contends that ELF can be viewed as “a repertoire of different communicative instruments an individual has at his/her disposal, a useful and versatile tool, a ‘language for communication’”. ELF should not be considered as a threat if it is placed in context and the distinction is made between

communication languages (global English) and identification languages (mother tongues and local or regional languages) (House, 2003:562).

The language struggles are not limited to South Africa; they appear to be prevalent in many countries. Rassool (2006:202) in a report on the language rights and linguistic possibilities in the United Kingdom states that a struggle for the rights of languages and issues regarding the ethnic minority groups' educational entitlements is a struggle on a global scale. Rassool (2006:202) continues the discussion by noting that the aforementioned issues became discredited during the 1980s by a "vociferous attack launched against multiculturalism by neo-conservative think tanks such as the Centre for Policy Studies, the Hill Gate Group and the Salisbury Review". The view existed that students should be taught 'correct' English and that multilingualism was a threat to the national interest of the United Kingdom.

However, Ives (2006:121) states that even though English usage has been viewed as an imperialist predator that is a threat to linguistic diversity, it has also been hailed as a language that possesses many benefits for the world citizens and enables them to communicate with each other. Linguistic diversity is a topic for research because of the danger of extinction for the sustained survival of the majority of living languages (Gorter *et al.*, 2009:2).

The implementation and continued use of ELF in educational institutions should be approached with caution and handled carefully as it is associated with both positive and negative elements. The positive elements include that it is an international language in the fields of science and technology, commerce and diplomacy, tourism and travel, while the negative elements include the worldwide acceptance of the cultural, economic and political domination which is "intrinsically unpleasant and dangerous" (Frath, 2010:5).

The following recommendations are suggested:

- Universities must be for the good of the public and resist commodification and coercive policies
- Many language must continue to serve as *lingua economica*
- English as a *lingua academica* must be in balance with strong local language ecologies, which presupposes strong national language policies

- The education system must evolve strategies for students and staff to become effectively trilingual (at least) in a diverse range of languages (Phillipson, 2006:27).

These recommendations for the European higher education system would be equally relevant to the South African tertiary education institution classroom.

2.4.2 English lingua franca in the South African classroom

In South Africa, where there are 11 official languages, there is an extensive use of English as the lingua franca in tertiary education institutions (see Section 2.3); classes are offered in English (occasionally Afrikaans), textbooks are printed in English, and English is the language of internal and external. With reference to a study on the development of curriculum at the University of Durban-Westville (now the University of KwaZulu-Natal), Narismulu (2001:57) states that getting rid of the preconceived idea of the English being the language of power in South Africa should occur when examining the proportion of the number of English speakers to other languages in the country, which is approximately 9%. Silva (1997) states that there are three and a half million mother tongue English speakers in a country of over forty million people. This should be sufficient to query the feasibility of ELF in tertiary institutions.

The Soweto uprising of 1976 was ignited by the attempts to “introduce Afrikaans as a language of instruction in ‘Bantu Education’ schools, supplanting English in some subjects” (Silva, 1997). The reputation of English shifted from an elitist language, and at times the language of the oppressor, to becoming the language of national unity and liberation (Alexander, 1999:7). During this time, the independent homelands such as Transkei opted for ELF in their schools and residents in townships were enjoying English-language newspapers; Afrikaans was the language that enforced apartheid and English was the language used by the ANC and other liberation organisations during the struggle for freedom (Silva, 1997).

Another school of thought on the challenges faced in the tertiary classrooms by South African students is that students are not prepared sufficiently for studies in English and often come from historically disadvantaged backgrounds (Boughey, 2002:295). There

should be careful consideration within the discourse and literacy constructs to understand whether the problems faced by students are as a result of a struggle experienced with academic literacy or with that of English being the second language for the majority of the students and ELF being the language of instruction (Boughey, 2002:296). This would negate the labelling of problems as “cognitive and culturally differences associated with apartheid” and if this is to be believed then there should be a reconsideration of the development of teaching practices which would assist in addressing these problems, rather than the current remedial programmes that focus singularly on language problems (Boughey, 2002:305). Van Rooy and Coetzee Van Rooy (2015:32,42) refer to this phenomenon as the twin challenges of academic language and language of instruction being significant barriers in learning and note that these should be addressed by universities. They claim further that “achievement in university academic literacy support modules was the strongest predictor of academic success in the first and second year at university”.

Embracing and optimising multilingualism appears to have merits. Frath (2010:5) states, “English must have its place but not *all* the place”. Studies on the linguistic situation in South Africa could draw from similar situations in the European educational system where English is the L1 practically everywhere and there are only a small number of other languages on offer as second languages. Frath (2010) offers up the following constraints and ways to embrace and promote multilingualism:

- Communication – Using lingua franca is practical in terms of economic and business value, but educational policies need to be reviewed with the purpose of offering a wider range of languages.
- Independence – Users should be independent from the views carried by the English language and this can only be done if they are secure in the own mother tongue.
- Local environment – It is suggested that a list of languages, being the ones most in demand or popular to the local area, could be offered in educational institutions and from which students could chose, which would also ensure students have a wide array of opportunities for linguist skills.
- Life-long language learning – This could be introduced into the academic arena.
- Intercomprehension – when a student is proficient in a foreign language, then other language of the same family could be realised using intercomprehension.

- Self-study – If students are motivated, this could be a highly efficient method for them to hone their skills in a variety of languages.

2.4.3 The danger of the practice of linguistic hegemony in education institutions

It is a widespread assumption that ELF is a threat to national languages, but in a study, House (2003:556) argues against this. However, it is impossible to investigate the benefits or disadvantages of ELF and not understand the concept of linguistic hegemony, as by the very act of electing ELF in the majority of South Africa classrooms, the English language is perceived as a superior language. While maintaining the L1 is described by Suarez (2002) as the use of the language inspired by ideologies that are anti-hegemonic, it is however contradicted by the fact that the foundation for success often rests on the dominant language and requires the surrender to this hegemony. To this end, Harper (2011:515) warns of the threat to worldwide linguistic diversity by the ever-growing spread of English and that by the end of the twenty-first century, there is a possibility that half of the languages in the world would have ceased to exist.

Rassool (2004:200) blames the imposition of a colonial language as the cause for hegemony and colonisation as the reason for people to see themselves as being different. This is referred to as “Otherness” regarding languages, cultures and social experiences and in a neo-colonial context such as apartheid South Africa, the adoption of English “became a powerful symbolic tool in the struggle against Apartheid hegemony”. Currently, English fluency is instrumental in uniting and combining the people of the world because globalisation has created the requirements for a universal language in all fields, including academics, business and politics; however, “English could become the lingua franca of the globalised world at the expense of cultural and linguistic diversity that currently exists” (Harper 2011:516).

Globalisation leads to the increase in English as the language of communication, business transactions, and research; therefore, education and language policy and practice in tertiary education institutions in South Africa require research for the optimal implementation thereof. Coleman (2006:10), in a study of the growth of English-medium education in Europe, concluded that the people of the world are headed towards an identity that embraces a bilingual linguistic repertoire and a bicultural character. This will result in the

world becoming diglossic and having a single language for “local communication, culture and expression of identity, and another – English – for wider and more formal communication, especially in writing”, and an identity that partially is rooted in the local cultural but another part that arises from being aware of their relationship with a global culture (Coleman, 2006:11).

Even in Europe, ELF has acquired a status of being considered a language of high communicative value and a situation of diglossia is developing; it is considered valuable for “non-private communication on the one hand, and national and local varieties for affective, identificatory purposes on the other hand” (House, 2003:561). These are practices that have taken place in many other countries as well. The implication of a loss of a language includes the loss of innate knowledge, a loss of the culture that is communicated through language, and a loss of the history of the people who used the language and many of the world languages (4000 as mentioned previously in Section 2.4.1) are at risk of extinction because of the limited numbers of speakers (Gorter *et al.*, 2009:11). In sub-Saharan Africa, practically all countries have afforded their African languages a subordinate status in relation to the imported European languages (Bamgbose, 1999:13).

It is important to understand the term hegemony and contextualise it in the field of linguistics to understand the problems that could result from the use of ELF, without regard for the other languages of students in a tertiary institution. Bealey (1999) notes that the term hegemony “(derived from the Greek *hegemón*: leader, ruler, or guide) is generally used in literary and cultural studies to denote how power is used to construct and maintain the consent of those governed”. Linguistic hegemony is the practice of giving one language a status of superiority, while designating other languages an inferior status. Suarez (2002) defines linguistic hegemony as “achieved when dominant groups create a consensus by convincing others to accept their language norms and usage as standard or paradigmatic”.

Eriksen (1992:313) refers to the practice during the apartheid regime where the use of African languages was promoted in education; this was considered a resourceful method of excluding the blacks of South Africa from social interaction and communication with the rest of the world. Even though English is viewed as an imperialist language, it is also seen as a language of power and the resultant belief that the lack of English skills leads to a lack

of power could become a problem, including, as stated by Eriksen (1992:329), “if social desiderata are denied speakers of particular languages, they may develop contempt for their own vernacular and eventually discard it”. Subsequently, the debate continues on the delicate balance between embracing ELF, the language of power, or maintaining a native language. However, this balance could be maintained by understanding and accepting the role that other languages play in the success of students at an ELF tertiary institution.

Wiley, Garcia, Danzig and Stigler (2014:vii) opine that now, as in the past, there are a large number of students worldwide who attend school where they are taught in a language different the one they speak at home. They continue by stating that these students, invariably from a language minority, do not perform as well as those who speak the dominant language (Wiley et al., 2014:viii). However, in South Africa students who do not perform as well are not from a language minority but a language majority. Nevertheless, Coleman (2006:4) believes that tertiary education institutions have recognised the need to introduce ELF courses because there is a greater chance of employability for students.

In a study on minority language resistance to linguistic hegemony, some of the points of interest concluded by Eriksen (1992:329-330) were:

- Linguistic rights should be considered as basic human rights.
- The nationalist doctrine of unity between culture and state is always harmful to linguistic minorities.
- It is erroneous to believe that a multilingual society is not feasible or practical and even though a lingua franca is a basic need, it is not there to replace the other languages.
- Minority groups asserting their own languages as options to the hegemonic language will assuage the “psychological pain, inferiority complexes and difficulties of social mobility inflicted on individuals by linguistic hegemony”.
- The linguistic minorities will continue their existence if their language is codified in an alphabet and modernity within the language is developed and maintained. This will enable their language to become a language of education.
- In order for linguistic minorities to survive, they the preconditions include “formal education, occupational diversification, social mobility and international communication” (Eriksen, 1992:329-330)

Alexander (2011:14), by promoting the development of reading skills in students, identifies the following key challenges that could be addressed by the action of instilling and fostering a culture of reading in African languages as:

- The increasing hegemony of English
- The need to raise the levels of literacy by successfully implementing appropriate medium of instruction policies in schools and universities
- The need to demonstrate the positive relationship between functional multilingualism and economic efficiency and productivity.

Frath (2010) highlights two important areas where the hegemony of English could be serious cause for concern, namely in the field of academic research and as a threat to local languages. In academic research, there is a dearth of foreign views in English-language academic articles. Up to a decade ago, other countries published academic articles in other languages, presenting foreign views; however, these foreign views are now, more often than not, written and published in English to satisfy the changing market. The question arises of whether these authors are expressing themselves to their full potential in the language that is their second or third language, and whether they are at a disadvantage because there are unable to convey the full meaning or express themselves fully in the foreign language. They are also forced to kowtow to the levels of acceptance of Anglophone norms regarding both the presentation of the article and the content (Frath, 2010:2). This leads to an uncontested dominance by English in academic journals. The second negative element referred to by Frath (2010) is that of the threat to local languages where he states that “where higher education is done in another language than the local one, the educated end up being unable to express what they think and know in their mother tongue”. This is a situation that ends up relegating local languages to daily life interactions, and the vehicular language of education (ELF in this study) becomes the language central to work and study purposes. Bamgbose (1999:13) concurs with this stating that speakers of African languages have developed negative attitudes to their own languages and even take to referring to them as dialects rather than languages because of the superior status conferred on English. Frath (2010:2) suggests that replacing the local languages in both primary and secondary schools causes this problem, and this continues to happen because English is seen as a language of status with the elite insisting on educating their children in English. He continues by positing that a language is safe as long as parents use it with their

children to express what they think and know, once it stops having a use, it becomes redundant. This usually occurs because future generations tend to find their mother tongue a handicap due to their lack of proficiency in the language, making it lose its usefulness and become extinct (Frath, 2010).

Educational institutions are in danger of enacting linguistic hegemony, albeit unwittingly and, therefore, it is important to recognise that while it is significant to maintain a lingua franca in the classroom, the multilingualism of the classroom should not be overlooked, as the lingua franca is not intended to replace the other languages. Bamgbose (1999:14) states that a language “cannot be used in a wider range of domains if it not developed, and it will not be developed unless there is a need to use it in a wider range of domains. Understanding the role, benefits and disadvantages of other languages in a lingua franca classroom is an essential area of research in the continued effort to ensure the wellbeing of the student, and Phillipson (2006:22) believes that the “the forms of cohabitation between English and other languages are relatively under-explored”. Mbude-Shale (2014) states that “The US experience informs us that English monolingualism has meant little in terms of economic advantages to most blacks and to the masses of poor European and Hispanic descendants”.

Amilcar Cabral (cited by Alexander, 2011:14) suggests the re-evaluation of the question of whether the middle class of South Africa are courageous and imaginative enough to “commit class suicide by moving away decisively from the current English-mainly and often English-only language policy, with all its negative consequences for a democratic polity”. This is accompanied by the belief that it is time for the intellects of the country to accept that the language policy, class and power are intertwined and if these do not change for the good of the people, there is a possibility that “we are willy-nilly carrying out others’ possibly nefarious agendas” (Alexander, 2011:15).

Interestingly, some African language speakers have been joined by some Afrikaans speakers in public forums to fight the perceived threat of English, while politicians and position papers denounce the hegemony of English and “call for the development and modernization of the African languages as languages for higher education” (Silva, 1997).

Unfortunately, the reality of the multilingualism in South Africa comes at a high cost, which appears unattainable in the South African economy. Multilingualism is well established in the constitution; however, even though it is supported as an ideal, it is beyond the reach of the South African economy because of the implications of translating, interpreting and printing in all languages (Silva, 1997). Weighting the social costs against the costs of uplifting a language would lead to the realisation that it is a counterproductive exercise, as language is not “purely micro-economic” in nature (Alexander 1999:5).

While sociolinguists and educationists have acknowledged there are negative effects attached to the hegemony of English, it is the beginning of the investigation into the language shift phenomenon (De Kadt, 2005:20). Language is considered to be central to the perception of identity, a shift in language would result in a change to the identity of the person and it is at tertiary institutions (universities) that linguistic transition is performed and confirmed because it is in these institutions that the future elite of the country are being educated and are required to use English as a language of learning (De Kadt, 2005:20).

It is essential to ensure students are secure in their mother tongue because they speak these languages at home, and Frath (2010) calls for international efforts to provide for linguistic apparatus such as dictionaries for these minority languages. English should not be the only language that is learned by students, even though its role as lingua franca is recognised; other languages should also be nurtured because “languages are windows to other cultures and traditions, which in turn help us look at our own cultures with a more critical eye” (Frath, 2010:6).

2.4.4 English lingua franca: promoting skills and knowledge

This section deals with the benefits of ELF, including the promotion of skills and knowledge achieved by the possession of a diverse linguistic repertoire. There is little doubt that language lies at the centre of global development and technological changes that have resulted in globalisation and the current global market. Many researchers have undertaken research into English as a global language and the benefits of ELF in educational institutions, agreeing that multilingualism is the key to success in the global market (Silva, 1997; Alexander, 1999; House, 2003; Rassool, 2004; Coleman, 2006;

Björkman, 2008), while other researchers have investigated and reported on English as a language of power (Narismula, 2001; Alexander, 2011; Harper 2011), even though Alexander (1999:14) states that no person would ever be content to conduct their “intimate business in a language which they do not command intuitively”.

Björkman (2008:26) lists “mobility, employability and competitiveness/attractiveness” as the advantages of ELF in education, while Stier (2006:2) posits that intercultural competences have become a necessity in the job market, and House (2003:559) sees English as a tool for creating mutual understanding of worldwide encounters, a language for communication. English is considered to be the language of progression and empowerment of previously disadvantaged black South Africans. In South Africa, particularly amongst the black rural poor, it is the “historically disempowered ... who are least likely to have access to this resource” (Silva, 1997:5). De Klerk (cited by Silva, 1997:5) states that notwithstanding the recognition and realistic understanding of the offerings of English, there is a possibility that the overwhelming presence of English could lead to domination and language loss coupled with a sense of disempowerment and exclusion, particularly in South Africa.

In European academia, where English is becoming the dominant lingua franca, it is used as a vehicular language to send a message, carry out a task or solve a problem (Björkman, 2008:26). This is not dissimilar to the South African academic context, where lecturers use ELF as a medium of instruction in most tertiary institutions, students use ELF to communicate with educators and send appropriate messages, while amongst each other, students use ELF to work together in groups sending messages to each other in an attempt to carry out a specific task or solve a problem. In South Africa, the average Black parents demand their children learn good English at school because of the value attached to the language and its status as an international language of communication (Silva, 1997). Bamgbose (1999:14) agrees with this and states, “[s]uch is the strength of this reaction that otherwise knowledgeable and sensible people still feel uncomfortable about sending their children to schools in which the language of learning and teaching is an African language”.

South African students are unlikely to reject the trend of English as an additional language, because they are aware of the advantages of possessing English skills in a job market that is communication-oriented, together with the fact that many of these students who attend

tertiary education institutions are products of multicultural schools who also practiced ELF in the classrooms (De Kadt, 2005:20).

There have been many global changes – technological, cultural, economic, and social – which necessitate the need for multilingualism and intercultural communication skills. These changes are seen in the technology, labour and tourism markets. This is evidenced in the technology infrastructure that has facilitated the flow of information of a cultural and economic nature within a global arena that continues to be interactive; this flow of information and interaction is facilitated by the use of email and the Internet as well as communication practiced by the masses and to which every person is becoming more and more exposed (Rassool, 2004:203).

The technology infrastructure that apparently appears devoid of borders creates the need for a language that is universal, while the labour market echoes this need as the demographic of workers also appears to have no borders and the knowledge and skills base of workers crosses countries and continents (Rassool, 2004:203). This market requires a core worker that is multi-skilled and multilingual, who would possibly be required to use ELF for the purposes of interaction with fellow workers, but would need a working knowledge of the local customs, languages and discourse styles to be an effective contributor in the labour market (Rassool, 2004:204). Furthermore, another market that has seen transformation and unexpected expansion is the tourism market, where there has been heightened interest in travel and tourism in the leisure travel industry, creating the need for employee competencies to deal with this influx of diverse cultures and the possession of linguistic skills and discourse styles (Rassool, 2004:204). Smit (2005:63) echoes these sentiments in a study at an English-medium international hotel management course in Vienna, where students and teachers stated they considered English to be a common shared language and it enabled entrance to hospitality education and settings internationally.

Coleman (2006:4) lists possible advantages for English-speaking academic graduates as the ability to use English in a social context and passing the language on to their children as it becomes “a marker of social privilege”. It can also become an economic development tool in countries that are still developing and these countries could become exporters of educational services; added to this would be the advancement of career, knowledge and mobility (Coleman, 2006:4). This is agreed to by House (2003:560), who posits that

learning a language that creates a wider link beyond a person's local circle is the only way to ensure communication beyond the local community.

Alexander (2011:3) believes that there is a strong interwoven relationship between language and power and class, and that languages derive their power from two fundamental sources – empowerment and disempowerment. With empowerment, individuals or groups realise their own resolves, while with disempowerment, the agendas of individuals or groups are imposed on others. In order for humans to be employable in the job market, communication skills are essential. However, these communication skills are restricted to the explicit language of production; hence, power is bestowed on the specific language of production (Alexander, 2011:3). Narismula (2001:57) points out that postcolonial users of English “cannot glibly proclaim that proficiency in English is the route to empowerment” due to it being previously used as an endorsement and exercise of relations of power in South Africa. However, Gorter *et al.* (2009:7) believe that English is the language of communication in the words and the main language of science and technology, the use of which has spread to countries that previously did not use English as a spoken language, together with being the “main language of popular culture and globalization as can be seen in advertising”.

Stier (2006:3) states that the world is not static but changes rapidly, and it is undeniable that the “increasingly global, multicultural world requires increasingly complex skills and knowledge from people”. There is a possibility that this rapid rate of change places extreme demands on tertiary institutions to keep up with the requirements of the business world for students to obtain success in their prospective careers. This requires the constant re-evaluation of the mandatory skills and knowledge that can only be obtained through ongoing research.

From a pedagogical viewpoint, students need to be prepared to tackle issues and problems of a social nature, as well as being assisted in preparing for their role as that of leadership and figures of authority, and this is the responsibility of the university educators (Narismulu, 2001:59). Alexander (2011:12,13) calls for research into the issue of language and more particularly into the language-medium policy and practice, referring to the acknowledgement by the Human Rights Commission of this matter being an issue vital for research. He states that it is essential for African languages to be accorded a value in the

market, failing which there will be no escape for the hegemony of English. Jenkins and Seidlhofer (2003) identify the need to research the communication strategies of ELF users to see what ELF users actually do when they communicate, as opposed to assuming to know what they do.

The question of whether English language franca has benefits, particularly regarding the acquisition of skills and knowledge, empowering students, making them more employable, and improving communication skills appears to be resoundingly positive, even though it comes with the paradoxical situation of the dangers of English hegemony and the threat of extinction of other languages. Alexander (1999) endorses the promotion of multilingualism and modernising of African languages because South Africans have reached an understanding of the relationship between “underdevelopment, poverty, undemocratic political regimes and language policy” and should be committed to ensuring the implementation of policy balances these aspects. The most important features for such policy planning and implementation would be:

- A commitment to instruction in the mother tongue
- Parallel-medium schools for economic as well as political and cultural reasons
- Dual-medium schools for the next two or three generations or until the status of African languages have been uplifted to that of Afrikaans and English (Alexander, 1999:17).

If a policy that promotes bi- and multilingualism is implemented in the South African education institutions, it could lead to high levels of fluency and literacy for students in English as well as least one African language (Alexander, 1999:123).

2.5 Group work and problem solving

This section deals with the ways in which group work is undertaken and problems are solved in groups with members of different cultural backgrounds.

In a study by Lesznyák (cited by House, 2003:559) that analyses an ELF interaction of international students, it was found that ELF users began their interactions with divergent behavioural patterns, but gradually and consensually moved to a convergent behavioural pattern by the following process:

- Utilising a topic management model that was dynamic
- Gradually progressing towards a common ground through the processes they engaged in
- Negotiating a balanced footing and communication rules.

Researchers agree there is a strong possibility that members of different cultural backgrounds who become involved in discourse could face communication problems, especially if they are speakers of different languages (Hinnenkamp, 1991; Herbert, 1986). Ethnography is a branch of anthropological linguistics that emphasises the function of language as a social institution (McLeish, 1993), and the basic premises of this field are that the patterned use of language and speech is culturally variable, and the patterns could be linked to larger aspects of sociocultural organisation such as religion, politics and ecology; hence, causing different speech usage patterns in different cultural groups (Herbert, 1986:82). This leads to the understanding that competent communication depends on the ability to be culturally competent, therefore, making it impossible to separate the acquiring of communicative skills from the acquisition of other forms of ethnically changeable behaviour (Herbert, 1986:83).

The social functions of language differ between different speech communities and ethnographers of speaking highlight these variations, placing great emphasis on the study of language skills, which are apparent in everyday social interaction. This serves to reveal the way in which meaningful communication takes place “through the interaction of language with socio-cultural factors, including the role and status of participants and the discourse strategies adopted” (McLeish, 1993). The ethnography of speaking should form the core of discussions of cultural diversity as they provide explanations for the ongoing miscommunication that occurs across cultures, even if there is a code or language that is shared, since underlying differences could exist in the way in which the exchanges are organised (McLeish, 1993).

2.6 Codeswitching and linguistic repertoire

The people of South Africa are grounded in a rich cultural and linguistic history. There are 11 official languages in the country and even though the power of choosing the official language was ceded to each province according to their requirements suited to the

linguistic or population groups within that province (Rassool, 2004:203), there has been from centuries ago, and continues to be, an ongoing migration of people between provinces. This migration of people has led to family situations that are often multilingual and consist of a variety of linguistic repertoires within a single family.

Language repertoires are dynamic in nature and Rassool (2004:209) refers to evolving language repertoires as people within communities who adapt and accommodate other languages and cultures. De Kadt (2005:19) posits that the displacement of indigenous mother tongues is on the increase because of the spread of English as a language of learning and teaching; it is now disseminating beyond the classroom and into the social lives of the people of South Africa.

Rassool (2004:207), in a study highlighting multilingual realities and multi-identities, referred to linguistic repertoires as indicating “evidence of vibrant cultural experiences across time and space; they contain memory traces of past migrations, colonialism and, in many instances, also reflect the multilingual ethos of the societies from which they had transmigrated”. This is true for many South African families whose linguistic repertoires include remnants of other cultural groups and languages causing an identification problem in that it is often difficult to pinpoint a single ethnic group and language in a family and this is passed down to the children who are often not really sure of their home language. The long-term practicality of the local languages of South Africa is a cause for concern (De Kadt, 2005:19).

There also exists the inter-marriage of cultures, and children are brought up with a dominant home language on the one side, but a need to communicate with the family members of a different language on the other side, leading to a shift in communication (Rassool, 2004:209). A multilingual environment, as experienced by the majority of South African students in their classrooms at school and later at their tertiary education institutions, carries with it the “constant choices between codes, varieties and accents, as speakers construct themselves in constantly-modulated ways” (De Kadt, 2005:20).

Gardner-Chloros (2009:202) defines codeswitching as “the alternate use of two or more language or language varieties by bilinguals for communicative purposes”. Van Gass (2002:91) states that codeswitching “is a sociolinguistic phenomenon that is found

wherever two or more language varieties are used in a speech community” and continues by asserting that this is carried out, often fluently, by speakers who are bilingual or multilingual. In an article on codeswitching and communicative competence in the language classroom, Moodley (2010:9) interpreted codeswitching as “a switch between the target language (TL) and the learner’s home language and/or language that is common to all the learners in a multilingual classroom”. This construal of codeswitching appears to consolidate well with the current study and the researcher will borrow from Moodley’s interpretation of codeswitching to examine the codeswitching behaviour of students in a multilingual tertiary classroom.

In a study by Rassool (2004:210), the participants listed the following reasons or situations for codeswitching during communication:

- When they are with family and friends
- When they are excited about something
- When they do not know a specific word or words in the communication language
- When they want to exclude someone from the conversation.

These reasons could be expanded to include reasons, within a groupwork classroom situation, in an ELF tertiary institution, where the codeswitching could occur because *inter alia* the student may feel intimidated or out of place because of a lack of adequate knowledge or command of the English language or they may find they are able to express themselves better in their L1.

A conceptual frame of ELF in a tertiary classroom is proposed by Smit (2005:64), which allows for the “complexity and diversity of educational differences and dynamics”. This frame highlights the four important resources that play an equal role in the ELF classroom, namely community of multilingual sojourners, the institutionalised purposes, the classroom talk and the ELF practice (Smit, 2005:64).

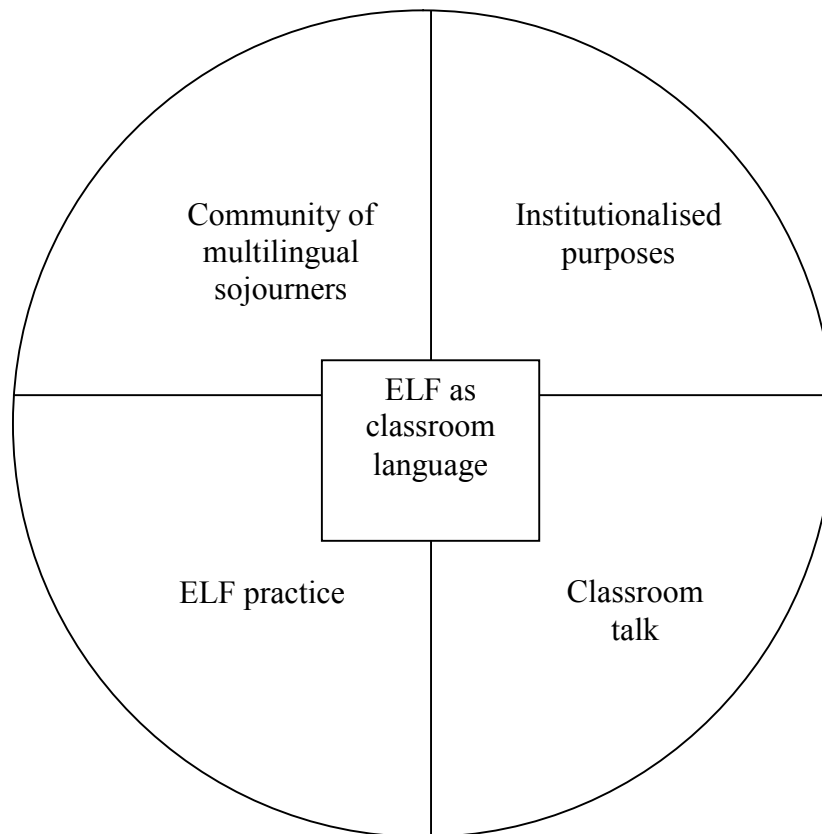


Figure 2.1: Resources in an ELF classroom

Source: Smit (2005:64)

When considering the classroom of the South African tertiary institution within this frame, the community of multilingual sojourners refers to the students who are required to attend classes within the institution for a specific period of time (Smit, 2005:64). These students represent the 11 official language groups within South Africa, and it includes their linguistic repertoires that they bring with them into the classroom environment. They are referred to as sojourners because of their temporary residence within that specific space (classroom). The language of the classroom will play a role in the development and achievement of the students and they will use this language to not only bring their own repertoires into the classroom, but to develop shared repertoires in order to engage in activities with their fellow students or teachers (Smit, 2005:64).

The second resource is that of institutionalised purposes which focuses on the underlying purpose at the core of learning and classroom discourse (Smit, 2005:65). There is not

necessarily a correlation between teaching and learning and the space of learning, therefore, because the central point, the contingency of the specific learning, is dependent on discourse in the classroom (Smit, 2005:65). When the classroom uses ELF as the language of discourse, it could be concluded that this fulfils the institutionalised purposes of the institution, which uses the multilingual repertoires from the participants. Smit (2005:65) posits that this would mean English should be considered as the instruction medium rather than the language of learning.

The nature of the language follows with the resource labelled classroom talk. This section consists of all the usual elements contained in institutional discourse such as the development of the topic, taking turns and the participatory roles, which could be demonstrated under the IRF exchange pattern (initiation by teacher, response by student and feedback by teacher) (Smit, 2005:65).

The final resource is that of ELF practice where a shared repertoire is developed amongst the participants with English as the lingua franca (Smit, 2005:66). ELF allows for interaction and hence social practice that a community uses to construct meaning. Therefore, in this situation and by using ELF, meaning is created within the ELF classroom where the interlocutors bring their linguistic backgrounds and histories into their encounters with other participants, and multilingual speakers are then required to draw on their English-related repertoires (Smit, 2005:66).

This final resource could lead to the acknowledgement, implementation and acceptance of a translanguaging approach in the ELF classroom. According to Garcia and Wei (2014:137), “[t]ranslanguaging refers to the ways in which bilinguals use their complex semiotic repertoire to act, to know, and to be”. They continue by stating that it is through the linguistic repertoires of language users that translanguaging occurs and highlights the different customs, historical evidence, uniqueness and philosophies of bilingual and multilingual language users. This enables users in the current epoch of globalisation to adapt to the diversity of sociolinguistic circumstances.

Translanguaging refers to new language practices – not to two separate languages, or to a synthesis or hybrid mixture of language – it is new language practices that “make visible the complexity of language exchanges among people with different histories” (Garcia &

Wei, 2014:22). Whereas codeswitching is the act of switching between two languages, translanguaging cannot be referred to as a simple shift between languages, but rather as a the production of language practices by the speakers, who use unique, diverse interrelated discursive practices, resulting in a language, which is difficult to confine to a traditional definition of a language, but include the linguistic repertoire of the speakers (Garcia & Wei, 2014:22).

This leads to the confirmation of the belief by Ives (2006:122) that empirical research on the way in which NNSs of English use, adapt and transform the language would be very beneficial.

2.7 Conclusion

The following elements have been highlighted in this chapter in order to contextualise the study, namely linguistic diversity in South African tertiary institutions, the South African tertiary education system and educational language policies, and the history of language in South Africa, leading up to the choice of ELF in the majority of tertiary institutions in South Africa. ELF research was examined and this research highlighted not only the benefits of ELF in and outside of the classroom, but included reported research on the negative aspects of opting for ELF in educational situations; these negative aspects are particularly applicable to minority languages. Research on group work and problem solving, together with codeswitching and linguistic repertoire in an ELF classroom was also examined. These studies provide the framework against which the data collected in this study is analysed.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DATA COLLECTION

3.1 Introduction

This chapter commences with a description of the research methodologies utilised for this study. This includes explanations for/information on the selection of participants, the research instruments used to collect the data, the activities undertaken by the participants, the process for data collection including and the transcription and analysis of the data. This includes specific reference to the frequency, type and function of codeswitching among the participants, including their efforts to avoid misunderstandings during group work interaction, as well as an analysis of the linguistic repertoire of the participants. In an effort to understand the linguistic repertoire and codeswitching behaviour of participants, this study attempts to develop a comprehension of the effect these have for bi- and multilingual participants in the ELF classroom, specifically during a groupwork task.

3.2 Research methodologies

3.2.1 Literature review

A review of the literature relating to the use of ELF and ELF research, both globally and locally was conducted. This was reported on in Chapter 2 and included the historical background leading to the decision to use English as the lingua franca in the majority of tertiary institutions in South Africa.

3.2.2 Empirical research

The empirical section of this research is concerned with attempting to understand the benefits and/or disadvantages of ELF for the students in a multilingual South African tertiary education classroom. This will be done by collecting data on the linguistic repertoires of the students and examining their use of these repertoires in interactions with their fellow students in a classroom situation. To understand the ELF multilingual

classroom further, a questionnaire has been developed to elicit the perceptions of the participants of the specific activities.

Walliman (2011:71) states that the characteristics of data can be divided into two categories, namely quantitative or qualitative data. Quantitative data is the use of numbers such as tallies on questionnaires, scores on tests, and population densities, whereas much useful data is made up of information that cannot be reduced to numbers such as ideas, emotions, beliefs – these record qualities rather than quantities, hence the term qualitative data. This study used a combination of quantitative and qualitative data, where the codeswitching behaviour and linguistic repertoire of students is analysed qualitatively and quantitatively and the data acquired from the questionnaire is analysed quantitatively.

3.3 Ethical considerations

McGill University (n.d.) states, “Linguistics, by its nature, depends on gathering linguistic data from speakers of a language, i.e. human subjects”. Ethics is concerned with the development of moral standards by which situations can be judged, and apply to all circumstances that could potentially or actually harm any individual or group (Zikmund & Babin, 2013:78). Permission to conduct the study was sought formally through the Departmental Ethics Screening Committee (DESC) of the tertiary institution where the researcher was registered for study, as well as the research directorate of the tertiary institution where the study took place, and these permissions were granted – see Annexure B and C respectively.

Gupta (2011:21) states that ethics in research refers to the norms or standards that guide the research process, and Walliman (2011:43) claims there are two aspects of ethical issues in research:

- The individual values of the researcher relating to honesty and frankness and personal integrity; and
- The researcher’s treatment of other people involved in the research, relating to informed consent, confidentiality, anonymity and courtesy.

The following ethical procedures were implemented and served to guide the researcher during the data collection process:

- Participation in the study was voluntary and no participant would benefit from taking part in the study or be penalised for not participating in the study;
- All participants were informed about the purpose of the study and requested to sign consent forms (see Annexure A);
- Confidentiality and anonymity of participants was assured;
- Personal data of participants were processed fairly and lawfully and used only for the purpose of the study;
- There were no activities or questions in the questionnaires that were detrimental to the interest of the respondents;
- Every effort was made to avoid bias by the researcher in the data analysis and data interpretation;
- Participants could withdraw from the study at any time without any repercussions;
- The main findings of the study will be made available to respondents on request.

3.4 Data collection

3.4.1 Sampling frame

Walliman (2011:94) refers to population as “a collective term used to describe the total quantity of things which are the subject of your study” and the sampling frame as the types of people who are of interest to the researcher, with the sample as a smaller group representative of the larger sampling frame. This is represented in Figure 3.1.

This study is intent on understanding the codeswitching behaviour and linguistic repertoires present in the ELF tertiary institution classroom, which means the population under investigation is every student currently enrolled at a tertiary institution in South Africa. Undertaking a study of that magnitude would be too costly and time consuming, hence the solution lies in selecting only a small group, examining the data collected for that group, and then drawing conclusions from the data that could relate to the whole population.

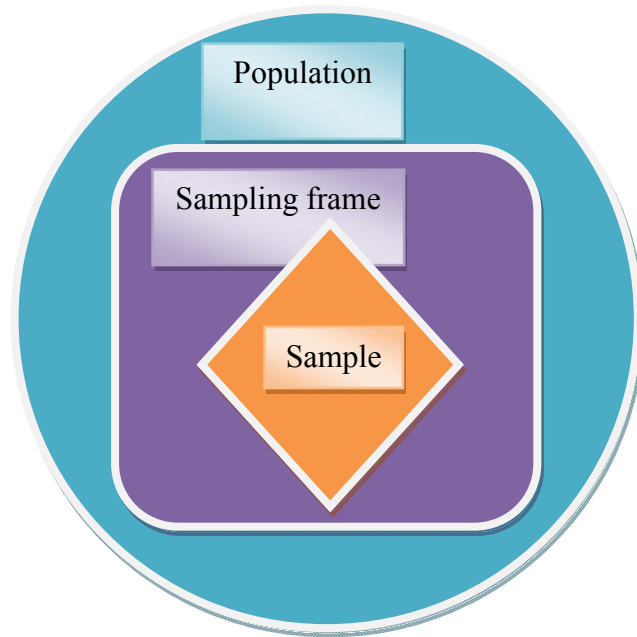


Figure 3.1: Sampling frame in relation to population and sample (Walliman 2011:94)

In this study, the sample selected, which would be representative of the larger sampling frame, consists of tertiary education students in their first year of study at a South African public higher education institution. After an initial survey on the mother tongue of students in a class, 25 students were selected to participate in the study. The participants of each group were of the following L1s: Group 1 – Sesotho, Group 2 – Setswana, Group 3 – Sepedi, Group 4 – isiZulu and Group 5 – Tsonga.

3.4.2 Data collection activities and instruments

The data for this study were collected by means of observations and questionnaires. Walliman (2011:100) describes observation as being a tool that is useful in social science research where the activities of people are studied; observation involves taking “a detached view of the phenomena, and be ‘invisible’, either in fact or in effect”. He continues by explaining that even when the subjects are aware of the observations, the researcher is absent from involvement in the activity being observed. Questionnaires are a flexible tool that has a structured format and the researcher has no personal influence over them. They are “easy and convenient for respondents, and [...] cheap and quick to administer to a large number of cases” (Walliman, 2011:97).

The data collection was conducted during the following activities:

- Activity 1A: Observation of five groups of participants in a class preparing for a group presentation, where each member of the group spoke the same L1.
- Activity 1B: A classroom presentation by each of the groups on completion of the preparation.
- Activity 2A: Observation of five groups of participants in a class preparing for a group presentation, where each member of the group spoke a different L1. In this activity, the same participants as in Activity 1A were divided into new groups.
- Activity 2B: A classroom presentation by each of the groups upon completion of the preparation.
- A questionnaire completed by all participants after Activity 2B.

3.4.3 Preparation activities (1A and 2A)

Data were collected during two lessons for the same participants in Activity 1A and 2A. Each observation was conducted in a controlled environment during a groupwork session. The participants were videotaped while interacting with the other members of their groups and the same participants were used for both activities.

Activity 1A

In this activity, participants were divided into groups based on their home language. Five groups were formed for the purposes of observation and these groups were made up as follows:

Table 3.1: Participants in Activity 1A

GROUPS	NO. OF MEMBERS	HOME LANGUAGE	STICKERS
Group 1	5	Sesotho	1A – 1 S 1A – 2 S 1A – 3 S 1A – 4 S 1A – 5 S
Group 2	5	Setswana	1A – 1 W 1A – 2 W 1A – 3 W 1A – 4 W 1A – 5 W
Group 3	5	Sepedi	1A – 1 P 1A – 2 P 1A – 3 P 1A – 4 P 1A – 5 P
Group 4	5	isiZulu	1A – 1 Z 1A – 2 Z 1A – 3 Z 1A – 4 Z 1A – 5 Z
Group 5	5	Tsonga	1A – 1 T 1A – 2 T 1A – 3 T 1A – 4 T 1A – 5 T

* The codes are worn as lapel stickers by the participants and are designed to assist the researcher when transcribing the videotapes. The codes denote the following:

1A – The number of the activity

1, 2, 3, 4, 5 – The number of the participant in the group

S - Sesotho, W – Setswana, P – Sepedi, Z – isiZulu, T - Tsonga (the home language of the participant)

Upon entering the classroom, the participants were informed of the relevant information regarding the study and requested to sign a consent form if they agreed thereto (Annexure A). All participants indicated their willingness to participate and signed the consent forms⁴.

Participants were divided into groups (see Table 3.1) and each participant was requested to wear a sticker for the purposes of identification during transcribing. They were then

⁴ This activity formed part of a class assessment task and if a student had decided not to participate in the study, he/she would have been placed in one of the other groups in the class that was not being videotaped during the preparation or presentation phases to ensure that he/she would not suffer any negative consequences from refusal to participate.

provided with written instructions on the task, which was to prepare for a presentation on a specific topic (see Annexure E). Participants were required, as instructed, to work together to complete the task, which included delegating responsibilities to members of the group and setting a date for a follow-up meeting to practice as a group before presenting their findings on the topic at the actual presentation. During this interaction, groups were videotaped for a minimum of three minutes and the researcher later transcribed this data for the purposes of analysis.

Activity 2A

In this activity, the same participants as for Activity 1A were divided into groups based on their home language. However, in this activity each group would consist of five members, one from each of the L1s in the research. These groups were made up as follows:

Table 3.2: Participants in Activity 2A

GROUPS	NO. OF MEMBERS	MEMBERS	HOME LANGUAGE
Group 1	5	2A – 1 S 2A – 1 W 2A – 1 P 2A – 1 Z 2A – 1 T	Sesotho Setswana Sepedi isiZulu Tsonga
Group 2	5	2A – 2 S 2A – 2 W 2A – 2 P 2A – 2 Z 2A – 2 T	Sesotho Setswana Sepedi isiZulu Tsonga
Group 3	5	2A – 3 S 2A – 3 W 2A – 3 P 2A – 3 Z 2A – 3 T	Sesotho Setswana Sepedi isiZulu Tsonga
Group 4	5	2A – 4 S 2A – 4 W 2A – 4 P 2A – 4 Z 2A – 4 T	Sesotho Setswana Sepedi isiZulu Tsonga
Group 5	5	2A – 5 S 2A – 5 W 2A – 5 P 2A – 5 Z 2A – 5 T	Sesotho Setswana Sepedi isiZulu Tsonga

* The codes are worn as stickers by the participants, which will assist the researcher when transcribing the videotapes. The codes denote the following:

2A - The number of the activity

1, 2, 3, 4, 5 - The number of the participant in each group

S - Sesotho, W – Setswana, P – Sepedi, Z – isiZulu, T - Tsonga (the home language of the participant)

Participants were then divided into groups (see Table 3.2) and the same procedure was followed as for Activity 1A in that they were requested to wear a sticker for the purposes of identification during transcribing. They were provided with written instructions on the task (see Annexure E) and required to work together to complete the task, which included delegating responsibilities to members of the group and setting a date for a follow-up meeting to practice as a group before presenting their findings on the topic at the actual presentation. During this interaction, groups were videotaped for a minimum of three minutes and the researcher later transcribed this data for the purposes of analysis.

3.4.4 Presentation activities (1B and 2B)

During a follow-up classroom contact session, the participants were required to do a presentation on the topic to the researcher, a colleague of the researcher and the other students in the class. During the presentation, the participants were observed and evaluated by both the researcher and a colleague, who is in the same department as the researcher and skilled in the art of observing and assessing presentations. This was done to ensure that there was another opinion on the marking of the presentations, which is largely subjective, and also to assist with observation during the presentations.

During Activity 1A and 1B, all members in each group spoke the same L1 (Group 1 – Sesotho, Group 2 – Setswana, Group 3 – Sepedi, Group 4 – isiZulu, Group 5 – Tsonga), whereas for Activity 2A and 2B each member of each group spoke a different L1 (Member 1 – Sesotho, Member 2 – Setswana, Member 3 – Sepedi, Member 4 – isiZulu, Member 5 – Tsonga). During these activities, the participants were required to work together and prepare for the presentation as a group, thereafter they were required to do the presentation. The purpose of the presentation for each of the activities was to determine whether there were any noticeable differences between the performances of students when working together in the same L1 groups, and when working in different L1 groups. Marks were allocated to each of the groups for performance and these were based on an assessment grid (see Annexure F), which had also been supplied to the participants in the groups

during Activities 1A and 2A. Throughout the presentations, the participants were observed and any codeswitching or differences in linguistic repertoire were noted down by the researcher and the researcher's colleague for further analysis.

During both Activity 1A and 1B, every attempt was made to ensure the conditions of testing remained as similar as possible. All participants were seated in a semi-circle to ensure effective videotaping and recording of interactions. The stickers participants were requested to wear were easily visible to ensure optimal transcriptions and identification of linguistic repertoires and codeswitching. The instructions provided to participants (annexures E and G respectively) were designed to mirror identical group work conditions in the following ways:

- The topics were present-day issues relevant to the participants.
- The topics did not require participants to undertake research into the topics, and participants were informed that Internet research was not required as enough information could be obtained from brainstorming in their groups.
- For each activity, each participant was required to speak during the presentation. As a group, they were required to allocate one participant the introduction of the presentation, one the conclusion, and the three remaining members of the group each needed to be allocated a topic for presenting.
- Each activity instruction sheet provided a list of possible topics for discussion but the presentation was not limited to these topics.
- The instructions included a date and time to be set for a practice session as a group prior to the actual presentation.

Apart from ensuring similar working conditions that would provide results that were comparable, the points above also ensured that the participants were forced to sit together during the allocated time and work on the presentation format, points for discussion, allocation of members to present the different topics and the setting of a date and time together that would be agreed to by all members. This would provide enough time for the researcher to record participants working together as a group.

3.4.5 Questionnaire

On completion of the final presentation, all participants who took part in the study were requested to fill in a questionnaire (see Annexure A). The questionnaire was made up of seven sections. Section A comprised biographical details of the participants such as gender, age, race and languages spoken most often by parents at home, while in Sections B to F, participants were required to rate their ability and proficiency in all the languages they are able to read/write and/or speak/understand. In order to provide some guidance on proficiency levels and to ensure some form of consistency, the following guidelines regarding what would constitute excellent, good, average, fair or poor proficiency, were given:

- **1 = Excellent:** I have no problems with this language and would not hesitate to enrol in a class where this is the language of teaching
- **2 = Good:** I have some skill in this language and could cope in a classroom where this is the language of teaching
- **3 = Average:** I am not very good in this language and am not sure if I could do all my studying if this were the language of teaching
- **4 = Fair:** I know some of the language but would need to do a lot of extra work to keep up with a class where this is the language of teaching
- **5 = Poor:** I would never consider attending a class where this is the language of teaching because I am not good enough in the language

These sections provided the researcher with insight into the multilingual nature of students' linguistic repertoires at a tertiary institution in South Africa.

Finally, Section G of the questionnaire contained three dichotomous questions, where participants had a choice of only two answers, either Activity 1 or Activity 2. The answers to these questions should provide insight into how students at a tertiary institution in South Africa view the lingua franca classroom, how they perceived working in a group where

they shared an L1 or all had different L1s, and what their language preferences would be if they had a choice.

3.5 Analysis of data

3.5.1 Activities 1A and 2A

The recordings made during the groupwork interactions were transcribed by the researcher. The transcriptions were scrutinised and notations were made of the frequency, type and function of codeswitching behaviour and other features of the linguistic repertoires as described in Section 3.6.1 and 3.6.2 below. The notations on codeswitching and other features of the linguistic repertoires were then compared between the two activities to identify the similarities and differences between groups of the same L1 and groups of different L1.

3.5.2 Activities 1B and 2B

The evaluations of the presentations of the groups were scrutinised for any variations, and comparisons were made between the different groups and the different activities to identify any similarities or differences. The notations made during the presentation on the frequency, type and function of codeswitching behaviour and other features of the linguistic repertoires were scrutinised for any similarities or differences.

3.5.3 The questionnaires

In his discussion of data analysis, Walliman (2011:132) refers to the reduction of the collected data through coding, clustering and summarising. The first stage is coding, which entails simplifying the data with a view to ensuring it is able to be clustered together and displayed, such as in the form of diagrams or tables. Thereafter, summarising takes place when associations, connections and deductions are made when comparing the different factors. The data obtained from the questionnaires were coded, clustered and summarised on an Excel worksheet to ensure simplification and systematic reporting.

3.6 Analysis of ELF features in the data

This section briefly explains the different ELF features that the researcher considered during the data analysis process and includes the linguistic repertoires of participants, codeswitching by participants and instances of miscommunication or requests for clarification.

3.6.1 Linguistic repertoires

Gumperz (1964:137) defines verbal repertoires as “the totality of linguistic forms regularly employed in the course of socially significant interaction”, while language repertoire is defined by Coetzee-Van Rooy (2012:89) as “the range of languages known from which multilingual people draw the resources they need to communicate in multilingual societies”.

Coetzee-Van Rooy (2014:2) states that it is important for each study to define the essential concepts in order for findings to be compared effectively. Therefore, for the purpose of this study, the definition for a multilingualism person will be given as follows:

a person who has the ability to use three or more languages, either separately or in various degrees of code-mixing.

Different languages are used for different purposes, competence in each varying according to such factors as register, occupation and education. Multilinguals may not have equal proficiency in or control over all the languages they know (Kemp 2009, cited in Coetzee-Van Rooy, 2014:3).

Social communication and interaction occurs in specific groups, therefore, linguistic source data will have to be made commensurable with such groups (Gumperz, 1964:137). In this study, the speech community comprised of ELF classroom students, who were bi- or multilingual, participating in a group work exercise to complete a specific task. The focus of the investigation is the linguistic repertoires amongst these students, which highlights the questions of who used which languages and when. This is within the framework proposed by Smit (2005) and set out in Section 2.7. It includes the linguistic forms regularly used in the course of the interaction and will ultimately shed some light on

whether the use of multilingual repertoires has any effect on the achievement of particular goals in the tertiary classroom. Throughout the current study, students demonstrate a multilingual repertoire as evidenced in this extract (Example 1) from the transcriptions in Activity 1:

Example 1

1A5S: ⁵Maar body ⁶***e telele etlanka*** more than one person we have to have three topics so ***etleba*** the first one ...

Translation: [But the body is long and will take more than one person, we have three topics so it will be the first one ...]

In this sentence, the participant demonstrates an ability to communicate in Afrikaans, English and Sesotho, which is confirmed in a later utterance (Example 2):

Example 2

1A5S Listen ***o hlaha*** Sasol high, ***ke*** Afrikaans, boer skool ...

Translation: [Listen, she is from Sasol High, it's Afrikaans, it's a boer school]

In this utterance, the participant switches from English to Sesotho, back to English, then Sesotho and Afrikaans.

3.6.2 Codeswitching

McCabe (2013:164) states that codeswitching is a phenomenon that is common to multilingual communities and occurs worldwide in many communities, especially in those where multilingualism is prevalent and the people know and use more than one language every day. She states that, generally, codeswitching is seen as evidence of a deficit in a language in the speaker as well as the interference of language and an impediment in the process of teaching and learning (McCabe, 2013:159). However, in (multilingual) classrooms codeswitching performs a functional role, has the potential to assist in the achievement of academic literacy and should be utilised in the classroom throughout the

⁵ Coding of languages in document: All transcribed Afrikaans words will be underlined

⁶ Coding of languages in document: All transcribed words other than English or Afrikaans will be **bold** in this document

academic life of the student. Developing academic biliteracy supports the case for codeswitching. Academic biliteracy relates to persons being able to use more than one language to read and process text.

Wardhaugh (2006:101) states that codeswitching can occur intersententially and intrasententially. Intersentential codeswitching occurs between or outside sentences or clauses and intrasentential codeswitching occurs in a single speakers turn. De Kadt (2005:21) opines that the issue of choosing a language code lies at the centre of language shift and language maintenance for a number of intersecting research bodies. This includes questions such as why and how the speakers choose one code over the other. However, the focus of this study is on the codeswitching that occurs during interactions by students with each other and examining whether words, parts of words or sentences are switched, and the effect of this, if any.

In Activity 1, there was frequent intersentential and intrasentential codeswitching by participants, as seen in Example 3, when the participant switches from Setswana to English in the same sentence:

Example 3

1A2W: *Ga tlameha go be le motho like in high school.*

Translation: [There must be someone to care, like in high school.]

In Example 4, participant 5 speaks to the group in English and is answered by participant 2 in Sesotho, and participant 5 then answers in a mixture of Sesotho and English:

Example 4

1A5S: *... the whole speech and everything for us, cause she's creative and then..*

1A2S: *O tlo re shapa ka mantsoe a thata e resa khoneng ha a pronouncer*

Translation: [She will bring words we cannot pronounce.]

1A5S: *Rona reka tshoara dikey points*

Translation: [We can just get key points]

These codeswitching practices could be the demonstration of diverse language groups who are required to work together in a group, moving towards a practice of translanguaging

where, as stated by Garcia and Wei (2014:42), there are signals of a “trans-semiotic system with many meaning-making signs, primarily linguistic ones that combine to make up a person’s semiotic repertoire”. This is evidenced in the Example 5 and Example 6, where there is a tendency by participants to use “meaning-making signs” in both Activity 1A (members of the group shared the same L1) and Activity 2A (members of the group had different L1s).

Example 5

The repetition of the word “you”:

2A4Z: *Wena, you are so good, okay, go girl.*

Translation: [You, you are so good, okay, go girl.]

2A5P: *And then wena, you take what?*

Translation: [And then you, you take what?]

Example 6

The use of the word “hey” in Afrikaans

2A4S: *Without a phone, haai no!*

Translation: [Without a phone, hey no!]

1A4T : *Haai, the lecturers and the teacher there is a difference.*

Translation: [Hey, the lecturers and the teacher there is a difference.]

The analysis of ELF features and translanguaging will be dealt with in more detail in Chapter 4 with the analysis of data.

3.6.3 Miscommunication and requests for clarification

Interaction between NSs and NNSs often leads to miscommunication, as confirmed by Gass and Varonis (1991:122) when they note that “[w]hen interlocutors do not share the same native language or the same sociocultural rules of discourse, the possibility for miscommunication is profound”. Often, their interactions are “peppered with interruptions for clarification of content or language form” (Gass & Varonis, 1991:122).

Two of the most prevalent reasons for problems in communication between NSs and NNSs are nonengagement and miscommunication (Gass & Varonis, 1991:123). Nonengagement

has two forms, namely noncommunication and communication breakoff. An example of noncommunication would be a student who does not understand the instructions for homework from a lecturer and then decides not to engage in conversation with the lecturer because he/she is unsure how to pronounce some of the words. Communication breakoff occurs when one of the people in the conversation terminates communication, for example, when a student addresses another student and discovers he/she is French speaking and only speaks very broken English, rather than trying to make themselves understood, the first student withdraws from the conversation.

Miscommunication, on the other hand, comprises of misunderstanding the message and an incomplete understanding of the message. Miscommunication occurs when the receiver of the message (hearer) incorrectly interprets the intention of the sender of the message (speaker), which could be due to a number of reasons (Gass & Varonis, 1991:125;126). With misunderstanding, there is disparity between what is said and what is heard, whereas incomplete understanding is a common phenomenon in communication between NSs and NNSs and it leads to the recognition by some or all of the interlocutors that the desired message has not been received correctly.

The recognition of communication problems could follow any one of the following paths:

- Immediate recognition of the problem but no comment
- Immediate recognition of the problem and make a comment
- Later recognition of the problem but no comment
- Later recognition of the problem and makes a comment
- No recognition of the problem (Gass & Varonis, 1991:139)

Miscommunication and the seeking of clarification from one or more of the parties involved in the communication process was dealt with very briefly in this section to elucidate why and how miscommunication occurs in multilingual interactions, specifically in the ELF situation. During the study that was conducted, there were many instances where two and even three people repeated the same words to ensure clarification. These examples will be analysed in the next chapter.

3.7 Conclusion

This chapter dealt with the research methodologies, ethical considerations and data collection procedures for the study. It included the processes for analysis of the collected data as well as underscoring the ELF features that are considered relevant to this study. The following chapter provides an analysis of the collected data focussing on the ELF features discussed in Section 3.6 of this study.

CHAPTER 4: DATA ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter reports on the results of the analysis of the collected data, which includes the linguistic repertoires of participants (as described in Chapter 3, Section 3.6.1), frequency and possible reasons for the occurrence of codeswitching (as described in Chapter 3, Section 3.6.2), and instances of miscommunication or misunderstandings that occurred, including requests for clarification during the interaction between members of the different groups (as described in Chapter 3, Section 3.6.3). Included in this chapter is a discussion of the participants and their language profiles, their interactions with each other in groups where they all had the same L1 as compared to their interactions in groups where the L1 of each member of the group differed.

In addition, an overall comparison will be made of the performance of the different groups on the allocated tasks and the participants' perceptions on working together in the different groups. The results of the data analysis will serve to address the primary research focus, namely whether diversity in languages is beneficial in an English lingua franca classroom, as well as providing answers to the secondary research questions:

- What linguistic resources are used in a group work situation in an English lingua franca classroom when participants of the same L1 work together in the same group?
- What linguistic resources are used in a group work situation in an English lingua franca classroom when participants who do not share an L1 work together in the same group?
- How do students in a group work situation experience their learning environment when placed in a group with participants who share their L1?
- How do students in a group work situation experience their learning environment when placed in a group with participants who do not share the same L1?
- What, if any, are the identifiable difference in the goal outcomes between learners who share the same L1 and work together in the same group and those learners who do not share the same L1 and work together in the same group?

4.2 Language profiles of participants

In an initial attempt to divide the participants into groups, a questionnaire was distributed where they were asked to indicate:

- Languages they are able to speak, and
- Languages they speak most often at home and with family members.

In order for this study to be conducted successfully, it was necessary to ensure that the students (a) were all fluent in the same home language for Activity 1, and (b) were not fluent in the other four language chosen for this study for Activity 2. However, it was discovered that the two questions were not suitable for choosing the participants for the different groups because it appears that very few students have only one home language, and many students are multilingual. The questionnaires completed by the students in one class indicated that only 3% of the students spoke a single language, 10% spoke two languages, 28% three languages, 23% four languages, 15% five languages, 18% six languages and 5% seven languages. This is depicted in Figure 4.1(a) and Figure 4.1(b) indicates the languages that students are able to speak.

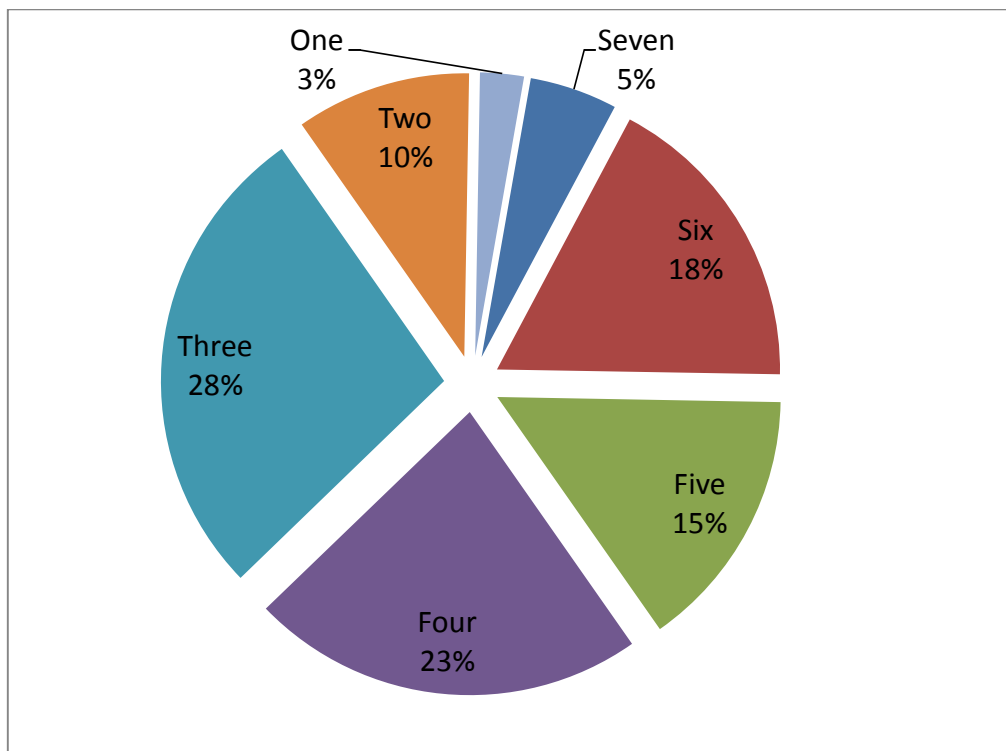


Figure 4.1(a): Initial survey: Number of languages students are able to speak

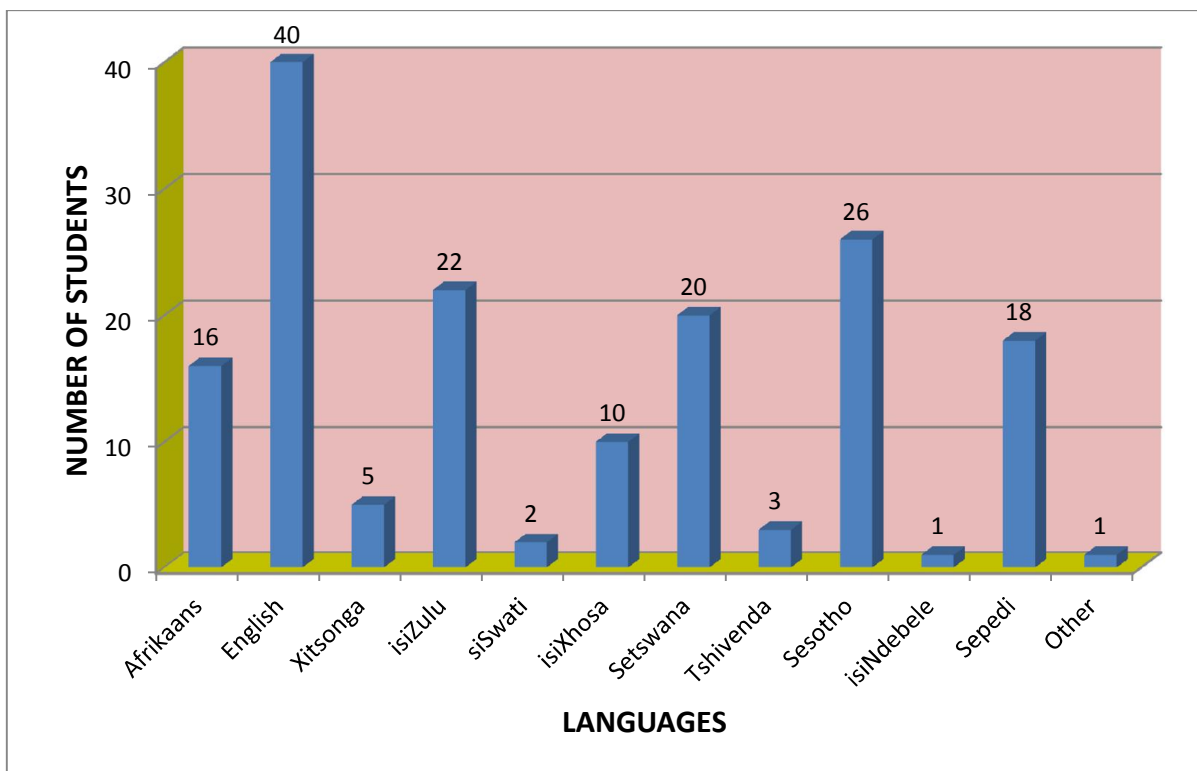


Figure 4.1(b): Initial survey: Languages of students in a class

When the survey referred to above was conducted, 40 students in the class returned their completed forms. While all 11 official languages of South Africa are represented in this one class, it is interesting to note that all 40 students state that they speak English but only 16 of the 40 the students claim to be able to speak Afrikaans, yet this is the language offered in most schools in the country as the second language.

Regarding the number of languages that this class of students consider their home language (L1), 30% indicated that they spoke one language, 45% spoke two home language, 20% spoke three home languages and 5% spoke four home languages, as depicted in Figure 4.2.

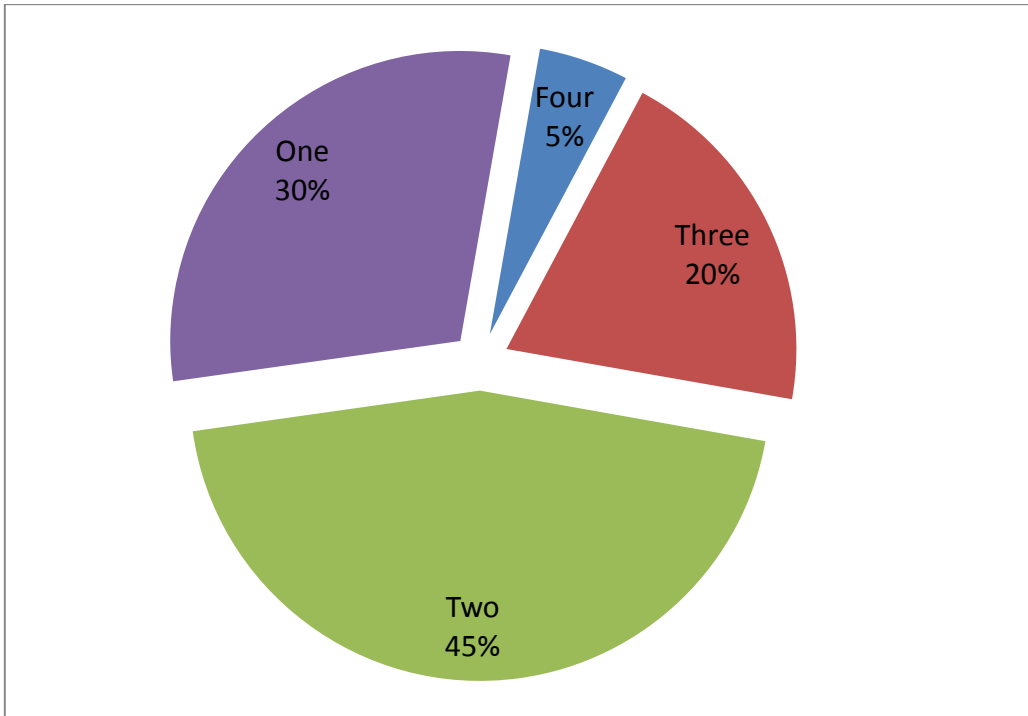


Figure 4.2: Initial survey: Number of home languages (L1s) in a class

The languages spoken at home by a single class of students are illustrated in Figure 4.3.

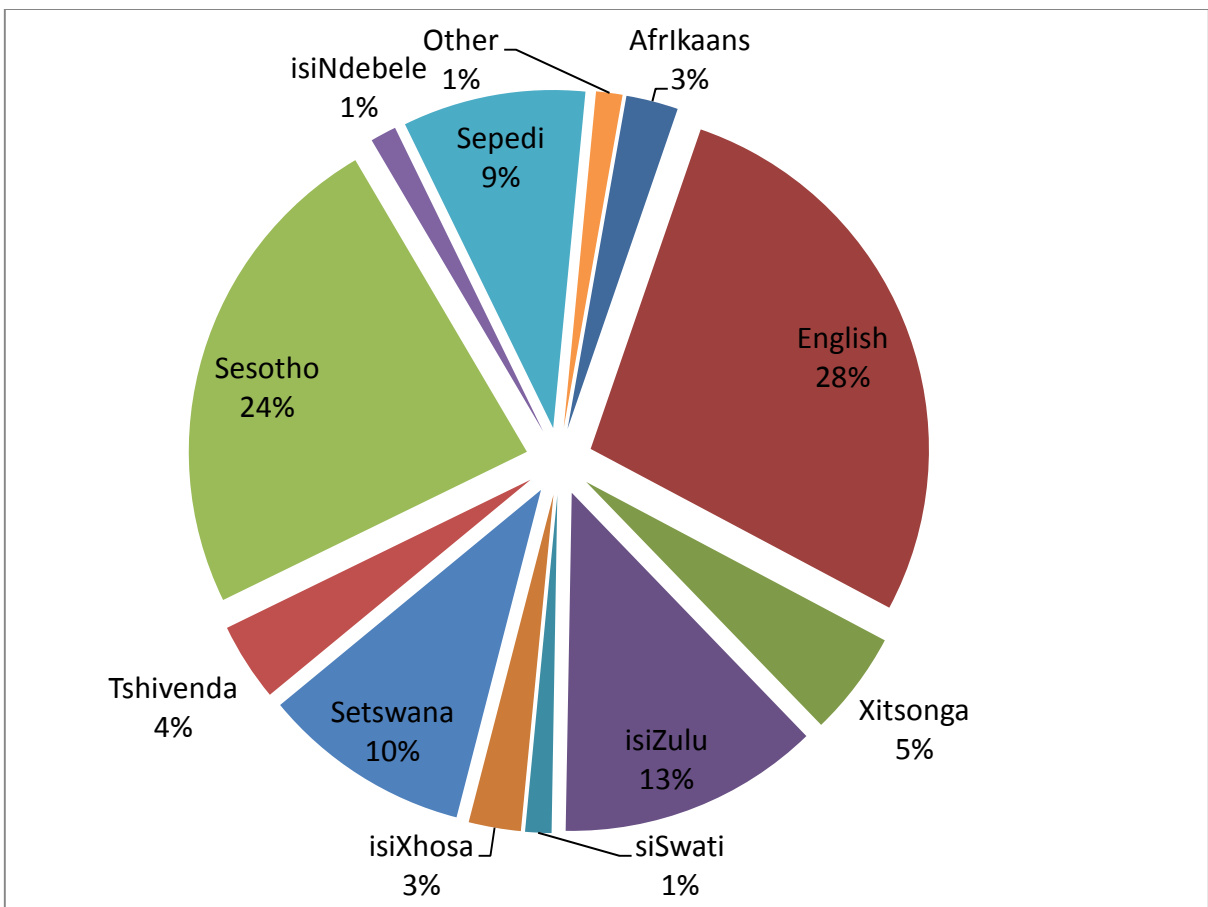


Figure 4.3: Initial survey: Home languages (L1s) in a class

It was established that 28% of the students claimed to speak English at home, 3% Afrikaans, 5% Xitsonga, 13% isiZulu, 1% siSwati, 3% isiXhosa, 10% Setswana, 4% Tshivenda, 24% Sesotho, 1% isiNdebele, 9% Sepedi and 1% claimed they spoke another language not listed under the 11 official languages.

The students needed to be allocated correctly into groups to ensure the optimal results for this study. Therefore, once it was established that the survey forms would not provide sufficient information to divide the students into appropriate groups because too many students claimed to speak too many languages, the researcher needed to conduct a verbal survey in the class, isolate the language the students were most fluent in from the languages they were less fluent in, and then only was it possible to divide them into groups. During this process, a number of students appeared confused or had difficulty isolating a single language in which they were most proficient. In addition, a number of students appeared to have difficulty deciding what language they speak at home or the language they are most fluent in at home. Some of the South African languages fall into groups:

- Nguni language group: isiNdebele, isiXhosa, siSwati, isiZulu;
- Sotho language groups: Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana;
- Languages that do not fall into groups: English, Afrikaans, Xitsonga and Tshivenda.

This indicates an understanding that there will be similarities between languages that fall into the same group, for example, languages that fall into the Nguni group will share similarities. Nevertheless, as a bilingual South African, the researcher recognises the misconceptions of herself and many other mono- or bilingual South Africans who are very clear on what their home language may be and assume that this is true for all South Africans. Mono- or bilingual South Africans regularly fill in forms where a request for ‘home language’ is a process that carries very little, if any, forethought before writing down a single answer as to their L1, this is obviously not the case for the majority of the South African population.

4.3 Collection of data

As specified in Chapter 3, the data were collected by videotaping two activities, evaluating the presentation by participants after each of the activities and the participants completing

questionnaires after the final activity. The next section will deal with the collection of data by videotaping the two activities.

4.4 Activity 1A and 2A

4.4.1 Linguistic repertoires

This section will report on the linguistic repertoires of participants during Activity 1A and 2A. The report will use the alphanumeric sticker information worn by the participants as set out in Section 3.4.3 as participant identifiers.

4.4.1.1 Activity 1A

During Activity 1A, in all the groups there were participants who used a combination of English, Afrikaans and their L1 while discussing topics. This is evident in the examples 7, 8, 9, 10 and 11 from each of the groups.

Example 7

1A1S: *Maar ne ntse retla ka ye ya disocial* {Afrikaans, Sesotho}

Translation: [But bring in the topic of social]

Example 8

1A4W: *Yes, **hoa le** difference, differently, in high school **né**, **ko** high school.*
{English, Setswana, Afrikaans}

Translation: [Yes, there is a difference, differently, in high school hey, at high school]

Example 9

1A3P: *Eya! **Ja!** Yes! Maybe five point three, six point three...* {Sepedi, Afrikaans, English}

Translation: [Yes! Yes! Yes! Maybe five point three, six point three ...]

Example 10

1A3Z: ***Ja!** *Ha ena, kumele sikhulume iqiniso, if akhona ama social life kumele siwa fake.** {isiZulu, English}

Translation: [Yes! No guys, we have to tell the truth, if we have social lives, we have to include them.]

Example 11

1A4T: *Hi khuluma nga daai ding uniform*, {Tsonga, Afrikaans, English}

Translation: [I'm talking about that thing, uniform]

In every group in this Activity (1A), the primary linguistic resource was that of the group, namely Sesotho, Sepedi, Setswana, isiZulu or Tsonga together with English and/or Afrikaans. A count of the number of words used by the members in the group for these languages revealed the information contained in Table 4.1 and displayed in Figure 4.4.

Table 4.1: Word count of linguistic repertoire of groups for Activity 1A

	GROUPS				
	Sesotho	Setswana	Sepedi	isiZulu	Tsonga
	NUMBER OF WORDS				
English	578	362	483	272	640
Afrikaans	12	6	11	5	23
L1	174	41	9	118	44
Total Words	764	409	503	395	707

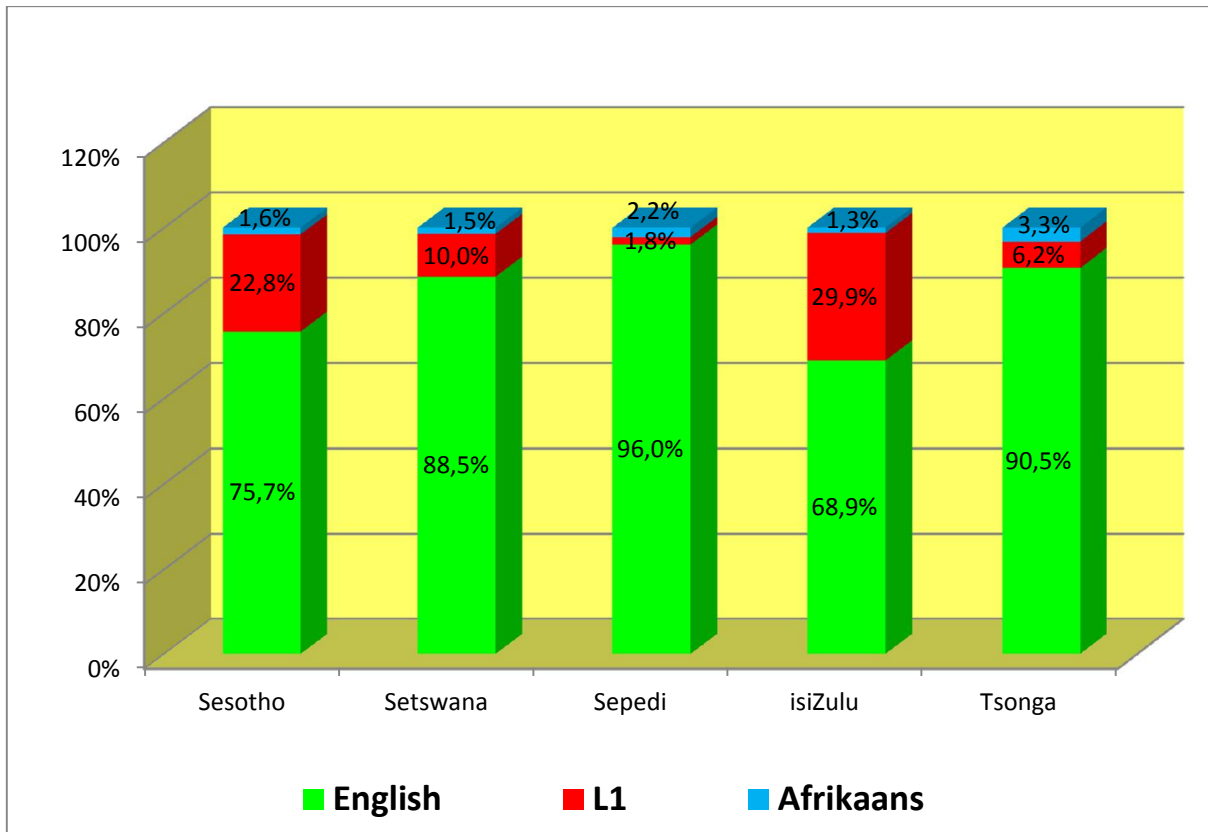


Figure 4.4: Linguistic repertoire of groups for Activity 1A

It can be observed that Afrikaans was only used rarely, namely 1.6% of the words for Sesotho group, 1.5% for the Setswana group, 2.2% for the Sepedi group, 1.3% for the isiZulu group and 3.3% for the Tsonga group.

English, on the other hand was spoken 75,7% of the time by the Sesotho group, 88,5% of the time by the Setswana group, 96% of the time by the Sepedi group, 68.9% of the time by the isiZulu group and 90,5% of the time by the Tsonga group. It should be mentioned at this point that the participants were never instructed to speak English; they were informed that the researcher was investigating their linguistic repertoire and were advised that they would be divided into groups according to their L1 for this purpose.

During Activity 1A, the researcher moved between the groups recording the interactions between the members of the groups. It became obvious that when the researcher moved away from the groups, the members appeared to revert to their L1, but as soon as she moved closer to them, they changed to English. This change is obvious in the background noises from the different groups during the recording, however, it is not clear enough to

transcribe. It appeared that there was an unspoken expectation by the participants that they were required to speak in English and this is evidenced by the following sentence (Example 12), where the participant appears to be warning the other members of the group that they should not be speaking their L1:

Example 12

1A2Z: *Sikhuluma Isizulu la!*

Translation: [Guys we are speaking Zulu here!]

4.4.1.2 Activity 2A

As mentioned previously, every attempt was made to duplicate Activity 2A as closely as possible to Activity 1A in order to attain results that could be compared. An analysis of the recordings for Activity 2A revealed some interesting information:

➤ A difference in linguistic repertoire

There was a difference in the linguistic repertoire of the participants between Activity 1A and Activity 2A. Table 4.2 indicates the number of words spoken by each group and Figure 4.5 indicates that the use of English during the activity for Group 1 was 82.8% of the time, Group 2 was 98.1% of the time, Group 3 was 71.9% of the time, Group 4 was 96.8% of the time and Group 5 was 92.3% of the time. The use of English by Group 3 was significantly lower than for the other groups, however, these did not appear to be any clear reason for this.

Table 4.2: Word count of linguistic repertoire of groups for Activity 2A

	GROUPS				
	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	Group 4	Group 5
	NUMBER OF WORDS				
English	424	721	271	754	168
Afrikaans	11	14	18	22	5
L1	77	0	88	22	9
Total Words	512	735	377	779	182

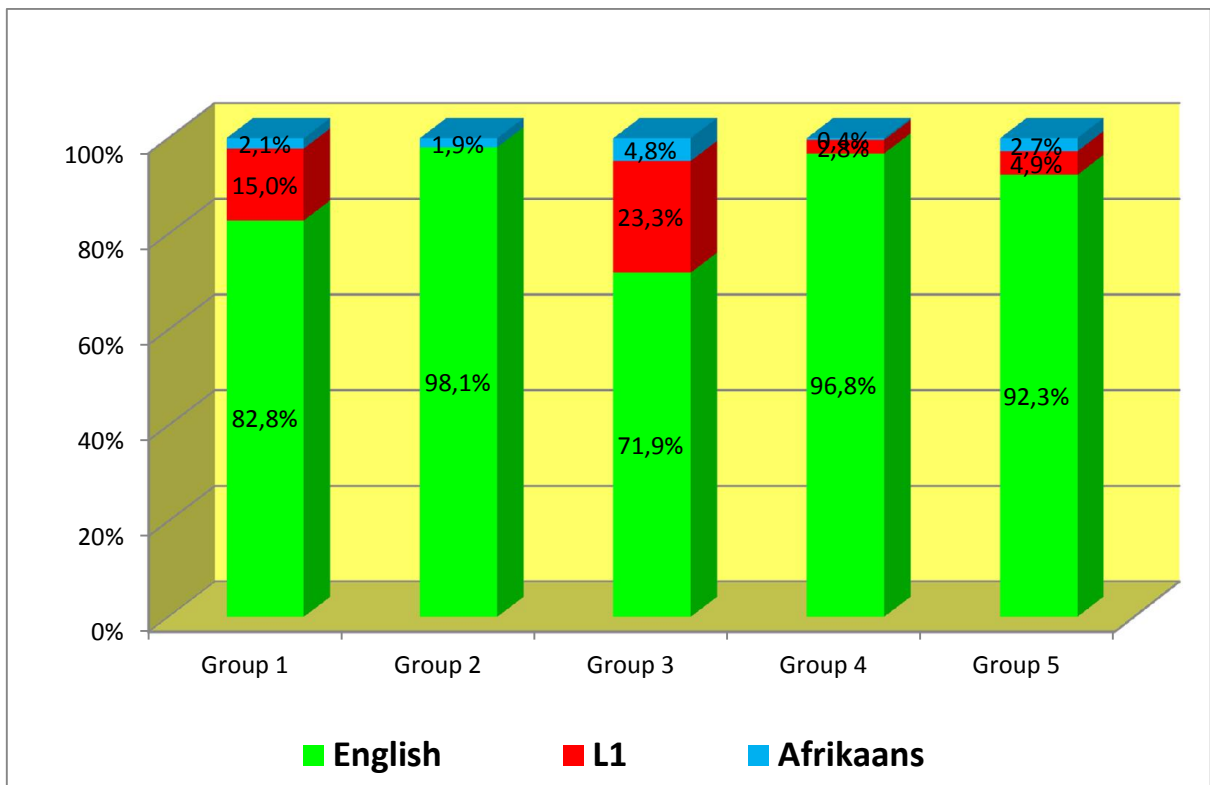


Figure 4.5: Linguistic repertoire of groups for Activity 2A

However, a comparison of the data for Activity 1A and Activity 1B reveals that the participants did not speak any more English during Activity 2A, they in fact spoke less in total during the activity and spoke more of their L1 in Activity 1A.

Table 4.3: Comparison of linguistic repertoire for Activity 1A and 2A

	ACTIVITY 1A	ACTIVITY 2A
English	2335	2338
L1	389	196
Afrikaans	57	51
TOTAL WORDS	2778	2585

➤ **Less interaction between group members**

There was a lot less interaction between the participants during Activity 2A than during Activity 1A. This was evident during the recording of the activity when the researcher noticed a marked difference in the noise level of the participants and noted this down. Transcribing the recordings was much easier for Activity 2A than it was for Activity 1A because there was less background noise. Analysis of the recordings revealed many instances of little or no interaction between the group members and at times the interaction appeared strained or only took place between two members of the group as with Example 13:

Example 13

2A1P: *The quality he won't be able to read it.*

2A1S: *Ja.*

Translation: [Yes.]

2A1P: *The quality is very bad.*

2A1S: *Ja, eish.*

Translation: [Yes, slang for something like 'Oh, dear' – no translation available]

2A1P: *But, anyways, ja.*

Translation: [But, anyways, yes.]

[Comment: This is followed by another long pause where no one speaks, then 1T and 1W start speaking quietly to each other {inaudible}]

In another group (Example 14), one person tries to get the other members of the group involved in a discussion on preparing for the presentation, and continuously waits for answers but does not receive any:

Example 14

2A4S: *I think we should live a lot. I think what we should write about, we also need to live a bit more and actually be more social in order just to what you call apparently **hakere re tlameha re tho le** [Translation: we must receive a call] and we should think back, what, how positive it can be and how negative it can be. [Long pause but no one answers]. Cause I wrote, can we really live without cell phones and now that we have become addicts to cell phones [pauses]. What do we say after that? [Pauses again but no one answers]. What do you wanna do? [Still no answer from the group].*

➤ **Participants interacting with each other rather than with the group**

There were a number of instances where participants spoke very quietly to each other and excluded the other members of the group – as indicated in the example above that took place between 2A1S and 2A1P. These interactions were also too quiet for transcription or even identification of which aspect of their linguistic repertoire was used.

➤ **No participation by some group members**

Some of the participants interacted very seldom with members of the group, such as in Group 4 where participant 4T did not participate in any of the interactions between the group members, and in Group 5, participant 5T only spoke twice, the first time in answer to being told each person must take two topics (Example 15):

Example 15

2A5T: *Two? Okay I take advantages and disadvantages.*

The rest of the time the participant had his head down and was reading or writing until (s)he spoke for the second time and announced (Example 16):

Example 16

2A5T: *I'm done.*

➤ **More gesturing and pointing**

During Activity 2A, it was noticed that participants appeared to point more or gesture to each other as in this example (Example 17) where the participant points to the instruction paper:

Example 17

2A4Z: *What's this? [pointing], a hobby, play guitar, Right! There's a lot of ... sho! Don't say there's no advantages, right there [pointing again]*

In Example 18, the one participant does not answer, but rather points, causing the other participant to check that he is understanding correctly:

Example 18

2A5P *You'll take the conclusion né. Just also take the introduction because it's going to be short and short. Sharp, then I'll take ... which two can you take?*

2A5Z: [No answer, points to paper.]

2A5P: *This one, né? And which one?*

2A5Z: [Shrugs]

➤ **A difference in the number of languages used**

During Activity 1A, all the members of each of the groups used English, Afrikaans or their L1 when communicating with each other. However, during Activity 2A, the linguistic repertoires of the members of some of the groups were extended to the L1s of other members in the group such as in Example 19:

Example 19

2A3Z: *No, **hakere, onore wa buwa buwa.***

Translation: [No, (take note) you wanted to say something, say it.]

2A3S: *Ja, introduction, conclusion, first, second [pointing]*

2A3W: ***Ene wa nthusa, wautlwa***

Translation: [You are really helping me you know].

This conversation started with the Zulu participant speaking English, then Zulu, the Sesotho participant answered in Afrikaans then in English and the Setswana participant responds in Sesotho.

In a further interaction, the following were recorded (examples 20 to 24):

Example 20

2A1S: *Di ja batho ditho tsea. I don't like MTN 100 percent what, what. Di a ja daai ding 100 percent.*

Translation: [They eat people that thing (direct translation). I don't like MTN 100 percent what, what. They eat people that thing 100 percent].

In Example 21, the Sesotho participant makes a statement in Sesotho and repeats part of the statement in Afrikaans.

Example 21

2A1W: *Ha di je. No 100 percent not.*

Translation: [No, they don't eat [people]. No 100 percent not.]

The Setswana participant answers the Sesotho participant in Sesotho (Example 22).

Example 22

2A1T: *Di etsang?*

Translation: [What are they doing?]

The Tsonga participant asks a question in Sesotho (Example 23).

Example 23

2A1W: *O bela for free.*

Translation: [You phone for free.]

The Setswana participant then answers using the Afrikaans word 'bel' as slang (Example 24).

In Example 24 for Group 4, the Sesotho participant asks a question in English and the Zulu participant answers with the combination of Sesotho and English.

Example 24

2A4S: *Even though an advantage is what?*

2A4Z: *Then **ke keny**e a reason.*

Translation: [Then I must give a reason.]

4.4.1.3 Activity 1B and Activity 2B

The participants spoke English during the presentations, Activities 1B and 2B, for all the groups, even though this was not specified in any of the instructions.

4.4.2 Codeswitching

Codeswitching can be intersentential (between sentences or clauses) or intrasentential (within a sentence or a clause), as discussed by researchers a number of researchers (Wardhaugh, 2006; De Kadt, 2005; Van Gass, 2002; Moodley, 2010; Rassool, 2004). A number of instances of these codeswitching occurrences were recorded during Activity 1A and Activity 2A. These occurrences are reported on in examples 24 to 36, together with possible reasons on why the codeswitching would occur.

➤ Intrasentential codeswitching

Example 25

1A4Z: *Awu naso isikhathi sama extra-murals, **uhlala wenza umsebenzi wesikole** pressure, social life ... {isiZulu, English}*

Translation: [You don't have time for extramurals, you are always busy with school work pressure, social life...]

The isiZulu participant switched between isiZulu and English because the instructions were in English and these words appeared on the instruction sheet. It was possibly easier for the participants to use these words in English, rather than to translate them, alternatively, there may be a possibility the participants “do not know a specific word or

words in the communication language” as alluded to by Rassool (2004:210). This type of codeswitching occurred a number of times with the other groups, as in examples 25 to 28.

Example 26

1A1S: *A ione a kanna a etsa introduction and conclusion.* {Sesotho, English}

Translation: [One can take the introduction and conclusion.]

The Sesotho participant in this example is switching from Sesotho to English while (s)he discusses the aspects of the presentation with the rest of the group. The words introduction/conclusion are printed on the instruction sheet and (s)he adds the “and” in English.

Example 27

1A4T: *Wena ne lekhu okulchulumayo seku famba, hamba kuma financial issues.*
{Tsonga, English}

Translation: [What you are saying now is more financial issues.]

The Tsonga participant in this group activity used his/her L1 for the majority of the sentence until (s)he came across the words that were printed on the instruction sheet and used the English version of the words. There is a possibility (s)he found it easier to read the words “financial issues” than to try and translate them into the L1.

Example 28

2A3S: *If a nka negative, then mona o thon ka di advantage tse positive.* {English, Sesotho}

Translation: [If (s)he takes negatives then (s)he will take positive advantages.]

The intrasentential codeswitching in this sentence by the Sesotho participant occurred as a combination of reading the words on the instructions such as “negative”, advantage” and “positive”, but also adding a number of other English words combined with his/her L1, Sesotho.

Example 29

1A4P: *It won't be five, it won't, it won't, **hakere dilo** advantages and disadvantages **tje dipowerful not gore**.* {English, Sepedi}

Translation: [It won't be five, it won't, it won't [listen up] things, advantages and disadvantages, they must be powerful not weak].

In this example, the Sepedi participant was trying to get a point across to fellow group members that they needed to put more effort into the preparation. In order to get their attention he/she used the words “hakere dilo” to make them take note and then emphasise the words “powerful” and “weak” by using the Sepedi L1.

Example 30

1A5S: *Okay **Mamelang hee**. Practice, practice, check **né**.* {English, Sesotho, Afrikaans}

Translation: Okay listen. Practice, practice, check, okay.

This participant was an active leader in the group and took on the role of telling the others what to do and reassuring them. It appears that (s)he want to get their attention and does this by switching to their L1, Sesotho, then (s)he confirms they understand by switching to Afrikaans when telling them to do a lot of practising.

Further examples of intrasentential codeswitching occurred for different reasons as discussed in examples 31 to 37.

Example 31

1A3W: *Ja, I feel like, I feel like, ... do or die, like there's no one like **otlo go botsang gore** what are you doing, when are you coming to class, where were you. Nobody cares!* {Afrikaans, English, Setswana}

Translation: Yes, I feel like, I feel like, do or die, like there's no one, like no one is going to ask you what you are doing, when you are coming to class, where were you. Nobody cares!

As this participant is delivering a monologue, trying to get the other participants to understand how (s)he feels about being at university, it is possible the Setswana codeswitching is for impact and to convey feeling. Rassool (2004:210) lists excitement and

a lively mental state as a reason for codeswitching, or it could just be that the codeswitching is to create impact in the monologue.

Example 32

1A4W: *It's what, Tuesday? **Ka** three?* {English, Setswana}

Translation: [It's what, Tuesday? At three?]

In this example, the Setswana participant appears to add the word “Ka” to the sentence for emphasis, stressing that the meeting should be at three. This could be to ensure the attention of the other members is sustained.

Example 33

1A5S: *And please don't stutter you guys, no like looking about knowing you're gonna go and stuff like that. If you know **hore** after this {name} because everybody should know **hore** everybody [indistinct]. We all must know **hore** I say this, I'm gonna say this, I say that you must all have that. **Hore** in order for you to know **hore** ha {name} has a **qeta ho bua 2015 wena o bo sontso o ya pele**. {English, Sesotho}*

Translation: [And please don't stutter you guys, no like looking about knowing you're gonna go and stuff like that. If you know that after this {name} because everybody should know that everybody [indistinct]. We all must know that I say this, I'm gonna say this, I say that you must all have that. That in order for you to know that {name} has a last word of 2015, then the next person starts with speaking right after, and just carries on.]

This participant spent a lot of time telling everyone what to do and where to stand, and possibly wants to make sure they understand their instructions. (S)he probably uses the word ‘hore’ [Translation: that] throughout for emphasis, or to retain their attention.

Whereas in Activity 1A the participants spoke English, Afrikaans and the L1 of the group, in Activity 2A, the participants codeswitched between their own and other L1s, depending on who they were addressing in the group, as follows:

Example 34

2A3W: *Watseba hore the cellphone costs so much cause nou tjena ke bo die S5 kebo costs R15000 wabana. E ya costa! Uzonyenza i cost angitha?*
 {Setswana, English, Afrikaans, isiZulu}

Translation: [You know that the cellphone costs so much cause now of late the S5 costs R15000 you know. It costs! You will then do costing for us.]

This participant starts off in Setswana and English, but in the last sentence (s)he turns to the isiZulu member of the group and addresses him/her in isiZulu. There is a probability that this is done to ensure (s)he understands the instructions. Gardner-Chloros (2009:202) states that communicative purposes could be the reason for participants to switch between two or more languages.

Example 35

2A1S: *Twenty? Ah! For **mina ihlala boma** 7 minutes.* {English and Zulu}

Translation: [With me it lasts about 7 minutes.]

The participant was addressing an isiZulu participant and switched to a few words of isiZulu. This could be to make sure (s)he is better understood, but there is also the possibility that it is intended to create a better working relationship with the other person in the group.

Example 36

2A3Z: *Ke format. Computer **kanti kwenzakalani** ngaye?* {Sesotho, English, Zulu}

Translation: [It's format. Computer, what's going on with him?]

This participant moves from Sesotho to English and then to Zulu. The reasons for this is that (s)he possibly wanted to ensure (s)he was understood by the other members of the group and it could also be a desire to include the other members of the group.

Example 37

2A3Z: *Okay, that will be tomorrow afternoon, maar I don't think **ukuthi** there's a need **ukuthi si meete umuntu uiyazi kukuthi uzo yenzani**. {English, Afrikaans, Zulu}*

Translation: [Okay, that will be tomorrow afternoon, but I don't think there's a need for us to meet because everyone knows what they are going to say]

This isiZulu speaker had been doing a lot of speaking to the rest of the group and there is a possibility that (s)he found it easier to switch between languages from English back to the L1 that (s)he was more comfortable with.

➤ **Intersentential codeswitching**

The following are examples of intersentential codeswitching (examples 38 to 41) that occurred during Activity 1 and Activity 2 with possible reasons for the switching of codes. It should be noted that intersentential codeswitching occurred less frequently than intrasentential codeswitching.

Example 38

1A1S: *We discuss what you going to wear.*

1A2S: *Okay.*

1A1S: ***Hare geteng***. {Sesotho}

Translation: [Time – let's finish]

In this instance, the participants are discussing the preparations for the presentation. Participant 1S, having Sesotho as his/her L1, switches to Sesotho. Rassool (2004:210) states a possible reason for this as the speaker wanting to exclude someone from the conversation and in this instance it could be that the speaker was trying to make sure the researcher did not hear what (s)he was saying to the group.

In Example 38, the participants, in a conversation with each other, all switch between the English and isiZulu, except for 5Z, who does not change from isiZulu:

Example 39

- 1A1Z: *Oh, sorry!*
- 1A5Z: *Um{name} bani? {name and surname}?*
- Translation: [{Name} who? {name and surname}?]
- 1A3Z: *Haai, akusi hu {surname} ho {surname} lo.*
- Translation: No, it's not {surname}, this one is {surname}.
- 1A1Z: *Just your name, 1A...*
- 1A5Z: *Qabanga, qabanga, besizo zibala.*
- Translation: Come to think of it, we were going to write them.
- 1A3Z: *Oh, this is ...*
- 1A5Z: *Buka buka baya ku videorisa uzo khuluma yanke lento.*
- Translation: Look, look, they are videoing you talking of this.
- 1A1Z: *{Name}, {name repeated} number one, {name repeated}*
- 1A3Z: *Balu u {name} nje.*
- Translation: [Just write {name}]
- 1A5Z: *{Name} beso ubhale u N/A la?*
- Translation: [{Name}, did you also write N/A here as well?]
- 1A3Z: *{Name}, you are number one.*

This conversation was the only instance during the entire activity that participant 5Z was recorded as saying anything. There is a possibility that this participant is not as fluent in English as the other group members are, which would also account for the lack of participation within the group.

In Example 40, participant 1T was recorded speaking in isiZulu when addressing the isiZulu member of the group and then changing back to English.

Example 40

- 2A1T: *Awungi surfele yona lapho. {isiZulu}*
- Translation: [Just surf on the Internet for me].
- 2A1T: *Costs that are associated with the Internet*

This participant, a Tsonga L1 speaker, speaks isiZulu because (s)he was addressing the isiZulu member of the group, then (s)he turns to the rest of the group and switches back to

English when addressing them. The reason could be that (s)he wants to ensure understanding because (s)he is making a request to the isiZulu speaker, but when interacting with the group (s)he changes back to English.

In Example 41, the participant codeswitched to Sesotho when speaking to a participant whose L1 was Sesotho, then back to English when speaking to the Setswana participant.

Example 41

2A1T: *It's completely gone.*

2A1S: *Nna fifteen rand enka three minutes, eh!* {Sesotho, English}

Translation: [For me, 15 rand takes three minutes then it is done.]

2A1Z: *Wabona.* {Sesotho}

Translation: [You see.]

2A1S: *N ke founetse MTN to MTN.* {Sesotho, English}

Translation: [Even calling MTN to MTN.]

2A1Z: *Ha eje!* {Sesotho}

Translation: [No, they're not!]

2A1W: *Buya a bundle then it goes there. E ya ropa Internet hell.* {English, Setswana}

Translation: [It robs you – Internet hell.]

2A1Z: *Go to social network, it's better.*

In this interaction, the Sesotho participant speaks Sesotho and English, the isiZulu participant responds in Sesotho, the Sesotho member answers in Sesotho and English, the isiZulu participant again responds in Sesotho, the Setswana participant joins the conversation and speaks in English and Setswana, to which the isiZulu participant responds in English without switching to Sesotho.

During the presentation (Activity 1B), there was an incident of intersentential codeswitching when a participant, who was presenting in English, stated the following (Example 42):

Example 42

1B1S: *There is a proverb that the lecturers won't understand but you will [pointing to the class]. U motho ke motho ka batho.* {English, Sesotho}

When asked to translate the proverb, the participant was unable to answer and did not even attempt to answer but rather turned to the audience. When someone offered to answer, the participant asked him to supply a translation, which was:

Unknown audience member: *A person is not a person without other people.*

This is of interest because the participant assumed that everyone in the class, other than the two lecturers present, would understand the proverb. The saying was delivered in Sesotho to a class of students with different L1s with the assumption, by the Sesotho participant, that everyone would be able to understand the language. When called upon to translate, the participant was unable to translate his own “proverb” into English and had to rely on a member of the audience.

4.4.3 Miscommunication and/or Clarification

As stated in Chapter 3, Section 3.6.3, the interactions of NSs and NNSs are often interspersed by interruptions and requests for elucidation (Gass & Varonis, 1991:122). There were many instances throughout both Activity 1A and 2A where participants repeated what was said or asked for clarification to avoid misunderstandings. Some examples of these follow (examples 43 to 52).

Example 43

1A3P: *I'll present the social life.*

1A2P: *Why not everything? Why not everything?*

1A3P: *The time is limited; seven minutes.*

1A1P: *The time is short.*

In Example 43, 2P repeats a question twice, 3P answers the question and 1P clarifies the answer to ensure it is understood. This occurs again in the same group (see Example 44)

when 5P repeats what was said, 1P answers, 5P repeats it in a different way and 3P shows irritation by indicating that (s)he understood in the first place.

Example 44

- 1A5P: *Okay, seven minutes. So, like our presentation must be seven minutes.*
 1A1P: *Oh!*
 1A5P: *So, our points must not be a lot.*
 1A3P: *Okaaaay [drawn out].*

In Example 45, 5S continually checks that the person she is speaking to understand what she is saying, even to the point of rephrasing what is being said:

Example 45

- 1A5S: *That is why we said, that is why we said, that varsity you become independent. Right? And you leave your ... Like you're from Rustenburg, right? You left Rustenburg to come live in the Vaal. You cook for yourself. You do your own laundry. You understand? And its emoti.... Like its draining you emotionally at times, even if you don't talk about it sometimes you miss home. **Hakere?** And the workload? Depression kicks in.*

In Example 46, participant 3W repeats the exact words of 2W and it is difficult to understand why this would occur, but this could a common communication occurrence that occurs between NSs and NNSs leading to the interlocutor believing there has been some form of miscommunication and the receiver has not adequately received the message; hence, repeating the message or parts thereof (Gass & Varonis, 1991:125;126).

Example 46

- 1A1W: *So, they don't even care if you are in class or not, so high school...*
 1A3W: ***Teng wa lebala.***
 Translation: [You even forget.]
 1A2W: ***Teng wa lebala.***
 Translation: [You even forget.]

In Example 47, the participants demonstrate how they assist each other in understanding the meaning of a word when 2T uses the word socialising, 3T questions whether it means friend, 2T confirms that it does and 3T again asks whether socialising means friends.

Example 47

- 1A2T: *Socialising!*
 1A3T: *Um! Friend, those sort of things?* [questioning]
 1A2T: *Socialising, ja socialising.* [confirming]
 1A3T: *Friends socialising?* [making sure]

In Example 48, the participants again demonstrate how they assist each other to ensure there is no miscommunication and words are understood. Participant 3Z uses the word “conclusion” with an explanation of what it means, 4Z acknowledges and repeats that it is okay, but 3Z goes on to provide “summary” as the synonym for “conclusion” and 4Z uses the word “summary” to try and ensure 3Z knows the word is correctly understood.

Example 48

- 1A3Z: *Okay, in con- conclusion, you want to sum up everything.*
 1A4Z: *Oh, okay, then it's okay.*
 1A3Z: *It's like the summary.*
 1A4Z: *It summarises everything.*

In Example 49, 1Z finishes the sentence for 1P and 1P includes further information as to what has been said, to ensure there is no miscommunication and everything that is being said is understood.

Example 49

- 2A1P: *So, we go and we jot down what we write down what, which is today and have it done by tomorrow so we can, you know ...*
 2A1Z: *Correct ourselves and suggestions*
 2A1P: *Yeah! And add on one another's speeches.*

Example 50 demonstrates how in this section of the activity there appears to be a misunderstanding on what 2S wants the group to do:

Example 50

- 2A2W: When?
- 2A2S: *On the day of the presentation.*
- 2A2T: *How?*
- 2A2W: *Just like act it out?*
- 2A2T: *Give us example.*
- 2A2S: *Okay, like ah, we'll have someone, since I'll be doing the introduction and also the point of negative aspects né.*
- 2A2T: *What will you do?*
- 2A2S: *I'll have, let's say all of you hold cellphones. You all have cellphones, right?*
- 2A2T: *Ja.*
- 2A2S: *The role-playing role will basically emphasise my point.*
- 2A2T: *Oh! Now I'm getting you.*

In Example 51, the participant 5P has to try to get 5Z to understand the use of the word faxing.

Example 51

- 2A5P: *Faxing involves Internet services?*
- 2A5Z: *Ha? Faxing?*
- 2A5P: *Faxing, like when you fax, so does it involve Internet?*
- 2A5Z: *Ja.*

Even though there appear to be many instances where the participants are unsure of what is being said, they do not appear to have problems clarifying issues that they may lack an understanding of, and ensuring that the other members understand what they are saying as well. This clarification is evident in the results of Activities 2A and 2B, where the participants were evaluated on the presentation.

4.5 Activity 2A and 2B – The Presentation

Each activity (1A and 2A) culminated in a presentation by the groups, which was evaluated by the lecturer and a colleague. The results were then analysed by assessing the overall averages of all groups in Activity 1A and all groups in Activity 2A, then comparing the two averages to understand whether participants performed better in a group where all the members spoke the same L1 or in a group where each member of the group spoke a different L1. The marks attained by each of the groups for Activity 1B and Activity 2B are set out in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Marks for Activity 1B and 2B - Presentations

MARKS : ACTIVITY 1B		
GROUP	L1	%
GROUP 1	Sesotho	92
GROUP 2	Setswana	92
GROUP 3	Sepedi	84
GROUP 4	isiZulu	76
GROUP 5	Tsonga	72
MARKS : ACTIVITY 2B		
GROUP	L1	%
GROUP 1	Mixed L1s	76
GROUP 2	Mixed L1s	92
GROUP 3	Mixed L1s	76
GROUP 4	Mixed L1s	88
GROUP 5	Mixed L1s	72

A comparison between the overall differences between these results is presented in Figure 4.6.

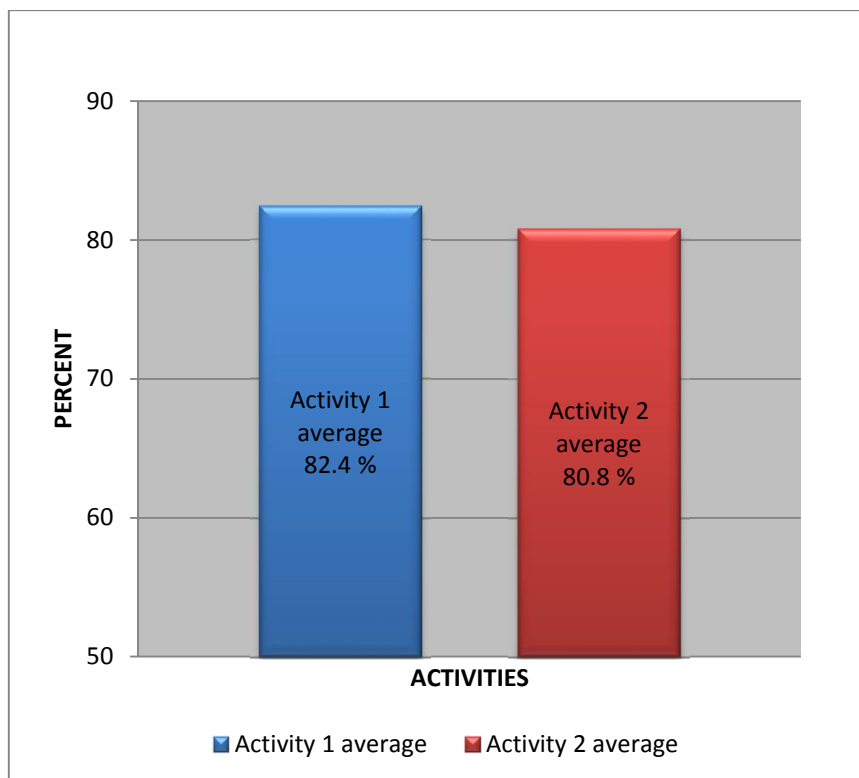


Figure 4.6: Comparison between the overall averages of groups during Activity 1B and Activity 2B

From these results it can be noted that the groups in Activity 1B scored a slightly higher overall percentage with 82,4% than the groups in Activity 2B who scored an average of 80,8%.

Points of interest regarding these presentations are the following:

➤ **Marks**

The Council on Higher Education (2002:4) states:

The role of language and access to language skills is critical to ensure the right of individuals to realise their full potential to participate in and contribute to the social, cultural, intellectual, economic and political life of South African society.

Different legislation and departments echo these sentiments and advocate the promotion of public speaking for learners to ensure the holistic education of the student who is able to function in the outside world with skills learned at educational institutions. As educational institutions place significant emphasis on public speaking for students, these students learn from a young age to rehearse, use cue cards and give presentations. Therefore, the higher scores attained by each of the groups in Table 4.4 comes as no surprise; this is a common occurrence, especially in instances where the presentation occurs in a group situation. Limitations are placed on time and students are penalised if presentations are too long or too short, but no limitations are placed on the amount of time each participant speaks. Students learn very quickly to identify their strongest speakers in the group, giving them the introduction and conclusion, and allowing the weaker members to only speak for short periods of time, thereby ensuring the entire group is not penalised by group members with poor speaking abilities. The presentations for both Activity 1B and 2B were well-rehearsed; students spoke well and were familiar with the content. The majority of remarks suggesting improvement that were recorded on the mark lists by the assessors were to remind participants to speak slower, stand still, fidget less, make more eye contact with the audience, be more formal and read less.

➤ **Students with strong English language abilities**

It was observed that the same members who took control of groups in Activities 1A because of their good English language skills, were the members of the group who did the majority of the presentation and did so with confidence. This was observed in a number of groups. For example, group member 5S did most of the talking in the Sesotho group during Activity 1A, warned the group members not to stutter and urged them to practice. During Activity 1B, (s)he clearly took control of the group, told them where to stand and what to do, and then did the majority of the talking during the presentation. During Activity 2A, even though it was the group with members who each had a different L1, this participant again took control of the group and followed through to doing most of the speaking in Activity 2B. This phenomenon was observed in some of the other groups as well and there appears to be a correlation between the English language skills of group members and them taking control and exercising leadership abilities over the groups in a tertiary classroom. It also appears that the group members who are not as skilled in English speaking abilities are less likely to take over a leadership role in the group.

4.6 Results of questionnaire

At the end of the activities, participants were requested to complete a questionnaire that provided insight into the demographic details of participants, the languages they are able to speak, read and write and their perceptions of the groups in which they were required to work. The results of these questionnaires follows.

4.6.2 Gender of participants

The sample selection was performed based on the L1 of participants and as noted in Figure 4.7, of the 25 participants chosen for the sample, 10 were male and 15 were female.

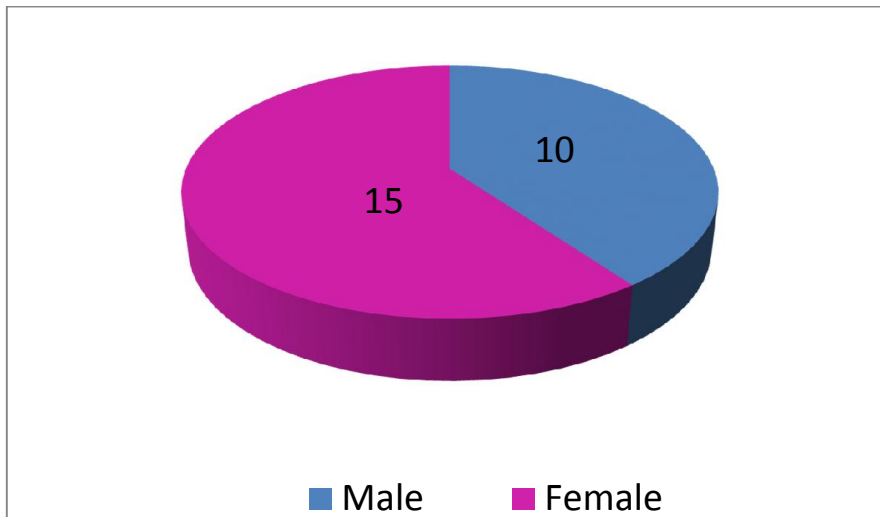


Figure 4.7: Gender of Participants

4.6.3 Age of participants

The participants for this study varied in age from 18 to 22+ years old. As depicted in Figure 4.8, 4 participants were 18 years old, 3 were 19, 9 were 20, 4 were 21 and 5 were 22 years and older.

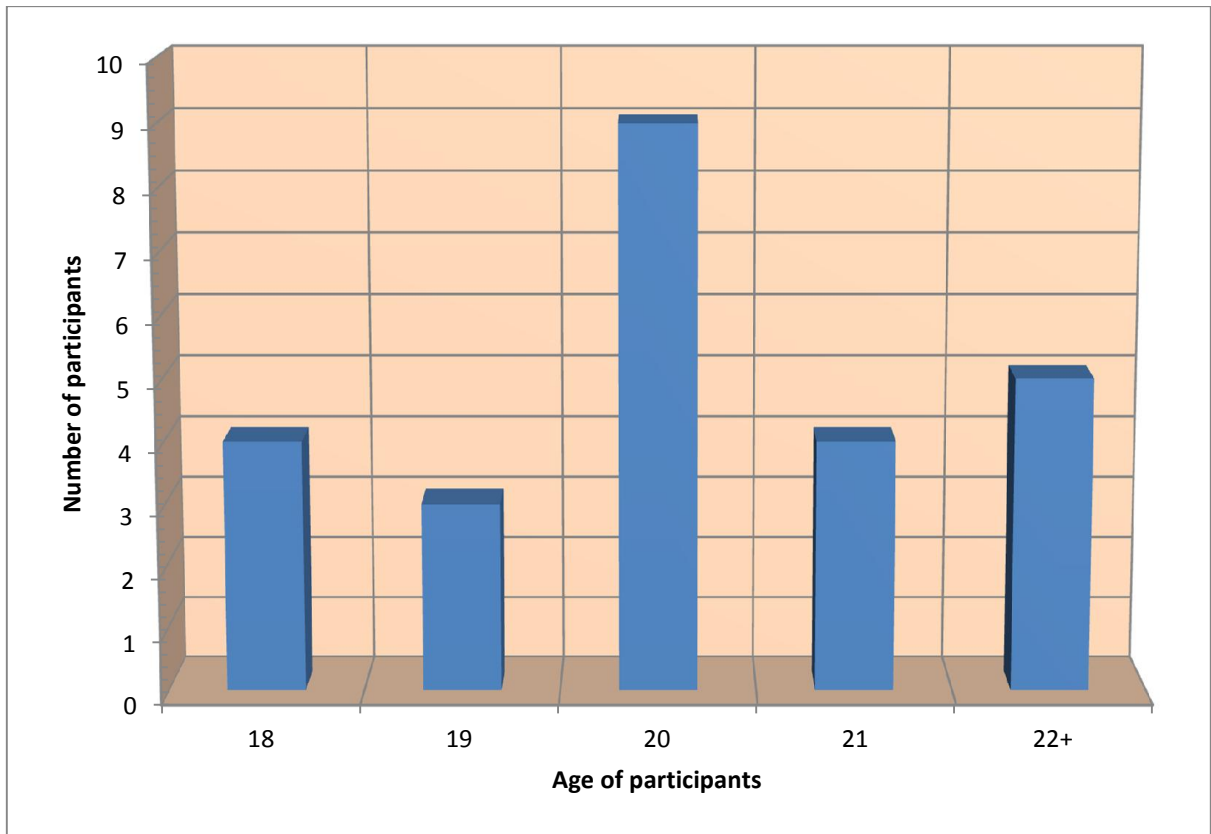


Figure 4.8: Age of participants

4.6.4 L1 of the participants' parents

The participants were asked to indicate the L1 of their mother and 24 of the 25 participants marked that their mothers had only one L1, while one participant indicated that their mother had four L1s. On the question of what their father's L1 was, 22 participants indicated that their fathers only had one L1, one participant indicated that his/her father had two L1s and two participants did not indicate L1s for their fathers. This information is contained in Figure 4.8, which indicates the L1 for the mothers and fathers of participants and how many speak the languages.

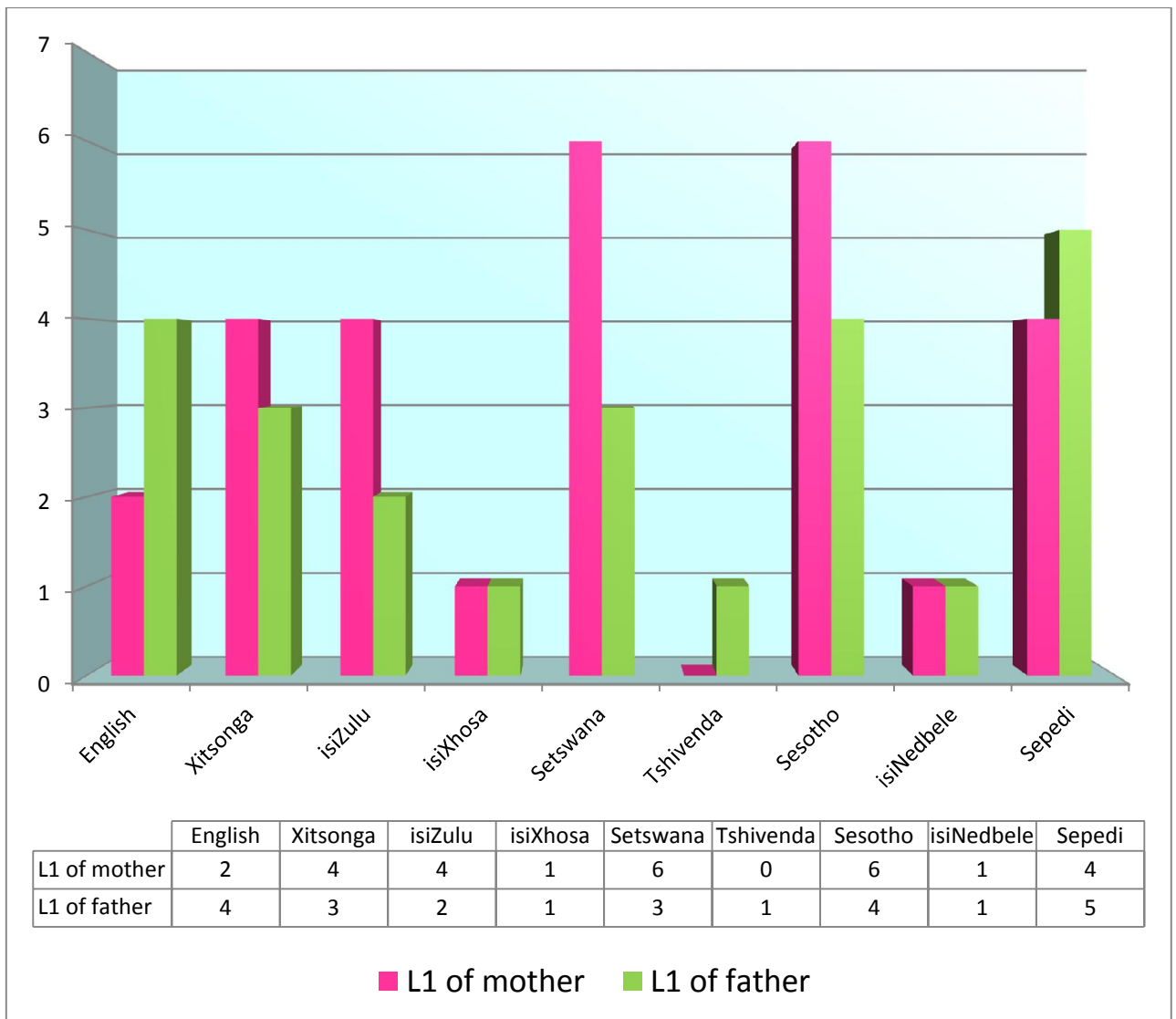


Figure 4.9: L1 of participant’s parents

4.6.5 Number of languages spoken by the participants

The participants were asked to rate the languages they are able to speak. As shown in Figure 4.10, 60% (n=15) participants indicated that they were able to speak 11 languages, 4% (n=1) indicated they could speak 10 languages, 12% (n=3) indicated they could speak 9 languages, 4% (n=1) indicated they could speak 7 languages, 16% (n=4) indicated that they could speak four languages and 4% (n=1) indicated they could speak three languages.

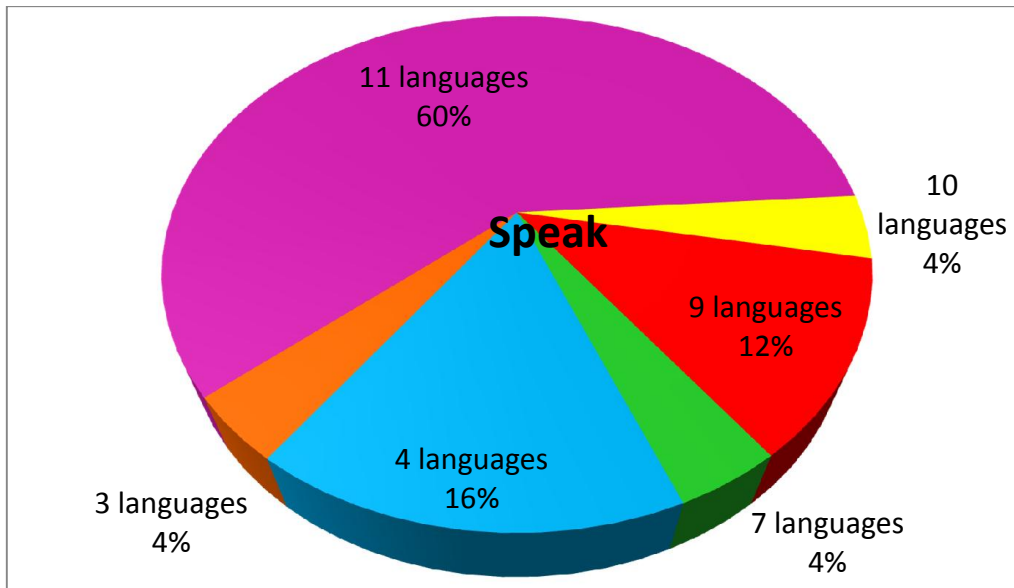


Figure 4.10: Number of Languages spoken by Participants

Even though the majority of the participants claim to be able to speak 7, 9, 10 or 11 languages, when they were required to rate how well they spoke these languages, the following interesting facts that arose are highlighted:

- 17 of the 25 participants rated themselves excellent or good in the English, and able to cope in the classroom.
- 2 participants rated themselves average, indicating that they could have problems studying in English, 1 participant rated himself/herself as fair, indicating that extra work would be required to keep up in a classroom and 5 participants indicated that they considered themselves to be poor in English, which could cause learning problems.
- 2 participants indicated that they considered themselves excellent in Afrikaans and 4 participants considered themselves good, indicating they would have no problem being taught in this language.
- 2 participants considered themselves average in Afrikaans, 8 considered themselves fair in Afrikaans and 7 considered themselves poor in Afrikaans, while 2 participants did not indicate having any knowledge of the language.

Table 4.5 indicates the participants' ratings of themselves as follows for the 11 official languages:

Table 4.5: Participants' rating of how well they speak languages

	Afrikaans	English	Xitsonga	isiZulu	siSwati	isiXhosa	Setswana	Tshivenda	Sesotho	isiNdebele	Sepedi
	NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS										
Excellent	2	8	4	3	1	1	2	3	8	1	5
Good	4	9	3	5	0	2	3	2	3	1	3
Average	2	2	3	5	2	5	2	3	5	0	4
Fair	8	1	1	6	5	8	6	1	3	4	4
Poor	7	5	10	4	10	4	7	8	3	11	5
No rating	2	0	4	2	7	5	5	8	3	8	4

This indicates that even though they may be able to speak many languages, the majority of the students rate themselves average to poor in their ability in most of the languages that they speak, indicating that attending classes in these languages could cause problems with learning.

4.6.6 Participants' perceptions of the groups

Participants were asked to indicate whether they preferred to work in a group where all the members spoke the same L1 as they did or whether they preferred to work in the group where the members all spoke different L1s. 79 percent (n=19) preferred working in the group where all members spoke the same L1.

Participants were then asked to indicate which group they found easier to work with, the group where all members spoke the same L1 or the group where each member spoke a different L1. 79 percent (n=19) found the group where all members spoke the same L1 as the easier group with which to work.

The final question for the participants was to make a choice if they had to work in a group in the future would they prefer a group where all members spoke the same L1 or a group where each member spoke a different L1. 75 percent (n=18) stated they would choose a

group where all members spoke the same L1 rather than a group where the members spoke different L1s.

4.7 Conclusion

This chapter reported on the analysis of the data collected in this study. The data included information on the linguistic repertoire of participants, which they demonstrated during a group activity, instances of codeswitching and possible reasons why these occurred, and instances of miscommunication or misunderstandings, as well as the clarification of information between participants. The language profiles of a class of students were examined, including the way they interacted with each other in the different groups. An analysis of the questionnaire answers provided further information on these issues and the following chapter, Chapter 5, will summarise and discuss the findings as well as outline the limitations of this study and provide suggestions for further research on the topic.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Summary of the study

This study undertook to investigate the multilingual repertoires and language choices of a diverse group of students during a group-work situation, in an ELF tertiary education classroom. Throughout the thesis, the importance of conducting this research was highlighted and relevant literature was examined. The literature review in Chapter 2 provided an overview of linguistic diversity within tertiary institutions globally. Then the South African tertiary education system, with an historical overview of language in South Africa, and an investigation into the rationale for ELF, in education, in post-apartheid South Africa was examined. Thereafter, ELF in tertiary education was explored, specifically global ELF and ELF in the South African classroom. At this point, it was important to observe the dangers of linguistic hegemony in educational institutions, while recognising the role of ELF in the promotion of skills and knowledge. For the purposes of the research, group work and problem solving were examined briefly, as well as codeswitching behaviour and the concept of linguistic repertoire. This enabled the contextualising of the problem statement within the current literature.

Chapter 3 dealt with the research methodologies, ethical considerations and data collection procedure and analysis process for the study. Chapter 4 provided an analysis of the data, including observations by the researcher. This chapter will deal with conclusions on the findings.

5.2 Conclusions

According to Onraët (2011:1,3), the global use of ELF makes it a topic of linguistic interest. However, in South Africa, little research has been conducted on ELF, particularly in the tertiary education situation. This study provides valuable insight into ELF interaction by researching the patterns of language use of students in a tertiary institution during a groupwork assignment, shedding some light on typical linguistic repertoires and codeswitching behaviour of students in a situation where they interact with peers who are of the same or different L1s.

During the study, different aspects relating to ELF in the tertiary education classroom were examined and the conclusions are set out in the following section.

5.2.1 Language policy in tertiary education

A number of language policies, ranging from the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996) to Department of Education policies and Higher Education Department policies, were referred to and discussed in Chapter 2, Section 2.3. Bamgbose (1999:19) refers to the “implementation avoidance strategy” when referring to how African countries have a tendency to introduce language policies but fall short on their implementation. He uses South African as an example and refers to the “escape clause” in Section 6 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996). Section 6 advocates the elevation of African languages, but then Section 6(3)(a) states that the official language choice is dependent on “national or provincial government taking into account usage, practicality, expense, regional circumstances and the balance of the needs and preferences of the population as a whole or in the province concerned”. Bamgbose (1991:19) goes on to debate the possibility of a lack of a mechanism being available for the assessment of the needs and preferences of the population. There appears to be a gap between the language policies and the implementation thereof.

A survey of available information found that even though the tertiary education institutions in South Africa promote multilingualism in their language policies, very few appear to offer classes in languages other than English (and a few that still offer classes in Afrikaans), unless the class is in a study of another language. Students are also required to be proficient in English before enrolling at the tertiary education institutions. The implementation of language policies should be reconsidered and the implementation avoidance strategies (Bamgbose, 1991) addressed. The findings of this study lead to the recommendation that universities contribute to an easily accessible and updated database for students to effortlessly investigate and be able to choose universities that cater for their L1s.

5.2.2 Language profile of students in a tertiary education institution

An interesting fact that emerged from the study was the multilingualism of students and the fact that in a class where 40 students returned the survey form, every student claimed English as one of their languages but only 16 claimed Afrikaans. There is also the added factor that students are unsure what their home language (L1) is as many of them come from families where the mother and father have different L1s. When the participants of the study were asked to state how many languages they spoke, more than half of them (60%) claimed to be able to speak all 11 official languages of South Africa. Most of them rated themselves as not good enough in the languages to be able to attend classes in them, yet a large majority (76%) believe that their English is good enough and they have no problem attending classes in English. Even though many more of these students had Afrikaans as a second school language, they reported not to be able to speak it as a language.

5.2.3 Miscommunication

In both the groups where all members spoke the same L1 and the groups where all members spoke a different L1, there were numerous efforts to avoid miscommunication. Gass and Varonis (1991:142,143) state that difficulty often occurs when there is discourse between NNSs. They add that there are two reasons for this miscommunication:

- (1) because of the grammatical differences between their languages, they may not share an understanding of the referential meaning of individual utterances; and
- (2) because of sociocultural differences, speakers may share a referential meaning but not conversational inferences, thus misinterpreting each other's intent.

However, it was observed and data were collected to substantiate that there appears to be an awareness of possible miscommunication occurring between the members of the group. Many instances of repetition and clarifying of information occurred between the members of both groups. There were also a number of occurrences where one participant would start speaking and others in the group would join in and clarify what the participant was saying by reiterating the statements. Another common occurrence was the participant codeswitching to another language in order to clarify something that was said in English.

5.2.4 Codeswitching

Codeswitching is defined by Gumperz (1982:59) as “the juxtaposition of passages of speech belonging to two grammatical systems.” The implication of codeswitching in a bilingual or multilingual environment entails the participants to switch between different languages during discourse. The specific code that participants are using at any given time is usually not something they are aware of, and Nelson (1990:145) adds that there is a “complex relationship between the semantic force of a specific linguistic structure in a particular code and the speaker’s values and beliefs”.

There is a large amount of literature that reflects the concern for the academic performance of students in tertiary institutions in South Africa (Van Rooy & Coetzee-Van Rooy, 2015:31). This study intended to examine the ELF tertiary education classroom with particular attention to the codeswitching habits of students of the same or different L1s. The collected data reflected a marked difference in the instances of codeswitching between students working in groups where all members were of the same L1, and groups where all members were of a different L1 in the group. The groups that were made up of members of the same L1 codeswitched much more than the groups where all the members were of different L1s. It was also observed that the codeswitching occurred for a number of reasons such as participants wanting to make themselves understood, attempting to get attention from group members, appearing to find it easier to read English words than to translate them and to speak without everyone understanding what is being said. Interestingly, participants did not codeswitch during their Activity 1B and Activity 2B, which were the presentations.

Furthermore, both intrasentential and intersentential codeswitching occurred in both the group of members who all spoke the same L1 and the group where the members each spoke a different L1. When the participants worked together in groups where all members of each group spoke the same L1, they switched between English, Afrikaans and the L1 of the group. However, when they worked together in the groups where each member of the group spoke a different L1, they codeswitched between English, Afrikaans and any of the other languages spoken by the members of the group, and there were a number of instances when for example a Sesotho L1 speaker would address an isiZulu L1 speaker in isiZulu and then switch back to English for another group member.

5.2.5 Answering the research questions

In this study, the following secondary research questions were formulated to guide the study and the following conclusions are drawn from the data in an attempt to address the primary research question: Is diversity in languages beneficial in an English lingua franca classroom?

- **What linguistic resources are used in a group work situation in an English lingua franca classroom when participants of the same L1 work together in the same group?**

An investigation into this question uncovered that participants of the same L1, in a group work situation in an ELF tertiary education classroom, used a combination of English and Afrikaans. These participants also then used the L1 of the members of the group, for example the group comprising Sesotho members codeswitched to Sesotho during their interactions. It should be noted that every one of the five groups in this study used English for the majority of the time. This is noteworthy because they were never instructed that they had to speak English, yet there appeared to be an unspoken rule that they needed to speak it, especially when the researcher approached to record them.

- **What linguistic resources are used in a group work situation in an English lingua franca classroom when participants who do not share an L1 work together in the same group?**

This question revealed the linguistic resources used in the group work situation when the participants did not share the same L1 included English and Afrikaans. In addition, four of the five groups codeswitched to L1s of the some of the group members within the group. One group only used English and Afrikaans during their interactions with each other. As with the groups that shared the same L1, the majority of the discourse was conducted in English; however, there was more English used by the groups who did not share the same L1 than the groups that shared the same L1. Notwithstanding the fact that 60% of the students state they speak all 11 official languages, when they have to work together in a group, they appear to speak more English. This could be attributed to the fact that they

were not told to speak English but appeared to believe that they were expected to speak English.

- **How do students in a group-work situation experience their learning environment when placed in a group with participants who share their L1?**
And
- **How do students in a group-work situation experience their learning environment when placed in a group with participants who do not share the same L1?**

The findings of secondary research questions 3 and 4 revealed the majority of the participants indicated that they preferred working in groups where all members spoke the same L1. Most of the participants pointed out that they found the group members with the same L1 easier to work with and if they had a choice, they would prefer to work with members of the same L1 in future. Once again, this indicates that even though they state they are able to speak a number of different languages, they would rather work with members in a group who all share the same L1.

- **What, if any, are the identifiable difference in the goal outcomes between learners who share the same L1 and work together in the same group and those learners who do not share the same L1 and work together in the same group?**

There was very little difference in goal outcomes between learners who share the same L1 and work together in the same group, and those who do not share the same L1 and work together in the same group. This indicates that there appears to be very little academic benefit in students working together with other students of the same L1. However, a personal preference that students have for working together, which could be attributed to participants feeling more comfortable in a group they can fully understand and can be understood, or reasons of a more social nature are the underlying factors for them choosing same L1 groups.

Regarding the primary research question of ‘Is diversity in languages beneficial in an English lingua franca classroom?’, it was observed that same L1 group members worked better together, codeswitched more often, achieved better results and preferred working

together; whereas, different L1 groups did not enjoy working together, codeswitched less and would not choose to work in groups where all members spoke different L1s if they were given the opportunity.

5.2.6 Emerging themes

Even though the answers for the research question were uncovered in this study, a number of new themes emerged from the investigation that are of interest, even though they are lacking of measurement, as the focus of the study was on different research questions.

- **A difference in group performance**

During the group interactions, it was observed that there was a marked difference between the ways in which participants worked together in their groups. In the groups where the members all spoke the same L1, the activities were noisy, interactive, with participants conversing informally with each other as a group and individually, and joking with each other. The participants appeared to be at ease and no awkward silences were observed. However, in the next activity, when the participants were put in groups with members who spoke different L1s, they appeared to spend a lot more time writing notes, the noise level was notably lower than for the first group, and this is evident during the transcription of the tapes where it is easier to hear what participants were saying due to less background noise. The members of the groups also spent a lot of time speaking to each other and gesturing to the notes or what had been written on their papers. There were undoubtedly more formal discussions held between all of these groups and a lot less joking around.

- **Leadership versus command of a language**

The Department of Education (2008:40) refers to communication as being an important part of effective management and/or leadership. They go on to state that communication skills play an integral role in all functions of management and it is vitally important for leaders to be confident and proficient communicators. During the group work interaction, there was a definite correlation between members who were good in English and leadership abilities. Group members appeared to be divided into three distinct divisions, those who spoke English fluently, took control of the group and told other members what to do, those who tried to interact but were obviously not as fluent in English as the leaders, and those who sat back and did not speak unless someone spoke to them, and then

invariably they codeswitched, or the person speaking to them codeswitched to another language for them to understand. While promoting multilingualism appears to be preferential in dealing with the diversity of languages in South Africa, it should be remembered that there is a possibility that the students who do not work on their English language skills could be unfairly disadvantaged in a global workplace where English would be spoken.

- **A lack of understanding of their strengths**

The researcher observed a number of instances where participants demonstrated a lack of understanding on whether or not they were proficient in English. This occurred in cases where a participant had taken over the leadership role in the group, due to their competence in English. In one observed case, a participant who had spoken very little English throughout the interactions, volunteered to edit the notes of a participant who had taken on the role of a leader and appeared fluent in English. The leader gladly agreed to allow the other participant to edit the notes. This brings forth the question of whether it would be preferably to conduct assessment on language proficiency and enable students in tertiary educational institutions the opportunity to improve on their English language skills, especially in the light of the observations on English in leadership roles.

5.3 The contribution of the study and implications for educational practice

The salient role of diversity in languages is highlighted in this study, which enlightens the stakeholders within the field of education, and particularly tertiary education on the function of diverse languages within group work in a classroom. Phillipson (2006) recommends further research into English as a lingua franca in order to build on the current body of knowledge and the literature available on the topic. It is also important to understand the role of language in the South African tertiary education classroom in order to improve the academic performance of students.

5.4 Limitation of the study and recommendations for further research

This study focused on a single classroom in a university of technology in southern Gauteng. It is recommended that the study be extended to traditional and comprehensive universities in other provinces in South Africa, as it would be interesting to compare

results. In addition, the study was conducted on only five of the 11 language groups in South Africa – Sesotho, Setswana, Sepedi, isiZulu and Tsonga – it would be beneficial to study the other language groups in South Africa to understand their linguistic repertoires and the role they play in the tertiary education classroom.

5.6 Concluding remarks/Recommendations

Phillipson (2006:14) states that it is “simplistic and reductionist to consider language policy as being either ‘for’ or ‘against’ English. English opens some doors and closes others. It can be used for good or bad reasons, with good or bad effects, but in the modern world it cannot be ignored”. This viewpoint should be kept in mind when deciding whether to implement changes in language policies within educational institutions. There is no doubt that policies have been promulgated and the promotion of multilingualism is advocated, but there should be more emphasis on decisions regarding the implementation of these policies to assist the multilingual student community in South Africa with improving academic achievements. However, the role of English as a global economic language should not be underestimated and students in tertiary institutions should be assisted in understanding their strengths and weaknesses in English in the context of its positioning in leadership and management career contexts.

A promotion of flexibility in language teaching and learning should be encouraged with the ultimate view of implementing translanguaging in education, where one language is used to reinforce and increase understanding in the other languages (Garcia & Wei, 2014:64). Baker (cited by Garcia & Wei, 2014:64) lists the following potential educational advantages to translanguaging as:

- promotion of a deeper and full understanding of the subject matter;
- assistance in the development of the weaker language;
- facilitation of home – school links and cooperation; and
- helping to integrate fluent speakers with early learners.

Garcia & Wei (2014:122) believe that teachers in the 21st century need to “see themselves as building on and developing the students’ additional languages while educating them”. Table 5.1 presents examples of translanguaging exercises that could be done with students

to promote this practice. Garcia & Wei (2014:123) state that students should use their entire linguistic repertoire while doing these exercises.

Table 5.1: Examples of translinguaging exercises

Example 1:	A teacher introduces 2-3 key vocabulary words and their definitions at the beginning of the lesson and asks students to translate the definition into their home languages.
Example 2:	Teachers allow a student who is struggling to say something in English during a presentation to ask a classmate to translate what they are trying to say into English, which the student is then asked to repeat.
Example 3:	A teacher has students listen to a song in another language about the topic of the day. She then has them answer a series of questions about the song in English.
Example 4:	A teacher has students look at a series of pictures and asks students to discuss in small groups what they see and what they can infer. They can discuss in any language they wish but are asked to share with the whole class in English.

Adapted from Garcia and Wei (2014:124)

A move away from the traditional use of one language of teaching and learning to a translinguaging classroom and assessment environment will allow students to be assessed on what they actually know as opposed to what they are able to express in the ELF classroom. This requires the re-evaluation of assessment standards and procedures, but would serve to ensure assessment in a multilingual classroom is fair for all students.

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ANNEXURE A: CONSENT FORM

LETTER OF CONSENT TO VIDEOTAPE GROUP WORK SESSION

Dear Participant

RESEARCH PROJECT

Your assistance is requested to obtain data for a research project on group work in a tertiary education environment. Kindly acknowledge by signing in the space provided below that you are aware of and consent to being videotaped during the preparation phase of a presentation and that you consent to the data, which will be analysed by the researcher, being used in a Masters research project.

Kindly note that you are under no obligation to agree to this request; if you do not wish to participate in the project, every effort will be made to avoid videotaping you and no information pertaining to any input you give will be used in the research project. However, if you do agree to participate in the project, please be aware that your participation is confidential and your anonymity is guaranteed. The videotape will not be shown publicly or be used for any other purposes than expressly stated in this agreement, and will be retained by the researcher who will analyse the information and only use the data obtained for the purposes of research.

If, at any time you wish to withdraw your consent for participation you may do so without any penalty. Regarding claims, rights or remedies of a legal nature, volunteering for this study does not exempt you from any such claims. Any questions regarding your rights may be directed to Ms Maléne Fouché [mfouche@sun.ac.za; 021 808 4622] at the Division for Research Development.

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this research project.



L. SCOTT

Enquiries:

L. Scott (Researcher)
lindas@vut.ac.za

Dr K. Huddlestone (Supervisor)
katevg@sun.ac.za



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**STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY
CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH**

ENGLISH LINGUA FRANCA IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN TERTIARY

CLASSROOM: RECOGNISING THE VALUE OF DIVERSITY

You are asked to participate in a research study conducted by Linda Scott (BA Hons.), from the General Linguistics Department at Stellenbosch University. The results of the research study will contribute to a thesis for a master's programme in Intercultural Communication. You were selected as a possible participant in this study because you are studying in a tertiary institution where the language of instruction is English, which is not your mother tongue.

1. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

This thesis proposes to investigate the multilingual repertoires and language choices of a diverse group of students in a group-work situation where the lingua franca is English.

2. PROCEDURES

If you volunteer to participate in this study, we would ask you to do the following things:

The group work situation

You will be divided into a group and provided with a topic to prepare for a presentation. During this process, your interaction with other members of the group will be filmed for a short period of time (approximately five minutes) in order for the researcher to analyse the results thereof.

The presentation

You will do a seven minute presentation of your topic with the members of your group where you will be evaluated on your performance.

The follow-up

You will be required to answer a short questionnaire which will consist of a section on your biographical details, i.e. age and languages you speak, and a section on your experience of your interaction within the group. This should not take more than 10 minutes

3. POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

The researcher does not envisage any foreseeable risks, discomforts or inconveniences; however, if you feel there is any form of risk, discomfort or inconvenience, you are welcome to withdraw from the study at any time.

4. POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO SUBJECTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY

This study will contribute to an understanding of the advantages and problems associated with English lingua franca being used in the university and, therefore, this study could assist lecturers and curricula developers to foster a deeper understanding of the problems experienced by second language English students, as well as the benefits of multilingualism in the tertiary classroom.

5. PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION

No payment will be received by any of the participants for agreeing to participate in this study.

6. CONFIDENTIALITY

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission or as required by law. Confidentiality will be maintained by means of the researcher maintaining full control of the video tapes at all times, keeping them at her home in a locked drawer and using them to analyse the data by

transcribing any transactions that take place between participants, and keeping those in a safe place at all times.

You are welcome to review and/or edit the tapes if you feel any discomfort in the process at any time, or deny the researcher the right to use the tapes at any time. The tapes will be erased once the research study has been completed and the thesis accepted by Stellenbosch University.

Confidentiality will be maintained at all times by the researcher who will not use any names or personal details which would allow someone to identify particular participants.

7. PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

You can choose whether to be in this study or not. If you volunteer to be in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. You may also refuse to answer any questions you don't want to answer and still remain in the study. The investigator may withdraw you from this research if circumstances arise which warrant doing so.

8. IDENTIFICATION OF INVESTIGATORS

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel free to contact Dr K. Huddlestone (Supervisor) at email: katevg@sun.ac.za or Tel: +27 21 808 2052 (General Linguistics, Stellenbosch University).

9. RIGHTS OF RESEARCH SUBJECTS

You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject, contact Ms Maléne Fouché [mfouche@sun.ac.za; 021 808 4622] at the Division for Research Development.

SIGNATURE OF RESEARCH SUBJECT OR LEGAL REPRESENTATIVE

The information above was described to me by Linda Scott in English and I am in command of this language. I was given the opportunity to ask questions and these questions were answered to my satisfaction.

I hereby consent voluntarily to participate in this study. I have been given a copy of this form.

Name of Subject/Participant

Name of Legal Representative (if applicable)

**Signature of Subject/Participant
or Legal Representative**

Date

SIGNATURE OF INVESTIGATOR

I declare that I explained the information given in this document to _____ [*name of the subject/participant*] and/or [his/her] representative _____ [*name of the representative*]. [He/she] was encouraged and given ample time to ask me any questions. This conversation was conducted in [*Afrikaans/*English/*Xhosa/*Other*] and [*no translator was used/this conversation was translated into _____ by _____*].

Signature of Investigator

Date

ANNEXURE B: ETHICAL CLEARANCE FROM RESEARCHER'S UNIVERSITY



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jou kennisvenoot • your knowledge partner

To whom it may concern

This serves to confirm that Ms Linda Scott is registered as an MA candidate in the department of General Linguistics, Stellenbosch University. Ms Scott has submitted an approved research proposal titled "English lingua franca in the South African tertiary classroom: recognising the value of diversity". Ms Scott's proposed research has been reviewed by a Departmental Ethics Screening Committee and it is this committee's conclusion that the research constitutes minimal ethical risk and that the candidate has taken the necessary steps to mitigate any possible risk through the use of approved ethical research protocols.

We ask that you allow Ms Scott the opportunity to conduct her research in her classes at the Vaal University of Technology.

If you have any questions or concerns, please don't hesitate to contact us.

Dr Johan Oosthuizen
Departmental Chair
Department of General Linguistics
Stellenbosch University

Dr Kate Huddlestone
Supervisor



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ANNEXURE C: ETHICAL CLEARANCE FROM UNIVERSITY WHERE STUDY WAS CONDUCTED



VAAL UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY
RESEARCH & INNOVATION ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

Applicant:	Ms Linda Scott
Project:	English lingua franca in the South African tertiary classroom: recognising the value of diversity
Institution:	Vaal University of Technology
Date Approved:	23 March 2015
Ethical Clearance Number:	201503.23
Approved: Yes/No	Yes

Approved by:  Date: 23.3.2015
 David Johnson
 Chairperson: Research & Innovation Ethics Committee

ANNEXURE D: QUESTIONNAIRE

SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

(On completion of groupwork)

Thank you for participating in this research. Kindly answer the questions below based on your experience within the group during the preparation phase of a presentation.

Please note: You are not under any obligation to complete this questionnaire. If you do decide to complete the questionnaire, the information herein will be used solely for obtaining research data and will be reported on as such by the researcher. Anonymity is guaranteed and no personal information will be released.

There are various sections to this questionnaire. Please complete all sections of the questionnaire and answer the questions honestly.

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION OF THE PARTICIPANT

This section seeks background information about you. This information will be used for research purposes only.

Please indicate your answer by crossing (x) the appropriate block.

A1. Indicate your gender

Male	1	Female	2
------	---	--------	---

A2. Age: please indicate your current age

17	1	18	2	19	3	20	4	21	5	22+	6
----	---	----	---	----	---	----	---	----	---	-----	---

A3. Race: Please specify:

Black	1	White	2	Coloured	3	Indian	4	Other	5	Prefer not to say	6
-------	---	-------	---	----------	---	--------	---	-------	---	-------------------	---

A4. What language does your mother speak the most?

Afrikaans	1	Xitsonga	2	isiZulu	3	siSwati	4	isiXhosa	5	Setswana	6
English	7	Tshivenda	8	Sesotho	9	isiNdebele	10	Sepedi	11	Other	12

A5. What language does your father speak the most?

Afrikaans	1	Xitsonga	2	isiZulu	3	siSwati	4	isiXhosa	5	Setswana	6
English	7	Tshivenda	8	Sesotho	9	IsiNdebele	10	Sepedi	11	Other	12

SECTION B-F: LANGUAGES

Please list the languages that you are able to speak, read, and understand.

Indicate how good you believe you are in each of the languages you list. Your spontaneous and honest response is important for the success of the study. You are required to indicate your degree of proficiency/skill/expertise/ability by crossing the appropriate block.

How to rate the blocks:**For example, if you could say:**

- Block 1 : Excellent : I have no problems with this language and would not hesitate to enrol in a class where this is the language of teaching
- Block 2 : Good : I have some skill in this language and could cope in a classroom where this is the language of teaching
- Block 3 : Average : I am not very good in this language and am not sure if I could do all my studying if this were the language of teaching
- Block 4 : Fair : I know some of the language but would need to do a lot of extra work to keep up with a class where this is the language of teaching
- Block 5 : Poor : I would never consider attending a class where this is the language of teaching because I am not good enough in the language

B. Languages I am able to speak:

		Mark only one block with a cross				
B1	Afrikaans	1	2	3	4	5
B2	English	1	2	3	4	5
B3	Xitsonga	1	2	3	4	5
B4	isiZulu	1	2	3	4	5
B5	siSwati	1	2	3	4	5
B6	isiXhosa	1	2	3	4	5
B7	Setswana	1	2	3	4	5
B8	Tshivenda	1	2	3	4	5
B9	Sesotho	1	2	3	4	5
B10	isiNdebele	1	2	3	4	5
B11	Sepedi	1	2	3	4	5
B12	Other : List any other language:	1	2	3	4	5
		1	2	3	4	5

C. Languages I am able to read:

		Mark only one block with a cross				
C1	Afrikaans	1	2	3	4	5
C2	English	1	2	3	4	5
C3	Xitsonga	1	2	3	4	5
C4	isiZulu	1	2	3	4	5
C5	siSwati	1	2	3	4	5
C6	isiXhosa	1	2	3	4	5
C7	Setswana	1	2	3	4	5
C8	Tshivenda	1	2	3	4	5
C9	Sesotho	1	2	3	4	5
C10	isiNdebele	1	2	3	4	5
C11	Sepedi	1	2	3	4	5
C12	Other : List any other language:	1	2	3	4	5
		1	2	3	4	5

D. Languages I am able to write:

		Mark only one block with a cross				
D1	Afrikaans	1	2	3	4	5
D2	English	1	2	3	4	5
D3	Xitsonga	1	2	3	4	5
D4	isiZulu	1	2	3	4	5
D5	siSwati	1	2	3	4	5
D6	isiXhosa	1	2	3	4	5
D7	Setswana	1	2	3	4	5
D8	Tshivenda	1	2	3	4	5
D9	Sesotho	1	2	3	4	5
D10	isiNdebele	1	2	3	4	5
D11	Sepedi	1	2	3	4	5
D12	Other : List any other language:	1	2	3	4	5
		1	2	3	4	5

E. Languages I use regularly on social occasions

		Mark only one block with a cross				
E1	Afrikaans	1	2	3	4	5
E2	English	1	2	3	4	5
E3	Xitsonga	1	2	3	4	5
E4	isiZulu	1	2	3	4	5
E5	siSwati	1	2	3	4	5
E6	isiXhosa	1	2	3	4	5
E7	Setswana	1	2	3	4	5
E8	Tshivenda	1	2	3	4	5
E9	Sesotho	1	2	3	4	5
E10	isiNdebele	1	2	3	4	5
E11	Sepedi	1	2	3	4	5
E12	Other : List any other language:	1	2	3	4	5
		1	2	3	4	5

F. Languages I speak at home and with family members:

		Mark only one block with a cross				
F1	Afrikaans	1	2	3	4	5
F2	English	1	2	3	4	5
F3	Xitsonga	1	2	3	4	5
F4	isiZulu	1	2	3	4	5
F5	siSwati	1	2	3	4	5
F6	isiXhosa	1	2	3	4	5
F7	Setswana	1	2	3	4	5
F8	Tshivenda	1	2	3	4	5
F9	Sesotho	1	2	3	4	5
F10	isiNdebele	1	2	3	4	5
F11	Sepedi	1	2	3	4	5
F12	Other : List any other language:	1	2	3	4	5
		1	2	3	4	5

SECTION G

Please answer the following questions:

G.1 Did you prefer to work in the group that was made up of participants who all spoke the same first language as you did (Activity 1) **OR** did you prefer to work in the group that was made up of participants who did not all have the same first language as you (Activity 2)?

Mark the appropriate block with a cross (X).

ACTIVITY 1	ACTIVITY 2
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G.2 Which group did you find easier to work with? The one where all the participants spoke the same first language as you did (Activity 1) **OR** the one where all the participants did not have the same first language as you (Activity 2)?

Mark the appropriate block with a cross (X).

ACTIVITY 1	ACTIVITY 2
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G.3 If you had a choice, which group would you choose to work with in the future? The one where all the participants spoke the same first language as you did (Activity 1) **OR** the one where all the participants did not have the same first language as you (Activity 2)?

Mark the appropriate block with a cross (X).

ACTIVITY 1	ACTIVITY 2
-------------------	-------------------

Thank you for participating in the study!

ANNEXURE E: INSTRUCTIONS FOR PRESENTATION

TOPIC: HIGH SCHOOL vs UNIVERSITY

Guide to points of interest

- Advantages/positive aspects/likes
- Disadvantages/negative aspects/dislikes
- Academic performance (school vs university)
- Social life (school vs university)
- Extramurals/sport
- What you wish someone had told you before you came here
- Financial issues
- Relationships with lecturers vs teachers – is there a difference?
- Personal feelings about self – fear, excitement, pride

Each member of your group **must** speak.

Fill in the list below. Choose three topics you will discuss as a group and who will be responsible for introduction and conclusion.

*Please complete this section:

RESEARCH AREA	PERSON RESPONSIBLE	CODE
Introduction		
Conclusion		

Set a date and time when you will get together and coordinate all information into a presentation and practice your presentation before Wednesday 13 May 2015 10am.

The date and time will be:	
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HAND THIS FORM BACK TO YOUR LECTURER AT THE END OF THE LESSON

ANNEXURE F: MARK SHEET FOR PRESENTATION

MARK SHEET FOR PRESENTATION							
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	Couldn't agree more!	TOTAL	COMMENTS
Marked on a scale of 1 to 5 -							
Planning, Research and Organisation of Content							
Evidence of members practising together	1	2	3	4	5		
Well-organised and coherent, minor errors, comprehensible delivery	1	2	3	4	5		
Presentation skills and Delivery							
Evidence of members working amicably together. Support and encouragement between group members evident	1	2	3	4	5		
Students use clear voices, precise pronunciation, pause and tone variation effectively, and effective use of eye contact	1	2	3	4	5		
Overall Group Presentation							
Group worked well together and ensured a fluent research, organisation and delivery of the presentation	1	2	3	4	5		
TOTAL FOR PRESENTATION						√25	
STUDENT DETAILS							
NAME				STUDENT NO.			
1							
2							
3							
4							
5							
COMMENTS:							

ANNEXURE G: INSTRUCTIONS FOR PRESENTATION

TOPIC: LIFE WITHOUT A CELLPHONE AND THE INTERNET

Guide to points of interest

- Advantages/positive aspects
- Disadvantages/negative aspects
- Costs
- Social skills and interaction – positive or negative effects
- Many uses or too many uses for a cellphone
- Cellphones as status symbols rather than communication means

Each member of your group **must** speak.

Fill in the list below. Choose three topics you will discuss as a group and who will be responsible for introduction and conclusion.

*Please complete this section:

RESEARCH AREA	PERSON RESPONSIBLE	CODE
Introduction		
Conclusion		

Set a date and time when you will get together and coordinate all information into a presentation and practice your presentation before Wednesday 3 June 2015 10am.

The date and time will be:	
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HAND THIS FORM BACK TO YOUR LECTURER AT THE END OF THE LESSON