

Language Attitudes in Pre-Adolescent Multilinguals: A Comparison of Five Data Elicitation Techniques

by
Mpho Refilwe Keletso Clothilda Manca

*Thesis presented for the degree of Masters of Arts (General Linguistics)
in the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences at Stellenbosch University*



UNIVERSITEIT
iYUNIVESITHI
STELLENBOSCH
UNIVERSITY

100
1918 · 2018

Supervisor: Dr Frenette Southwood
Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences
Department of General Linguistics

December 2018



UNIVERSITEIT•STELLENBOSCH•UNIVERSITY
jou kennisvenoot • your knowledge partner

Declaration

By submitting this thesis electronically, I declare that the entirety of the work contained therein is my own, original work, that I am the sole author thereof, that reproduction and publication thereof by Stellenbosch University will not infringe any third-party rights and that I have not previously in its entirety, or in part, submitted it for obtaining any qualification.

Mpho Refilwe Keletso Clothilda Manca

Date: December 2018

Copyright © 2018 Stellenbosch University
All rights reserved

Abstract

This study had two aims. The first was to identify the most useful data elicitation technique/s to use when eliciting data from multilingual South African pre-adolescents who have an African language as their mother tongue, and the second was to ascertain what those pre-adolescents' language ideologies pertaining to English and Afrikaans as additional languages were. Data was collected in the cosmopolitan Wolmer area of Pretoria North from 10 participants (5 male, 5 female) ranging from 10 to 12 years of age. A comparison was made between the number of themes pertaining to language ideology successfully elicited by five data elicitation techniques, namely language portraits, the telling of short stories, open-ended interviews, closed-ended interviews, and commenting on short language-related video clips. Despite various methodological challenges, the results revealed that closed-ended interviews yielded the highest quantity of themes of the above-stated data elicitation techniques, with half of all elicited themes elicited by means of this method. Open-ended questions was the second-most successful elicitation technique, with 40% of the themes elicited via this technique. The other three techniques each elicited 4% or less of the themes, with the telling of short stories proving ineffective and eliciting no relevant themes. Regarding the second research question, concerned with the participants' language ideologies, no negative themes relating to English as their second or additional language were prevalent among the participants. However, the data did reveal that at least 60% of the participants held at least one negative outlook towards Afrikaans. The thesis concludes by making recommendations on how to improve future research on language ideologies of pre-adolescents by refining the elicitation techniques and addressing the issue of mismatch in language proficiency between the participants and the data collectors in the study. Another recommendation is that future research should include monolingual pre-adolescents and do a cross-comparative analysis between the language ideologies of multilingual and monolingual pre-adolescent South Africans.

Opsomming

Hierdie studie het twee doelstellings gehad. Die eerste was om vas te stel watter data-ontlokkings tegniek mees suksesvol is in die ontlokking van data onder veeltalige Suid-Afrikaanse pre-adolessente wat 'n Afrikataal as moedertaal het, en die tweede was om vas te stel watter taal-ideologieë daardie pre-adolessente uitdruk teenoor Afrikaans en Engels as addisionele tale. Data is in die kosmopolitaanse Wolmer-gebied van Pretoria-Noord ingesamel onder 10 deelnemers (5 manlik, 5 vroulik) wat 10 tot 12 jaar oud was. 'n Vergelyking is gemaak tussen die aantal temas rakende taal-ideologieë wat suksesvol ontlok is deur vyf data-ontlokkings tegnieke, naamlik taalportrette, die vertel van kort stories, oop-antwoord onderhoude, geslote-antwoord onderhoude en die lewer van kommentaar op kort taalverwante videosnitte. Ten spyte van metodologiese uitdagings het die resultate getoon dat geslote-antwoord onderhoude die hoogste aantal temas ontlok het van al die bogenoemde data-ontlokkings tegnieke, met die helfte van alle ontlokte temas wat deur hierdie tegniek ontlok is. Oop-antwoord vrae was die tweede mees suksesvolle ontlokkings tegniek, met 40% van alle temas wat deur hierdie tegniek ontlok is. Die ander drie tegnieke het elk 4% of minder van die temas ontlok, met die vertel van kort stories wat oneffektief blyk te wees aangesien dit geen relevante temas ontlok het nie. Rakende die tweede navrosingsvraag, wat verband hou met die deelnemers se taal-ideologieë, was geen negatiewe temas oor Engels as hul tweede of addisionele taal algemeen onder die deelnemers nie. Die data het egter getoon dat ten minste 60% van die deelnemers minstens een negatiewe uitkyk op Afrikaans as addisionele taal het. Die tesis sluit af deur aanbevelings te maak oor hoe toekomstige navorsing oor die taal-ideologieë van pre-adolessente verbeter kan word deur die ontlokkings tegnieke te verfyn en die kwessie van verskille in die taalvaardigheid van die deelnemers teenoor die taalvaardigheid van die data-insamelaars aan te spreek. Nog 'n aanbeveling is dat toekomstige navorsing eentalige pre-adolessente insluit en 'n kruisvergelykende analise maak van die taal-ideologieë van veeltalige en eentalige pre-adolessente Suid-Afrikaners.

Table of Contents

Declaration	i
Abstract	ii
Opsomming	iii
Chapter 1: Introduction	1
1.1. Background to the Study: Data Elicitation in Adolescents.....	1
1.2. Research Questions	2
1.3. Rationale of the Study.....	2
1.4. Context of the Study	4
1.4.1. City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality	5
1.4.2. Poverty	6
1.4.3. Sepitori.....	11
1.5. Thesis Outline	14
1.6. Definition of Core Terms Used in this Thesis	15
Chapter 2: Literature Review	16
2.1. Outline of the Chapter.....	16
2.2. Second Language Acquisition and Motivation Models.....	16
2.3. Process Model of L2 Motivation	21
2.3.1. Pre-Actional Phase.....	22
2.3.2. Actional Phase	25
2.3.3. Post-Actional Phase	27
2.4. Existing Research on the Language Ideologies of School Children.....	28
2.4.1. Case Studies: Language Ideologies and the South African Language Policy	30
2.5. Chapter Conclusion.....	34
Chapter 3: Methodology	36
3.1. The Nature of the Study	36
3.2. Participant Selection	37
3.3. Participant Characteristics	39
3.4. Data Collection and Elicitation Techniques	40
3.4.1. Language Portraits	41

3.4.2. Short Stories.....	44
3.4.3. ‘Tell Me About...’	47
3.4.4. Interviews.....	48
3.4.5. Videos	50
3.5 Data Collector Training	52
3.6 Data Transcription Procedure	54
3.7 Data Analysis Procedure.....	55
3.8 Ethical Considerations	57
3.9 Methodological Challenges	58
Chapter 4: Data and Analysis.....	61
4.1. Language Portraits	62
4.2. Short Stories.....	65
4.3. ‘Tell Me About...’	67
4.3.1. Mother Tongue.....	69
4.3.2. English	71
4.3.3. Afrikaans.....	73
4.4. Interviews.....	75
4.5. Video Descriptions.....	81
Chapter 5: Discussion and Conclusion	84
5.1. Introduction.....	84
5.2. What Ideologies Do 10 to 12-Year-Old Black Multilingual South African Children Demonstrate Towards English and Afrikaans as Additional Languages?	84
5.3. Which Data Elicitation Technique/s Yield/s the Most Themes from 10-12-Year-Old Pre-Adolescent Multilinguals Regarding Their Language Ideology?	87
5.4. Directions for Further Research on the Topic of Pre-Adolescents’ Language Ideology	91
5.5. Limitations of the Study.....	93
5.6. Conclusion	94
References.....	97
Annexure A: Permission to Conduct Research.....	102
Annexure B: Parental Consent Form	104

Annexure C: Background Questionnaire	106
Annexure D: REC Assent Form	110
Annexure E: Language Portraits	113
Annexure F: Short Stories.....	116
Annexure G: ‘Tell Me About...’	119
Annexure H: Interviews	122
Annexure I: Videos	125

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1. Background to the Study: Data Elicitation in Adolescents

Identifying and successfully implementing relevant data elicitation techniques is an important aspect of any research project, as the actual data forms an integral part of an empirical study. As a researcher, one wants to use tools that will help one obtain the most relevant and high-quality data to use in one's study; consequently, acquiring data can be a complex process that may involve many activities from a variety of available techniques, approaches, and tools for successful elicitation (Hickey & Davis 2003, p. 10).

Prompting data from adolescents is especially challenging when one factors in the contextual issues that often play a role in successful data elicitation. The techniques used to elicit data from adults may not necessarily yield the same quality or quantity of data from younger participants, so data elicitation techniques used in especially qualitative research need to take a number of factors into account. These can include the participants' age group and/or social context/s. Similarly, a research gap exists in the comparison of different elicitation methods, mostly due to the infinite variety of research topics which would require the implementation of different combinations of elicitation techniques (Nielsen, Keil & Zeller 2013, p. 255).

Against this background, this thesis will focus on techniques that can be utilised to elicit relevant data from young participants. Specifically, the study will attempt to extract themes about pre-adolescents' ideologies pertaining to languages by using a variety of techniques, as well as evaluate the quantity and quality of those themes elicited by the data elicitation techniques, effectively identifying and ranking the techniques researchers could use to elicit

the highest quantity of themes on language ideology from pre-adolescents. The techniques used in this research study were *Language Portraits*, *Telling Short Stories*, ‘*Tell Me About...*’ (viz. open-ended interviews), *Interviews* (closed-ended questions), and *Commenting on Video Clips* (each discussed in detail in Chapter 3). This study also aimed to contribute to the narrowing of the knowledge gap that persists in academia regarding such data elicitation techniques and their efficiency.

The aims of this research study were four-fold, namely to (i) contribute to narrowing the above-mentioned knowledge gap, (ii) investigate the language ideologies of black multilingual pre-adolescents, (iii) evaluate and rank the effectiveness of (five) data elicitation techniques in terms of the number of themes derived from using each technique, and (iv) inform future research on the language ideologies of pre-adolescents.

1.2. Research Questions

Considering the aims mentioned above, the two research questions that guided this research study were:

1. What ideologies do 10 to 12-year-old black multilingual South African children demonstrate towards English and Afrikaans as additional languages?
2. Which data elicitation technique/s yield/s the most themes from 10 to 12-year-old pre-adolescent multilinguals regarding their ideologies about languages?

1.3. Rationale of the Study

According to available literature, little is known about the ideologies of primary school learners about the languages they are taught at school, specifically English and Afrikaans. Furthermore,

it is not yet known which techniques work best to capture the language ideologies of these primary school learners. So, this study compared the effectiveness of five data elicitation techniques in black pre-adolescent multilingual children by means of collecting information on their language ideologies. An effective technique would be one that can be used by researchers to collect information from young participants that is both relevant (in terms of the themes discussed by the participants) and substantial (in terms of the quantity of themes documented). Assessing the effectiveness of data elicitation techniques will assist researchers in collecting qualitative data and aid in the production of quality research in future.

The study was also interested in the language ideologies of black South African 10 to 12-year-old multilinguals – particularly their ideologies towards their mother tongues¹ and towards English and Afrikaans as additional languages, as well as their views on the additional languages' (potential) usefulness in their lives as mother tongue speakers of South African Bantu languages. The data for this study was collected from 10 pre-adolescent participants residing in the Wolmer area in Pretoria North, Gauteng. The participants were black second language (L2) speakers of English, and they all had Afrikaans as an L2 at their primary schools (which offered the option of either English- or Afrikaans-medium classrooms). Note that all schools in and around the Wolmer area only offer English and Afrikaans as languages of tuition from Grade R onwards, thus South African Bantu language speakers are not afforded the opportunity to be taught in their mother tongues. This meant that learners (including the participants in this study) are expected to study through the mediums of English (as the Home Language) and Afrikaans (as the First Additional Language) or vice versa. The only avenue towards mother tongue education leads to the *kasi* (township) schools which, as in many other

¹ In this thesis, I use both *mother tongue* and *home language*. I am aware that these concepts are not synonymous and my understanding of the two is explained in section 2.4.1 of Chapter 2.

areas of South Africa, are known to be under-resourced. For instance, Probyn (2009, p. 127) revealed that 83% of township schools do not have libraries or adequate reading resources. For these and other reasons, parents in Wolmer (again, as in many other areas of the country) who speak Bantu languages prefer to send their children to English-medium, or so-called ex-Model C, schools (see, e.g. De Klerk 2000; Heugh 2000; Jordaan 2011; Meirim, Jordaan, Kallenbach & Rijhumal 2010; Webb 2002). Accordingly, through the study, I wanted to ascertain what ideologies young learners hold pertaining to their additional languages which they have no choice of learning and studying as school subjects. The learners would probably be surrounded by discourse on English being the language of upward mobility (see, e.g. Hibbert 2016), Afrikaans being the language of oppression (see, e.g. Willemsse 2017) and their mother tongues not being languages of advancement and development (see, e.g. Prah 2018). Potgieter (2011, p. 1) explained that the negative stigma of the apartheid era has “tainted the concept of mother tongue education for many black South Africans... [and that] the African schools that have affected changes in their language policy, have generally chosen to incorporate English as the language of learning and teaching at an even earlier stage, completely disregarding recommendations to the contrary”. This serves as a possible explanation for the abovementioned point regarding English as the language of upward mobility, and maybe even the tendency of non-English speaking parents to prefer English as a medium of instruction, over the child’s mother tongue. (This is discussed in section 2.4.1 of Chapter 2). Fundamentally, I wanted to establish whether these ideologies about English and Afrikaans would be present in the learners who have no choice but to study (through medium of) these languages instead of their mother tongues in school.

1.4. Context of the Study

The study took place in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality (CTMM)², specifically in a Pretoria North area not unfamiliar with poverty. It is also an area in which Sepitori is commonly spoken. In this section, I describe the research context by discussing the metropolitan area, poverty and Sepitori.

1.4.1. City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality

The administrative capital of South Africa, Pretoria, which is in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality (CTMM), is located in the Magaliesberg mountain range on the prairies of the Apies River Valley (Corten & Van Dun 2010, p. 11). The history of the administrative capital city dates back to the 1840s, when the *Boers* (who arrived in the area in 1841) established Pretoria as the capital city of the Zuid-Afrikaansche Republiek (ZAR; which is Dutch for “South African Republic”) after the British colonisers granted them independence in 1852. Although the *AmaNdebele* ethnic group is believed to be the original inhabitants of Pretoria, militant growth and battles dispersed them, and the *Boers* took over the land (Corten & Van Dun 2010, p. 11). After gold was discovered in the Witwatersrand in 1886, the economy boomed, and the gold rush resulted in a major influx of immigrant mine workers into the region as well as an economic and social transformation of the entire country (Corten & Van Dun 2010, p. 12).

Corten and Van Dun (2010) explained that the gold rush had a political impact on the country, which led to military conflict. This saw Pretoria become the site of “several disputes during the second half of the 19th century; among the Boers, between Boers and indigenous tribes and

² Although Pretoria was renamed to Tshwane in 2005, the former is still used to refer to the city. It is worth noting that Pretoria, established in the 1840s, is much older than the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality (CTMM), which was established in the mid-2000s (<https://www.sahistory.org.za/place/pretoria>).

between the Boers and the British rulers over the South of Africa. These conflicts culminated in the second Anglo-Boer war (1899-1902), bringing the ZAR under British rule” (Corten & Van Dun 2010, p. 12). Pretoria managed to recover during the first half of the 20th century and regained economic stability, although racial segregation and economic inequality took their toll on the integrity of the city and, by the time the then prime minister, Hendrik Verwoerd, withdrew South Africa from the Commonwealth in 1961, black people and other people of colour were forced to live in racially segregated townships, with no option of living in the city quarters (which were better resourced but reserved for whites only). In addition to this, black males had to walk around with their identity books (then called a *dompas*). The remnants of those laws are, unfortunately, still felt today, some 24 years after the abolishment of apartheid. Today, the Union Buildings in the city, which were once the homestead of the racist apartheid regime, serve as the mark of cultural diversity and reconciliation (Corten & Van Dun 2010, p. 13), as well as a constant reminder of the progress that has been made to abolish racism and economic inequality in South Africa.

The research site, Wolmer, is situated within 15 km from the Union Buildings, in an area that is traditionally considered Afrikaans-speaking, as can be seen from the names of the schools in the area, e.g., Primary Schools Danie Malan, Rachel de Beer and Voortrekker Eeufees (“Pioneer trekker Centenary”), and High Schools Gerrit Maritz and Pretoria-Noord (“Pretoria North”). Wolmer was historically a transport hub, and today is an area affected by poverty. Poverty in Pretoria as a whole will be discussed in the next section.

1.4.2. Poverty

Blaauw, Louw and Schenck (2006, p. 460) investigated the little-researched topic of day labour in Pretoria. Day labour is a section of the informal sector which includes an array of activities

like gardening, street vending, painting, sewing, sidewalk hairdressing, driving, welding, selling traditional medicine, and running *spaza* shops (informal tuckshops). The researchers were interested in the day labourers who stood on the sides of roads and waited for possible informal job opportunities to receive any remuneration, from as little as R50 per day. Maisel (2003 in Blaauw et al. 2006, p. 458) suggested, 15 years ago already, that there were approximately 500 places in South Africa where day labourers (some as young as 16 years old) could be picked up for casual labour. This is usually on an hourly or daily basis and, with around 50 to 100 individuals at a single site per day, there were between 25 000 and 50 000 individuals looking for work every day.

Blaauw et al.'s (2006) findings revealed that 98% of day labourers in Pretoria were male, and of those that were South African natives, almost 60% were not originally from Pretoria. Also, "a significant percentage" of the participants were born in Zimbabwe or Mozambique and entered South Africa through land borders (Blaauw et al. 2006, p. 462). A third of the participants indicated Sepedi as their home language, 16% spoke isiNdebele, and 10% spoke Xitsonga. Close to three quarters of the workers interviewed were younger than 35 years, with 61% reported as younger than 30 years. On average, 56% of the day labourers indicated that they were financially responsible for up to four people (including themselves), whilst 4% reported being financially responsible for more than nine people (Blaauw et al. 2006, p. 462). 57% of the day labourers earned less than R700 per month, and a quarter of them earned less than R300 per month, which was 15% below the then national food poverty line of R354 per adult per month (Blaauw et al. 2006, p. 468). A later infographic chart by Grant (2015) for *Mail & Guardian* (see *Table 1.1* below) suggested that the poverty line for people living in the Gauteng province was higher than this figure, at R963.

Table 1.4.1: Poverty in South Africa (Grant, 2015)

Provinces	Poverty line (in ZAR/month)
Eastern Cape	R678
Free State	R718
Gauteng	R963
KwaZulu-Natal	R757
Limpopo	R627
Mpumalanga	R974
North West	R767
Northern Cape	R705
Western Cape	R804

These statistics offered bleak, yet informative insight into the lives of some Pretorians. Today, the 240 participants in Blaauw et al.'s (2006) study form part of the 10.7 million people living in abject poverty within South Africa (Grant, 2015). Another infographic chart by Statistics South Africa (see *Figure 1.1*) gives an indication of the distribution of no-income households per province between 2001 and 2011. The Wolmer area in Pretoria North (the research site) is not a particularly affluent community, so it is easy to imagine how these statistics could be a lived reality for some of the people in the community.

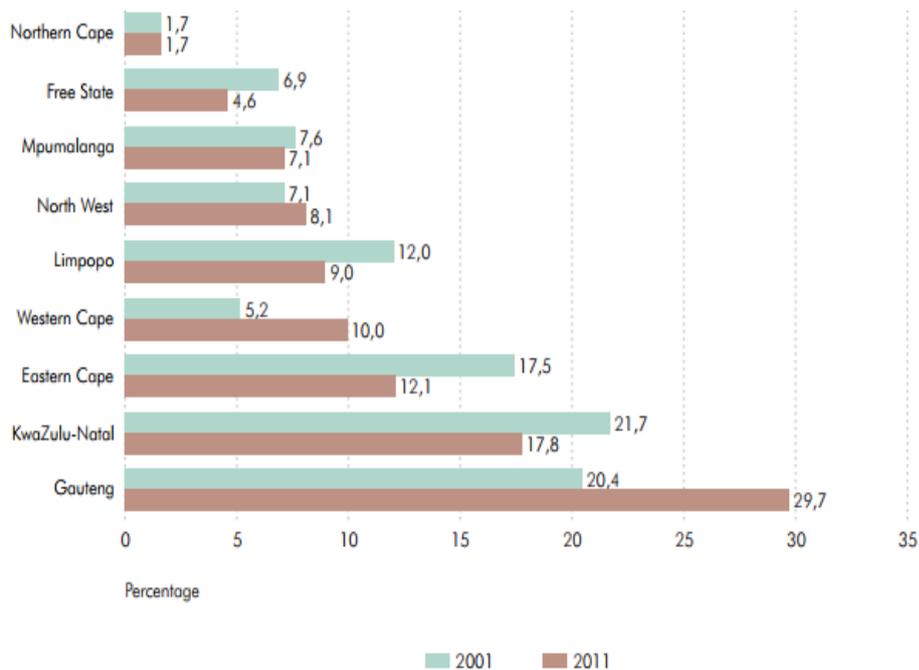


Figure 1.1: Provincial distribution of households in the no-income category (2001 and 2011) (Statistics South Africa 2015a, p. 15)

According to *Figure 1.1*, 30% of households who reported having no income in 2011 were in Gauteng; this statistic increased by 9% from 2001. Statistics South Africa tried to explain this trend by stating that “the increases in the proportions of households without income in Gauteng and Western Cape can be partly attributed to population growth in both provinces. Both Gauteng and Western Cape reported the biggest population growth trends from 2001 to 2011... The population of Gauteng grew from 21,9% of the total population of South Africa in 2001 to 23,7% in 2011, whereas the population of [the] Western Cape grew from 10,1% of the total population in 2001 to 11,2% in 2011” (Statistics South Africa 2015a, p. 15).

In *Figure 1.2* below, Gauteng boasts the highest proportion of upper-income households (i.e. households with an annual income of R307,201 and upwards). This is not surprising since Gauteng is the economic hub of South Africa. However, it is worth noting that the province also hosts the largest proportions of the poorest people in the country. Gauteng has over 13,2

million inhabitants (24% of the national population) (Statistics South Africa 2015b, p. 1), with over 4 million of those (30%) living in abject poverty (i.e. in no-income households).

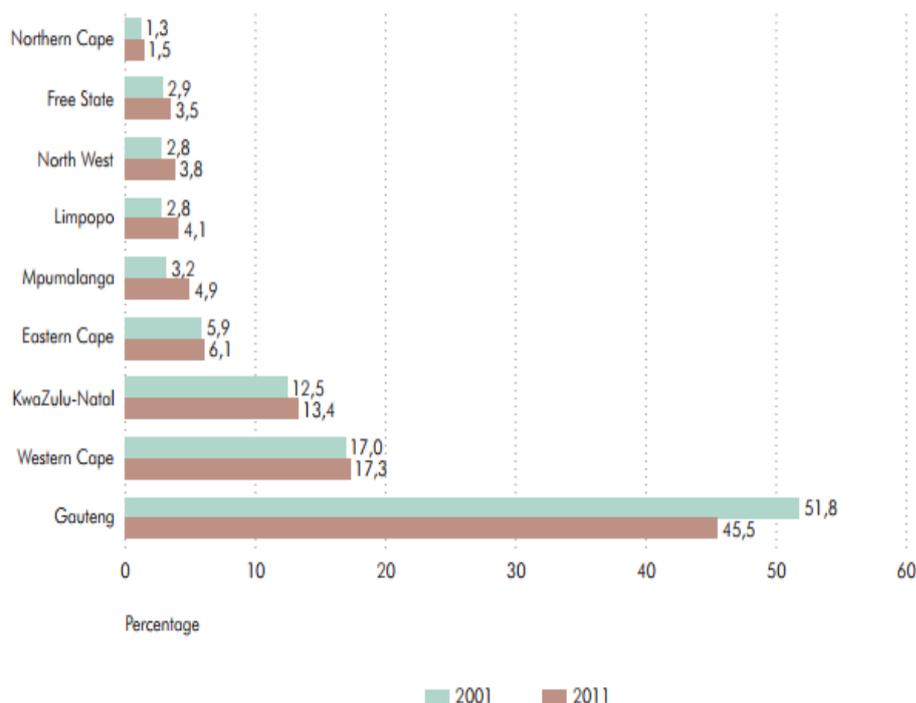


Figure 1.2: Provincial distribution of households in the upper-income category (2001 and 2011) (Statistics South Africa 2015a, p. 20)

Wolmer, situated in Gauteng, is a low-cost housing area, in a larger area in which dire poverty is present (see www.wolmercommunityproject.co.za). Poverty alleviation and employment creation organisations are active in Wolmer and surrounds, and the participants for this research were sourced from one non-profit aftercare facility for school children. It is known that poverty-situated children fare less well in first language acquisition than their affluent peers (see, e.g. Hoff & Tian 2005; Noble, McCandiss & Farah 2007; Whitehurst 1997) and the influence of the socio-economic status of the participants on their L2 learning of Afrikaans and English can thus not be ruled out and might even have had an influence on their ideologies about their non-mother tongues.

1.4.3. Sepitori

Sepitori (also called Pretoria Sotho) is a mixed language found predominantly in Pretoria, and is the lingua franca of many of its inhabitants (Ditsele & Mann 2014, p. 159). According to Finlayson et al. (1998 in Ditsele & Mann 2014, p. 161), a mixed language is a distinctive style of language use amongst the residents of black townships in South Africa and may include words or constituents of other languages. Similarly characterised as a Black Urban Vernacular, *Sepitori* is comprised of two mutually intelligible languages – Setswana and Sepedi. A Black Urban Vernacular can best be described as a language variety that can be used to facilitate communication between interlocutors who do not share the same mother tongue (Ditsele & Mann 2014, p. 161). However, the definition of a lingua franca is very similar to that of a Black Urban Vernacular. Ditsele and Mann (2014, p. 161) add that a Black Urban Vernacular identifies someone as belonging to a particular township (although the use of the vernacular can be extended beyond informal domains) – thereby conveying group membership and solidarity between members of a speech community.

Roughly 38% (i.e. two in every five) of Pretoria inhabitants are first language speakers of Setswana or Sepedi, and only 13% of the Pretoria population speaks English as their first language, whereas 21% are first language speakers of Afrikaans (Ditsele & Mann 2014, p. 159). The Language Policy of the City of Tshwane (2012, p. 6), however, recommends the use of English in official inter- and intra-departmental communication. This is notwithstanding the fact that, of the 11 official languages in South Africa (namely Afrikaans, English, isiNdebele, isiXhosa, isiZulu, Sepedi (Northern Sotho), Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda, and Xitsonga), English and Afrikaans are not Black South African languages, and are classified as Indo-European languages (Ditsele & Mann 2014, p. 159).

Pretoria is colloquially referred to as *Pitori* and since, in Setswana and Sepedi, the prefix *se-* is used to indicate the language spoken by a people (for example, *Setswana* indicating that the language is spoken by the Tswana people), the term *Sepitori* can be loosely translated as ‘the language spoken by the people of Pretoria’ (Ditsele & Mann 2014, p. 159). Appreciation for this dialect rose in popularity on social media platforms as users coined the hashtag #learnpitori (Learn Sepitori) in 2017, online. This resulted in humorous displays of appreciation for the originality of the language and its quirky rationalisations. Comparisons like the ones given below were made on the social media platform *Twitter* between Sepitori and other official South African languages:

1a) English: *Can I please have R10?*

b) Setswana: *Ke kopa R10?*

I (am) asking (for) R10

c) Sepitori: *Mfe jacket*

Give me (a) jacket [the colloquial term for R10]

2a) English: *Are you okay?*

b) Setswana: *O phetse sentle?*

You lived okay?

c) Sepitori: *Smoko?*

Problem?

3a) English: *He is Indian*

b) Setswana: *Ke le India*

S/he is Indian

c) Sepitori: *Ke my friend*

S/he’s “my friend” [alluding to the stereotypical notion that Indian store vendors refer to their customers as “my friend”]

In the above examples, one can clearly see Finlayson et al.'s (1998 in Ditsele & Mann 2014) point being illustrated. The Sepitori examples include both English words (e.g. *my friend*) and Setswana elements (such as the word-order).

Schuring (1985 in Ditsele & Mann 2014, p. 160) explained that Sepitori came from the Kgatla³ dialect of Hammanskraal within Pretoria, with elements from Sepedi, Afrikaans, and English added to Setswana. Hymes (1971 in Ditsele & Mann 2014, p. 160) also suggested that Setswana formed the substrate of Sepitori, whilst Sepedi was the initial superstrate of the mixed language. Ditsele and Mann (2014, p. 160) illustrated Hymes' impression and the interactions between the different languages in the sentences below:

4. English: *I know this man; he likes to wear one shoe.*
 Afrikaans: *Ek ken dié man; hy hou daarvan om een skoen te dra.*
 Setswana: *Ke a mo **itse** monna yo; o rata go rwala **setlhako** se le sengwe.*
 Sepedi: *Ke a mo tseba monna yo; o rata go APARA seeta se le tee.*
 Sepitori: *Ka mo **itse** dié man; o rata ho APARA **setlhako** se one.*
 - Ditsele and Mann (2014, p. 160; Afrikaans MM)

In the Sepitori example above, one notes the borrowed words from the different languages like English (*one*), Afrikaans [*dié man* ('this man')], Setswana [*itse* ('know'), *setlhako* ('shoe')], and Sepedi [*apara* ('wear')], as well as the fact that the word order for declaratives in Sepitori is identical to that of the Black South African languages (i.e. Subject-Verb-Object).

³ The Kgatla are one of a number of tribes of Setswana-speaking people that originates from South Africa and Botswana (Ditsele & Mann 2014, p. 164).

As a lingua franca, Sepitori is habitually used by the black citizens of Pretoria with different mother tongues to facilitate communication amongst themselves (hence it is called a Black South African language) (Ditsele & Mann 2014, p. 161).

In conclusion, while Pretoria has a rich, yet equally sad, history (specifically from 1910 to 1994) as one of the four capital cities of South Africa, poverty and unemployment are a lived reality for many, more especially within the Wolmer community where this research was conducted. The dynamics between Sepitori and the other official languages spoken within Pretoria should be interesting to note, but this will not be explored purposely in the study. This study is primarily interested in the language ideologies of learners in Pretoria partially pertaining to their mother tongues and wholly pertaining to their Indo-European languages as well as how to successfully elicit relevant themes from these learners about their language ideologies.

1.5. Thesis Outline

Chapter 2 offers an overview of the literature relevant to the topic of the thesis. The chapter gives a basic summary of models of motivation related to SLA, after which it turns to a discussion of the motivation model that inspired this research study, namely Dörnyei and Ottó's 1998 Process Model of L2 Motivation. Studies on language ideologies of school children are also detailed in the chapter. Chapter 3 looks at the methodology and the challenges faced during completion of this research, and Chapter 4 comprises the full data presentation and analysis. Here, I provide all the relevant themes elicited by each data elicitation technique and quantify them in terms language (mother tongue, English, Afrikaans) and prevalence amongst at least 50% of either the male or the female participants, or both. The concluding remarks and an evaluation of the overall results are provided in Chapter 5, where I also make recommendations for future research to avoid the shortcomings experienced throughout this research study.

1.6. Definition of Core Terms Used in this Thesis

Data elicitation technique: Data elicitation is the process of collecting knowledge (data) from a human source of knowledge considered capable of sharing that (relevant) knowledge required for the purpose of a study (Cooke 1994, p. 802). Therefore, a data elicitation technique is the means or the instrument that is utilised by a researcher to extract relevant knowledge from a participant to inform their study.

Language ideology: A language ideology is a set of beliefs about a language's perceived structure and use, which are deemed justifiable or rational by the user (Silverstein 1979, p. 193).

Motivation: Motivation is a combination of an individual's desires and efforts to achieve a set goal (McGroarty 1996, p. 5).

Pre-adolescent: Pre-adolescent is the period of human development occurring from approximately the age of nine to the age of 12 years (*Preadolescence*, Merriam-Webster.com).

Second language acquisition (SLA): Second language acquisition (or second-language learning) is, in the broader sense, the learning and subsequent acquisition of the ability to speak a language other than one's own mother tongue. This process often, although not always, involves meaningful interaction with the target language, in the form of exposure to natural communication (Krashen 1981, p. 1).

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1. Outline of the Chapter

In this chapter, I will discuss motivation models in L2 learning, second language acquisition (SLA), and language ideology. The first part of the chapter will discuss our current understanding of SLA and present a historic overview of the theories in the field of motivation in L2 learning. In this section, I will provide examples of theories on motivation, as well as a detailed discussion of one main theory, namely Dörnyei and Ottó's 1998 Process Model of L2 Motivation. The reason for discussing motivation in L2 learning is that the participants in the study and their classmates have no choice as regards L2 learning. Their Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT) (which is not their mother tongue) has been chosen for them by their parents, and the L2s that they learn at school (one as a Home Language and one as a First Additional Language, as required by the Curriculum Assessment Policy Statements in place in South African government schools) have been predetermined and need to be passed. Consequently, their language ideology (how they view English and Afrikaans, their school L2s) might influence their motivation and vice versa. I will then conclude the chapter with a discussion on existing research on language ideologies of school children.

2.2. Second Language Acquisition and Motivation Models

L2 learning is an interesting phenomenon that is typically studied within the fields of psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, and social psychology. Various factors have been identified as influencing the success of L2 learning and, of these, motivation has emerged as one of the most important influencing factors. The study of motivation in L2 learning has led to a number of theories, such as Gardner's 1985 Socio-educational Model, the 1985 self-determination

theory of Deci and Ryan, Bernard Weiner's 1985 attribution theory, and Locke and Latham's 1994 goal-setting theory. Stemming from the Canadian scholarly tradition on the topic of motivation in L2 learning, L2 motivation is seen as having a largely socio-psychological approach and emphasis. Robert Gardner and Wallace Lambert (1972 in Dörnyei 2003, p. 5), who were pioneers in this field, described L2s as mediating factors that were flanked by ethnolinguistic groups in multi-cultural settings, meaning that the motivation to learn an L2 is a key factor in the success or failure of intercultural communication and/or association.

Whereas an L2 is considered a 'learnable' topic at school, seeing that "discrete elements of the communication code (e.g. grammatical rules and lexical items) can be taught explicitly, it is also socially and culturally bound, which makes language learning a deeply social event that requires the incorporation of a wide range of elements of the L2 culture" (Dörnyei 2003, p. 4). For many decades, researchers have looked for L2 motivation models that can explain the different aspects involved in SLA. Dörnyei and Ottó (1998, p. 43), for example, strove to find a motivation model that could serve as a theoretical basis for their methodological applications intended for classroom interventions in L2 education. Their endeavour proved unsuccessful, because the models they investigated did not provide a "sufficiently comprehensive and detailed summary of all relevant motivational influences... and they did not do justice to the fact that motivation is not static, but dynamically evolving and changing in time" (Dörnyei and Ottó 1998, p. 43). This later inspired them to develop their own motivation model that addressed the inadequacies of previous models (see Dörnyei & Ottó 1998). The resulting *Process Model of L2 Motivation* was also, in part, enthused by Heckhausen and Kuhl's *Action Control Theory* (Dörnyei & Ottó 1998, p. 46). Heckhausen and Kuhl's theory of volition (which ultimately inspired the Action Control Theory) states that any enquiry into motivation should be divided into two main categories, namely the study of how intentions are formed,

and the study of how intentions are implemented, because “why one wants to do something and that one wants to do it is one thing, but its actual implementation and successful completion is another” (Dörnyei & Ottó 1998, p. 46). Another guiding principle for the theory of volition is the metaphorical ‘Rubicon’. The Rubicon separates (i) the decision-making stage (choice motivation), where a positive evaluation results in an intention to act and then guides that action sequence until a goal is achieved, from (ii) the implementation stage (executive motivation), where motivational maintenance and control during implementation are vital (Dörnyei & Ottó 1998, p. 46). We return to the Rubicon below, because it features strongly in Dörnyei and Ottó’s (1998) model.

Briefly explained, the Action Control Theory “attempts to explain the common observation that people’s actual behaviour does not always correlate with the priorities set by their expectancy and value beliefs, and that even when the expectancies and values remain constant, the accompanying motivational tendencies show a marked waxing and waning... [T]here is also the phenomenon that people sometimes persist in pursuing an activity in spite of more attractive alternative goals” (Dörnyei & Ottó 1998, p. 46). On this theory, the main element is *intention*, or the so-called activated plan of action a person commits him/herself to. This element requires the simultaneous activation of two memory systems, namely the *motivation memory system* (which can provide a continuous source of activation independently of other structures) and the *action memory system* (which holds the behavioural maps for the performance of specific acts). Consequently, the activated plan, in conjunction with the motivation memory, becomes a dynamic plan, signifying the instigation of an executional process, after which the motivation memory assumes a maintenance role (which is an important part of the Action Control Theory). This motivation memory is turned off once an action has been successfully executed (Dörnyei & Ottó 1998, p. 46).

A final distinction is made between *action* – when the person’s focus is on a “fully-developed and realistic action plan” – and *state orientations* (similar to learned helplessness) – when the person’s attention is focussed on the present state (such as the status quo), past state (like failure), and/or a future state (such as unrealistic goals). Therefore, state orientations prove to be counterproductive dispositions, although various other factors like individual differences may render some people more inclined towards one orientation than the other (Dörnyei & Ottó 1998, p. 47).

One more well-developed and researched aspect of L2 motivation is the *integrative* aspect of Gardner’s 1985 motivation theory. Gardner has often used, and emphasised the importance of, this concept in three different forms in his work: as integrativeness, integrative orientation, and integrative motion (Dörnyei 2003, p. 5). He explained that, although the term is often utilised in literature, a closer look at it reveals that “it has slightly different meanings to many different individuals” (2003, p. 5). This renders the concept somewhat problematic since it has no one precise meaning or parallels in any of the mainstream fields of motivational (social) psychology. So, broadly explained, an integrative disposition concerns “a positive interpersonal/affective disposition towards the L2 group and the desire to interact with, and even become similar to, valued members of a speech community. It implies an openness to, and respect for, all other cultural groups (that the person is interested in) and their ways of life. In the extreme, it might involve complete identification with the community” (Dörnyei 2003, p. 5). Integrativeness thus indicates the extent of emotional identification with an L2 group, although, in the absence of the physical L2 community (within the speaker’s immediate environment), the emotional identification may be transferred to the intellectual and/or cultural values associated with the L2 (2003, p. 6). An example can be given of first language speakers of Mandarin living in China, who wish to learn English due to an association with or a desire to associate with the

English-speaking world's values, in the absence of an actual native English-speaking community in their city.

Alternative, well-known theoretical approaches to Gardner's motivation theory are the Self-determination theory, Goal theories, as well as the Attribution theory. Self-determination theory, the brainchild of Deci and Ryan (1985), is one of the most influential models of motivational psychology; the main aspects of this theory are *intrinsic motivation* and *extrinsic motivation*. Kim Noels, a prominent researcher in this field, has done extensive work that has offered insights into these two concepts of motivation, how they complement the theory, as well as how they should be tested in L2 learning (Dörnyei 2003, p. 8). Attribution theory (chiefly developed by Bernard Weiner 1985) is also one of the main models used in studies related to student motivation, after it successfully challenged Atkinson's classic achievement motivation theory in the 1980s (Dörnyei 2003, p. 8). This theory attempted to link individuals' historical experiences with their efforts at forthcoming achievement, by means of so-called causal attributions as mediating links. The reasoning supporting this idea was that the idiosyncratic reasons to which we often attribute our historical achievements and failures "considerably shape our motivational disposition" (Dörnyei 2003, p. 9). Therefore, if a person views and attributes their previous shortcomings in certain activities as being beyond their control, they may not try harder to complete those activities in the future. Thus, the locus of one's control plays a major role in motivation according to this theory.

Lastly, Goal theories centralise the importance of goals (classically referred to as *orientations*) in L2 motivation. These theories typically look at the specificity of learners' goals as well as how often goal-setting strategies are used (referred to as *goal salience*) (Dörnyei & Ottó 1998).

2.3. The Process Model of L2 Motivation

As mentioned above, the Process Model of L2 Motivation was inspired by Heckhausen and Kuhl's Action Control Theory. The Process Model constitutes two dimensions, namely the *Action Sequence*, and the *Motivational Influences* (Dörnyei & Ottó 1998, p. 47). The Action Sequence comprises behavioural processes where “initial wishes, hopes, and desires are first transformed into goals, then into intentions, and then, hopefully to the accomplishment of the goals” (Dörnyei & Ottó 1998, p. 47) which subsequently leads to a final evaluation. The second dimension, according to the model, includes the energy and motivational reserves that underlie behavioural processes (Dörnyei & Ottó 1998, p. 47). *Figure 2.1* below offers a schematic representation of this Process Model of L2 Motivation.

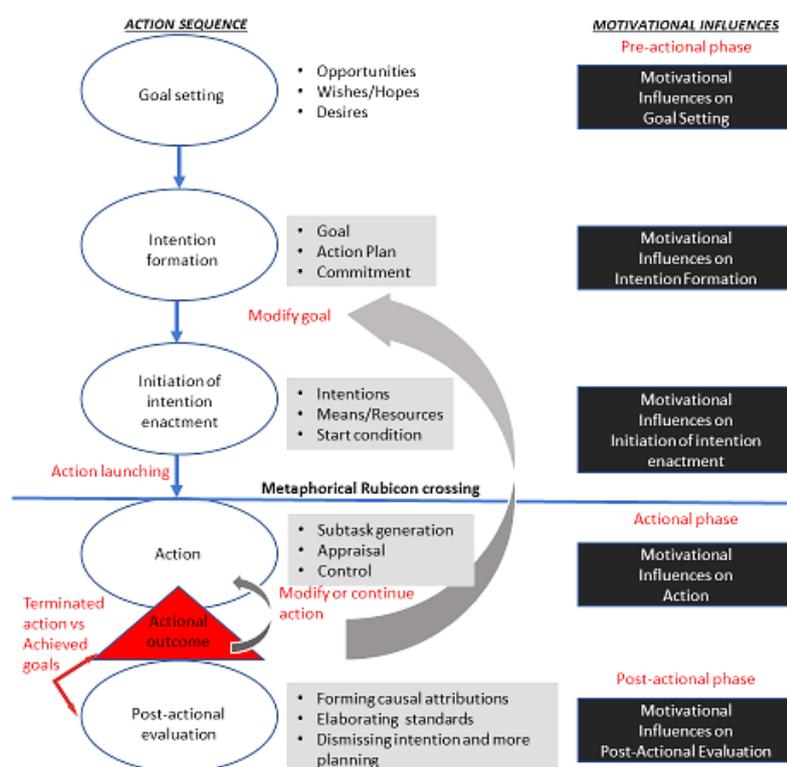


Figure 2.1: Schematic representation of the Process Model of L2 Motivation (Dörnyei & Ottó 1998, p. 48)

Above, we can see the different components that make up the two dimensions. Both dimensions are comprised of three chief phases: the pre-actional phase, actional phase, and post-actional phase.

2.3.1. Pre-Actional Phase

During the pre-actional phase of the **action sequence**, the main act that takes place is *goal setting*, made up of three preceding groupings⁴: our wishes and hopes; the desires we might have; as well as the opportunities that become available to us before we even have the desire to pursue them. The **motivational influences** (which effectively act as energy sources that either inhibit or enhance the actional sequence; Dörnyei & Ottó 1998, p. 51) at play here include our subjective values and norms, the expectations of others (such as our family), as well as the perceived incentive value of reaching the goal (pertaining to instrumentality) and language attitudes (also pertaining to our desire for integration or our lack of such desire). Our beliefs and ideas about the L2, and what we believe about the language and its speakers are thus important. These attitudes form “influential predispositions in the learners about the learning process, stemming from the learners’ families, peer groups, and prior learning experiences” (Dörnyei & Ottó 1998, p. 55). In the event where there is no commitment to a goal, even with all the above-mentioned influential factors, the final push – namely urgency or a unique opportunity – may be the only required component to instil a sense of commitment in the individual.

Goal represents the actual realisation of the preceding sub-phase (goal setting). Although considered ill-defined in theories of motivation, *goal* has varying constructs that range from

⁴ Note, in *Figure 2.1* above, that the groupings in *goal setting* (opportunities, wishes/hopes and desires) are not shaded grey as they are not yet considered to have reached a state of concrete reality (Dörnyei & Ottó 1998, p. 49).

being categorised as a primary to even a secondary determinant of action (Dörnyei & Ottó 1998, p. 49). The Process Model views goals as the initial mental representation of a desired outcome; these are an integral step to the successful achievement of any action⁵ (1998, p. 49). However, to fully realise goals, another crucial component is necessary in the equation, namely the *action plan*. Dörnyei and Ottó (1998, p. 49) argue that it is not enough to merely catalyse action if the concrete steps to be taken have not been planned out by the individual beforehand; therefore, an adequate and realistic action plan containing all the technical details and requirements needs to be made. We thus need to formulate intentions, and when we do so, our expectations of success would be influenced by the amount of confidence we have in ourselves and our abilities, how difficult we think the goal will be to achieve, how much support we receive or expect to receive from those around us, our anxiety levels, the quality and quantity of L2 contact we've had, as well as how proficient we think we are in the L2. These form part of the **motivational influences** during the pre-actional phase (Dörnyei & Ottó 1998, p. 52). The relevance of the goal we set for ourselves as well as the cost-benefit calculations we have made to determine the benefits of pursuing this goal are also important (Dörnyei & Ottó 1998, p. 54). Our constant need to achieve and avoid failure also plays an integral part, as well as the extent to which we believe we can achieve these goals through our own efforts and strategies, which refers to having an internal locus of control (Dörnyei & Ottó 1998, p. 55). The actual goal and its different components (viz. goal proximity, goal specificity, goal harmony/conflict, and the level of aspiration) and how these are evaluated also play an influential role. We similarly need to believe that there will be opportunities or options available to us that will help us achieve this goal.

⁵ Dörnyei and Ottó (1998, p. 49) also highlight that a goal is not parallel to an intention. The qualitative difference between the two concepts, according to the authors, is that an intention already involves commitment. This distinction is made to highlight the fact that, while we may have numerous hopes, wishes, and desires, we only make a concerted effort to realise a selection of those.

They go on to describe commitment-making as a “highly responsible personal decision [that] entails a significant qualitative change in one’s goals-related attitudes” (Dörnyei & Ottó 1998, p. 49).

When considering whether or not to launch into action and cross the metaphorical Rubicon, those individuals with a state orientation tend to be hindered by “intrusive thoughts about bugs, slips in strategy, and failure” (Dörnyei & Ottó 1998, p. 56). These types of individuals tend to put things off or delay intention enactment. Conversely, action-oriented people are proactive and more likely to carry out their intentions without undue delays. Perceived behavioural control is how easy or difficult individuals think a goal will be to achieve; it is vital for an individual to believe that they have the capacity and control to achieve a desired outcome (Dörnyei & Ottó 1998, p. 56).

Distracting influences and obstacles are the negative powers individuals often encounter and constantly have to deal with; individuals should be headstrong and be able to fight ‘temptations’ (Dörnyei & Ottó 1998, p. 56). Individuals ought to learn to be discerning and know when to downgrade and/or reassess an intention’s priority in the face of extreme difficulties or hurdles (Dörnyei & Ottó 1998, p. 56). Lastly, a final push that could help an individual, should they feel the need to give up, can come from simply imagining what would ensue should the goal not be reached; those perceived consequences of their inaction could act as a driving force to initiate action.

Operationalised intention is the “immediate antecedent of action, but... action does not follow automatically from it” (1998, p. 49), because some intentions can remain unfulfilled because of various reasons, such as the lack of opportunity, or an inability to act. To address this, Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) recommended two necessary conditions for a so-called ‘*action-launching impulse*’. The first is the availability of the necessary means and resources; the

second is the start condition (specified by the action plan, which assigns importance to one's intentions, subsequently determining the action sequence).

2.3.2. Actional Phase

The actional phase of the action sequence involves the application of the action plan. This is conceptualised as the crossing over of the metaphorical Rubicon, where the individual commits himself to carrying out the steps set out in the action plan, thus committing to moving from planning to action (Dörnyei & Ottó 1998, p. 50). Dörnyei and Ottó (1998, p. 49) further explained that “during the *actional phase*, three basic processes come into effect: *subtask generation and implementation*, a complex ongoing *appraisal* process, and the application of a variety of *action control* mechanisms”. Briefly explained, subtask generation and implementation are concerned with action initiation and application, as well as the continuous generation of subtasks as we try to complete the action plan. Appraisal concerns the constant evaluation of one's progress (ideal outcomes versus actual outcomes) and the stimuli provided by the environment (such as the varying physical and psychological contexts in which we find ourselves and which affect our progress). It is important to note that the appraisal of one area/situation can be transferred to the appraisal of another, different area/situation. For example, Dörnyei and Ottó (1998, p. 49) explained how failure in one language task could result in a generalised negative outlook on the entire language learning process. A learner struggling with the pronunciation of English articles may, for instance view the entire English language learning process as being too difficult for him/her, and maybe not even worth the effort.

Lastly, action control guards against the replacement of intentions should we suddenly find ourselves attracted to something new. Corno (1993, p.16) summarised this point as a “dynamic system of psychological control processes that protect concentration and directed effort in the

face of personal and/or environmental distractions, and so aid learning and performance”. To address this, Dörnyei and Ottó (1998, p. 50) identified three types of self-regulatory strategies, namely *action maintenance*, *language learning*, and *goal setting strategies*, and labelled these especially important for analysing the educational component of L2 learning.

The intensity of the “action-launching impulse”, which allows one to cross the metaphorical Rubicon and enter the actional phase, is determined by the force of the **motivational influences** that occurred in the pre-actional phase (Dörnyei & Ottó 1998, p. 57). Concerning the executive **motivational influences** on the actional phase, apart from the individual learner’s self-determination and self-perceptions, other external factors that affect motivational quality are the presence and actions of teachers and parents. How parents and teachers encourage and model certain behaviours for the individual, represent tasks, and/or provide feedback to the individual affects the overall quality of the executive motivational influence. This notion effectively ties in with the concept of language ideology, which will be discussed in section 2.4 of Chapter 2 below. Individuals also tend to have a so-called affiliative motive, which is the desire to do well and impress their superiors (Dörnyei & Ottó 1998, p. 59), therefore the role of teachers and parents should be emphasised.

Conflict can obviously weaken motivation in language learners; therefore, healthy conflict resolution strategies are vital. Knowledge of, and skills in using, self-regulatory strategies provide an important source of scaffolding against conflict and distractions, and helps to enhance motivation (Dörnyei & Ottó 1998, p. 59). Effective action control strategies are also handy when dealing with conflict, distractions, competing action tendencies, as well as one’s natural tendency to lose sight of the goal and get bored/tired of the activity (Dörnyei & Ottó 1998, p. 59). Essentially, all the above-mentioned points are important executive **motivational**

influences, and so is the ability to maintain the motivation and protect the active intention to achieve a goal.

2.3.3. Post-Actional Phase

The post-actional phase commences after goal attainment or action termination. What essentially occurs during this phase is that the completed goal undergoes evaluation to draw the next steps from the results. During this phase, the individual is not engaging in any action, but merely comparing his/her initial expectations (before the action) to the general outcome of the action and how well the action plan was followed (Dörnyei & Ottó 1998, p. 51). This is a vital phase as it makes a significant contribution to the individual's overall experience and allows him/her to “elaborate his/her *internal standards* and the repertoire of *action-specific strategies*. It is through such evaluation that an individual can develop a stable identity as a successful learner” (Dörnyei & Ottó 1998, p. 51).

Motivational influences during the post-actional phase include attributional factors, which refer to the different attributional styles people have that affect how they perceive and process events, as well as self-concept beliefs, which have to do with self-confidence and the degree to which some individuals think they are capable of reaching/achieving a goal. Self-concept beliefs also affect how individuals handle failure and/or success, with individuals who have high self-confidence and self-perception handling failures far better than individuals with low self-confidence levels (Dörnyei & Ottó 1998, p. 62). Evaluational/attributional cues and feedback are external factors that affect motivation. The quality of these evaluations and feedback is important as they can either enhance or lower motivation; again, the role of teachers and parents is vital in this phase (Dörnyei & Ottó 1998, p. 62). In conclusion, a solid action

plan, honest evaluation, positive self-perceptions, adequate conflict resolution strategies and a strong support system are all vital ingredients to successful L2 learning.

2.4. Existing Research on the Language Ideologies of School Children

The concept of language ideology will prove both important and relevant in informing this thesis and our understanding of language use by the participants. Silverstein (1979, p. 193) described language ideologies as “any sets of beliefs about language articulated by the users as a rationalisation or justification of perceived language structure and use”. Woolard (1992, p. 235) later elaborated on this concept by describing language ideology as a “mediating link between social structures and forms of talk... Ideology stands in dialectical relation with, and thus significantly influences, social, discursive, and linguistic practices”. Language ideologies can therefore inform the ways in which we conceptualise and represent language as well as how language is used, effectively providing a link between the social structures within our communities, power relations and language use, even at the micro-level (Makoe & McKinney 2014, p. 659). This micro-level in the education system, as explained by Makoe and McKinney (2014, p. 659), can start as early as Grade 1 and constitutes reproducing the communicative practices that are informed by, and reinforce, the existing language ideologies in our societies. This is an important concept to study in schools, because it is within the school contexts that certain ideologies are reinforced to learners, which then feed into how they interact with, and within, their broader society, beyond the educational environment. We will see how the linguistic practices in schools can influence language ideologies in the case studies that follow.

The manner in which we communicate is thus influenced by our beliefs and ideas towards the languages we speak as well as our uses of those languages (Layton 2014, p.19). Layton further added that “language ideologies are about more than the individual speakers’ attitudes to their

languages or speakers using languages in particular ways. Rather, they include the values, practices and beliefs associated with language use by speakers, and the discourse which constructs values and beliefs at state, institutional, national and global levels” (Layton 2014, p. 20). However, Woolard (1992, p. 238) stated that there are multiple other conceptualisations of the term and one cannot assume that any one understanding is relevant to all people. She therefore offered four perspectives on the concept of ideology and how it has been understood in discourse. The first understanding of ideology is that it is concerned with “consciousness, beliefs, notions, or ideas... the more intellectual and conceptual constituent of culture, the basic notions that the members of society hold about a fairly definite area... and the implications of such sets of notions” (Woolard 1992, p. 237). The second understanding is that ideological concepts originate from, are entrenched in, reflective of, or receptive to the experience or interests of a particular social position (Woolard 1992, p. 237). Thirdly, ideologies are understood by some as encompassing “distortion, mystification, or rationalisation” (Woolard 1992, p. 238). This conceptualisation of ideology is, of course, a more negative stance towards the notion, found in early French idéologues and empiricist American sociology (Woolard 1992, p. 238). Finally, the fourth understanding of ideology is that it is an “intimate connection to social power and its legitimisation” (Woolard 1992, p. 238). This understanding suggests that ideologies are essential for sustaining asymmetrical relations to power, domination, and legitimising or distorting relations (Thompson 1984 in Woolard 1992, p. 238). On this latter understanding, ideology is continually “the tool or property of dominant social groups; cultural conceptions belonging to oppositional or subordinate groups are by definition non-ideological” (Woolard 1992, p. 238).

2.4.1. Case Studies: Language Ideologies and the South African Language Policy

In her 2014 study, Layton investigated language ideologies in a linguistically diverse primary school classroom and took the stance that, for better comprehension, languages should be observed within their respective socio-historical contexts, instead of categorising them as bound and separate entities (Layton 2014, p. 20). Layton stated that language ideology in South Africa tends to privilege English and English speakers, much like in the United States of America (Layton 2014, p. 19). This gives the impression that English, as a language, and one's ability to speak it fluently will more likely be revered than one's knowledge of, and proficiency in, other languages, even one's own mother tongue. It would be interesting to observe whether this ideology is prevalent in the results of this research. Layton (2014, p. 20) also took note of the manner in which primary school students used different languages to "gain social power in the classroom", as well as construct their own social identities and positions within their groups. Her research found that, although the goal of the Language in Education Policy was to promote multilingualism in the educational environment, literature showed that "teachers and school administrators frequently spread a discourse of stigma and deficit toward speakers of other languages in the classroom" (Layton 2014, p. 27). This goes back to the abovementioned statement that English and native-like proficiency therein are highly regarded in South Africa, which also ties in with Makoe's (2007) own findings in her research study on language discourses and identity construction in primary schools (discussed below).

Makoe, in 2007, conducted an investigation into the discourses around English in a Grade 1 classroom in a suburban area east of Johannesburg, in a bid to illustrate how "English has been discursively constructed in everyday classroom life [and] why particular discourses come to dominate and what particular knowledge hierarchies become endorsed" (Makoe 2007, p. 234). Throughout the study, Makoe (2007) observed how the educator would give more praise to

learners who seemingly spoke English ‘well’ as well as the students’ consequent resistance to “speaking in their home languages because this was portrayed as a ‘deficit’ in English if they had to resort to their home language” (Layton 2014, p. 27). Further investigations and an interview with the school’s deputy head teacher on the institution’s language policy also revealed that the learners were ranked as ‘successful’ or ‘unsuccessful’ primarily based on their linguistic capabilities in English (Layton 2014, p. 27). The extract below illustrates these observations.

5. **Ayanda:** *My puppy is sick and my mother said we will take it to the vet when I come back from school.*

Teacher: *Good, my girl. Listen to Ayanda’s English. That’s why you got a certificate...*

- See Makoe (2007, p. 234)

Makoe suggested that this extract offered valuable insight into the manner in which learners were socialised into “different identity positions and how they respond to the constraints and possibilities the classroom offers” (Makoe 2007, p. 234). Also, Makoe broke this down to it being a situation where “the value attached to English language proficiency is immeasurable and those who decipher the rules of the ‘game’ become winners... Thus Ayanda received official school recognition and validation” (Makoe 2007, p. 240). The second extract, below, documented during ‘story time’, offers another example of this emphasis on English proficiency in the school and how the ability to speak English well could earn the learners accolades and favour with the educator. In Makoe’s own words, “categorisations, such as ‘Good, my girl’; ‘Listen to Ayanda’s English’; and ‘Your English is good too’, illustrate the type of dominant discourse that operates in this school” (Makoe 2007, p. 241):

6. **Teacher:** *Well done, my boy. Tell your mummy that you read the whole book. Your English is good too. Let’s thank him.*

Class: *Thank you. Very much. Keep it up. Shine.* (singing at the top of their voices)

Bobby: *Can I take the book home? I want to read to her.*

Teacher: *That is fine, my boy. Tell her I am very proud of you.*

- See Makoe (2007, p. 241)

Conversely, improper or ‘insufficient’ English proficiency elicited a more negative response from the educator towards the learners, as illustrated in the extract below:

7. **Koketso:** *I went to the pet shop then my mother buyed me...*

Teacher: *bought me.*

Koketso: *bought me . . . then . . . they buyed me...*

Teacher: *I said bought, bought [with emphasis]. Speak in your language.*

Koketso: *bought...*

Teacher: *What did you find in the pet shop?... (Inaudible).*

Koketso: *Fish.*

Teacher: *Fish. Right. Now, what does that mean? It is very nice to bring home a pet but what does that mean to you? What is your, your job now?*

Teacher: *(Inaudible). Speak in your language. If it is hard, speak in your language.*

- See Makoe (2007, p. 242)

Considering the above extract, Makoe (2007, p. 242) penned how it was interesting to note that, although the educator spoke only English, she encouraged the learner, a mother tongue speaker of Setswana, to ‘speak it’ in her language – a prompt which the learner did not reciprocate, seemingly due to the perceived and perpetuated culture of speaking only English in the classroom. The educator’s tone was also much less congratulatory than in the first two extracts, evidently due to the learner’s inability to speak English ‘well’. Observing such interactions between a person in a position of power (the educator, in this case) and a learner will leave an impression on the other learners who observed such interactions and shape their ideology towards English inside, and outside of, the classroom – that, “in the ‘market place’ of the

classroom, nothing gets you accolades but speaking, writing, and reading in English” (Makoe 2007, pp. 242-243) and doing so well.

In a final study on language ideology to be discussed here, Singer and Harris (2016, p. 165) investigated language use within a North Australian community in an attempt to identify the key language practices they utilised to support the maintenance of the smaller languages in their multilingual community. One of the research aims pertaining to language ideology was answering the question “Who *should* use what language when and why?” (Singer & Harris 2016, p. 170). One interesting ideology the authors found was that, unlike the traditional Western understanding of *mother tongue*, the community under study emphasised the importance of the father’s language as determining how individuals linguistically identified themselves. This is very similar to how I was taught to identify as *Motswana* (belonging to the Tswana ethnic group), because my father is a Tswana man. Therefore, had I been raised in an isiZulu-speaking household, I would still have identified as *Motswana* by virtue of my father’s ethnic group and language or, in other words, *inherited patrilinearly* (see Rumsey 1993 in Singer & Harris 2014, p.193). Singer and Harris explain that this understanding was related to linguistic ownership in their North Australian study community, and that such linguistic ownership was a “corollary of land ownership, which passes through the father’s line. Of course, children usually speak the language of their main carers first, but these languages do not have the privileged status of the father’s language” (2016, p. 193).

In summary, the authors found that, where language ideology was concerned, the dominant language ideologies, which projected power relations between indigenous clans onto communicative practices, counter-acted all egalitarian ideology within the North Australian community. Consequently, the three ‘main’ dominant languages were deemed “proper” whilst

the other, smaller languages were seemingly being erased, further propagating the dominant language ideology (Singer & Harris 2014, p. 200).

2.5. Chapter Conclusion

This chapter contained a detailed discussion of Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) Process Model of L2 Motivation. This is but one model which attempted to explain where and how motivation can influence the success of second language learning. The participants in this study all had to learn at least one L2 for educational purposes (primarily because they went to schools in which their mother tongues were not used as LoLTs). They were asked, in this study, about their opinions on their L2s and not specifically about their motivation or lack thereof to learn the L2s. However, Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) model explained how (un)successful acquisition of a L2 could influence their opinions of such language/s. Since the motivation to learn an L2 is a multifaceted phenomenon (as pointed out in this chapter), it is important to consider such motivation when discussing the opinions (and language ideologies) of the participants on their L2s.

I concluded the literature review with an outline of language ideology and the various understandings of the concept, which also tied in with Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998, p. 59) opinion that, how educators (and parents) encourage and model certain behaviours for children, represent tasks, and/or provide feedback affects both the children's motivation to learn a language as well as their affiliative motive (their desire to impress, or receive praise from, their superiors by means of learning a language). Three case studies were presented as illustrative examples that exhibited the power of ideology to reinforce certain beliefs and behaviour (see Makoe 2007), and to maintain or erase small, non-dominant languages (see Singer and Harris 2016). This analytical framework is insightful to this study as I am precisely interested in the

participants' ideology/ies pertaining to their language use and perceptions, as well as how these feed into their current belief systems and everyday lives.

Chapter 3: Methodology

As mentioned in Chapter 2, the Process Model of L2 Motivation was concerned with second language acquisition (SLA) and the motivation to successfully acquire native-like proficiency in a L2. According to the model, learners go through a series of steps to build up the motivation that will ultimately help them to successfully acquire a language. These steps include creating and implementing an action plan – crossing the metaphorical Rubicon and achieving the set goal, the specifics of which were discussed in detail. Chapter 2 also examined language ideology and how people in positions of power, such as educators in primary schools, have the ability to influence children’s language ideologies by means of reinforcing and modelling certain behaviours.

Since the primary objective of this study was to identify the most effective data elicitation techniques in pre-adolescents, I did not investigate how the participants navigate through the different phases of the Process Model of L2 Motivation when learning/acquiring a new language. Rather, I will investigate the participants’ language ideologies pertaining to their additional languages and consider the model as providing a vantage point from which to formulate the research questions and guide the overall observation during data collection and analysis.

3.1. The Nature of the Study

The primary objective of this study was not to investigate the motivation of the participants to acquire an L2, but rather the ability of various techniques to successfully elicit relevant themes pertaining to language ideologies from the participants. Not only is little known about the language ideologies of multilingual pre-adolescents in South Africa, equally little is known or

understood about how best to elicit relevant and ample data from pre-adolescents on this topic. I consequently dove into this research study almost blindfolded, with a few articles and books for general understanding. The study itself is cross-sectional as well as qualitative and quantitative in nature. This is because, when assessing the effectiveness of the different data elicitation techniques, the quality of the data, in addition to the quantity of the participants' responses, were evaluated. So, while the themes addressed by the participants were assessed qualitatively, the number of themes elicited from each data elicitation technique were tallied, as will be explained below.

3.2. Participant Selection

Set in the context of Pretoria North, the participants were sourced from an outreach programme (to be called Jacob's House for the purpose of this study) in the careworn area of Wolmer. The participants were selected based on the following four characteristics: race, age, nationality, and ethnicity (see explanation below).

To acquire participants, a formal request to conduct research (see Annexure A) was written and sent to the Jacob's House manager via email after an initial meeting at the community project site, during which the manager verbally expressed consent for the facilities to be used as a research site for the study. The consent letter asked for permission to (i) gain access to the premises, (ii) approach the children who participated in the after-school activities, and (ii) use the facilities to conduct the data collection with the selected participants.

Subsequent to the formal request, access to the communal hall was granted on condition that we only make use of it between 15:00 and 15:30 daily, as it was reserved for other community-building activities at other times. The in-house social workers also offered their assistance in

identifying relevant participants for this research as well as handing out the parental consent forms to the participants (see Annexure B). The selected participants were then tasked with delivering the consent forms to their parents, with the assistance and reassurance of the Jacob's House social workers, and returning the signed forms to the facility. The initial phases did not go well as 80% of the first 12 children selected to participate in the study failed to return the consent forms, for a variety of reasons. More than half (50%) of the participants claimed to have lost or forgotten the forms at home, and 10% lived with their grandparents who could not read or write, and therefore would not give consent. A further 20% opted out of the study and/or stopped attending the aftercare programme. Only 20% of the initial 12 selected participants returned the forms. This resulted in a second round of participant recruitment occurring outside the original premises of the outreach programme's premises and, as a result, most of the participants were sourced from a primary school in the area, one of the schools close to the aftercare facility. This second batch of participants was sourced mainly through reliance on the snowball effect, where one successfully secured participant was asked to tell his/her peers about the study and ask them whether they would be interested in taking part. As most of the children were from the Wolmer area, where I grew up, they were excited about the idea of helping me 'obtain' my master's degree and hoped to see the pictures of me graduating at the end of the study. The problem with securing participants thus did not lie primarily with potential participants finding the study unattractive, but with the parents not granting written consent and/or not returning the forms.

As each participant brought back their signed parental consent form, they were again tasked with delivering the personal background information questionnaires to their parents or guardians for completion (see Annexure C), before data collection could commence. This was done to verify certain information about the participants, such as their ethnic group, nationality, sex, age, and linguistic profiles. After the background questionnaires were completed by their

parents and returned, the participants were briefed on the aims of the study; they were told that I needed information from them regarding the languages they were learning at school and their overall experience of school-life. After the briefing, each participant was asked to sign an assent form (Annexure D) stating that they understood their rights as participants, that they knew they could opt out of the study at any given time and that they gave assent to be interviewed and recorded for the purposes of this study only.

3.3. Participant Characteristics

The ideal participant for this study was a 10 to 12-year-old black (African) South African, Setswana/Northern Sotho-speaking primary school child who resided within the Wolmer vicinity and/or went to school in the area. The reason for this selection was to keep the group as homogenous as possible, and to represent a portion of the local demographic. There also existed a sizeable population of foreign nationals who could speak Setswana and/or Northern Sotho in the area; however, they were excluded from this study. This decision was primarily based on the fact that they might not have been in South Africa for an extended period of time, and that they could possibly have had different experiences within South Africa – experiences which I might not understand and/or be able to relate to. White (Caucasian) South African children were also excluded from this study as the public schools in the particular area of study only offered tuition in two mediums – English and Afrikaans. Having one's own mother tongue as the language of learning and teaching (LoLT) could also present a different set of issues and/or experiences that I may not understand or be able to relate to, as a mother tongue speaker of Setswana who attended an English- and Afrikaans-medium school and, therefore like the participants in the study, completed my schooling in a language that was not my mother tongue. In summary, a more heterogeneous group would have made it harder to interpret the results.

There are three public primary schools in the Wolmer area, namely *Laerskool Danie Malan*, *Laerskool Rachel De Beer*, and *Laerskool Voortrekker-Eeufees*, and, as mentioned above, the majority of the study participants were sourced from one of these⁶. To diminish any effects of a possible sex bias on the obtained results, an equal number of males and females were selected to participate (five males and five females) and, due to the scope and scale of this study as well as time constraints, only 10 participants were selected in total. All 10 participants had English as sole medium of instruction at school and were comfortable conversing in English. They were also mother tongue speakers of a South African Bantu Language⁷.

3.4. Data Collection and Elicitation Techniques

As previously mentioned, all the interviews were scheduled to take place after school hours at the aftercare facilities in Wolmer, Pretoria North. There was a total of five data collectors, including myself (the researcher), and each data collector was assigned a specific data collection technique in order to increase within-technique consistency. Each technique had a schedule drawn up with the aim of completing the data collection over a period of 10 days per technique (two school weeks), given the time constraints set by Jacob's House. Each data elicitation technique schedule was planned around a maximum of 30 minutes per child, and the order of the techniques was randomised for each participant, so as to avoid presentation order effects in the data. All interactions and interviews were recorded by video for later analysis by me.

⁶ In order to reduce identifiableness, the name of this school is not mentioned here.

⁷ South African Bantu Languages are a group of African languages spoken by people who have roots or live in Southern Africa. The word *Bantu* can be directly translated to "the people" and is made up of the plural prefix *ba-* and the stem *-ntu* (person) (*Bantu Languages*, The Columbia Encyclopedia). There are currently nine official Bantu languages in South Africa.

While there are various tools and techniques researchers can use to collect data from participants, some of the more well-known techniques are questionnaires and closed-ended interviews. For this research project, a variety of data elicitation techniques, varying in complexity, were used in an attempt to elicit as high a quantity of themes as possible from the pre-adolescents regarding their language use and language ideologies. The specific data elicitation techniques that were used were *Language Portraits*, *Telling Short Stories*, ‘*Tell Me About...*’ (open-ended questions, delivered interview-style), *Interviews* (closed-ended questions), and *Language-related Video Clips*. While the majority of these data elicitation techniques are self-explanatory and easy to use, language portraits required a bit more effort from both participants and the data collector and so I assigned this technique to myself. Each of these techniques will be discussed below, starting with the language portraits.

3.4.1. Language Portraits

A language portrait comprises a blank human body silhouette on paper. Participants are requested to colour-in this silhouette using different colours to represent (i) the different languages they speak as well as (ii) their perceptions of the uses of those languages in their everyday lives in relation to different body parts (Busch 2010, p. 286). These portraits were first used when researchers realised the importance, and relevance, of visual representations in meaning-making processes, seeing as “the change in mode of representation from the written or spoken word to the visual helps to shift the focus of attention... The switch in mode of representation from word to image helps to deconstruct internalised categories, to reflect upon embodied practices and to generate narratives that are less bound to genre expectations” (Busch 2010, p. 286). Busch used language portraits to elicit descriptions and examples of language practices from 13 to 15-year-old learners at an English and Afrikaans-medium school in the Cape Flats, Western Cape. The learners were later required to respond to a questionnaire which

helped to establish individual (personalised) language profiles that addressed a variety of topics, from current language learning and language use, to future plans and aspirations (Busch 2010, p. 286). It is important to note that language portraits do not only rely on, or investigate, narratives around language use, but also the social dimensions of those language practices and the ideologies that they unveil (Busch 2010, p. 284). For this reason, I expected this technique to elicit relevant and ample data on language ideologies from my participants.

Busch (2010) successfully used the language portraits (together with the learners' narratives and related questionnaire) as a data elicitation tool to create personalised linguistic profiles for each participant. She encouraged the learners to interpret their drawings and motivate their colour-to-body-part choices. For example, one learner whose first languages were English and Afrikaans with isiZulu as the L2 explained that, while she thought English was her stronger language, she felt that Afrikaans was her favourite language. She then used the colour brown to portray her favourite language and fill-in the body of the silhouette. She explained (copied verbatim) "[Brown] because it is a very nice color and i love it and i am brown. Because God made me brown and i am blessed of it" (Busch 2010, p. 286). The young learner had made an interpersonal connection between her favourite language (Afrikaans) and the colour of her skin (brown) and then coloured the body of her portrait brown to emphasise the centrality of this language to her personal identity. English was located at the arms and hands to represent its instrumentality as a tool used to navigate life at school, and isiZulu was located at the legs because the learner felt that "knowledge of an additional South African language [would] be useful in helping her find a job" (a shared sentiment that I came across in my own data analysis). The head space of the silhouette was subsequently filled by so-called 'Bee-Bee' which is reportedly the language of rap music (Busch 2010, p. 286).

Given this single account, the relevance of using language portraits is apparent. Not only can researchers learn about individuals' linguistic repertoires, they can also engage those individuals and learn more about their overall linguistic ideologies and the values they place on each of their languages. Mossakowski and Busch (2008) concluded that language profiles not only tell us "how language repertoires and identities change over time", but they also tell us how individuals could adopt certain positions according to "particular linguistic settings and constantly negotiate the basic conditions of language diversity" (see Bristowe 2013, p. 34). It is only through this deconstruction that individuals can become aware of their own biases/perceptions towards language diversity while also realising that "language diversity is an innate but intrinsically changing part of their lives" (Bristowe 2013, p. 34).

For this technique, the interviewer first had to establish rapport with the participant. The guiding instructions for this technique read as follows:

Establish rapport: *State the purpose of the interview (what I am going to do), the motivation (why) as well as the timeline for the interview (how long).*

Introduce yourself and explain that you are a data collector and would like to talk to them about a few language situations. (see Annexure E).

To guide the interviewer, the following possible script was provided:

Possible script: *"I am going to give you a page with an outline of a person on it, think of the figure as yourself. And I am going to provide you with coloured pencils as well. I need you to write down all the languages you can speak next to the figure, and then I am going to need you to give each language a colour. Only one colour can be given to a language. After that, you can colour the person in however you choose, but you should use only those colours that you have used for your languages. Okay? Do you understand what I need you to do?" (see Annexure E).*

Only once the participant had agreed, could they be handed the blank language portrait to complete. After completing the portrait, they were encouraged to discuss their portrait with me.

3.4.2. Short Stories

The aim of this second data elicitation technique was to prompt participants for information by means of telling them short stories. The narratives were introduced to the participants, by the assigned research assistant, in the first person (as though the events in the narratives had happened to the assistant). The participants were then asked whether they could relate to the narratives and were encouraged to elaborate by way of their own short narrative about language. All the participants received the same set of scenarios, and in the same order. The instructions for this elicitation technique read as follows:

Establish rapport: *State the purpose of the interview (what I am going to do), the motivation (why) as well as the timeline for the interview (how long).*

Introduce yourself and explain that you are a data collector and would like to talk to them about a few language situations.

Possible script: *“I want to share some things with you. I will tell you a few stories about the experiences I have had, okay? Are you willing to share some of your own stories after I have told you my stories?”.*

After telling the participant each narrative, prompt them to share similar experiences. Move on to the next narrative should they not want to respond or say they cannot relate to the narrative.

Wait for the participant to agree to participate and then proceed with the task. (see Annexure F)

As can be seen above, the research assistant assigned to the task was given instructions regarding the appropriate opening conversation between themselves and the participants, which was to establish rapport and provide information about the interview process and

expectations. A possible script was provided to give them an idea of how to initiate the data collection session.

This technique included a total of five short stories depicting different situations individuals might find themselves in. The first story, titled *Lost in town*, described a scenario where a foreign lady, who spoke only Mandarin, was lost in the popular and very busy business hub of Marabastad in central Pretoria. The interviewer told the participants that he was the only one who could say a few words in the language and he approached the lost lady. Speaking very little Mandarin, the interviewer offered to help. The participants were then encouraged to practice saying the Mandarin words for *Hello* (“*nǐ hǎo*”) to get them engaged in the story. The story ended with the interviewer successfully assisting the lady after they settled for pen and paper, and then the participants were asked whether they had ever found themselves in a similar situation - where they were the only ones who could help someone because they spoke a specific language.

The second narrative, titled *Afrikaans as a language of tuition at school*, explores participants' ideology on English and Afrikaans as languages of learning and teaching (LoLT). The narrative described a scene where the interviewer got into trouble at school for not completing his Afrikaans homework as he could not understand the terminology required to complete the work. The participants were asked whether they could relate to this story, how they felt about the situation, and why.

Narrative three, *Lost in translation*, addressed heavy accents. In the described scenario, the interviewer was in the small town of Hammanskraal in northern Gauteng and on his way to the local *spaza* (tuckshop). The shop owner, a Nigerian native, had a ‘very heavy’ accent and this

resulted in some miscommunication. The interviewer ended up feeling offended by the seemingly rude shop owner, until a local resident explained that the owner was simply asking the interviewer how they (the shop owner) could be of assistance to him. At this point, the participants were asked whether they could relate or whether they had ever found themselves in a similar situation where they misunderstood someone because of a heavy accent, or perhaps even a different dialect.

Narrative four was titled *The teacher couldn't understand what I was trying to say* and described a 'memory' of the interviewer in Grade 1 at school. A friend had gotten hurt whilst playing a game of soccer on the playground and the interviewer had to go get help. In his shocked and youthful state, the interviewer tried to explain to the teacher what had happened but, because he was not a first language speaker of either English or Afrikaans, he was unable to adequately express himself and be understood. Instead, he shouted phrases like *red water* to describe blood. This narrative was meant to be entertaining and required some physical actions from the interviewer. We also hoped it would make the participants laugh and become more willing to engage and share information pertaining to their language ideologies. Again, the participants were asked about their own similar experiences and encouraged to share these.

The fifth and last narrative, *Multilingualism*, was about a trip to a fast food restaurant to purchase some fried chicken. While waiting in a long queue, the customers were notified in Setswana by the Setswana-speaking waitron that the restaurant had run out of chicken. The lady behind the interviewer was white and, assuming she could neither speak nor understand Setswana, the interviewer took it upon himself to translate the message. It turned out the lady was actually fluent in Setswana and understood what the waitron had said; they ended up

having a laugh about the misassumption. Again, the participants were asked whether they had relevant similar experiences to share.

The participants were not forced to listen to all five narratives and the interviewer had to use his own judgment to determine whether the participants were sufficiently engaged to continue with the data collection process. At the end of the activity, the interviewer thanked each participant for their contribution.

3.4.3. 'Tell Me About...'

The third data elicitation technique aimed to gather information from participants by means of open-ended questions about their ideologies on languages in general, and English and Afrikaans as additional languages in particular. Given the open-ended nature of this technique, the interviewer could follow up on responses and ask for clarification where necessary. The priority for this interview was to guide the conversations without being too involved in the responses received, and to allow the participants to provide as much information as they felt comfortable sharing. Thus, the theme of this session was 'Tell me about... ' and the interviewer script read as follows:

Establish Rapport: *State the purpose of the interview (what you're going to do) as well as the motivation (why) and the timeline (how long) for the interview.*

Introduce yourself and explain that you are a research assistant and would like to ask them a few questions.

Say something like: *"I would like to ask you some questions about different topics which you might have useful information about, based on your experiences at school, and the languages you speak. I want to learn more about you and I hope to use this information to help the researcher with her project. This interview should take about 15 minutes. Is that okay?"*

Once the child has given assent, the interviewer may proceed with the interview.

Instructions: *Tell the child that you would really appreciate it if they answered the questions to the best of their ability. Sit on the chair at the table and invite the child to sit with you. Gently encourage the child to keep talking by asking follow-up questions. Move on to the next question should the child not answer or refuse to answer. Reformulate the question to the best of your ability should the child not understand the initial question. Do not, **at any time**, pressurise the child into giving a response. (see Annexure G)*

This elicitation technique comprised a list of 14 predetermined questions, some of which had one or two sub-questions. The sub-questions asked were dependent on the participants' responses to the main questions. An example question is: "Tell me about your home language" (Question 1). The interviewer instructions stated that if a participant gave a brief answer like "it's okay", the interviewer should proceed to the specified sub-question/s (in this case, Sub-question 1.1) which read: "Do you think it is important to be able to speak your home language? (Why (not)?)", and "Do you love your mother tongue? (Why (not)?)". After answering these, the second sub-question (Sub-question 1.2) would follow: "Do people who do not speak your mother tongue think that your mother tongue is an important language? (Why do you think they do (not)?)". However, not all questions had sub-questions. Some questions like "Tell me about your classmates and the languages they speak." (Question 12) were completely open-ended and up to the participant to divulge as much as they wished to. As mentioned previously, this data elicitation technique was concerned with assessing how far we could prompt learners to give insightful and relevant responses through guided questioning.

3.4.4. Interviews

The aim of the fourth data elicitation technique was to ask questions directed at the multilingual pre-adolescents' ideologies on language, including English and Afrikaans as additional languages. The questions asked were specific and the interviewer had to stick to the script as

closely as possible, in a language that both the participants and the interviewer were most comfortable in. For this data elicitation technique, no follow-up questions were allowed.

The opening for this technique was the same as those previously mentioned – the interviewer had to establish rapport with the participants, explain the process, and attain verbal consent to conduct the research. The script guided the interviewer to say something along the lines of:

***Possible script:** I would like to ask you some questions about your background, some of your experiences at school, and the languages you speak. I want to learn more about you and I hope to use this information to help the researcher with her project. This interview should take about 15 minutes. Is that okay?"* (Annexure H).

The script then explained that, once assent had been attained (as mentioned previously), the interviewer should do the following:

***Instructions:** Tell the child that you are going to conduct the interview via imaginary telephone. Place your chair next to the child and put the simple boarder between you two in place. Each of you will then hold an object to your ear (an imaginary phone) and you (the interviewer) will ask the child (the interviewee) questions.*

*Move on to the next question should the child not answer or refuse to answer. Reformulate the question to the best of your ability should the child not understand the initial question. Do not, **at any time**, pressurise the child into giving a response.* (Annexure H).

The telephone game was introduced to ensure that eye contact need not be made, and to also bring in a spirited element to put the participants at ease.

This technique comprised a total of 27 questions divided into three categories: *general language questions, ideologies pertaining to English, and ideologies pertaining to Afrikaans.*

The general questions category asked basic questions about the participants such as which

primary school they attended (Question 1), and the number of languages they were fluent in (Question 3). These were principally to get the participants to share some basic knowledge about themselves and to ease them into the interview process with simple questions. The second category of questions, related to English, explored the participants' feelings towards English as a medium of instruction at school and its perceived usefulness in their lives. These included questions like "What do you think English can do for you when you are an adult (in the future)?" (Question 11) and "Would you want your children to learn English one day?" (Question 17). The final category also explored the participants' ideologies related to Afrikaans as an L2 at school and its perceived usefulness in their lives. As mentioned previously, no follow-up questions were asked, and all the information given by the participants had to be completely voluntary.

3.4.5. Videos

The main aim of the last data elicitation technique was to try and successfully elicit relevant and ample information from participants through the showing of short video clips. The participants were shown a total of five short videos and then encouraged to discuss what they had seen and what they thought about the events they had witnessed in the videos. This technique was also supposed to add an element of fun to the research process and potentially inspire the participants to share more relevant information on themes related to language ideology. The interviewer instructions were as follows:

Opening: Establish rapport, state the purpose of the interview (what you are going to do) as well as the motivation (the why) and the timeline (how long) for the interview.

Introduce yourself and explain that you are a research assistant and would like to show them a few videos and have a discussion about the clips.

Possible script: "I want to share a few videos with you and would like you to tell me anything you found interesting about these videos, okay?"

Wait for the learner to agree to participate and then proceed with the task.

After showing the participant each video, ask them what they thought about it and guide the discussion further on. Move on to the next video should they not want to respond to any particular video. (Annexure I).

All the videos were between 45 seconds and two-and-a-half minutes in length. The actual videos were saved on my laptop for use by the relevant research assistant. This entire part of the interview process took no longer than 15 minutes per participant, and each participant watched the videos in the same order, as per the script (see Annexure I).

The first video, named *Commercial*, was an advertisement by a global leadership training and language teaching company. In this clip, miscommunication resulted in an operator misinterpreting a distress message for a greeting; the video spoke to the theme of the importance of being proficient in English. Video 2, named *Wololo*, showed a young white boy singing the popular isiZulu song called Wololo (by well-known South African artist, Babes Wodumo). This video challenged stereotypes about white people and their perceived bilingualism (i.e. that white people can only speak English and Afrikaans). One of the longest videos, *Offensive Translator* (Video 3), was about a woman who pretended to be a multilingual translator to her boss but, instead of translating the different languages spoken during the meeting between international business people, she merely mimicked the salient segmental and super-segmental features of the relevant languages, effectively offending the business people and embarrassing her employer. The fourth video, named *Dialects (Do you speak English?)*, was about an American man who went to London and asked the English-speaking locals whether they spoke English. This made for comical but confusing interaction for the locals. The video also highlighted how different accents can affect communication, to the point where a speaker is perceived as communicating in another language. *Rwandan Athlete* (Video 5) featured an athlete being interviewed about his athletic performance in English at an

international event. Although the athlete seemingly tried his best to respond in English, his utterances were incomprehensible, leaving the interviewer lost for words.

As mentioned previously, all five videos were light-hearted and intended to add a comical feature to the data collection process, as well as inspire conversation. As a data elicitation technique, this method was expected to be the most effective in inspiring participants to offer the most (relevant) information. (I will go into detail on this in Chapter 4).

3.5 Data Collector Training

A total of four research assistants were needed, for the reason that each assistant was going to administer one of the five data elicitation techniques (in order to increase within-technique consistency), and I administered one data elicitation technique. I made use of my social networks to source suitable research assistants. All four research assistants were chosen on the basis of their first languages being a South African Bantu language and them having native-like English proficiency. The characteristics of the four research assistants and the researcher are provided in the table below.

Research Assistant 1 was still in high school at the time of data collection. She knew most of the participants as they were her younger sibling's schoolmates. Because of the research assistant's youth, I allocated the closed-ended interviews to her, since I was of the opinion that she would find it easier to conduct the interviews in a light-hearted manner, and thereby keep the participants focussed and interested, more so than the other, older research assistants (myself included).

Research Assistant 2 was in his first year of university when the data collection phase commenced. He was a lively story-teller by nature, so I believed this characteristic would make

the role required by the *Short Stories* technique more natural to him and that this would encourage the participants to construct their own narratives instead of providing minimal responses.

Table 3.1. *Characteristics of the data collectors*

Characteristic	Research Assistant 1	Research Assistant 2	Research Assistant 3	Research Assistant 4	Researcher
Age	17	21	25	45	24
Sex	Female	Male	Female	Female	Female
First language	Setswana	Setswana	Sesotho	isiZulu	Setswana
Other languages spoken	Afrikaans English isiZulu Shona	Afrikaans English Sesotho	Afrikaans English isiZulu Setswana	Afrikaans English isiXhosa Sepedi Sesotho Setswana Shona Tshivenda Xitsonga	English Afrikaans isiZulu Sepedi Sesotho
Highest level of education	N/A	National certificate (Matric)	Diploma	National certificate (Matric)	Honours degree
Occupation	High school student	First-year student	Call-centre agent	Stay-at-home mom	Full-time master's student
Data elicitation technique assigned	<i>Interviews</i>	<i>Short Stories</i>	<i>Videos</i>	<i>'Tell Me About...'</i>	<i>Language Portraits</i>

Research Assistant 3 had extensive experience working with children; this made her best suited to participate in this study. However, due to unforeseen events and personal responsibilities, this research assistant could no longer participate in the data collection process. Research Assistant 2 had to take over and complete the interviews on her behalf. He was sufficiently trained to do so beforehand.

Research Assistant 4 was a mother of three children, including one of the participants. To prevent any biases in the data, Research Assistant 1, who was also sufficiently coached, interviewed this participant.

I personally have varied experience working with students in higher education, teaching children, and conducting empirical research (most notably for my BA (Hons) degree).

In preparation for the data collection, the research assistants were instructed to ensure that the participants felt comfortable; it was vital to this research that the participants always felt safe and comfortable conversing with the research assistants, and never felt forced to offer information.

Each data elicitation technique had a related script (as explicated in section 3.3 of this chapter) which detailed the questions that would be asked during the data collection sessions as well as how this should be done, and each research assistant was coached individually, based on the data elicitation technique assigned to them. For example, for data elicitation technique 4 (*Interviews*), the assigned research assistant was coached on how, and how not, to ask follow-up questions, as stipulated by the script. The research assistants were also coached on how to talk to the participants during the data collection process, including how to react to unexpected occurrences (such as a crying or an unresponsive participant), and that they should reformulate their questions if the participant seems confused during the interviews (see, e.g. Annexures G and H). The allocation of data elicitation techniques and subsequent coaching also took the research assistants' individual strengths into account, where possible.

3.6 Data Transcription Procedure

As this research focussed on the quantity of themes found in the data gathered through each data elicitation technique, not all data was transcribed in its entirety. Only those parts pertaining to ideologies that 10 to 12-year-old black multilingual South African children demonstrate towards English and Afrikaans as additional languages, were transcribed.

The audio-visual data was used to (i) obtain a general overview of the language ideologies among the multilingual pre-adolescents, (ii) compare the language ideologies between girls and boys, and (iii) compare the quantity of themes elicited by the five data elicitation techniques. Thematic analysis was used to identify relevant themes in the data pertaining to the participants' language ideologies (see section 3.7 directly below); the data was then analysed quantitatively by means of a theme count.

As I scrutinised each participant's video recordings, I created a dedicated Excel workbook for each specific data elicitation technique and a spreadsheet under each participant's allocated codename. I also had the relevant interview schedule beside me to keep track of where the research assistant/I was throughout the interview, and whether any questions or sections had been skipped. I listened to the audio on the video recordings for key points pertaining to the participants' language ideologies and jotted these down on each spreadsheet. These key points were later collated into themes to be summarised later.

3.7 Data Analysis Procedure

As mentioned above, this research study conducted a thematic analysis of the data to identify prominent themes that emerged during data analysis and spoke to a general attitude towards English and Afrikaans held by the participants. Fereday and Muir-Cochrane (2006, p. 3) defined *thematic analysis* as “an exploration for themes that can be perceived as being

imperative to the portrayal of a phenomenon, where data is continuously re-analysed, and patterns are recognised within that data set". The data was summarised to highlight the keywords used by the participants in relation to the languages they spoke (and were learning), and, as Fereday and Muir-Cochrane (2006, p. 3) explained, this process involves listening to, interpreting, and summarising the raw data repeatedly, to identify prevalent themes.

With that said, the first step in this process was to perceptibly document the collected data. As far as the coding and labelling of themes was concerned, no specific template was drawn-up a priori, given that there were only 10 participants and the interest was solely on language ideology. The prevalent themes found in the data collected by each data elicitation technique were documented in the Excel workbooks instead. Each technique had an aptly named workbook consisting of 10 spreadsheets, and each spreadsheet was named individually using B1 to B5 for each of the five male participants, and G1 to G5 for each of the five female participants. Further details related to the naming conventions will be discussed in Chapter 4.

As each participant had a dedicated Excel spreadsheet assigned to him/her, the audio-visual data for each data elicitation technique was analysed in isolation. Therefore, since there were 10 participants, and each partaking in five interviews, there were 50 participant videos to be analysed. In doing so, I was able to document the relevant pieces of information provided by the participants pertaining to their language ideology (i.e., pertaining to their mother tongues as well as English and Afrikaans as additional languages) as captured in each video.

The next step was to recapitulate the data (in terms of key points related to the topic at hand). As explained, the 'relevant pieces of information' provided by the participants had to be in line with the objectives of this study, which were to document the pre-adolescent participants'

ideology/ies and feelings towards the languages they spoke and/or were studying at school. In so doing, I was able to identify and quantify the themes captured by each data elicitation technique.

Finally, I had to ‘connect-the-dots’. Crabtree and Miller (1999 in Fereday & Muir-Cochrane 2006, p. 7) described connecting the dots in codes as the procedure of determining themes and patterns within your data. However, one needs to be careful not to fabricate themes, which is a common problem in data analysis, where a researcher preconceives the outcome of the study and (unintentionally) documents their data to fit this outcome (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane 2006, p. 7); so, I had to be careful not to ‘see’ what I expected to find. Where themes had to be extracted from participants’ responses, I used the verbatim answers to cluster similar responses under a general theme. For example, responses such as “I use Language X so people can understand me” and “it’s important to learn Language X so you can communicate with other people”, were clustered under the theme: *Language X is important for communication*.

In the final step, I did a cross-comparison between all 50 Excel spreadsheets to identify the data elicitation technique that rendered the greatest quantity of themes. I was also able to effectively rank the techniques from most likely to produce the greatest number of themes, to most unlikely to produce a satisfactory number of themes.

3.8 Ethical Considerations

Before any data collection could commence, written and verbal assent had to be obtained from the participants (see Annexure D) and (because the participants were all minors) written consent had to be obtained from their parents or legal guardians (see Annexure B). The participants were informed that their participation was completely voluntary and that they

could withdraw from partaking in the research study at any time, even after giving assent to their participation. In the event of a participant feeling uncomfortable and/or pressurised into providing information, the researcher would have to immediately excuse the participant from the study. In the case of behavioural issues that could negatively impact the data collection process, the responsible participant would have had to be excused from further participation in order to avoid possible professional and/or personal conflicts.

Both the video recordings and the documented notes were treated confidentially and only the researcher and this study's supervisor could view any, and all, data collected from the participants. In order to maintain anonymity, each participant was assigned a codename, and the real participant names were known only to the researcher.

3.9 Methodological Challenges

One methodological challenge to this research study was obtaining relevant literature to serve as an example for referral or guidance on how to successfully elicit data from pre-adolescents. Apart from that, the biggest challenge to this study was the sourcing of viable participants over the entire data collection period. Although there was an official arrangement with the Jacob's House aftercare programme, the children who went to the aftercare were not all frequent attendees. Also, school holidays and school events negatively impacted on the data collection process. Some children simply stopped coming to aftercare midway through data collection, leaving a gap in their data and the need for a substitute participant. Finding female participants proved even more difficult, with only one female participant having successfully completed the entire data elicitation set by the time the first draft of this chapter was written. This was unforeseen and almost forced the study to abandon its goal for sex neutrality in order to meet the target sample size.

Some time into the data collection process, an issue arose pertaining to the agreed premises for data collection. Upon initial request to conduct research, I had met with the manager of the aftercare programme and explained the purpose of this research study. After sending an official request with my research proposal detailing the study plan attached, I was granted the necessary permission in writing. At this point, I assumed we were in agreement regarding the profile of participants required for the research study. However, an incident later occurred where two of the research assistants were unable to conduct data collection on the premises because a supervisor had deemed the study 'racist' (because it excluded white South African children within the specified age group) and therefore no longer showed interest in allowing data collection to take place on the premises of the aftercare programme. My team and I subsequently had to make alternative arrangements before the data collection could recommence. Since we had become familiar with the participants and their respective families by this stage, the location for the data collection was moved to my private residence in the Wolmer area for the rest of the duration of the study. This did, however, delay data collection, as new arrangements first had to be put in place with all participating children and their parents before data collection could continue.

Another, more complex, issue was English language proficiency; I noticed during the data analysis phase that, although the participants would request to be interviewed in English, their proficiency in the language was (considerably) lower than that of the research assistants. I also noted in the recordings that, in some instances, research assistants failed to take the participants' English language proficiency into account when delivering set questions. A question would, for instance, be asked verbatim, as it appeared on the interview schedule and, if the participant asked for clarification, one particular research assistant would simply repeat the question

(maybe at a lower speaking rate) instead of paraphrasing the question into simpler English, as prescribed in the script (see, e.g. Annexures G and H). This highlighted an issue of differences in English language proficiency between the participating children and the adult research assistants – one that this research had seemingly neglected to take into consideration seriously, and which could not be addressed, because it was only discovered after the data collection had been completed.

Chapter 4: Data and Analysis

This chapter will focus on detailing the data collected from the 10 pre-adolescent multilingual participants from the Wolmer area in Pretoria North. Here, I will explain what I found upon analysing each data set from the five data elicitation techniques, before discussing the findings and concluding the thesis in Chapter 5. From the beginning, this research aimed to answer two pertinent questions. They are repeated below for the reader's convenience:

- (i) What ideologies do 10 to 12-year-old black multilingual South African children demonstrate towards English and Afrikaans as additional languages?
- (ii) Which data elicitation technique/s yield/s the most themes from 10 to 12-year-old pre-adolescent multilinguals regarding their language ideologies?

This study thus considered language ideologies (as indicated in the first research question) and also asked a question pertaining to methodology. Not a lot of research has been done on the language ideologies of multilingual pre-adolescents. Equally, this study wanted to ascertain which data elicitation techniques would be most conducive to conducting research on language ideology with this age group.

As mentioned in Chapter 3, the participants were assigned codenames according to their sex (as I secured an equal number of both sexes to neutralise any possible bias in the results). The male participants were given a B prescript followed by a number and the females a G. So, the first boy who took part in the study was given the codename Participant B1, and the same was done for the female participants, where the first girl was given the codename Participant G1. The total number of interviewed participants was 15, but data from only 10 participants was utilised for this research study because the other five left the study prematurely and thus had incomplete datasets. The 10 included participants were involved through the entire data

collection process and experienced all five data elicitation techniques. As stated in Chapter 3, the data elicitation techniques were administered in a randomised order, different for each participant, to offset any possible bias or order effect in the data.

I will now discuss the data elicited by each data elicitation technique. Then, in the next concluding chapter, I will answer both research questions and provide quantitative information on the successes of each technique.

4.1. Language Portraits

The initial expectation, when the research proposal was being written and hypotheses were formulated, was that the *Language Portraits* technique (Annexure E) would inspire participants to speak candidly about their home language/s as well as their language repertoire, sharing information spontaneously and providing insight into their (maybe subconscious) views on the languages they spoke as well as how these languages related to their body parts. This hypothesis was based on the success that other researchers (notably Busch 2010) have had when using this technique to get school children to talk about their language repertoires. I hoped to obtain interesting comparisons between their languages and basic analogies from the participants through this technique. However, this turned out not to be the case. Although participants did talk about their languages, as will be seen below, the data did not reveal much about their ideology towards these languages.

The themes identified in this data set were primarily related to skin colour when explaining their choice of colours to represent a particular language, as seen in the responses below.

Participant B2: *I used brown [to represent isiZulu - MM] because it's my skin colour.*

Participant B3: *Zulu, it's brown because... most people... 'cause we're actually black, so... most people are Zulus, so that's why it's brown.*
Afrikaans... Ja... It's white people, when they're angry, they turn red.
So, that's why it's coloured red.

Participant G1: *Maybe it [yellow – MM] suits Afrikaans.*

However, as participant G1's response was vague and open to interpretation, she might not have been referring to the fairer complexion of some, predominantly white, Afrikaans speakers in and around the Wolmer area in which she lived.

In terms of the language-body association, two of the 10 participants placed English at their feet, and gave the following reasons for doing so:

Participant B1: *English is at the feet because I don't speak it often.*

Participant B2: *Because it [English – MM] can take me far in life.*

Above, Participant B2 expresses an ideology pertaining to the usefulness of English in his life (to be mentioned again below). Another association was made, by two of the 10 participants, between their mother tongues and their torsos. The two participants explained this as follows:

Participant B1: *Sotho is on the body because I speak it all the time.*

Participant B2: *Blue represents Setswana and it is my root language.*

For this data elicitation technique, only two of the participants offered direct information pertaining to their ideologies on the languages they spoke:

Participant B2: *Because it [English - MM] can take me far in life.*

Participant B3: *You just have to know Afrikaans.*

I don't like it [Sepedi – MM] much, but I have no choice. I just have to speak it at home.

*'Cause you have to know English, 'cause you also have no choice.
Just... You have to learn it.*

From the extract above, Participant B3 suggested that he had no choice but to learn three of the languages in his linguistic repertoire (namely, Afrikaans, English and Sepedi) and Participant B2 acknowledged the importance of English learning as a vehicle to success later in life. This latter ideology could have been reinforced by the educator/s at Participant B2's primary school and/or by family (e.g. section 2.4 of Chapter 2). No other information was offered pertaining to the other participants' language ideology throughout the administration of this technique. However, there were also some vague responses – for example, Participant G1 said the following when asked why she had picked red to represent her mother tongue (Setswana):

Participant G1: *Because I speak Setswana at home. I don't know why.*

The rest of the participants motivated their colours of choice for all the languages they included in their language portraits by stating that they assigned their favourite colours to their favourite languages. Below, I present four language portraits in order to provide an indication of the range of languages indicated on the portraits. Note that while Afrikaans is a widely spoken language in the Wolmer area and a compulsory school subject for all participants, Participant B1 (*Figure 4.1*) did not indicate any knowledge of Afrikaans in his language portrait. This could be interpreted as Participant B1 viewing Afrikaans to be an insignificant language (not worth mentioning), but it could also mean that Participant B1 had not fully understood the instructions, decided to only indicate his favourite languages, did not want to indicate all of his languages on his portrait, or forgot to mention Afrikaans. As explained in the methodology chapter (Chapter 3), the participants were interviewed about their language portraits immediately after completing them. Even so, only limited information was obtained from the participants about the choices they had made.

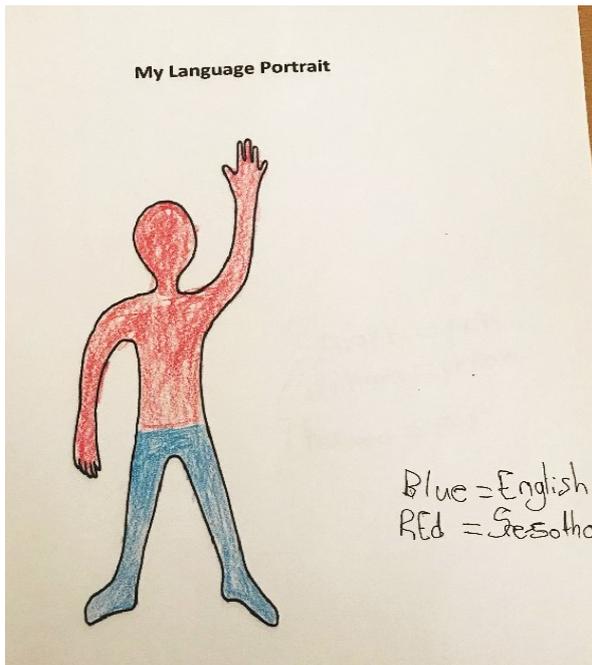


Figure 4.1: Language Portrait: Participant B1

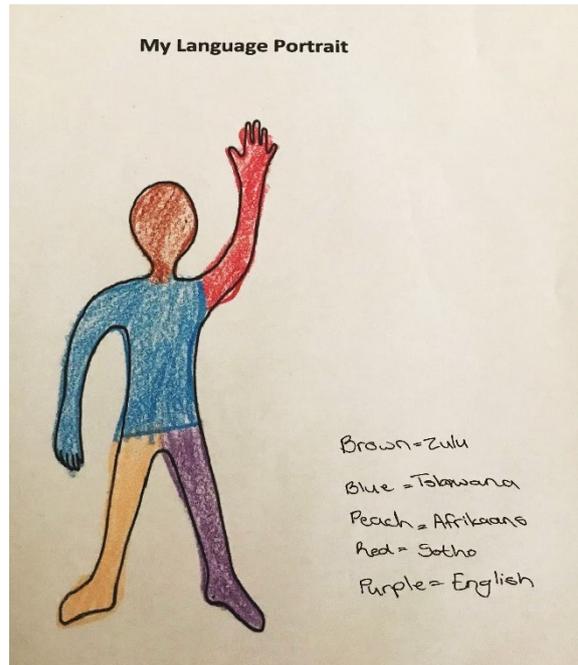


Figure 4.2: Language Portrait: Participant B2

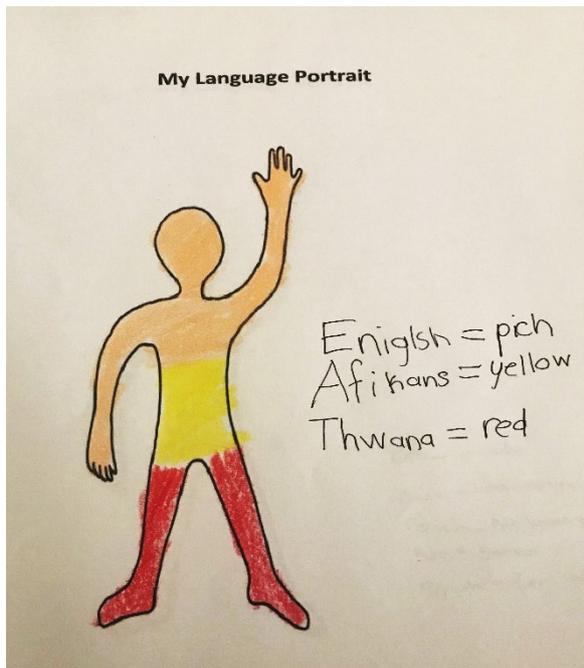


Figure 4.3 Language Portrait: Participant G1

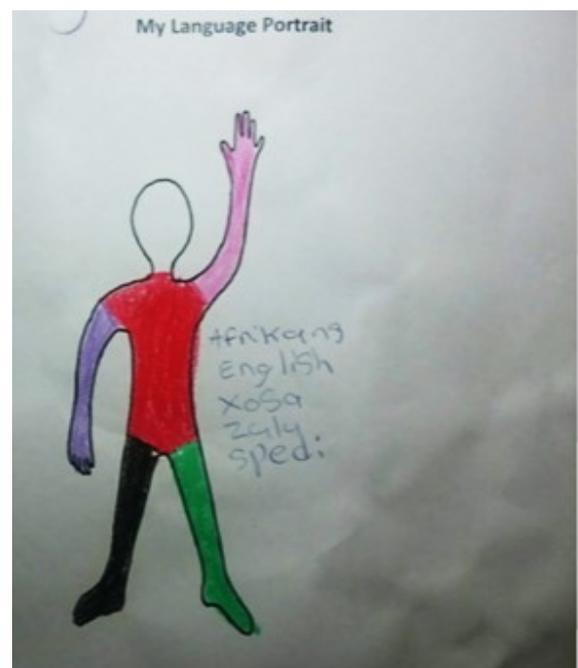


Figure 4.4: Language Portrait: Participant B3

4.2. Short Stories

The *Short Stories* data elicitation technique entailed telling the participants five short narratives about (scripted) experiences the research assistant went through some time ago (see Annexure

F). These were all around the theme of multilingualism and understanding other languages. The exact storylines for each narrative were discussed in Chapter 3. Here, I hoped to inspire dialogue between the research assistants and the participants. The reasoning was that sharing a seemingly personal account of a very likely experience would set the scene for a conversation around language, its importance (or lack thereof), and/or personal feelings and ideology around these languages. I hoped to at least elicit comments about the importance or usefulness of knowing a particular language in order to deal with the particular scenarios.

Unfortunately, the young participants seemingly interpreted every narrative and its instructions quite literally and either simply said they could not relate to the narrative or shared a story about a similar experience to the one described in the narrative, without offering any themes relevant to this research study. Consequently, this data elicitation technique yielded no usable data. Consider the extract below, which is typical of the responses provided by the participants when they did not simply state that nothing similar had ever happened to them:

Interviewer: *Have you ever been in a similar situation, where you were the only one who could help someone, because they spoke a different language?*

Participant B2: *Yes.*

Interviewer: *Really?*

Participant B2: *Yes.*

Interviewer: *Do you mind telling me about it?*

Participant B2: *[inaudible mumble - MM] This Portuguese lady who... who was asking me where the vegetable aisle is.*

Interviewer: *Which language was she speaking?*

Participant B2: *Portuguese. I didn't know, but... yeah. She could speak a little bit of English...*

Interviewer: *Oh, okay.*

Participant B2: *... So, I showed her the vegetable aisle.*

Interviewer: *So, you managed to help her?*

Participant B2: Yes. She could... she could speak English but not read it.

4.3. 'Tell Me About...'

This data elicitation technique aimed to provide a platform for participants to air their opinions about the languages they were taught at school (English and Afrikaans), as well as their feelings towards these languages and their mother tongue, in a structured but open-ended manner (see Annexure G). The interview questions ranged from “Tell me about your home language” (Question 1) to “If you could speak any language forever, and everyone in the world would still understand you, which language would this be?” (Question 7) and “Tell me about the importance of Afrikaans as a language” (Question 11). There was a total of 14 questions and the majority of them had sub-questions such as “Why did you choose this language?” (Question 7.1), for further elucidation.

In terms of the total number of themes successfully elicited from the participants via this data elicitation technique, the table below provides a summary. Please note that ‘prevalent’ in the table below (and the others that follow) simply means that the indicated numbers represent an occurrence rate of more than 60% amongst the 10 participants – i.e. more than six of the 10 participants produced the same theme:

Table 4.1. 'Tell Me About...' themes summary

Language:	Mother Tongue	English	Afrikaans
Themes:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If I could speak any language forever, it would be my mother tongue. • You cannot forget your mother tongue. • My mother tongue is important for communication. • My mother tongue is a traditional language. • My mother tongue is cool. • I love my mother tongue. • It's important to speak my mother tongue. • People who don't speak my mother tongue don't think it's important. • I am not allowed to speak my mother tongue at school. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • English is a global language. • English is an important language. • English is my most important language. • It's important to speak English well. • English is important for communication. • If I could speak any language forever, it would be English. • English will help me get a job. • Speaking English will make your job easier. • People who speak English don't think my mother tongue is important. • An English speaker would not rank my mother tongue first. • I'm proud of being able to speak English. • English speakers always perceive their language as the best. • Some people don't like English. • There are benefits to speaking English. • There are no benefits to speaking English. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It's important to speak Afrikaans. • It's not important to speak Afrikaans. • Afrikaans is an important language. • Afrikaans is not an important language. • Afrikaans is important for communication. • Afrikaans is not important for communication. • There are no benefits to speaking Afrikaans. • There are benefits to speaking Afrikaans. • Afrikaans can help me get a job. • I like Afrikaans as a language. • I dislike Afrikaans as a language. • I am not proud of being able to speak Afrikaans. • Only white people speak Afrikaans.
Subtotals:	9	15	13
Total Themes:	37		
Prevalent Themes:	2	5	1

I will now discuss the results obtained for each language (mother tongue, English, and Afrikaans).

4.3.1. Mother Tongue

Mother tongue education is not available to all children in South Africa. Although the country's Language in Education Policy states that children should be educated in their mother tongue until the end of the Foundation Phase (viz. the end of their Grade 3 year), there are 11 official languages in the country, and many other ethnic groups that speak other, non-official languages, which may not render this ideal practically possible. Consequently, not all schools in all areas can provide mother tongue education for each child enrolled at the school; catering for everyone's linguistic needs is not feasible at this point.

This section documents the responses given by the participants regarding their attitudes towards their mother tongues. Here are the themes addressed by the participants:

“I love my mother tongue.” - **Participants B2, B3, B4, B5, G1, G2, G3, G4, G5**

“My mother tongue is cool.” - **Participant B3**

“My mother tongue is a traditional language.” - **Participant B4**

“You cannot forget your mother tongue.” - **Participant B3**

“My mother tongue is the most important language to me.” - **Participant B4**

“My mother tongue is important for communication.” - **Participants B1, B4, G2**

“People think my mother tongue is important, so they can understand me.” - **Participant B4**

“It is important to speak my mother tongue.” - **Participants B2, B3, B4, B5, G1, G2, G3, G4, G5**

“People who don't speak my mother tongue don't think it's important.” - **Participants B1, G1, G2**

“I am not allowed to speak my mother tongue at school.” - **Participant B2, B3**

“I am not allowed to speak Sepitori at home.” - **Participant B3**

“If I could speak any language forever, it would be isiXhosa” [which is not the participant's mother tongue – MM]. - **Participant B3**

“I feel fine when I speak a language other than my mother tongue.” - **Participant B4**

The table below provides a brief summary of the themes identified in the participants' responses pertaining to their mother tongues:

Table 4.2. Interview themes pertaining to the participants' mother tongues

Number of Participants	Common Theme/s
All 10 participants (100%)	None.
Most of the participants (+60%)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It's important to speak my mother tongue (9/10). • I love my mother tongue (9/10).
Half of the participants (50%)	None.
Total number of themes:	2
Responses given by most males	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It is important to speak my mother tongue (4/5). • I love my mother tongue (4/5)
Responses given by most females	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It's important to speak my mother tongue (5/5). • I love my mother tongue (5/5).

The above responses (in *Table 4.2*) were summarised and, where a Yes/No question was asked and the participants responded with either a "Yes" or a "No" without further elucidation, the response was turned into a statement (see Annexure G for the interview schedule)⁸. Therefore, for Sub-question 1.1 "Do you love your mother tongue?", most of the participants gave a "Yes" response, which then translated to "I love my mother tongue". One interesting observation was Participant B3's response to Question 7: "If you could speak any language forever, and everyone in the world would still understand you, which language would this be?". His response was isiXhosa, and not his own mother tongue (which is Sepedi) because "most of the people I know speak it". The same participant also mentioned that he was not allowed to speak his mother tongue at school, which is unfortunately not uncommon⁹. Interestingly, Participant B3 also mentioned that he was not allowed to speak Sepitori at home. The perceptions of

⁸ The nature of this data elicitation technique presented a unique challenge in that each participant's utterances could have been a repetition of the words provided by the question that the research assistant asked. Thus, while the 'yes' or 'no' responses may be indicative of the participant's ideology, the extent of this is unfortunately beyond the scope of this research.

⁹ During my own primary and high school days, we were always instructed by our educators to not speak *that* language (making reference to our mother tongues), as though the various Bantu languages spoken by the different ethnic groups in the school all sounded (and therefore all were) the same. However, this topic is beyond the scope of this thesis and will thus not be discussed further.

Sepitori are varied, with some appreciating its creativity and ‘vibe’ and others, traditionalists, not recognising it as a language, but rather viewing it as a type of ‘broken’ Setswana¹⁰.

4.3.2. English

Below are the participants’ responses to the questions pertaining to their perceptions of English as a language:

“English is a global language.” - **Participant B1**

“English is my most important language.” - **Participant B3**

“English is my most important language; my mother tongue is my second.” - **Participant B1**

“English is an important language.” - **Participants B1, B3, B4, G3, G5**

“English is an important language because most people understand it.” - **Participant G2**

“English is an important language because people on the streets can also understand it.” - **Participant G4**

“English is an important language to people who find it interesting.” - **Participant B5**

“English is my second most important language.” - **Participant G1**

“English is more important than my mother tongue.” - **Participant G2**

“English is important for communication.” - **Participants B4, G1, G4**

“It’s important to speak English well.” - **Participants B1, B4, G1, G3, G4, G5**

“It is important to speak English well because people will laugh at you if you can’t.” - **Participant B3**

“It’s not important to speak English well.” - **Participant G2**

“It is not important to speak English well especially if it doesn’t matter to you.” - **Participant B5**

“If I could speak any language forever, it would be English.” - **Participants B3, G5**

“If I had to speak one language forever, it would be English because people speak English.” - **Participant B1**

“If I had to speak one language forever, it would be English, because almost every speaker of other languages can understand English.” - **Participant G4**

¹⁰ For a discussion of Sepitori, see section 2.3.2 in Chapter 2.

“If I had to speak one language forever, it would be English because it is easy to speak.”

- **Participant G2**

“If I had to speak a language forever, it would be SiSwati [mother’s home language – MM) and English, because English comes from England and it’s quite a nice country.” -

Participant B5

“They teach us English at school so that we can understand each other.” - **Participant B3**

“There are no benefits to learning English.” - **Participants G2, G4**

“There are benefits to learning English.” - **Participants B1, B5**

“English can help me get a job.” - **Participants B1, B3, G3**

“Speaking English will make your job easier.” - **Participant B3**

“English speakers will always perceive their language as the best.” - **Participant B3**

“An English speaker would not rank my mother tongue first.” - **Participant B2**

“I am proud of being able to speak English.” - **Participant B2**

“I feel perfect when I speak English.” - **Participant B2**

“Some people don’t like English.” - **Participant B5**

From the participants’ responses above, one can identify a number of recurrent themes pertaining to English. The table below (*Table 4.3*) shows the common themes identified from the participants’ responses.

Table 4.3. Themes pertaining to the English language

Number of Participants	Common Theme/s
All 10 participants (100%)	None.
Most of the participants (60%+)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If I had to speak one language forever, it would be English (6/10). • English is an important language (7/10). • It’s important to speak English well (7/10).
Half of the participants (50%)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • English is important for communication (5/10).
Total number of themes:	4
Responses given by most males	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • English is an important language (4/5). • English is important for communication (3/5). • English will help me get a job (3/5).

Responses given by most females

- It's important to speak English well (4/5).

Upon inspection of the table above, one notices that the theme “English will help me get a job” is not included in the total theme count. This is because only 40% of the participants brought it up. Three of the four participants who pointed out the instrumental uses of English, apart from its use as a tool for communication, were male. Also, the theme “If I had to speak one language forever, it would be English” was equally distributed between the two sexes (30% on both sides). The three prevalent themes (found in the data of at least 60% of the participants) were positive towards English and therefore cast a somewhat positive light on the language. To some extent, these results speak to Makoe’s (2007) and Layton’s (2014) findings on the perpetuation of seemingly dominant language ideology in school children (see section 2.4 in Chapter 2). Perhaps these themes could be a result of a frequent emphasis on the need to speak ‘proper’ English in the classroom environment and the required exclusive use of the language in the participants’ schools.

4.3.3. Afrikaans

Below are the participants’ responses to the questions pertaining to Afrikaans as a language:

“I like Afrikaans as a language.” - **Participants B3, G1**

“Afrikaans is a school language.” - **Participant B4**

“Afrikaans is a difficult language at school.” - **Participant G2**

“Afrikaans is an important language.” - **Participants B1, G1, G3**

“It’s important to speak Afrikaans.” - **Participants B3, G1**

“Afrikaans is important for communication.” - **Participants B3, B4, G1**

“Afrikaans is my most important language, followed by English.” - **Participant G1**

“Afrikaans is not an important language.” - **Participants B2, B5, G4**

“Afrikaans is not important for communication.” - **Participants B5, G2**

“It’s not important to speak Afrikaans.” - **Participants B1, B2, B5, G2, G5**

“It’s not important to speak Afrikaans because it’s not my mother tongue.” - **Participant B2**

“I’m not proud of being able to speak Afrikaans.” - **Participant B5**

“There are no benefits to speaking Afrikaans.” - **Participants B4, B5, G4, G5**

“There are benefits to speaking Afrikaans.” - **Participant G3**

“Afrikaans will help me get a job.” - **Participant B3**

“Only white people speak Afrikaans.” – **Participants G2, G4, G5**

“I don’t like Afrikaans as a language.” - **Participants B5, G2, G4, G5**

The table below shows the common themes identified from the participants’ responses:

Table 4.4. Themes pertaining to the Afrikaans language.

Number of Participants	Common Theme/s
All 10 participants (100%)	None.
Most of the participants (60%+)	None.
Half of the participants (50%)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> It’s not important to speak Afrikaans (5/10).
Total number of themes:	1
Responses given by most males	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> It’s not important to speak Afrikaans (3/5).
Responses given by most females	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> I don’t like Afrikaans as a language (3/5). Only white people speak Afrikaans (3/5).

This data elicitation technique revealed only one common theme amongst at least 50% of the participants regarding their ideology pertaining to Afrikaans as a language. The maximum number of participants in agreement per single theme was five. The themes addressed by 4 or 5 of the 10 participants were:

“It’s not important to speak Afrikaans.” (5/10)

“I don’t like Afrikaans as a language.” (4/10)

“There are no benefits to speaking Afrikaans.” (4/10)

As a result of there being only one common theme between five (not six) of the 10 participants, I do not find it substantive to arrive at a conclusion about the ideology of this study's pre-adolescent multilingual participants regarding Afrikaans as a language.

Moreover, although it seemed as though the elicited themes pertaining to Afrikaans as a language were negative, this is not entirely the case. Three out of the 10 participants expressed their *like* for Afrikaans as a language (*I like Afrikaans as a language*), three stated its importance for communication (*Afrikaans is important for communication*), and another three of the 10 thought that Afrikaans was an important language (*Afrikaans is an important language*). Furthermore, four of 10 stated that it was important to be able to speak Afrikaans (*It is important to speak Afrikaans*). Finally, one participant, Participant G1 even ranked Afrikaans as her most important language, followed by English (leaving her own mother tongue in third place). Interestingly, only the female participants expressed views that Afrikaans was the language of white people (*Only white people speak Afrikaans*), whereas only one male participant expressed the opinion that Afrikaans could help him get a job one day (*Afrikaans will help me get a job*).

4.4. Interviews

For this data elicitation technique, participants were asked a number of pre-set questions without any follow-ups from the research assistants (see Annexure H). The main aim of this closed-ended technique was to assess the amount of information participants would be willing to share with minimal prompting. Also, the research assistant had to be able to 'read' the participants and stop if and when the participants seemed uncomfortable or disinterested (which is usually indicated by one rapid monosyllabic answer after the other – typically a bare “Yes” or “No” – immediately following the end of the questions, with no noticeable time taken

for reflection or processing). When a participant gave an “I don’t know” response, no theme was documented or clustered. Thus, we only went as far as the participants allowed us to. And recall that participants were reminded before the administration of any of the techniques that they could opt out of a session at any time.

The interviews comprised a list of 27 questions ranging from those seeking general information about the participants (e.g. Question 2: *Which languages do you do at school?*), to those concerning their ideologies about English and Afrikaans as languages (e.g. Question 11: *What do you think English can do for you when you are an adult (in the future)?* and Question 23: *Do you think Afrikaans is a creative language?*). Below is an extract from Participant B1 to illustrate the type of two-word responses the participants gave (although considered a one-word response due to the mandatory identifiers used in Bantu languages). This was Participant B1’s response to Question 3:

Interviewer: *Okay, so how many languages can you speak well?*

Participant B1: *Tse ‘two’*

[Only] two

Another example of a similar response was observed in Participant G2’s interview, in response to Question 4:

Interviewer: *What do you think of your language abilities?*

Participant G4: *Nice...*

Other questions that produced mostly one-word or short responses were:

Which primary school do you attend? (Question 1)

Which languages do you do at school? (Question 2)

What language is most commonly used language in your community now? (Question 5)

Which language/s do you use on the playground? (Question 6)

Do you think English is good as a language of tuition? (Question 9)

Do you think it is important to learn English? (Question 10)

How do you feel about being in an English-only class? (Question 13)

Do you think English is a creative language? (Question 14)

What do you think of your English teacher? (Question 15)

Do you think it is important to learn Afrikaans? (Question 19)

Do you think Afrikaans is a creative language? (Question 23)

What do you think of your Afrikaans teacher? (Question 24)

Do you have friends who speak only English or Afrikaans? (Question 26)

Would you want your children to learn English one day? (Question 27)

Throughout all the interviews conducted, there was a lot of code switching¹¹ between the participants' mother tongue and English, as illustrated in Participant B1's response above: *Tse two* ('(only) two').

Below are the participants' responses to questions about their general language attitudes towards English and Afrikaans:

"English is an interesting language." - **Participant B5**

"(I think) English is a creative language." - **Participants B1, B2, B3, B5, G2, G3, G5**

"English is a global language." - **Participant B2**

"English is the most widely used language in my community." - **Participant G2**

"English is an important language." - **Participant G1**

"English is important for communication." - **Participants B3, B4**

"It's important to speak English." - **Participant B3**

"It's important to learn English." - **Participants B2, B3, B4, G2, G3**

¹¹ Code switching is a "process of shifting from one linguistic code (a language or dialect) to another" (Morrison 2018, sv. 'Code-switching'). Such switching can occur from one setting to the next or within one setting, from one utterance to the next, or even within one utterance (as was the case for most of the instances of code switching found in the data reported here).

“I want my children to learn English one day.” - **Participants B2, B3, B4, B5, G1, G2, G3, G4**

“My parents think English will benefit me in the future.” - **Participants B2, B3, B4, G1, G2, G4**

“English will help me get a job.” - **Participants B1, B3, B4, B5, G3, G4, G5**

“English is the future.” - **Participant B3**

“English will help me build a family.” - **Participant G1**

“English will help me to pass at school.” - **Participant G2**

“English can help me learn more about other people.” - **Participant B5**

“Speaking English gives me pride in my school.” - **Participant B5**

“It would be nice to speak only English.” - **Participant B3**

“I wouldn’t want to speak just English forever.” - **Participant G1**

“People who only speak English are really good at it.” - **Participant B2**

“I think people who only speak English are good.” - **Participant G2**

“People who only speak English are bad.” - **Participant B4**

“People who only speak English don’t try to learn other languages.” - **Participant G3**

“People who only speak English need to learn more languages.” - **Participant B4**

“It’s not important to learn English.” - **Participant B5**

“Afrikaans is a creative language.” - **Participants B3, B4**

“Afrikaans is a school language.” - **Participants B1, B4, G5**

“My parents value Afrikaans as a school language.” - **Participant G2**

“It’s important to learn Afrikaans.” - **Participants B3, B4, G2**

“Afrikaans will help me get a job.” - **Participants B1, B3, G5**

“Afrikaans is important for communication.” - **Participants B4, G2**

“Afrikaans is important for communication with other races.” - **Participant B3**

“My parents don’t value Afrikaans because they cannot speak it well.” - **Participant B5**

“Afrikaans is not important for communication.” - **Participant B5**

“It’s not important to learn Afrikaans.” - **Participants B5, G3**

“It is not really important to learn Afrikaans at school.” - **Participant B2**

“I would change Afrikaans as a language at school.” - **Participant G2**

“There are no benefits to learning Afrikaans.” - **Participant G3**

“Afrikaans can't do anything for me as an adult.” - **Participant B2**

“People who only speak Afrikaans are sad.” - **Participant B4**

- “People who only speak Afrikaans are not interesting.” - **Participant B5**
- “I feel shame for people who only speak Afrikaans.” - **Participant G3**
- “Afrikaans is not a creative language.” - **Participants B2, B5, G2, G3, G4, G5**
- “Afrikaans is a bad language.” - **Participant G3**
-
- “People find my language abilities interesting.” - **Participant B5**
- “Other people cannot speak my mother tongue.” - **Participants G3, G4**
- “People usually want to learn Setswana.” - **Participant B5**
- “I'd change Afrikaans for a mother tongue language at school.” - **Participant G3**

Table 4.5 below summarises the above data to give an indication of the themes found relating to the participants’ ideologies towards their mother tongues, English, and Afrikaans:

Table 4.5. Interviews themes summary

Language:	Mother Tongue	English	Afrikaans
Themes:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • People find my language abilities interesting. • People usually want to learn Setswana. • I'd change Afrikaans for a mother tongue language at school. • Other people cannot speak my mother tongue. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • English is a creative language. • English is the most widely used language in my community. • English is an important language. • English will help me build a family. • English will help me get a job. • It's important to learn English. • It's not important to learn English. • English is a global language. • People who only speak English are good at it. • People who only speak English don't try to learn other languages. • English is a creative language. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Afrikaans is a school language. • I would change Afrikaans as a school language. • Afrikaans will help me get a job. • It's important to learn Afrikaans. • It's not important to learn Afrikaans. • Afrikaans cannot do anything for me as an adult. • Afrikaans is not a creative language. • Afrikaans is important for communication. • Afrikaans is not important for communication. • Afrikaans is a creative language.

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • My parents think English will benefit me in the future. • I would want my children to learn English. • It's important to speak English. • English is important for communication. • English is the future. • People who only speak English are bad. • I think people who only speak English are good. • English will help me to pass at school. • People who only speak English need to learn more languages. • English can help me learn more about other people. • English is an interesting language. • Speaking English gives me pride in my school. • I wouldn't want to speak just English forever. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • People who only speak Afrikaans are sad. • I feel shame for people who only speak Afrikaans. • Afrikaans is a bad language. • There are no benefits to learning Afrikaans. • People who only speak Afrikaans are not interesting. • My parents don't value Afrikaans because they cannot speak it well. • My parents value Afrikaans as a language at school.
Subtotals:	4	24	17
Total Themes:	45		

Table 4.6 below provides a summary of the above data. From this table, one can see that, of the 45 identified themes, only six were prevalent amongst the 10 participants. Of those six, three themes were common amongst the male participants only. These were:

English is a creative language.

English will help me get a job.

It's important to learn English.

The other two prevalent themes that were common amongst the female participants were:

I would want my children to learn English.

Afrikaans is not a creative language.

Table 4.6. Themes pertaining to the participants' language ideologies

Number of Participants	Common Theme/s
All 10 participants (100%)	None.
Most of the participants (60%+)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I would want my children to learn English (8/10). • English is a creative language (7/10). • English will help me get a job (7/10). • My parents think English will benefit me in the future (6/10). • Afrikaans is not a creative language (6/10).
Half of the participants (50%)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It's important to learn English (5/10).
Total number of themes:	6
Responses given by most males	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I would want my children to learn English (4/5). • English is a creative language (4/5). • English will help me get a job (4/5). • It's important to learn English (3/5).
Responses given by most females	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I would want my children to learn English (4/5). • Afrikaans is not a creative language (4/5).

4.5. Video Descriptions

The participants were shown a series of five videos in the same order, provided by the script given to the responsible research assistants (see Annexure I). Recall that Video 1 showed how miscommunication resulted in an operator misinterpreting a distress message for a greeting, Video 2 showed a white boy singing a popular song in a South African Bantu language, and Video 3 was about a translator who cause offence by merely mimicking the salient features of other peoples' mother tongues. Video 4 showed an American man interacting with English-speaking Londoners, asking them whether they spoke English and pretending to not understand a word they were saying. Lastly, Video 5 showed a Rwandan athlete trying to respond to an interviewer's questions in English. After each video, the participants were asked to comment on what they had just seen.

The main aim of this data elicitation technique was to add a comical element and visual stimulation to the data collection process, with the hope that it would elicit relevant but spontaneous data from the young pre-adolescent participants. Upon analysis of the data, I found that, while most of the participants appreciated the apparent humour of each of the videos, they also took the exercise literally. That is, like in the *Short Stories* data elicitation technique, the participants only offered examples of situations similar to those in the videos, that they had been in, and no information pertaining to their views of the situations. These responses rendered most of the data unusable for this study's specific research questions.

However, not all of the post-video interviews were fruitless. Below are some of the responses from the participants regarding their language ideologies:

Participant B2: "It is important to speak English." (Video 1)

"English is a global language." (Video 1)

"It's interesting when white people speak a Bantu language." (Video 2)

"People assume white people only speak English and Afrikaans."
(Video 2)

Participants B3: "English is important for communication." (Videos 1 and 4)

"You need to understand a language before you can sing songs in that language." (Video 2)

Participant B4: "English is important for communication." (Video 1)

"You need to understand a language before you can sing songs in that language." (Video 2)

Participants B3 and B4 gave similar responses although not verbatim. In reality, the participants gave two different responses, but, as I explained in section 3.5 of Chapter 3, the participants' responses were analysed and sorted into general 'themes'. For example, in response to Video 1, the two participants' actual responses were:

Participant B3: *You need to learn how to speak English, so people can understand you.*

Participant B4: *It's important to understand English. It's the language of communication.*

Both these points fell under the general theme *English is important for communication* and were thus grouped under this umbrella theme.

Only three of the 10 participants offered valuable insight during the administration of this technique. The only prevalent themes between them were:

“English is important for communication.” (2/3)

“You need to understand a language before you can sing songs in that language.” (2/3)

As mentioned above, no other data relevant to this study was extracted from this data elicitation technique.

Chapter 5: Discussion and Conclusion

5.1. Introduction

Chapter 4 presented an analysis of the data collected from the 10 pre-adolescent multilingual participants during this research study. In Chapter 5, I will give an overview of the findings from each data elicitation technique and answer the two research questions explicitly. I will also offer an overall interpretation of what the findings could mean for future research on this topic. I will then end with concluding remarks on the expected and unexpected outcomes of the study.

5.2. What Ideologies Do 10 to 12-Year-Old Black Multilingual South African Children Demonstrate Towards English and Afrikaans as Additional Languages?

The first research question of this study concerned the participants' ideologies as they pertain to English and Afrikaans as additional languages, and the various data elicitation techniques prompted a variety of themes about both English and Afrikaans. *Table 5.1* (for English) and *5.2* (for Afrikaans) below provide an overview of the total themes pertaining to this research question elicited from all 10 participants. Note that the tables below only provide an indication of the prevalent themes elicited for each language (i.e. the themes that were common amongst at least six of the 10 participants that partook in the research study); this is done to provide a more accurate representation of the sample group's collective language ideologies.

In the tables below, *Positive themes* pertain to the themes that reflected a positive outlook shared by the participants towards the respective languages. These had positive words such as 'important' and 'good', as well as phrases that highlighted any positive aspects and/or uses of

those languages. Conversely, *Negative themes* refer to those elicited themes that had perceptibly negative words and phrases that conveyed negative feelings towards the languages. Lastly, *Neutral themes* were those themes that could not be clearly categorised, as they did not signal any explicitly negative or positive attitudes towards the languages:

Table 5.1: Summary of participants' attitudes towards English

	Positive themes	Neutral themes	Negative themes
English	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If I had to speak one language forever, it would be English. • English is an important language. • It's important to speak English well. • English is important for communication. • I would want my children to learn English. • English is a creative language. • It's important to learn English. • My parents think English will benefit me in the future. • English will help me get a job. 	None.	None.
Total	9	0	0

Table 5.2: Summary of participants' attitudes towards Afrikaans

	Positive themes	Neutral themes	Negative themes
Afrikaans	None.	None.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Afrikaans is not a creative language.
Total	0	0	1

Table 5.1 concerns the positive, neutral, and negative ideology towards English. The language ideologies of the participants are apparent in the tables above; one can see that nine out of the 10 prevalent themes pertaining to English and Afrikaans elicited in this study reflected positive attitudes towards English. This constitutes 90% of the prevalent themes between these two languages, drawing back to section 2.4 in Chapter 2 where the power of dominant language ideologies was discussed. Perhaps these themes were implicitly (or explicitly) reinforced and modelled to the participants at school and/or home. The theme *English will help me get a job* was categorised as positive; even though the theme itself did not clearly reflect the participants'

feelings about English, for the following reasons: Unemployment and the economic challenges it brings are common in the Wolmer area in which the participants live (see section 1.4.2 of Chapter 1), so I assumed that having a job would be viewed in a positive light by the participants. Another reason to support this categorisation was the notion (mentioned in section 1.3 of Chapter 1) that English is seen as the language of upward mobility (Hibbert 2016). One could also potentially argue that this theme is negative, if a participant perceives the notion that you need English to get a job as being unfair towards non-English speakers; however, this is open to interpretation. No explicitly negative themes pertaining to English were prevalent amongst the participants. In *Table 5.2*, we see that only one theme was prevalent amongst at least 60% of the participants, and this theme was negative: *Afrikaans is not a creative language*. (Recall that many other negative themes were present; however, only this one was offered by 60% or more of the participants).

To answer the first research question: Black multilingual South African pre-adolescents seem to hold positive ideologies as pertains English. 90% of the prevalent themes give the impression that a black multilingual pre-adolescent is more likely to have a positive than a negative attitude towards English. Where Afrikaans is concerned, the data seems inconclusive as only one pervasive theme was elicited. This accounts for 10% of the elicited prevalent themes. This might be taken to mean that black multilingual pre-adolescents have a negative ideology towards Afrikaans, since it is deemed not to be a creative language. However, I am hesitant to draw any conclusions on the basis of one single (prevalent) theme. Further investigation into the Language in Education Policy and how this is being applied in the schools in the area could provide valuable insight into the factors that played a role in the participants' overall language ideologies, including their diverse opinions on Afrikaans.

5.3. Which Data Elicitation Technique/s Yield/s the Most Themes from 10 to 12-Year-Old Pre-Adolescent Multilinguals Regarding Their Language Ideology?

Research question 2 pertained to a methodological aspect, asking which technique elicited the most themes on language ideology. This will be discussed in this section.

Short Stories proved to be a disappointing data elicitation technique in terms of the quantity of themes elicited. As explained in section 4.2 of Chapter 4, the participants all took the exercise quite literally and opted to share their own experiences that were similar to the different narratives told. It could be because the participants received this cue from the first narrative: “Have you ever been in a similar situation...?” (Annexure F). Also, perhaps the way this technique was set up contributed to its defeat. The aim of this technique read as follows: “To elicit information from participants by telling them narratives in the first person (as though the events in the narratives had occurred to me), and then ask them whether they can relate. Should the participant say yes, I will encourage them to tell me their own short narrative about languages” (Annexure F). This is a very broad aim and did not focus specifically on language ideology, unlike the closed and open-ended interviews. However, these results should not take away from the fact that this elicitation technique has been used successfully with child participants by other scholars – for example, Fiestas and Peña (2004) when they investigated narrative discourse in bilingual children who spoke Spanish and English; Chang (2003), who looked at parental narrative elicitation in Chinese mothers and their children; and Botting (2002), who explored narratives as an assessment tool for linguistic and pragmatic impairments. Unfortunately, for the purposes of this current study, no relevant themes were found during analysis of the data.

During the *Language Portraits* task, only two participants offered information pertaining to language ideology. From these two participants, four themes were collected (which is 4.3% of the total number of themes documented in this study). Although much was expected from this data elicitation technique, given its success in eliciting information from participants (including minors) about their linguistic repertoires (for example, see Busch 2010), it was not as successful when used to elicit data about the pre-adolescent participants' language ideology. Perhaps this technique was not even relevant to this topic, or maybe the participants were too young to offer information on language ideology while discussing their language portraits. The young participants only answered the questions that were presented to them and offered very little else. This is in contrast to the results gathered from the older 13 to 15-year-old South African participants in the 2010 Busch study (briefly discussed in section 3.4.1 of Chapter 3), where the participants provided detailed descriptions of the values they placed on the languages they spoke and even gave examples of their language practices.

In *Videos*, the participants were shown language-related video clips and expected to reveal some relevant information pertaining to their language ideologies. Unfortunately, much like *Short Stories*, the participants took the task literally and either stated that they could not relate to what they had seen in the video clips or gave accounts of similar situations they had found themselves in, without commenting on language ideology-related matters. A single example of such an account was given in section 4.5 of Chapter 4. This technique only contributed 6.5% (6 out the 92 elicited themes) to the overall theme count, and of the six themes that were documented, none were prevalent amongst the 10 participants.

The '*Tell Me About...*' data elicitation technique was made up of open-ended questions and yielded the second highest number of themes related to language ideology (37 in total). This suggests that pre-adolescent (and maybe younger) participants require more structured

interviews in order to offer the most relevant data about language ideology. From this technique, nine themes pertaining to the participants' ideologies on their mother tongues were successfully elicited, whereas 15 themes were elicited for English, and 13 for Afrikaans. Of these totals, only two themes pertaining to the participants' respective mother tongues were prevalent (i.e. found in the data of at least 60% of the participants), whilst four prevalent themes were found pertaining to their ideologies about English. Unfortunately, no themes pertaining to Afrikaans were present in the data of at least 60% of the participants. Instead, one theme was found to be common amongst 50% of the participants, two themes were documented as given by mostly females (3/5 females), and one theme by mostly males (3/5 males). Although the questions relating to the participants' mother tongues were relatively fewer than those asked about their language ideology pertaining to Afrikaans, the collected data suggests that the participants had varying views on Afrikaans and more homogenous views towards mother tongues in general, hence the lack of prevalent themes amongst the 10 participants applying to Afrikaans. As mentioned above, this data elicitation technique contributed 37 themes out of the 92 elicited themes (40%).

The fourth data elicitation technique, *Interviews*, yielded the largest number of relevant themes (45 out the 92 elicited themes) and contributed a significant 49% to the overall themes elicited in this research study. The main characteristic of this technique was that it used 'minimal prompts' through its closed-ended structure. These results are very telling, given that I personally anticipated this particular technique to yield the smallest number of themes, primarily due to its perceived rigidity. For some reason, I anticipated the techniques with an added 'fun' element (like *Videos*) to yield more themes because they were less rigid, and the participants would presumably have been able to be more creative. The stimuli would have helped them formulate more detailed responses. A major contributing factor to this high volume of themes was how the themes were extracted (explained in detail in Chapter 4). In

short, when a Yes/No question was asked, and the participant responded with either a “Yes” or a “No” without further elucidation, the responses were turned into statements. For instance, if a participant answered *Yes* to the question “Do you think English is a creative language?” (Question 14; see Annexure H), the answer would be clustered under the theme: *English is a creative language*. As a result, a lot more relevant themes were identified through this technique than through the other, less-structured methods. The chosen method of scoring responses to these questions also made a significant contribution to the quantity of themes documented. However, the results from all five data elicitation techniques were unexpected and thought-provoking, especially when comparing the techniques that generated the highest quantity of themes to those that produced the lowest. *Table 5.3* below indicates the total number of themes collected from the study’s five data elicitation techniques, as well as the number of themes that were prevalent amongst the participants:

Table 5.3: Summary of results

Data Elicitation Techniques	Number of Elicited Themes	Number of Prevalent Themes
1. Language Portraits	4	0
2. Short Stories	0	0
3. ‘Tell Me About...’	37	6
4. Interviews	45	6
5. Videos	6	0
Total	92	12

From the discussion above, it is apparent that the answer to Research question 2 is that open and closed-ended interviews with pre-set questions are best suited to yield the highest quantity of themes from 10 to 12-year-old pre-adolescent multilinguals regarding language ideology. In this study, the closed-ended interviews (*Interviews* data elicitation technique) elicited the highest number of themes.

5.4. Directions for Further Research on the Topic of Pre-Adolescents' Language

Ideology

With regard to responses prevalent amongst one or both of the sexes (the male and female participants) vis-à-vis their language ideologies, the following data were observed for the five data elicitation techniques collectively, per language:

Table 5.4: Summary of prevalent responses: Males

	Mother Tongue	English	Afrikaans
Responses given by most males	None.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • English is an important language (4/5). • English is important for communication (3/5). • English will help me get a job (4/5). • English is a creative language (4/5). • It's important to learn English (3/5). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It's not important to speak Afrikaans (3/5).
Total	0	5	1

Table 5.5: Summary of prevalent responses: Females

	Mother Tongue	English	Afrikaans
Responses given by most females	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It's important to speak my mother tongue (5/5). • I love my mother tongue (5/5). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It's important to speak English well (4/5). • I would want my children to learn English (4/5). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I don't like Afrikaans as a language (3/5). • Only white people speak Afrikaans (3/5). • Afrikaans is not a creative language (4/5).
Total	2	2	3

Although this was not one of the aims of this research study (to investigate responses by participants sex), *Table 5.5* above shows that only the female participants (5/5) shared the same positive views about their mother tongues – that it is important for them to speak their mother tongue and that they loved their respective mother tongues. Concerning Afrikaans, the female participants also had the most prevalent themes amongst themselves: three themes (*Table 5.5*), versus the one theme from the male participants (*Table 5.4*). The male participants offered the

most themes for English (five), versus two from the female participants. This suggests that there might be some trends that warrant further, more in-depth investigation into male vs female multilingual pre-adolescents' language ideologies.

Maybe future research could refine the questioning techniques of the data elicitation methods used for pre-adolescents, and provide a more rigid structure by, for example, asking participants to elaborate more when they give simple Yes or No responses, in a non-intrusive manner that will not leave them feeling bullied and/or forced to provide information. Another suggestion for future research would be to alter the complexity of the language used during data elicitation; this proved to be an encumbering factor to the quality of responses received (see section 3.8 of Chapter 3). Although the participants said they were comfortable being interviewed in English, the ideal would have been to interview them in their mother tongue. However, this may have presented a different set of challenges, primarily related to translation. It would be interesting to interview these participants in their mother tongue (after enough time has passed so that they can't be said to still be affected by the current data collection), and compare the themes elicited to those elicited when they were interviewed in English. Future research could also explore the language ideologies of pre-adolescent monolingual South African children towards other, maybe South African Bantu, languages. The same but refined data elicitation techniques could be utilised to elicit themes from the sample group, followed by a cross-comparative analysis between the results gleaned from monolingual and multilingual participants (in terms of the quantity of themes and overall language ideologies pertaining to other languages). Also, one could investigate monolingual pre-adolescents' motivation to learn another language (or the lack thereof), using Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) Process Model of L2 Motivation (discussed in section 2.2.1 of Chapter 2). A final research idea would be to conduct a longitudinal study, tracking the language ideologies of multilingual and

monolingual children from preschool through high school to see whether (and if so, when) these change.

5.5. Limitations of the Study

One of the most glaring limitations of this study was the issue of mismatch in language proficiency between the research assistants and the participants. Although the participants were all able to complete the task involved in each data collection technique in English, there was variation between the participants in terms of how well they could understand and speak English (discussed in section 3.8 of Chapter 3). Since the focus of this thesis was not on the participants' proficiency, I assumed that this variation in proficiency would not pose any problems. In my instructions to the research assistants, I anticipated them having to work with participants with varying levels of English proficiency and, for this reason, included suggestions regarding how they could rephrase questions in simpler English. However, not all research assistants did this consistently. One research assistant, for example, simply repeated the questions to participants who did not understand. This kind of problem – where a research assistant failed to accommodate a participant's lower level of English proficiency – might well have led to a decreased amount of data in the relevant cases. Since this problem was only discovered during the analysis stage of this study, constraints on my time and other resources (as a Master's student) did not allow for me to address this in any detail. In future research, this should be considered and explicitly addressed.

Another, more troubling issue, detailed in section 3.4 of Chapter 3, concerned the issue of purported racism. This research study was accused of being racist by a supervisor at the aftercare facility for excluding white South African children who were well within the study's target age group. This accusation was unexpected as the purpose of the research study and the

profile of the participants we would need in order to achieve its stated goals, had already been communicated. So, the community in which this study was conducted, and apparent racial tensions, were a painful limitation to this study. I was dependent on the supervisor and his staff to refer participants to the study, so this negative view of the study could have been a contributing factor to the challenges that I experienced with sourcing participants.

5.6. Conclusion

The main aim of this research study was to identify a data elicitation technique that could be utilised to successfully elicit relevant data on language ideologies from young participants, an understanding of which was facilitated by the works of Makoe (2007); Layton (2014); and Silverstein (1978) (see section 2.4 of Chapter 2). I, therefore, attempted to extract information from black multilingual pre-adolescent participants about their attitudes towards the languages they spoke, specifically English and Afrikaans (but also their (South African Bantu language) mother tongues), using a variety of techniques. I also sought to evaluate and quantify the elicited themes from each participant, using the specified data elicitation techniques, to effectively identify and rank those techniques, in order to inform future research and allow other researchers to successfully elicit a greater quantity of themes from multilingual pre-adolescents.

As stated above, the two research questions that guided this study were:

1. What ideologies do 10 to 12-year-old black multilingual South African children demonstrate towards English and Afrikaans as additional languages?
2. Which data elicitation technique/s yield/s the most themes from 10 to 12-year-old pre-adolescent multilinguals regarding their language ideology?

Although not stated as one of the research questions, I also examined the participants' ideologies pertaining to their own mother tongues in relation to English and Afrikaans.

The overall elucidating impression that data from this study gave is that black multilingual pre-adolescents have a more positive view of English and the benefits of being fluent in the language than of Afrikaans, and maybe even of their own mother tongues. This gravitation towards English could be brought about by an internal willingness to acquire and excel in the language as a result of the dominant language ideologies being reinforced to the learners at school, and at home (see sections 2.3.1; 2.4 of Chapter 2), as well as the apparent racial tensions in the area that probably dissuade a gravitation towards Afrikaans (mentioned in section 5.5 above). However, where the participants' mother tongues are concerned, a consideration should be made that the structure of the pre-set questions (where the most themes were extracted) influenced the participants' responses. Perhaps had more questions been asked about the participants' mother tongues, more themes would have been elicited. Where Afrikaans is concerned, the data was not so favourable. As can be seen in *Table 5.5*, two of the three prevalent themes amongst the female participants regarding Afrikaans were negative (*I don't like Afrikaans as a language; Afrikaans is not a creative language*). However, as mentioned in section 5.2 of this chapter, I am hesitant to conclude much on the basis of such a small number of responses.

Regarding the overarching aim of this research study, data elicitation technique 4 (*Interviews*) proved most successful in terms of eliciting the largest number of themes related to language ideology. With 45 themes elicited from the 10 participants (49% of all themes elicited) – compared to zero from *Short Stories*, for example – *Interviews* seem to be the best data elicitation technique to utilise when eliciting data of this nature from multilingual pre-

adolescent individuals. As stated in the previous section, though, it is recommended that this technique be refined in order to elicit more nuanced data on language ideology.

One of the primary lessons I would like to share with researchers who would like to replicate this study, or parts thereof, is that when working with multilingual pre-adolescents and trying to extract relevant and voluminous data from them, rather opt for a more structured data elicitation technique that will guide the conversations. As was observed in this research study's data, where instructions were open-ended and somewhat ambiguous, the participants gave the least relevant data or focused on the instructions themselves, resulting in irrelevant information being offered. When the instructions were clear (as in a closed-ended interview), the participants gave the most relevant data, presumably because their thinking was guided.

In closing, the aims stated in Chapter 1 were to (i) contribute to the narrowing of the knowledge gap regarding effective data elicitation techniques, (ii) investigate the language ideology of multilingual pre-adolescents, (iii) evaluate and rank the effectiveness of (five) data elicitation techniques in terms of the number of themes derived by each one, and (iv) inform and improve future research. After a thorough investigation, I believe this research has sufficiently addressed and achieved all of its stated aims and, despite the challenges faced throughout this two-year study – from the difficulties of securing the minimum number of participants to personal crises – the outcome of this study has been informative. This information will hopefully add to the existing literature and inform future research.

References

- Bantu Languages. *The Columbia Encyclopaedia* (6th edition) [Online] Available from: <https://www.encyclopedia.com/reference/encyclopedias-almanacs-transcripts-and-maps/bantu-languages> [Accessed 24 July 2018].
- Blaauw, D., Louw, H. and Schenck, R. (2006). The employment history of day labourers in South Africa and the income they earn-a case study of day labourers in Pretoria: Economics. *South African Journal of Economic and Management Sciences*, 9(4), 458-471.
- Botting, N. (2002). Narrative as a tool for the assessment of linguistic and pragmatic impairments. *Child Language Teaching and Therapy*, 18(1), 1-21.
- Bristowe, A.J. (2013). *The linguistic identities of multilingual adolescents involved in educational enrichment programmes in Johannesburg*. Master's thesis, Stellenbosch University. [Online]. Available from: <http://hdl.handle.net/10019.1/85661> [Accessed 1 August 2017].
- Busch, B. (2010). School language profiles: Valorizing linguistic resources in heteroglossic situations in South Africa. *Language and Education*, 24(4), 283-294.
- Chang, C.J. (2003). Talking about the past: How do Chinese mothers elicit narratives from their young children across time. *Narrative Inquiry*, 13(1), 99-126.
- Cooke, N.J. (1994). Varieties of knowledge elicitation techniques. *International Journal of Human-Computer Studies*, 41(6), 802.
- Corno, L. (1993). The best-laid plans: Modern conceptions of volition and educational research. *Educational Researcher*, 22, 14-22.
- Corten, J.P. and Van Dun, P. (2010). *History in progress: future perspectives of Pretoria's historical core*. Cultural Heritage Agency, Ministry of Education, Culture and Science, The Netherlands, 11-13.
- Deci, E. and Ryan, R.M. (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior*. New York: Plenum.
- De Klerk, V. (2000). Language shift in Grahamstown: A case study of selected Xhosa speakers. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language*, 146, 87-110.
- Ditsele, T. and Mann, C.C. (2014). Language contact in African urban settings: The case of Sepitori in Tshwane. *South African Journal of African Languages*, 34(2), 159-165.

- Dixon, L.Q., Zhao, J., Shin, J.Y., Wu, S., Su, J.H., Burgess-Brigham, R., Gezer, M.U. and Snow, C. (2012). What we know about second language acquisition: A synthesis from four perspectives. *Review of Educational Research*, 82(1), 6-60.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2003). Attitudes, orientations and motivations in language learning: Advances in theory, research, and applications. *Language learning*, 53(S1), 5-32.
- Dörnyei, Z. and Ottó, I. (1998). Motivation in action: A process model of L2 motivation. *Working Papers in Applied Linguistics*, 4, 43-62.
- Fereday, J., and Muir-Cochrane, E. (2006). Demonstrating rigor using thematic analysis: A hybrid approach of inductive and deductive coding and theme development. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 5(1) [Online]. Available from: http://www.ualberta.ca/~iiqm/backissues/5_1/pdf/fereday.pdf [Accessed 5 May 2018].
- Fiestas, C.E. and Peña, E.D. (2004). Narrative discourse in bilingual children: Language and task effects. *Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in Schools*, 35(2), 155-168.
- Gardner, R. C. (1985). *Social psychology and second language learning: The role of attitudes and motivation*. London: Arnold.
- Grant, L. (2015). Infographic: Poverty in South Africa. *Mail & Guardian*. [Online]. Available from: <https://mg.co.za/data/2015-02-05-infographic-poverty-in-south-africa> [Accessed 5 July 2017].
- Heugh, K. (2000). The case against bilingual and multilingual education in South Africa. *PRAESA Occasional Papers* 6.
- Hibbert, L. (2016). *The linguistic landscape of post-apartheid South Africa: Politics and discourse*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Hickey, A.M. and Davis, A.M. (2003). Requirements elicitation and elicitation technique selection: Model for two knowledge-intensive software development processes.. *Proceedings of the 36th Annual Hawaii International Conference on System Sciences*, 2003, 10-pp.
- Hoff, E. and Tian, C. (2005). Socioeconomic status and cultural influences on language. *Journal of Communication Disorders*, 38, 271-278.
- Jordaan, H. (2011). Delving into the development of academic language by foundation phase English Language learners. Doctoral dissertation, University of the Witwatersrand. Retrieved from: *WIRed space* <http://hdl.handle.net/10539/11289>.
- Krashen, S.D. (1981). *Second language acquisition and second language learning*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

- Layton, L. (2014). *Language ideologies and the positioning of learners in a multilingual grade 1 classroom: A case study*. Doctoral dissertation, University of Cape Town.
- Locke, E. and Latham, G. (1994). Goal-setting theory. *Organizational Behavior 1: Essential Theories of Motivation and Leadership*, 159-183.
- Makoe, P. & McKinney, C. (2014). Linguistic ideologies in multilingual South African suburban schools, *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 35:7, 658-673. DOI: 10.1080/01434632.2014.908889.
- Makoe, P. (2007). Language discourses and identity construction in a multilingual South African primary school. *English Academy Review*, 29:sup1, 233-248, DOI: 10.1080/10131752.2012.695487.
- McGroarty, M. (1996). Language attitudes, motivation, and standards. *Sociolinguistics and Language Teaching*, 5, 3-46.
- Meirim, G., Jordaan, H., Kallenbach, A. and Rijnhumal, M. (2010). Development of semantic processes for academic language in foundation phase EAL learners. *South African Journal of Communication Disorders*, 57, 43-50.
- Morrison, C.D. (2018). sv. 'code-switching'. *Britannica Online Academic Edition*. Encyclopaedia Britannica, Inc.
- Nielsen, T., Keil, A. and Zeller, M. (2013). Assessing farmers' risk preferences and their determinants in a marginal upland area of Vietnam: A comparison of multiple elicitation techniques. *Agricultural Economics*, 44(255). DOI:10.1111/agec.12009.
- Noble, K., McCandiss, B.D. and Farah, M.J. (2007). Socioeconomic gradients predict individual differences in neurocognitive abilities. *Developmental Science*, 10, 464-480.
- Perold, A. (2011). *Identifying potential grammatical features for explicit instruction to isiXhosa-speaking learners of English*. Doctoral dissertation, Stellenbosch University [Online]. Available from: <http://hdl.handle.net/10019.1/17789> [Accessed 30 October 2018].
- Prah, K.K. (2018). *The challenge of language in post-apartheid South Africa* [Online]. Available from: www.litnet.co.za/challenge-langauge-post-apartheid-south-africa/ [Accessed 20 August 2018].
- Preadolescence*, Merriam-Webster.com [Online]. Available from: <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/preadolescence> [Accessed 23 July 2018].

- Probyn, M. (2009). 'Smuggling the vernacular into the classroom': Conflicts and tensions in classroom codeswitching in township/rural schools in South Africa. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 12(2), 127.
- Anderman, E.M. and Anderman, L.H. (eds.) (2009). *Psychology of Classroom Learning: An Encyclopedia*. Detroit: Macmillan Reference USA.
- Republic of South Africa. (2012) *Language Policy of the City of Tshwane (as amended)*. [Online]. Available from: <http://www.tshwane.gov.za/sites/residents/Services/LanguageServices/Language%20policies/1.1%20Language%20Policy%20English%20of%20the%20City%20of%20Tshwane.pdf#search=language%20policy> [Accessed 10 July 2017].
- Saville-Troike, M. (2012). *Introducing Second Language Acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Silverstein, M. (1979). Language structure and linguistic ideology. In R. Cline, W. Hanks and C. Hofbauer (eds.), *The elements: A parasession on linguistic units and levels*. Chicago: Chicago Linguistic Society, 193.
- Singer, R. and Harris, S. (2016). What practices and ideologies support small-scale multilingualism? A case study of Waruwi Community, northern Australia. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language*, 2016(241), 163-208.
- South African History Online. [n.d.]. *Pretoria: The Founding of the City*. [Online]. Available from: <https://www.sahistory.org.za/place/pretoria> [Accessed 30 October 2018].
- Statistics South Africa. (2015a). *Census 2011: Income dynamics and poverty status of households in South Africa*. [Online]. Available from: <http://www.statssa.gov.za/publications/Report-03-10-10/Report-03-10-102014.pdf> [Accessed 6 July 2017].
- Statistics South Africa. (2015b). *Mid-year population estimates 2015*. [Online]. Available from: <https://www.statssa.gov.za/publications/P0302/P03022015.pdf> [Accessed 5 July 2017].
- Webb, V.A. (2002). *Language in South Africa. The Role of Language in National Transformation, Reconstruction and Development*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Weiner, B. (1985). An attributional theory of achievement motivation and emotion. *Psychological Review*, 92(4), 548-573.
- Whitehurst, G.J. (1997). Language processing in context: Language learning in children reared in poverty. In L.B. Adamson and M.A. Romskey (eds). *Research on Communication*

and Language Disorders: Contribution to Theories of Language Development.
Baltimore: Brookes, 233-266.

Willemse, H. (2017). More than an oppressor's language: Reclaiming the hidden history of Afrikaans. *The Conversation* [Online]. Available from:

<http://theconversation.com/more-than-an-oppressors-language-reclaiming-the-hidden-history-of-afrikaans-71838> [Accessed 28 August 2018].

Woolard, K.A. (1992). Language ideology: Issues and approaches. *Pragmatics*, 2(3), 235-249.

Annexure A: Permission to Conduct Research

LETTER REQUESTING PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

University of Stellenbosch

Private Bag X1

Matieland, 7602

South Africa

██████████ (Tshwane North ██████████

██

██████████

████████████████████

██████████

20 March 2017

Dear Sir / Madam

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT YOUR INSTITUTION

I am Mpho Manca, older sister of ██████████, who is currently a student at your aftercare. I am also a registered master's student in the Department of General Linguistics at Stellenbosch University and my supervisor is Dr Frenette Southwood (██████████). I am writing this letter to make a formal request for permission to conduct research at ██████████ ██████████ ██████████ as part of my thesis.

The research I wish to conduct for my master's thesis involves studying language ideology in pre-adolescent multilinguals and a comparison of five data elicitation techniques. The objectives of the study are:

- (a) To identify which data elicitation technique/s yield/s the highest volume of relevant data from 10 to 12-year-old pre-adolescent multilinguals regarding their language ideology.
- (b) To investigate the language ideology of 10 to 12-year-old multilingual children in the Wolmer area hold towards their first and additional languages.

I am hereby seeking your consent to allow me to source the participants for my master's thesis from your aftercare outreach program. To assist you in reaching a decision, I have attached to this letter:

(a) A copy of my research proposal

Should you require any further information, please do not hesitate to contact me or my supervisor. Our contact details are as follows:

Ms Mpho Manca: [REDACTED]

Dr Frenette Southwood: [REDACTED]

Upon completion of the study, I undertake to provide you with a bound copy of the dissertation at your request.

Your permission to conduct this study will be greatly appreciated.

Yours sincerely,

Mpho Refilwe Manca

26/02/2017

Annexure B: Parental Consent Form

MASTER'S THESIS: LANGUAGE IDEOLOGY IN PRE-ADOLESCENT MULTILINGUALS: A COMPARISON OF FIVE DATA ELICITATION TECHNIQUES

PARENTAL CONSENT FORM

Research Questions: a) Which data elicitation technique/s yield/s the highest volume of relevant data from 10 to 12-year-old pre-adolescent multilinguals regarding their ideology towards languages?

b) What language ideology do black South African 10 to 12-year-old children in Pretoria North hold towards English and Afrikaans as additional languages?

Researcher: Mpho Manca

Address: Arts and Social Sciences Building (Department of General Linguistics), Corner Merriman Avenue & Ryneveld Street, Stellenbosch, 7600.

Contact Details

Researcher: [REDACTED]

Supervisor: Dr Frenette Southwood [REDACTED]

Dear parent/guardian,

My name is Mpho Manca, and I am a master's student at the Department of General Linguistics. I would like to invite your child to participate in a research study on language attitudes in multilingual pre-adolescents.

The study will include various data elicitation techniques, namely one-on-one interviews, question asking, story-telling, video descriptions, and completing a language portrait. These activities will be conducted to assist me in learning more about your child's attitude towards languages and also about the effectiveness of the data elicitation techniques employed. The data collection will take place at [REDACTED] aftercare in Wolmer, Pretoria North. The meetings are intended to take place during April 2017. There will be a total of 5 sessions and each session will take a maximum period of 30 minutes. All session will be video-recorded for later transcription and analysis.

Please be advised that all information collected will be treated as strictly confidential and that the video recordings will only be viewed by me and by my supervisor. The information obtained will be used for academic purposes and will be reported in such a manner that your child will not be identifiable. Participation is completely voluntary. Even after granting consent for participation, you or your child may withdraw consent/assent at any time without penalty and without having to provide a reason for doing so. Participation is also free of charge, and no payment will be given to participators. Participation holds no direct benefit for you or your child, but the findings of the study might lead to improved techniques when doing linguistic research with young multilinguals. If you have any questions regarding your rights or the research, please feel free to contact Dr Frenette Southwood ([REDACTED]).

If you are willing to let your child participate in this study, please sign below. If you need any further information before making a decision about your child's participation, please contact me or my supervisor. We will gladly provide any information you might require.

Kind regards,

Mpho Manca

27 January 2016

DECLARATION BY PARENT/GUARDIAN

I _____ (name and surname of parent/guardian),
parent/guardian of _____ (name and surname of
participating child), give Ms Mpho Manca (student number [REDACTED]) from Stellenbosch
University consent to use my child as a research participant for the Master's in General
Linguistics research study on language attitudes in pre-adolescent multilinguals and a
comparison of five data elicitation techniques. I recognise that all information obtained by Ms
Manca will be used in the strictest confidence and for the sole purpose of informing her research.
I also declare that I have read and understood the above information. The above information is
written in a language in which I am fluent, and there was no need to use the services of an
interpreter. I was given the opportunity to ask questions, and where questions were indeed
asked, I received satisfactory answers.

Signature of parent/guardian: _____

Date: _____

Annexure C: Background Questionnaire

Department of General Linguistics
Master's in General Linguistics Research Proposal:
Language Ideology in Pre-Adolescent Multilinguals: A Comparison of Five Data
Elicitation Techniques

Student name: Mpho Refilwe Manca

Student number: [REDACTED]

BACKGROUND QUESTIONNAIRE

Please fill in the information in the spaces provided and, where applicable, tick the appropriate blocks. Any question you consider inappropriate or too personal may be left unanswered. All information provided will be treated in the strictest confidence. Thank you for your willingness to assist me with my research.

CHILD'S PERSONAL AND FAMILY INFORMATION

Child's name: _____

Birthdate: ____/____/____ Age: ____ Grade: ____ Sex: _____

Ethnicity: _____

City/town of birth: _____

Current (home) city/town: _____

Which culture does your child identify with? _____

Child's primary language: _____

Primary language spoken in the home: _____

*by the adults to each other?

Setswana Sepedi Other (specify: _____)

*by the children to each other?

Setswana Sepedi Other (specify: _____)

*by the adults to the children?

Setswana Sepedi Other (specify: _____)

*by the children to the adults?

Setswana Sepedi Other (specify: _____)

Other language(s) which the child can speak reasonably well:

What is the first language of:

The child's mother or the female person who spend the most time with the child?

The child's father or the male person who spend the most time with the child?

Language of instruction at school: _____

School Name: _____

Siblings: Older brothers (number and ages): _____

Older sisters (number and ages): _____
Younger brothers (number and ages): _____
Younger sisters (number and ages): _____
Person filling out this form (Mother/Father/Other): _____
Parent's/Guardian's name: _____ Age _____
Parent's/Guardian's name: _____ Age _____
Contact Details (parent/guardian) (in order to provide feedback on the findings)
Cell: _____
Email: _____

INFORMATION ON SPEECH AND LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

Are you concerned about the child's language development? Yes No
If so, why?

Would you consider the child's language development at present to be "normal"?
 Yes No
If not, why not?

Has your child ever received speech-language therapy? Yes No
If yes, please state the year(s) and duration:

Has your child ever experienced speech delays/problems (e.g. stuttering or articulation problems)? Yes No
If yes, please describe:

LANGUAGE AND SPEECH CHECKLIST

- Please place a tick next to any behaviour your child currently exhibits:
- Speaks in shorter sentences than expected for age
- Does not know names of common objects
- Does not make appropriate gestures to communicate
- Uses gestures instead of words to express ideas
- Has difficulty expressing ideas clearly / conveying information clearly
- Has unusually loud speech
- Has unusually soft speech

INFORMATION ON GENERAL DEVELOPMENT

Are you/the child's teacher concerned about his/her intellectual development? Yes No
Were there any other special problems in the growth and development of your child during the first few years (0 to 3)? Yes No
If yes, please describe:

ACADEMIC INFORMATION

Which subjects does your child excel in?

How would you describe your child's academic performance?

Does your child have any impairment that affects their academic performance? Yes No

If yes, please specify:

Has your child ever repeat a grade? Yes No

If yes, please specify the grade: _____

Please specify the reason for repeating the grade:

EDUCATIONAL CHECKLIST

Please place a tick next to the appropriate statement/s. Please compare your children with other children of his/her age (e.g., with the majority of the children in his/her class/grade)

- Does not like school
 - Has difficulty with reading
 - Has difficulty with writing
 - Has difficulty with spelling
 - Has difficulty with Maths
 - Has difficulty with other subjects (please list):
-

SOCIAL AND BEHAVIOURAL CHECKLIST

Please place a tick next to any behaviour your child currently exhibits:

- Has difficulty making friends
- Has difficulty keeping friends
- Refuses to share
- Prefers to be alone
- Does not get along well with brothers/sisters
- Fights verbally with adults
- Fights verbally with peers
- Shows wide mood swings
- Is withdrawn (describe) _____
- Is shy or timid
- Clings to parents/guardians
- Has low self-esteem

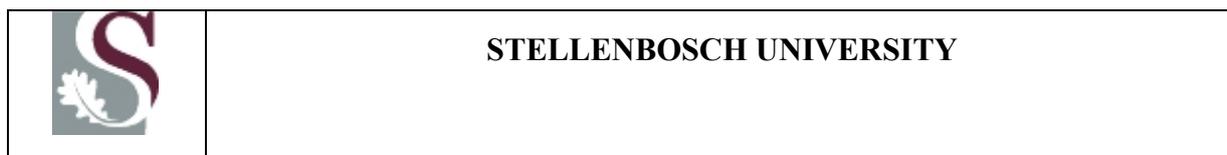
- Does not get along well with other children

ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

Is there any other information that you would like to provide about your child?

Thank you for taking the time to fill out this questionnaire. This information will help me understand your child better and yield more informed research.

Annexure D: REC Assent Form



PARTICIPANT INFORMATION LEAFLET AND ASSENT FORM



TITLE OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT: Language ideology in 10 to 12-year-old children who can speak more than one language: A look at 5 different ways to get information from young people

RESEARCHER'S NAME: Mpho Manca

ADDRESS: 3 Bakker Street, Idas Valley
Stellenbosch
7600

CONTACT NUMBER: [REDACTED]

What is RESEARCH?

Research is something we do to find **NEW KNOWLEDGE** about the way things (and people) work. We use research projects or studies to help us find out more about children and teenagers and the things that affect their lives, their schools, their families, and their health. We do this to try and make the world a better place!

What is this research project all about?

This research project is interested in finding out what you think about your mother tongue and using other languages like English and Afrikaans in your everyday life and at school. We will use different methods to get information from you and then see which method works better.

Why have I been invited to take part in this research project?

You are an important part of my research because you can help me make my research better and help other researchers too. Your ability to speak more than one language means that you can help me get more information about the way people think about languages.

Who is doing the research?

I am Mpho Manca, and I am a master's student at Stellenbosch University in the Western Cape. I am doing this research project in Pretoria North because I also grew up here and I want to help make our community a better place for everyone, including yourself. 😊

What will happen to me in this study?

You will be asked to sit with a helper for a maximum of 30 minutes over a few days. On some days, you will watch videos with a helper and on some days, you will be asked simple questions. All we need is for you to be as comfortable as possible and to talk to us. However, we will not force you to talk or discuss things you do not want to talk about.

Can anything bad happen to me?

No. Nothing bad can happen to you during the time you spend with us but, you can choose to stop if anything makes you feel uncomfortable.

Can anything good happen to me?

There are no known benefits of this type of research project for participants.

Will anyone know I am in the study?

Your help in my study will be private, that means that my helpers and I will not share your name and personal details with anyone. I will only share the information we get from you with my university teacher.



Who can I talk to about the study?

You can contact me (Mpho Manca) if you have any questions or problems about this project. I will also always be around at the aftercare, so I will be available to answer your questions. My contact details are: [REDACTED]

What if I do not want to do this?

You can decide to not take part in this project even if your parents/guardians have said you can. You will not get into trouble and we will not call your parents/guardians.

Do you understand this research study and are you willing to take part in it?

 YES NO

Has the researcher answered all your questions?

 YES NO

Do you understand that you can **STOP** being in the study at any time?

 YES NO

Signature of Child

Date

Annexure E: Language Portraits

Data Elicitation Method 1: Language Portraits

Interviewer: Researcher

Aim: To ask the participants to complete a language portrait and then discuss the languages they speak and their choice of colours to represent these languages.

Directions: The participants will be given a sheet with the outline of a human figure. The trained assistant will then explain that the participant will be required to colour-code all the languages they think they are competent in and then use these language-specific colours to colour in/or outline their figure. They may use the colours as they wish so long as they bear in mind that each colour represents each language they listed. They should also provide a key next to the image to indicate which colour belongs to which language.

Opening:

Establish Rapport, state the purpose of the interview (what I am going to do) as well as the motivation (the why) and the timeline (how long) for the interview.

Introduce yourself and explain that you are a research assistant and that you would just like to ask to give them an easy task to do that will be followed by a discussion. This activity may take about 30 minutes.

Possible script: “I am going to give you a page with an outline of a person on it, think of the figure as yourself. And I am going to provide you with coloured pencils as well. I need you to write down all the languages you can speak next to the figure, and then I am going to need you to give each language a colour. Only one colour can be given to a language. After that, you can colour the person in however you choose, but you should use only those colours that you have used for your languages. Okay? Do you understand what I need you to do?”

Once the child has given **assent**, the assistant may proceed with the task (find language portrait attached).

Task:

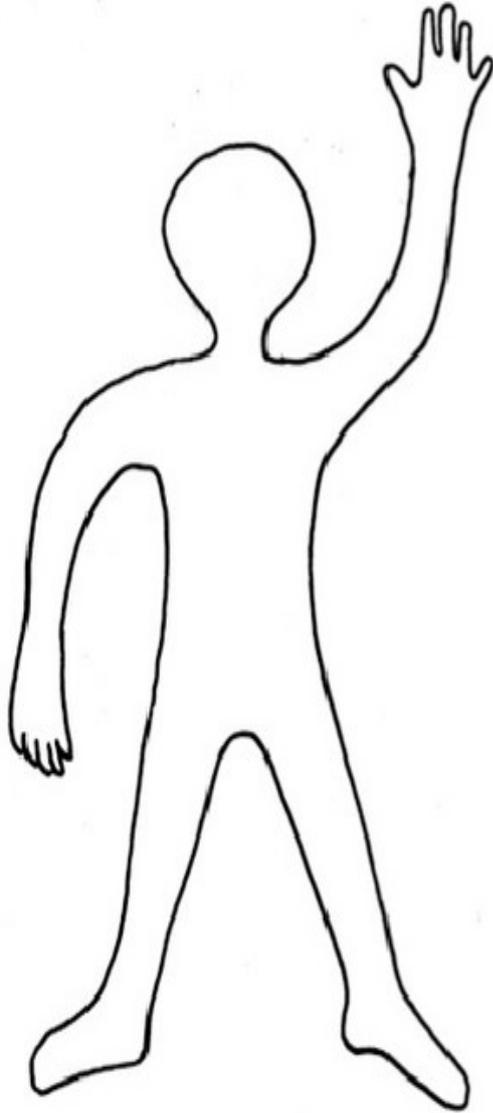
- Allow the participant around 10-15 minutes to complete the task.

- After the participant is done with their language portrait, ask them whether they are satisfied with their end-product. Then start the discussion.
- Ask the participant to describe the portrait for you and show you where each language is located on the figure's body. Then systematically ask the child why they placed each language where they did. Start with one language and proceed until all colours have been accounted for.
- E.g. Why did you use the colour blue for English?

Why do you think you placed English at your hands?

Closing: Thank the child for their time and participation at the end of the discussion. Instruct them accordingly in line with the aftercare and researcher's guidelines

My Language Portrait



Source: <http://www.heteroglossia.net/Sprachportraet.123.0.html>

Annexure F: Short Stories

Data Elicitation Method 2: Short Narratives

Interviewer: Trained assistant 1

Aim: To elicit information from participants by telling them narratives in the first person (as though they had occurred to me), and then ask them whether they can relate. Should the participant say yes, then I will encourage them to tell me their own short narrative about language.

Opening:

Establish Rapport, state the purpose of the interview (what I am going to do) as well as the motivation (the why) and the timeline (how long) for the interview.

Introduce myself and explain that I am a researcher and would just like to ask them a few questions about themselves.

Possible script: “I want to share some things with you. I will tell you a few stories about the experiences I have had, okay? Are you willing to share some of your own stories?”. After telling the participant each narrative, I will prompt them to share their own similar experience. I will move on to the next narrative should they not want to respond or say they cannot relate to the narrative.

- Wait for participant to agree to participate and then proceed with the task.

Narratives:

Narrative 1: Lost in town

“I was in Marabastad a few weeks ago, and there was this lady who could not find her way. She only spoke Mandarin Chinese and so no one took the time to listen to her. I approached her and spoke the little bit of Mandarin that I knew, which was hello. Do you know what hello is in Mandarin?”

[wait for participant].

“It’s nǐ hǎo”

[encourage participant to repeat the greeting].

“She had printed out the name and address of the shopping complex she was looking for in English and showed it to me. I keep thinking about what would have happened to that lady had I not taken the time to assist her. Have you ever been in a similar situation where you were the only one who could help someone because they spoke a different language?”

- Positive response = “Really? Do you mind telling me about it?”
- Negative response = “Oh okay, well what would you do if you found yourself in the Chinese woman’s shoes?”
- Follow a similar strategy for all the narratives.

Narrative 2: English as a language of tuition at school

“One day while I was still in primary school, my Afrikaans teachers, Mrs Rossouw, shouted at me for not completing my Afrikaans homework. I had tried doing it the night before, but I couldn’t understand some of the terms used. I asked my mom for help and she said I should ask my dad. I asked my dad and he said he also couldn’t understand the instructions. I couldn’t really write in Afrikaans either, I didn’t know what to do. I tried to tell the teacher that I really didn’t understand the work, but she said I should have known the work already. I felt so bad for not doing my homework and I got detention that day.”

Narrative 3: Lost in translation

“I remember visiting my aunt in Hammanskraal one day and she sent me to the *spaza* (tuckshop) to buy cooldrink. The shop owner was Nigerian, and she had a very heavy accent. She asked me what I wanted to buy but I could not understand her. I thought she was asking me what I was doing in her shop. I was so confused and embarrassed because this lady kept asking me what I was doing in her shop. I wanted to turn around and leave. How rude! But just as I turned around towards the exit, the man behind me laughed and said ‘*No ausi* (sister), she’s asking you to tell her what you would like to buy’. I’ve never laughed so much in my life.”

Narrative 4: The teacher couldn’t understand what I was trying to say

“A friend of mine hurt himself while playing soccer during break. I think I was still in Grade 1 then. I was so scared. I didn’t know what to do! So, I ran to our teacher’s classroom to tell her what had happened. I ran into the class, breathing heavily and said ‘Teacher! Teacher! Thabo! Red water! I wanted to tell the teacher that Thabo was bleeding but I didn’t know the exact word for blood. So, I thought she would understand me if I described what it looked like. My teacher looked so confused. She said ‘Mpho, do you want water? You’re sweating’. I was so

scared, I didn't have time to think. Thabo needed help quickly. I tried again and said 'Teacher. Thabo. Fall. Red water. Cry!'. In my mind, that made sense. I was telling the teacher that Thabo fell, there was red blood and he was crying. Again, no response. I then started crying and I took my teacher's hand. I couldn't understand why she wasn't responding so I led her to Thabo instead. Thankfully my friend's injury wasn't that bad, he had just scratched his knee."

Narrative 5: Multilingualism

"One day I went to a shop to purchase fried chicken. While I was waiting in line I sneezed and the lady behind me said 'bless you', I turned around and said, 'thank you' and smiled back at her. Anyway, later on the lady at the till shouted: 'the chicken is finished! Sorry, come back tomorrow' in Setswana. *Yho* the people were so angry and started complaining, you know? We had waited in line for so long only to be turned away. Oh, and the lady behind me was white so I assumed she hadn't understood what the lady at the till had said so I turned around and said in English: 'she says the chicken is finished'. To my surprise, the white lady behind me replied in Setswana and said: 'I know what she said. I also speak Setswana'. My reaction was priceless. She and I ended up having such a great laugh about my reaction."

Closing: Thank the child for their time and participation at the end of the discussion. Instruct them accordingly, in line with the aftercare and researcher's guidelines.

Annexure G: ‘Tell Me About...’

Data Elicitation Method 3: ‘Tell Me About...’

Interviewer: Trained assistant 2

Aim: To ask the participants open-ended questions about at their ideology towards languages and English and Afrikaans as additional languages

Directions: the questions are open-ended, so the interviewer should follow-up on responses and ask for clarity in certain instances. The priority of the interviewer should be to guide the conversation without being too involved and allow the participant to provide as much information as they would like to. The theme of this session will be ‘Tell me about...’.

Opening:

Establish Rapport, state the purpose of the interview (what you’re going to do) as well as the motivation (the why) and the timeline (how long) for the interview.

Introduce yourself and explain that you are a research assistant and would just like to ask them a few questions.

Say something like: “I would like to ask you some questions about different topics you might have useful information based on your experiences at school, and the languages you speak. I want to learn more about you and I hope to use this information to help the researcher with her project. This interview should take about 15 minutes. Is that okay?”

Once the child has given **assent**, the interviewer may proceed with the interview.

Instructions: Tell the child that you would really appreciate it if they answered the questions to the best of their ability. Sit on the chair at the table and invite the child to sit with you.

Gently encourage the child to keep talking by asking follow-up questions. Move on to the next question should the child not answer or refuse to answer. Reformulate the question to the best of your ability should the child not understand the initial question. **Do not**, at any time, **pressurise** the child into giving a response.

Interview questions: Follow-up with a why if, and when, it feels necessary

1. Tell me about your home language (If participant gives a brief answer like 'it's okay', proceed to 1.1)
 - 1.1. Why do you think it is important to be able to speak your home language?
Why do you love your mother tongue?
2. Tell me about the languages you speak
 - 2.1. How would you rank these languages (from most important to least important)?
3. Tell me about the way you feel when you speak a language other than your mother tongue
 - 3.1. What is this language?
Are you proud of being able to speak this language?
4. Tell me about traditional languages
 - 4.1. What do you think these are?
 - 4.2. Can you give me examples of such languages?
5. Tell me about the challenges you face at school regarding language learning
6. Tell me about the challenges you've faced (if any) as a first language speaker of Setswana/Sesotho/Sepedi in Pretoria North.
7. If you could speak any language forever, and everyone in the world would still understand you, which language would this be?
 - 7.1. Why did you choose this language?
8. Tell me about the English language.
 - 8.1. What do you know and what do you think about it?
9. Tell me about the importance of English as a language
 - 9.1. Why do you think it is important to be able to speak this language?
Do you think there are any benefits that come with knowing this language?
10. Tell me about Afrikaans as a language
 - 10.1. What do you know about this language and what do you think about it?
11. Tell me about the importance of Afrikaans as a language
 - 11.1. Why do you think it is important to be able to speak the language?
Do you think there are any benefits that come with knowing the language?
12. Tell me about your classmates and the languages they speak
13. Tell me about the language you use on the playground with your friends at school
 - 13.1. What are your friends' first languages?
 - 13.2. Are you allowed to speak your mother tongues at school?
 - 13.3. Is this the same language you use with your friends outside of school?
14. Tell me about the language/s you use at home with your family

14.1. If this language is different from that used with friends at school, ask – Why is there a difference between the languages used at home and with peers at school?

Closing: Thank the child for their time and participation at the end of the interview. Instruct them accordingly, in line with the aftercare and researcher's guidelines.

Annexure H: Interviews

Data Elicitation Method 4: Interview

Interviewer: Trained assistant 3

Aim: To ask questions directed at multilingual pre-adolescents' ideology about language and English and Afrikaans as additional languages

Directions: These questions are specific and so the assistant should stick to the script as closely as possible in the language they are most comfortable in, provided the children are also fluent in this language (i.e. Setswana/Sesotho/Sepedi). No follow-up questions should be asked. The assistant does not need to take notes as this interview will be video recorded.

Opening:

Establish Rapport, state the purpose of the interview (what you're going to do) as well as the motivation (the why) and the timeline (how long) for the interview.

Introduce yourself and explain that you are a research assistant and would just like to ask them a few questions about themselves.

Say something like: "I would like to ask you some questions about your background, some of your experiences at school, and the languages you speak. I want to learn more about you and I hope to use this information to help the researcher with her project. This interview should take about 15 minutes. Is that okay?"

Once the child has given **assent**, the interviewer may proceed with the interview.

Instructions: Tell the child that you are going to conduct the interview via imaginary telephone. Place your chair next to the child and put the simple boarder between in place. Each of you will then hold an object to your ear (an imaginary phone) and you (the interviewer) will ask the child (the interviewee) questions.

Move on to the next question should the child not answer or refuse to answer. Reformulate the question to the best of your ability should the child not understand the initial question. **Do not**, at any time, pressurise the child into giving a response.

Interview questions:

General language questions

1. Which primary school do attend?
2. Which languages do you do at school?
3. How many languages can you speak well?
4. What do you think of your language abilities?
5. What language is most commonly used in your community now?
6. Which language/s do you use on the playground?
7. Which language/s do you use in the classroom?
8. If you were the principal of your primary school, what would you change about the languages taught in the school?

Attitudes towards English

9. Do you think English is good as a language of tuition?
10. Do you think it is important to learn English?
11. What do you think English can do for you when you are an adult (in the future)?
12. What do you think of people who only speak English?
13. How do you feel about being in an English-only class?
14. Do you think English is a creative language?
15. What do you think of your English teacher
16. What do your parents think about learning English at school?
17. Would you want your children to learn English one day?

Attitudes towards Afrikaans

18. What you think about Afrikaans as a language of tuition?
19. Do you think it is important to learn Afrikaans?
20. What do you think Afrikaans can do for you when you are an adult (in the future)?
21. What do you think of people who only speak Afrikaans?
22. How are the kids in the Afrikaans-only classes?
23. Do you think Afrikaans is a creative language?
24. What do you think of your Afrikaans teacher
25. What do your parents think about learning Afrikaans at school?
26. Do you have friends who speak only English or Afrikaans?
27. Would you want your children to learn English one day?

Closing: Thank the child for their time and participation at the end of the interview. Instruct them accordingly in line with the aftercare and researcher's guidelines.

Annexure I: Videos

Data Elicitation Method 5: Video Descriptions

Interviewer: Trained assistant 4

Aim: To elicit information from participants by showing them short videos. The participant will be encouraged to discuss what they saw and what they think about the events.

Opening:

Establish Rapport, state the purpose of the interview (what you are going to do) as well as the motivation (the why) and the timeline (how long) for the interview.

Introduce yourself and explain that you are a researcher's assistant and would just like to show them a few videos and have a discussion.

Possible script: "I want to show you a few videos with you and I would like you to tell me anything you found interesting about these videos, okay?"

- Wait for participant to agree to participate and then proceed with the task

After showing the participant each video, ask them what they thought about it and guide the discussion further on. Move on to the next video should they not want to respond.

These videos will be pre-loaded onto a laptop (An internet connection will be needed to view the files below).

Videos:

Video 1: Commercial

<https://youtu.be/-k02zh-H6CM>



Video 2: Wololo

<https://youtu.be/dznFxG1PCw8>



Video 3: Offensive translator

<https://youtu.be/w8XdwinncYY>



Video 4: Dialects (Do you speak English?)

https://youtu.be/0tyzG_ZKVfU?t=41



Video 5: Rwandan Athlete

https://youtu.be/Cl_Dn0EfAag



Closing: Thank the child for their time and participation at the end of the discussion. Instruct them accordingly, in line with the aftercare and researcher's guidelines.