

TUTDoR

Student's motivation in and attitudes toward third language learning: A study of Isizulu at a university of technology in Pretoria.

Item Type	Thesis
Authors	Kabinde, Martha Lungi
Publisher	Tshwane University of Technology
Rights	CC0 1.0 Universal
Download date	2026-05-09 17:17:22
Item License	http://creativecommons.org/publicdomain/zero/1.0/
Link to Item	https://hdl.handle.net/20.500.14519/1459

**STUDENTS' MOTIVATION IN AND ATTITUDES TOWARD THIRD LANGUAGE
LEARNING: A STUDY OF ISIZULU AT A UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY IN
PRETORIA**

by

MARTHA LUNGI KABINDE

Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree

MAGISTER TECHONOLOGIAE: LANGUAGE PRACTICE

in the

Department of Applied Languages

FACULTY OF HUMANITIES

TSHWANE UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY

Supervisor: Prof. L. van Huyssteen

Co-supervisors:

Dr C. P. Chaka

Dr M. M. Makgato

2016

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this dissertation submitted for the degree M. Tech: Language Practice, at Tshwane University of Technology, is my own original work, and has not previously been submitted to any other institution of higher education. I also declare that all sources cited or quoted are indicated and acknowledged by means of a comprehensive list of references.

.....

MARTHA LUNGI KABINDE

DEDICATION

I dedicate my dissertation work to my daughter, Mbali and family. I will also like to thank my loving husband, **Terrence Machate, Ntombi Matsoma** and **Dr I. P. Mandende**, whose words of encouragement and push for tenacity ring in my ears.

My nephew **Emmah** and my sister **Sibongile** have never left my side and are very special. I also dedicate this dissertation to my office mates, Nokuthula Mbatha, Thobile Mbatha and Zempilo Gumende and colleagues who have supported me throughout the process. I will always appreciate all they have done, especially Ms Daphney Sepua, Ms Violet Pule, Ms Dorothy Nyembe, Mr Elijah Kgalema, Mr France Motloutsi and Mr Olter Moroaswi for being there for me throughout the entire magister programme. All of you have been my best cheerleaders.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Foremost, I am highly grateful to God for His blessing that continue to flow into my life, and because of **Him**, I made this through against all odds.

I would like to acknowledge the support, assistances and contribution made by individuals from the beginning of the fieldwork, providing me access, data and information, to the writing process until the completion of this dissertation. First of all, I want to give thanks to my main supervisor, **Prof. Linda van Huyssteen** for her vital research leadership, guidance and motivation. It has been a gratifying learning experience working under her supervision as she displayed perceptive proficiency and an objective manner as a supervisor.

I would also like to thank my two co-supervisors, **Dr Chaka Petrus Chaka and Dr Mary Makgato** for their helpful inputs.

My heartfelt thanks also go to students in the Department of Applied Languages, who agreed to take part in the study and my colleagues who gave their support throughout.

Lastly, to my dear husband, who remained supportive and patient in my journey, my mother, my nephews, my sisters and brothers for their constant encouragement and helping to babysit my daughter while I worked on weekends and during holidays; and my child, Mbali, who experienced hardship most times. She did not understand why I should spend most of the time going to the office even on weekends to work instead of spending time playing with her.

ABSTRACT

The study examines students' motivation in and attitude towards third language learning among undergraduate University of Technology (UoT) students of isiZulu as a third language. It investigates whether UoT students are instrumentally or integratively motivated to study isiZulu. The study also looks at the relationship between UoT students' motivation and their achievement in isiZulu. Forty UoT students studying isiZulu as a third language at a (UoT) participated in the study. These students had, as their language background, different L1s which included four African languages, English L2, which is the language of teaching and learning, and additionally, a language subject. For these students, the acquisition of an L3 was a course requirement, and isiZulu is one of the language options.

Furthermore, the study also investigates the role that language attitude, be it positive or negative, can play in L3 acquisition.

The quantitative (questionnaire) and qualitative (interviews) research approaches adopted for data collection in the survey revealed that UoT students were highly instrumentally and integratively motivated to study isiZulu, and their integrative motivation appeared to be a little higher than their instrumental motivation. These unusual results were attributed to the UoT students' interest in knowing more about the isiZulu-speaking people and learning about their societies and cultures, and that was due to the strong positive attitude these UoT students have had towards the language.

TABLE OF CONTENT

DECLARATION	i
DEDICATION	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iii
ABSTRACT	iv
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Chapter overview	1
1.2 Background and rationale to the study	1
1.3 Research problems	4
1.3.1 The context of third language learning at a UoT	4
1.3.2 Multilingual language policies	5
1.4 Research questions	6
1.5 Aims and objectives of the study	7
1.6 Research methodology	7
1.7 Ethical issues	7
1.8 Significance of the study	8
1.9 Scope of the study	8
1.10 Chapter outline	8
1.11 Conclusion	9
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW	10
2.1 Introduction	10
2.2 Definition of key concepts	10
2.2.1 Motivation	11
2.2.1.1 Integrative motivation	11
2.2.1.2 Instrumental motivation	12
2.2.2 Attitude	12

2.2.2.1 Language attitude	13
2.2.2.2 Attitudes towards the learning situation	14
2.2.3 Theories of motivation	15
2.2.3.1 Social psychological theory	15
2.2.2.2 The cognitive-situated period	19
2.2.3.3 Self-determination theory	19
2.2.3.4 Attribution theory	21
2.2.3.5 Expectancy-value theories	22
2.2.3.6 Self-efficacy theory	22
2.2.3.7 Need theories	23
2.2.3.8 Equity theories	24
2.2.3.9 Reinforcement theories	24
2.3 An overview of attitudes in language learning	25
2.3.1 Psychological theories	25
2.3.2 Variables of intervention between attitude and motivation	26
2.3.3 Attitude and achievement	27
2.3.4 Attitude and intercultural contact	28
2.4 Motivation and language learning	29
2.5 Conclusion	31
CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	32
3.1 Introduction	32
3.2 Research approaches	32
3.3 Research methods	33
3.3.1 Qualitative	34
3.3.2 Quantitative	35
3.3.3 Qualitative and quantitative research combined	35
3.4 Research instruments	37
3.4.1 Questionnaires	37

3.3.4.2 Likert scale	38
3.3.4.3 Interviews	39
3.5 Data collection procedures and analysis.....	40
3.6 Sample procedures.....	41
3.6.1 Population	41
3.6.1.1 Sample.....	42
3.6.1.4 Sampling methods	43
3.7 Data analysis.....	43
3.8 Respondents' profile.....	44
3.8.1 Respondents' age range profile.....	44
3.8.2 Profile of respondents' demographic information and language backgrounds.....	45
3.8.3 Profile of respondents' learning experiences	49
3.8.4 Profile of the interview respondents	50
3.10 Ethical issues	51
3.11 Conclusion	52
CHAPTER 4: DATA ANALYSIS AND RESEARCH FINDINGS	53
4.1 Introduction	53
4.2 Questionnaire data	54
4.2.2 Summary of the findings of questionnaire data	59
4.3 Interview data	61
4.3.1 Discussion of the findings of interviews.....	61
4.3.2 Summary of the findings of interview data.....	64
4.4 Formative language task for practical isiZulu (L3) first- and second-year students	65
4.4.1 Respondents' improvement from first to second assessments.....	66
4.4.2 Summary of the findings in the language task assessment	67
4.6 Conclusion	70

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	71
5.1 Introduction.....	71
5.2 Discussion: Answering the research questions.....	71
5.2.1: Research question 1	71
5.2.1.1 Answer to research question 1.....	71
5.2.2 Research question 2	72
5.2.2.1 Answer to research question 2.....	72
5.2.3 Research question 3	73
5.2.3.1 Answer to research question 3.....	73
5.2.4.1 Answer to research question 4.....	74
5.5 Conclusions of the study.....	74
5.6 Recommendations.....	75
5.7 Suggestions for further research	77
5.8 Limitations of the study	77
5.9 Conclusion	78
BIBLIOGRAPHY	79
Addendum A: PROFILE OF RESPONDENTS’ DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION, LANGUAGE BACKGROUNDS AND USE	90
Addendum B: PROFILE INTERVIEW QUESTIONS AND TRANSCRIPTIONS	93
Addendum C: LIKERT SCALE.....	96
Addendum D: LANGUAGE TASKS	97

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Respondents’ age profile	44
--	----

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Respondents' demographic information, language backgrounds and use (N=40)	45
Table 2: Respondents' isiZulu L3 learning experiences (N=40)	48
Table 3: Profile of interview respondents (N=10).....	50
Table 4: Instrumental and integrative statements (N=40)	54
Table 5: A comparison of achievement (marks) for the task and the second task for first and second-year students (N=15)	66

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Chapter overview

This chapter forms the foundation of the study. It introduces a scope of the research context and focuses on the rationale, the study problem, questions, research objectives, brief of the methodology, ethics, significance of the study, scope, limitation of the study and conclusion.

1.2 Background and rationale to the study

Motivation is one of the factors present in our everyday life and hence it also exists in the process of education. People make choices as to “what experiences or goals they will approach or avoid, and the degree of effort they will expect in that respect” (Keller, 1983:389). In that context of foreign language learning includes students’ reasons for studying the language, i.e. their instrumental and integrative orientation (Gardner, 1985:11), their attitudes towards the target language and its speakers and the strength of their desire to learn other languages, which involves “effortful behaviour” (Gardner, 1985:50).

While the process of third-language learning has been defined in several ways by different researchers in the field of English-language teaching, it can be likened to a self-sacrificing practice as well. The sacrifice does not only lie behind acquiring the linguistic rules of a foreign language, it also involves such a devotion that “your whole person is affected as you struggle to reach beyond the confines of your first language and into a new language, a new culture, a new way of thinking, feeling, and acting” (Brown, 2000:1). For instance, one who has positive feelings about something may tend to hold positive beliefs about it and display positive behaviours towards it. Although the concept of attitude alone is insufficient to shed light on all human behaviours, it can at least provide researchers with some clue to track down the reasons why a learner thinks or behaves in a particular manner.

Learner attitude towards a foreign language together with its culture and the learning process can partially explain students' behaviours and misbehaviours in the classroom context. Furthermore, "a learner's attitudes affect the development of motivation" (Spolsky, 1989:150); in other words, existence of a link between attitudes and motivation is within the realms of possibility. The term foreign language in the South African context, refers to the third/or additional language. Gardner, who conducted the first systematic social-psychological studies on language learner attitudes, highlights the significance of attitudes and motivation as follows: "Attitudes and motivation are important because they reflect an active involvement on the part of the student in the entire process of learning a second language" (Gardner, 1985:61). Similarly, Brown (2000:181) views attitudes as a precondition for motivation: "It seems clear that a second-language learner benefits from positive attitudes and that negative attitudes may lead to decreased motivation". Hence, the need for looking into students' attitudinal and motivated behaviours together arises, and this study is based on the necessity of dealing with learner attitudes not independent of motivation.

A distinction has been made between Second Language Acquisition (SLA) and Foreign/Third Language Acquisition (TLA), and it has been proposed that the dynamics involved in learning these two different types of language may be quite different: "Learning another language involves making something foreign a part of one's self" (Oxford 1996:1). As such, one's conception of "self", and willingness to open it up to change, as well as one's attitudes toward the other community, or out-groups, in general, will influence how well one can make this material part of one's own repertoire. It is important to note that L3 offerings at this UoT are called 'practical languages', i.e. 'Practical isiZulu' for the purpose of this study.

MacIntyre, Noels, Clement and Dörnyei (1998:545) propose that an important acquisition that can come out of any class is the Willingness to Communicate (WTC). In their latest model of the second language acquisition process, they hypothesise that use of the language is the ultimate goal, and that achievement in the language and WTC are two of many goals along the way.

My work involves teaching an additional language, isiZulu, to university students in Pretoria. These students may have a variety of previously-learned and acquired indigenous languages, such as Sepedi, Setswana, Xitsonga and Tshivenda. The researcher's main focus will be on learners who struggle with, or have not yet acquired, isiZulu. This means that they have not been exposed to isiZulu, or some of them may have a limited knowledge of that language where

students have little direct contact with native speakers of the target language, and thus have rare opportunities to use the language in real life. IsiZulu is the predominant language used in the KwaZulu-Natal Province. The Language Department at the University of Technology in Pretoria has a positive outlook toward multilingual language environments, as it stipulates that students have to enrol for a third practical language, as from their first year. Practical languages offered in this department include French, German, isiZulu, Tshivenda, Tsonga, Setswana, and Sepedi. As most students are Black South Africans, they tend to prefer an African language to a European one, even if they may not be sure which one to choose. It is important to note that L3 offerings at UoT are called practical languages, i.e. Practical isiZulu, for the purposes of this study.

Cenoz (2003:1) conducted a study on the influence of bilingualism on third language acquisition, focusing on multilingualism. The study focuses on the advantages of bilinguals over monolinguals during/in TLA. He states that: “Bilinguals are more experienced language learners and have potentially developed learning strategies to a larger extent than monolinguals. They also have a larger linguistic and intercultural repertoire at their disposal”. He defines TLA as “the acquisition of a language that is different from the first and the second and is acquired after them.” Hammarberg (2010:91) explains the term Third Language (L3) as a “language acquired chronologically after the first and the second or after the two first languages in the case of early bilinguals”. Krashen and Terrell (1983:18) distinguish between acquiring and learning a language as follows: acquiring a language happens when one develops the ability to communicate in it through using natural communicative situations that may mostly be informal, while learning a language involves the conscious act of learning the rules that apply in that language.

The students partaking in this study have at least two languages in their linguistic repertoires, L1 and English – the latter also being the language of teaching and learning. Therefore, they should relate easily to new structures, new vocabulary, or new ways of expressing communicative functions in the target language, which is isiZulu. Since participants have already gone through the process of learning a second language, they are experienced language learners, and it is expected that they have developed certain skills and strategies for achieving language learning tasks. When facing the task of learning a third language, their skills and strategies can be reactivated and adapted to new challenges.

Tonkin (2009, in Todeva and Cenoz, 2009:68) state that, in the case of a multilingual speaker brought up in a monolingual English home with experience in languages such as Esperanto, Latin, English, French, German, Italian and Dutch: “The art of language learning may lie not in the acquisition of an individual, but in mastery of the learning process itself”.

Todeva and Cenoz (2009:68) also refer to such a multilingual speaker – with Bulgarian as a first language – and with experience in languages such as English, French, Italian, Norwegian, German, Spanish, Latin, Greek, Japanese and Russian; for instance, also acknowledging the role played by other languages in learning additional language, particularly those that are closer to the target language, “...my rich language learning experience assists me tremendously in breaking the code of new languages, particularly if they belong to a language family from which I already know one or more languages.”

Hayan (2009) in Todeva and Cenoz (2009:68) also elaborate by giving an example of an early bilingual, explaining the advantages of having acquired two languages as first languages: “...my background as a speaker of two first languages, the dialects Huihui and Yunnan, helped me develop an inventory of sounds and an almost innate awareness of different sentence structures, which I believe has facilitated my learning of English, Japanese, Mandarin, Cantonese and Spanish as an adult.”

1.3 Research problems

1.3.1 The context of third language learning at a UoT

To properly understand the research problems in this study cognisance must be taken of the context of third language learning at a UoT and multilingual language policies.

Since there is a high rate of students not attending lectures at a UoT in Pretoria, which is assumed to be a result of lack of motivation, this study will help to enlighten the researcher about the attitudes of UoT first- and second-year students towards learning isiZulu and their motivation to learn isiZulu and how these students differ outside the classroom with respect to their motivation levels.

Since it is compulsory for students to register for a third practical language in the Language Department of this UoT, a common problem in practical classes is that students in their first year of study find it difficult to understand the purpose of doing a third language which creates

lack of motivation and attitudes toward learning. Students do not generally participate in discussions or ask question concerning this. Consequently, it is difficult for a lecturer to establish motivation and attitudes towards learning isiZulu as an elective.

In order to address the research questions adequately, it was necessary to firstly understand the students' experience of isiZulu in a multilingual environment. These students were the focus of the study and the research was aimed to investigate whether students at a UoT in Pretoria are motivated to use/learn isiZulu as a third language, and to determine their motivational orientations and attitudes toward learning this language, whether or not they find isiZulu interesting; and to make it possible for them to acquire the necessary language skills intended to enable them to communicate appropriately in the language. Furthermore, it was essential to observe whether they want to pursue a career in which they would use isiZulu and to monitor their achievement. It was, therefore, important for me to understand and to establish where they came from, where they were, where they were going and how they reacted to, and experienced, the acquisition of isiZulu skills in the formal learning environment.

1.3.2 Multilingual language policies

The occupation of the study with multilingualism and the need to establish a contextual backdrop of the multilingual learner participants was informed by the Constitution of South Africa (1996), UNESCO Education Paper (2003) and the National Language Policy Framework (2002). The UNESCO Education Paper states that: Most plurilingual societies have developed an *ethos* which balances and respects the users of different languages in daily life. From the perspective of these societies and to the language communities themselves, multilingualism is more of a way of life than a problem to be solved. The challenges is for education systems to adapt to these complex realities and provide a quality education which takes into consideration students' needs, whilst balancing these at the same time with social, cultural and political demands (UNESCO, 2003:19).

By the same token, Section 6 of the South African Constitution (1996:4) emphasises that all official languages must “enjoy parity of esteem and must be treated equitably”. In line with this position are the key elements of the National Language Policy Framework (2002), which aims, among others, the following:

- to ensure redress for the previously marginalised official indigenous languages;

- to encourage the learning of other official indigenous languages; and
- to promote national unity, and linguistic and cultural diversity.

Furthermore, the National Language Framework maintains that promoting multilingualism in South Africa requires efforts that do not discount the knowledge that exists in societies where indigenous official languages are prominent. The questions in the questionnaire of the learners were tilted at an angle to determine various aspects of multilingualism, the students' motivation and attitudes to isiZulu as a subject.

In the final report of the Language Plan Task Group Minister Ngubane (1998) emphasised that all South Africans should, firstly, have access to all spheres of South African society by developing and maintaining a level of spoken and written language, which is appropriate for a range of contexts in the official language or languages of their choice. Secondly, all citizens of the country should have access to the learning of languages other than their mother tongue. Thirdly, the African languages, which were marginalised by the hegemonic policies of the past, should be maintained and developed. Lastly, equitable and widespread language facilitation services should be established.

This study will provide reasons for motivation and attitudes toward learning and acquiring a third language (L3), isiZulu. The focus will mainly be on a South African perspective within South African languages that may seem similar in some respects, but very different in other respects, so much so that some are not mutually intelligible (Modirksamene and Mann 2010:7).

1.4 Research questions

The research questions that guided this survey are:

1. What motivational orientations and attitudes do learners at a language department of a UoT in Pretoria have towards learning isiZulu as a third language?
2. What are the challenges faced by UoT students in a formal isiZulu L3 classroom setting?
3. To what extent are the learners instrumentally and integratively motivated towards learning isiZulu?
4. What is the correlation between the students' attitude towards learning isiZulu and their achievement in the language?

1.5 Aims and objectives of the study

The aims and objectives of the study are to determine:

- motivational orientations and attitudes students at a language department of a UoT in Pretoria have towards learning isiZulu as a third language;
- challenges faced by UoT students in a formal isiZulu L3 classroom setting;
- the extent of instrumental and integrative motivation of the students towards isiZulu language learning; and
- the correlation between the students' attitude towards learning isiZulu and their achievement in the language.

1.6 Research methodology

This research is based on the investigative application of a multi-method approach called triangulation. Olsen (2004:3) defines triangulation as the mixing of data or methods so that diverse viewpoints or standpoints cast light upon a topic. Du Plooy (2002:40) states that the triangulation method increases the reliability and validity of one's observation, analysis and findings. In the current study, the researcher will apply the elements of both qualitative and quantitative research methods, which is in line with Du Plooy's (2002:81) argument that the two approaches should not be seen as mutually exclusive and that, in reality, a research design often includes characteristics of both approaches.

1.7 Ethical issues

According to Orb, Eisenhauer and Wynaden (2000:93), ethical issues are present in any kind of research and pertain to doing well and avoiding harm towards participants. Ethics may mean the rules of morality for distinguishing between right and wrong (Kar, 2011:24). Gillespie (1995) explains that in general ethics emerge from the value conflicts in research particularly expressed in many ways, i.e. the individual's right to privacy versus the undesirability of manipulation, openness and replication versus confidentiality, and others.

Permission was sought and granted by the University Ethics Clearance Committee before embarking on the research. Student participants were informed that their participation was voluntary without any monetary reward for participating. The aim of the research was

explained in an information leaflet. The researcher guaranteed confidentiality and anonymity and students were requested to sign a consent form in agreement for taking part in the research.

1.8 Significance of the study

Since there is a lack of studies conducted at UoTs concerning motivation and attitude towards third-language learning, the present research is an attempt to shed more light on the topic. In the language department there is a challenge for students to understand the purpose of enrolling for a third language while they can communicate in English and their respective home languages which already contributes towards bilingual citizenship in South Africa. To face this challenge, motivation is needed in trying to learn a L3. This study also endeavours and needs to explore what learning intentions these students with differing levels of motivation demonstrate within and outside the university.

It is hoped that this study will contribute towards improving students' study habits so that their motivation level and learning behaviours can be increased to an extent that is satisfactory in meeting the requirements of learning a L3 successfully.

With this small-scale research, the researcher does not intend to make generalisations or any attempts to put forth claims regarding other learners on the basis of this study due to the fact that it concerns a specific group of participants at a single university which, like any other university of technology, has its own culture and context.

1.9 Scope of the study

The research will focus on learner's motivation in and attitude towards third-language learning among undergraduate University of Technology (UoT) students of isiZulu L3. These students had their language background, different L1s which included four African languages, and English L2, which is the language of teaching and learning, and additionally, a compulsory language subject. For these students, the acquisition of an L3 was a course requirement, and isiZulu is one of the language options offered. The respondents for this research were isiZulu third-language learners who were available and willing to partake in the research.

1.10 Chapter outline

Besides chapter 1 the study is organised into the following consecutive chapters:

Chapter 2 presents and discusses the literature review, which is an analysis of various scholars' opinions and positions, concerning the research topic. It gives the study a theoretical foundation and background, which helps to create a better understanding of the topic of study, as well as highlighting several important concepts which form an integral part of the study.

Chapter 3 presents and discusses the research methods, instruments and procedures adopted to obtain data for the study. The rationale is given why they were selected to be used in the study.

Chapter 4 is the presentation, analysis, interpretation and discussion of the findings based on all data collected during the course of the study. The aim of the chapter also stated as to how the data helped to answer the research questions posed.

Chapter 5 delivers the conclusions and recommendations on the research problem. It draws conclusions and presents recommendations for improving motivation and attitudes of third-language students and lecturers.

1.11 Conclusion

This chapter served as an introduction of the study, highlighting its rationale and background. The aims and objectives of the study were set forth and the problem statement prompted by motivation in and attitude towards learning isiZulu as a third language was voiced. The research design chosen for the study was stated, being a two-pronged triangulation approach. This design was chosen as suitable for answering the stated research questions. The next chapter deals with literature review.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Second-language (L2) international theory may apply to third language (L3) theory in South Africa. The reason for this view is that it is compulsory for South African learners to learn a first and additional language (mostly English) at school level nowadays. It then specifically focuses on motivation and attitudes towards language learning, in particular, third-language learning.

Brown (1987:114) defines motivation as “an inner drive, impulse, emotion or desire that moves one to a particular action”. Therefore, a motivated learner is the learner who wants to achieve a goal and who is willing to invest time and effort into reaching that goal.

The main aim of the study is to investigate students’ motivation in and attitudes towards third-language learning at a University of Technology (UoT) in Pretoria. This chapter deliberately seeks to highlight, distinguish and compare literature and concepts related to the focal theme of the study. The chapter will review the literature on theories that support the role played by motivation and attitude towards the learning situation of students of third language learning, specifically isiZulu in the language department of this UoT.

2.2 Definition of key concepts

Motivation in third language learning cannot be understood in isolation but should be perceived as an integral part of language attitude. Division between these two concepts in the literature review of this chapter is made to distinguish the views of different scholars on motivation and/or language attitude in the process of language learning. However, some overlapping of these two concepts may thus also occur. Furthermore, although the title indicates the concept of third language learning (L3), the views of scholars need to be accurately captured in which they refer to different concepts, such as foreign language learning, second language learning (L2), additional language learning and language acquisition. However, all these different language learning designations apply in principle to third-language learning applications as discussed in this chapter. For the purpose of this research, the following key concepts will be explained, defined and interpreted in this study.

2.2.1 Motivation

In a general sense, motivation can be defined as the dynamically changing cumulative arousal in a person that initiates, directs, coordinates, amplifies, terminates and evaluates the cognitive and the motor processes whereby initial wishes and desires are selected, prioritised, operationalised, and (successfully or unsuccessfully) acted out (Dörnyei & Otto, 1998:64).

Keller (1983:389) defines motivation as “choices people make as to what experiences or goals they will approach or avoid and the degree of effort they will exert in that respect.” In addition Dörnyei and Ushioda (2010:4) state that motivation is concerned with the direction and magnitude of human behaviour in terms of choice of action, persistence with this action and the effort expended on the action. However, motivation for learning is a complex concept influenced by a number of psycho-social factors (Harlen & Crick, 2003:173).

Like Keller (1983), Heckhausen (1991) in Gardner and Masgoret (2003:128) also refer to motivation as a goal-directed behaviour. He further states that the motivated individual expends effort, is persistent and attentive to the task at hand, has goals, desires, and aspirations, enjoys the activity, experiences reinforcement from success and disappointment from failure, makes attributions concerning success and/or failure, is aroused, and makes use of strategies to aid in achieving goals. That is, the motivated individual exhibit many behaviours, feelings, cognitions, etc., that the unmotivated individual does not exhibit. There are two types of motivation namely integrative and instrumental motivation.

2.2.1.1 Integrative motivation

Integrative orientation is a positive disposition toward the second-language (L2) group and the desire to interact with and even become similar to valued members of that community (Dörnyei, 2001b:49). It should be noted that in Pretoria in the South African context international L2 theory may apply to L3 (see 2.1).

Gardner and Lambert (1959:472) refer to integrative motivation as a group and the potential for integrating into that group, or at the very least an interest in meeting and interacting with members of the target language group. Masgoret and Gardner (2003) refer to integrative motivation as a usual behaviour of someone who appreciates the target language community, and studies the language for the reason of joining that community. Learners do something for the pure pleasure of doing it (Tileston, 2010).

2.2.1.2 Instrumental motivation

Instrumental motivation (Orientation) is the utilitarian counterpart of integrative orientation in Gardner's theory, pertaining to the potential pragmatic gains of L2 proficiency, such as getting a better job or a higher salary (Dörnyei, 2001b:49).

Instrumental motivation refers to the perceived pragmatic benefits of L2 proficiency and reflects the recognition that for many language learners it is the usefulness of L2 proficiency that provides the greatest driving force to learn language. It subsumes such, "utilitarian goals as receiving a better job or a higher salary as a consequence of mastering L2" (Dörnyei, *et al.*, 2006:12).

Gardner and Lambert's (1959:472), interpretation of instrumental motivation refers to more functional reasons for learning a language; for instance, to get a better job or a promotion or to pass a required examination. Gardner and Lambert (1972) suggest that instrumental motivation is the stimulus for learning generated by utilitarian objectives upon the uses of languages. Instrumental motivation emphasises the importance of the functional reasons for learning the language.

Instrumental motivation is generally indicated by the aspiration to get practical benefits from the study of a second language (Hudson, 2000). It is thought to be the purpose of learning a second language when the learner is not interested in interacting socially with new target language community members.

Tileston (2010) defines instrumental motivation as the motivation that engenders due to the promise of a touchable, sizeable prize. She further states that "extrinsic motivation is the desire to do something because of the promise of or hope for a tangible result" (Tileston, 2010:8).

2.2.2 Attitude

According to Pickens (2005:50), a person's attitude can be changed by addressing cognitive and emotional components. However, Pickens (2005:50) further states that such a change in attitude takes time, effort and determination.

Baker (1992:11) describes 'attitude' as latent and inferred from external behaviour. He says: "attitudes often manage to summarise, explain and explains that observation of external behaviour does not lead to accurate and valid understanding because sometimes expressed

attitudes and deceive”. He says that: “observation of external behaviour may produce mis-categorisation and wrongful explanation. Such behaviour may be consciously or unconsciously designed to disguise or conceal inner attitude” (Baker, 1992:11).

An individual’s attitude is an evaluative reaction to some referent or attitude object, inferred on the basis of the individual’s beliefs or opinions about the referent (Gardner, 1985:9).

According to Bogardus (1931:62), attitude “is a tendency to act towards or against something in the environment which sometimes could either have a positive or negative value”. Bogardus (1931) sees attitude as a behaviour which could be positive or negative towards people, objects, events, activities, and ideas, or anything else that may be around you.

Allport (1935, in Baker, 1992: 11) says that attitude is ‘a mental state of readiness, organised through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence through the individual’s response to all objects and situations with which it is related’. Allport sees attitude as a person’s mindset which is determined by their past circumstances and experiences. It thus becomes clear from the above definitions that attitude is based on psychological emotional subjective reaction on a phenomena. However, specific types of attitude, in this case, language attitude, is going to be described.

2.2.2.1 Language attitude

For the purpose of this study language attitude is also directed towards learning, especially third-language learning. Edward (1994:97) refers to language attitude as “a disposition to respond favourably or unfavourably to a language”. There are three dimensions to language attitude, based on Plato’s distinction between the *cognitive*, *affective* and *conative* components (Baker, 1992:12). The *cognitive* component refers to the knowledge and/or thoughts that one has regarding a certain language (when one communicating with speakers of that language in their own language). The *affective* component involves emotions that are attached to a specific language (or its speakers). The *conative* component can be defined as the actions of someone prepared to accept or learn a language, their choice to either refuse to learn, or speak it, based on the two preceding components.

2.2.2.2 Attitudes towards the learning situation

Gardner and Smythe (1985:128) refer to attitudes towards the learning situation as an individual's reaction to anything associated with the immediate context in which the language is tutored. In the opinion of Edwards (1994:97), language attitude is "a disposition to respond favourably or unfavourably to a language".

The link between motivation and attitude is clear from a definition of motivation by Gardner (1985:10) as "the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favourable attitudes toward learning the language." Masgoret and Gardner (2003:124) report on Gardner's socio-educational model of second-language acquisition where two classes of attitudes, integrativeness and attitudes towards the learning situation, as well as motivation, are distinguished. It is important to note that although both classes of attitudes are related to achievement "their effect is indirect, acting through motivation" (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003:124). Individuals' attitudes are shaped through a socialisation process that includes the formation of values and beliefs. In the formation of attitudes, the modelling of others takes place in terms of experiences with people in certain situations. A number of factors, including family, culture, religion and socio-economic factors can influence attitudes. The importance of attitudes can be traced back to the fact that attitudes influence behaviour and memory (Pickens, 2005:48–50). Dehbozorgi (2012:41) even notes that "language attitude is believed to be the factor that makes differences between underachievement and accomplishment". A number of studies support the idea that a student's attitude has an impact on the success of language learning (Gardner & Lambert, 1972); which is relevant because, as mentioned previously, academic literacy can be considered as the full acquisition of another language (Gee, 1989).

Holmes (1992:16) mentions three levels of language attitude. The first level is the attitude towards a social or ethnic group. The second level is the attitude towards the language of that group, and the third is the attitude towards individual speakers of that particular language.

As mentioned earlier, attitude is behaviour that can be supportive of, or opposed to, an idea, environment or object. It follows then that, if one shows a dislike of a specific culture, the language and the people speaking that language, one may not be interested to learn that particular language. However, if, for example, someone admired a celebrity who spoke a language foreign to the admirer, it may encourage the admirer to learn the celebrity's language

and culture, and to like the speakers of that language, thus creating a positive attitude towards that particular language.

I also believe that attitude can determine the outcomes of education when a learner has a positive attitude towards a particular language, that person would enjoy learning it, as well as the culture and history of that language. The opposite is also true: Negative attitudes towards a language would alienate the learner from the culture and history of that particular language. A language teacher with a positive attitude towards a particular language could help change the negativity of students towards that language, but if the language teacher had a negative attitude, at times perceived by learners in the teaching thereof, it is detrimental to the language, and its culture. With reference to the teacher's attitude, a positive attitude towards languages means a positive attitude towards language the professions, and towards its application in language tasks.

This chapter first deals with general theories of motivation and then attitudes. It then specifically focuses on motivation and attitudes towards language learning, in particular, third-language learning.

2.2.3 Theories of motivation

Over the past decades, theorists, in an attempt to clarify the concept of motivation, carried out numerous studies that showed various explanations. The definitions suggested may be interpreted in so many ways, “depending on the theory of human behaviour you adopt” (Brown, 2001:73).

2.2.3.1 *Social psychological theory*

Gardner (1979:193) asserts that at schools, the learning of a second or foreign language is seen as any other school subject; however, there is a significant distinction between them. In most of the school subjects students learn their own cultural heritage. However, in the case of learning a second or third language, the students learn new information such as grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation, and more importantly they are “acquiring symbolic elements of a different ethno-linguistic community”. The students are in a way imposed to acquire elements of the target culture.

Therefore, the process of second-language acquisition is of vital importance since the students' harmony with their own society and willingness for identification with the target culture is crucial. Williams (1994:77) also agrees that learning a foreign language is different from other school subjects, because "language, after all, belongs to a person's whole social being: it is part of one's identity, and is used to convey this identity".

Dörnyei (2005) maintains that according to Gardner and Lambert (1972:67), second languages played a role as "mediating factors between different ethno-linguistic communities and thus regarded the motivation to learn the language of the other community as a primary force responsible for enhancing or hindering intercultural communication and affiliation". He also claims that their social psychological approach is based on the principle that attitudes of the students have a great impact on students in whether they will be successful or not in learning the target language.

Dörnyei (2001b) comments that in Gardner's motivation theory (1985:49), motivation includes three elements: "motivational intensity, desire to learn the language and attitudes towards learning the language". Gardner (1985) thinks that a language learner who is truly motivated embodies all of the three. The function of orientations is to increase motivation and lead it to a set of goals. This can be done either with a strong interpersonal quality (integrative) or a strong practical quality, which is instrumental (Dörnyei, 2001b:49). According to Gardner (2003:126), integrativeness "implies an openness on the part of the individuals that would facilitate their motivation to learn the material"; whereas instrumental orientation "refers to economic and practical advantages of learning English" for instance, (Gardner, 1985:52).

According to Dörnyei (2001b:68), Gardner's motivation theory consists of four areas:

- i) the construct of the *integrative motive*;
- ii) a general learning model, labelled the *socio-educational model*, which integrates motivation as a cornerstone;
- iii) the *Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB)*; and
- iv) a recent extended *L2 motivation construct* developed together with (Tremblay & Gardner, 1995).

The first area is the *integrative motive* which is explained as a "motivation to learn a second language because of positive feelings towards the community that speaks that language" (Gardner, 1985:82-3). It comprises of three main components: The first one is *integrativeness*,

which includes integrative orientation, interest in foreign languages and attitudes towards the target community, which show the learner's willingness and interest in interacting with the people of the other communities (Gardner, Tremblay & Masgoret, 1997). The second one is *attitudes towards the learning situation*, which covers attitudes towards the teacher, the course, the course materials, and extra-curricular activities (Gardner, 2003; Dörnyei, 2001b). The third and the last one is *motivation*, which includes effort, desire and attitudes towards learning. The principles of this study are based on the instrumental and integrative motivation (orientation) and attitude towards the learning situation, in particular of a third language.

The second area, the *socio-educational model*, has vital importance since it distinguishes the four separate characteristics of the second-language acquisition process:

- i) antecedent factors (which can be biological or experiential such as gender, age or learning history);
- ii) individual differences (i.e. learner) variables such as intelligence, language aptitude, motivation and language anxiety;
- iii) language acquisition contexts; and
- iv) learning outcomes (Dörnyei, 2001b:52).

The third area of Gardner's motivation theory is the Attitude Motivation Test Battery (AMTB hereafter). The AMTB is a very useful instrument in that it is designed to follow psychometric tenets which govern the questionnaire used in this research. It is also a scientific tool regarding its presentation and content (Dörnyei, 2005). It functions as the major components of Gardner's theory and includes over 130 items. These items address attitudes towards the French community in the following Likert-scale items, i.e., interest in foreign language, attitudes towards European French people, attitudes towards learning French, integrative orientation, instrumental orientation, French class anxiety, parental encouragement, motivational intensity desire to learn French, orientation index, evaluation of the French teacher and evaluation of the French course (Dörnyei, 2001b; Dörnyei, 2005).

The fourth and the last area of Gardner's theory is *Tremblay and Gardner's revised model*. Upon receiving reviews from Crookes & Schmidt (1991), Dörnyei (1994a & 1994b), and Oxford & Shearin (1994) that "a consideration of constructs from other research areas" (Tremblay & Gardner, 1995:505) would be very useful in researching motivation in L2 acquisition, Tremblay and Gardner revised and extended Gardner's motivation construct. They

added three new elements to it, namely *goal* salience which pertains to “the specificity of the learner’s goals and the frequency of goal-setting strategies used; *valence* which comprises “the traditional scales of ‘the desire to learn the L2’ and ‘attitudes towards learning the L2’, thus denoting a L2-learning-related value component”, and *self-efficacy* which includes anxiety and expectancy of being able to carry out a wide range of language activities by the end of the course (Dörnyei, 2001b:53).

Gardner’s motivation theory had dominated the area until 1990s. However, as Gardner (1985:166) himself puts forth, it was “not the true or the final one”. He insisted:

“I do feel, however, that it contains many elements which must be considered in future developments. A true test of any theoretical formulation is not only its ability to explain and account for phenomena which have been demonstrated, but also its ability to provide suggestions for further investigations, to raise new questions, to promote further developments and open new horizons. This model has those capabilities and, hopefully as a result of the account given here, they will be realized.”

As Gardner himself claimed that the model would promote further investigations due to the fact that the model he developed embodied elements that could be used to shed light on different aspects of motivation, the model did promote developments in the area after the 1990s. In the 1990s, in many research studies, it was pointed out that the socio-educational model was not sufficient in explaining different aspects of motivation, such as the nature of the task, the person’s attribution of success, and the kind of reward involved in successful completion of the task. This shift was more in line with how teachers perceived motivation, more related to classroom applications (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei, 1994a, 1994b; Dörnyei and Csizér, 1998; Dörnyei & Kormos, 2000; Oxford & Shearin, 1994).

Tremblay and Gardner’s (1995) extended model of L2 motivation suggests that an individual’s L2 motivational knowledge base is socially grounded, but also has cognitive and affective components that lead to motivated behaviour, which in turn leads to achievement.

2.2.2.2 The cognitive-situated period

Following Gardner's socio-educational theory, the cognitive-situated period started to rise with Crookes & Schmidt's (1991) article on "reopening the motivation research agenda". According to Dörnyei (2005,) this theory comprises two trends. The first one puts the focus on many different aspects, namely the students' own perceptions of their own abilities, their limits, to what extent their potential would allow them to achieve learning a foreign language, how they discerned their previous successes or failures, and also the tasks leading to success and their goals to attain. From the literature it can be gathered that attitudes and motivation are intertwined.

The second trend emphasises that the broad view of motivation for all societies accepted by the followers of the social psychological approach should be reduced to the classroom learning environment, which represents the real environment in which foreign language learning takes place.

2.2.3.3 Self-determination theory

According to Deci and Ryan (1985), when people are motivated they aim to achieve something and take on goal-oriented action to fulfil it. Their motivated action can be either self-determined or controlled. The extent of the self-determination shows that the action is experienced as it is freely chosen and it springs from the person's self, not because of external force or an internal need.

According to Salkind (2008:889), the self-determination theory is: "The experience of choice and endorsement of the actions in which one is engaged."

He noted that the self-determination theory is founded on three factors: autonomy, competence and relatedness. Firstly, autonomy indicates the compatibility that exists between one's deeds and emotions, and willingness and volition. In other words, it is the degree of freedom by which learners decide to perform a particular task. Secondly, competence briefly means one's belief for how well s/he can perform a task. Thirdly, relatedness signifies the need of belonging to a particular group, and the need to uphold strong relationships within it.

In the self-determination theory, it is asserted that there are two general types of motivation. The first one is based on "intrinsic interest in the activity per se" and the second one is based

on “rewards extrinsic to the activity itself” (Noels, Pelletier, Clément & Vallerand, 2000:38). The two kinds of motivation do not belong to different categories, but “rather lie along a continuum of self-determination”. Intrinsically motivated action involves “curiosity, exploration, spontaneity and interest in one’s surroundings” (Brophy, 1998:7). Brophy (1998) adds that the only prize the intrinsically motivated person needs to get is continuous interest and enjoyment. The self-determination theory clearly describes that social settings increase intrinsic motivation when they meet the three needs: competence, autonomy and relatedness. Competence refers to improving and rehearsing skills to manipulate and control the environment, however, autonomy means the person’s self-determination in deciding what to do and how to do it. Relatedness is “affiliation with others through prosocially relationships” (Brophy, 1998:7). When a learner is concerned, if s/he finds pleasure in learning something new, s/he is intrinsically-determined (Noels, Clément & Pelletier, 1999).

Extrinsically motivated actions, on the other hand, are controlled in order to achieve “an instrumental end” (Noels, Clément & Pelletier, 1999:24). Self-determination theory puts forth that there are three kinds of extrinsic motivation, namely external regulation, introjected regulation and identified regulation (Noels, Pelletier, Clément & Vallerand, 2000; Noels, Clément & Pelletier 1999).

External regulation refers to those activities that are means external to the individual; for example, punishment, teacher’s praise or rewards. Introjected regulation pertains to doing an activity because of some reasons that are internalised; for instance, a student’s completing his/her homework, because s/he would feel guilty if it was not done. The third one, identified regulation, means that the person does an activity because s/he finds it noteworthy or profitable for personal reasons; such as, if a student thinks that being sensitive to other cultures is important may think positively about learning another language. The final concept proposed by the self-determination theory is a motivation which means that the individual has no reason to conduct the activity. Shortly, this person lacks any type of motivation and is expected to give up learning soon.

2.2.3.4 Attribution theory

Another cognitive theory which McDonough (1989:147) claims to be “the most cognitive and non-mechanistic theory” is the attribution theory. The attribution theory relates students’ past experiences to their future success endeavours by means of the causal attributions as the mediating link (Dörnyei, 2005). These references of learners could be different causes, for example, lack of ability, effort, intention, others’ ability and luck. Therefore, this theory attempts to outline perceptions, motives and opinions of the learners which affect their performance (McDonough, 1989). In the case of a language learner, if s/he fails to learn a foreign language, s/he can ascribe failure to the lack of an ear for languages, and s/he can be demotivated and unwilling to take part in activities in class.

Ushioda (1996) conducted studies on attributions. From his two studies with Irish learners of French, he found that to be able to sustain a positive self-concept and a belief in personal potential against negative experiences, there were two important attributional patterns. There was a tendency to ascribe L2 achievement to personal ability or other internal factors such as effort and a perfectionist approach. However, attributing L2 failure or lack of achievement involved temporary deficiencies, i.e., lack of effort and a lack of opportunity to spend time in an L2 environment, which could be overcome.

Williams and Burden (1999) also conducted a research on the aspects of the development of learner attributions in L2 studies. The findings of their study revealed that there were obvious distinctions between the age groups. The groups consisted of participants aged between 10 and 12 claimed that they attained success due to listening and concentrating. However, older children demonstrated many more attributions which comprised ability, level of work, circumstances, and the influence of others.

Graham (2004) found that learners with higher levels of success were those who attributed their achievement to their effort, high level of ability, and use of productive learning strategies. The learners willing to carry on learning French after they were 16 also attributed achievement to these factors, however, the students who did not have plans to continue French were less likely to attribute success to ability, effort and strategy use. They were more likely to attribute achievement to luck or chance, and their own assumptions of low ability. For their failure, they put the blame on the difficulty level of the task, lack of effort and inadequate use of learning strategies.

2.2.3.5 Expectancy-value theories

In addition to self-determination and attribution theory, expectancy-value theories also became influential after the 1990s. Oxford and Shearin (1994:18) assert that individuals take part in activities which are seen as instruments to achieve some valued ends. The individual seeks to answer the question “Should I expend the energy or not?” before carrying out the task. Dörnyei (2001b:20) claims that there are two important factors for learners determining whether they will spend energy in fulfilling the task: the individual’s *expectancy of success* in a given task and the *value* the individual attaches to success on that task. The greater the chances of attaining the goal, and the greater the value of the goal, the more incentive the students have, which means the higher the degree of motivation. However, if the students see that however hard they strive, they will not be able to reach the goal or the task will not lead them to the goal they value, they will not exert energy on completing the task. Oxford and Shearin (1994) explains that the difference between expectancy-value theories and need theories is that in need theories there is an element and tension, however, in expectancy-value theories the individual expects to attain a valued reward. Also, contrary to need theories, whose hierarchal nature and the means to meet the needs are specific, expectancy-value theories are uncertain about the nature of the rewards.

2.2.3.6 Self-efficacy theory

In the self-efficacy theory, it is believed that students’ academic performance is strongly influenced by the judgments they have about their own capabilities to organise and fulfil the action (Mills, Pajares & Herron, 2007). Students who have a high level of academic efficacy are willing to take on difficult tasks, exert energy, show persistence in spite of drawbacks, have lower anxiety, demonstrate more flexibility in learning strategies, and evaluate their academic performance themselves. On the other hand, students with low self-efficacy tend to carry out simple academic tasks, they expend minimum effort and perseverance, and they may even avoid completing the task at all (Mills, Pajares & Herron, 2007). The reasons for this may be since these learners perceive challenging tasks as personal threats, the thing on which they concentrate becomes their own inadequate capabilities and the difficulties. They cannot focus on how they can carry out the task (Dörnyei, 2001b). Dörnyei (2001b:23) also emphasises the fact that self-efficacy beliefs are not directly related to actual ability and adequacy of the learner since these are the results of “a complex process of self-persuasion that is based on cognitive

processing of diverse sources” such as ideas of other people, feedback, observations on other learners, and how much they know about suitable task strategies.

The study carried out by Mills, Pajares and Herron (2007) on the effect of self-efficacy and motivational beliefs on the attainment of French demonstrated that achievement of the French language was better predicted by self-efficacy for self-regulation than by self-efficacy to obtain grades in French, French anxiety in reading and listening and French learning self-concept. Students who had an inclination to be more successful were aware that they were able to use their abilities to use meta-cognitive strategies in an effective manner so as to observe their own academic work time productively.

2.2.3.7 Need theories

Another theory which was focused on after the 90s was need theories. According to Brophy (1998:5), behaviours are the individual’s responses to his/her needs. These needs may come from birth or may be universal like hunger, thirst, or self-preservation, or they can even be learnt within the culture and be developed to differing extents from one person to another. Oxford and Shearin (1994) claim that there are two need theories which are founded on needs producing tension until needs are met. The best known one is developed by Maslow (1962), called *hierarchies of need*. Needs, according to this hierarchy, are arranged in an order presented below:

- i) psychological needs (sleep, thirst);
 - ii) safety needs (freedom from danger, anxiety, or psychological threat);
 - iii) love needs (acceptance from parents, teachers, and peers);
 - iv) esteem needs (mastery experiences, confidence in one’s ability); and
 - v) needs for self-actualization (creative self-expression, satisfaction of curiosity),
- Brophy, (1998:5).

Oxford and Shearin (1994) claim that this theory has implications for language classrooms where needs are not related to physical needs but rather concern emotional or psychological needs. These two exist in language classrooms, because students take risks when trying to learn a language and to enable learners to take risks, teachers need to create a psychologically secure environment. After psychological needs are met, the other needs can be covered.

The second need theory is known as *need-achievement* which is, as the name suggests, based on need for achievement. The need-achievement theory is concerned with fear of failure and fear of success inclinations. Past success in a certain situation may lead the individual to attempt to display similar behaviours in the future in a similar context. However, failure may cause the individual to feel fear and fail to attain success (Oxford & Shearin, 1994). In the context of language learning, the implication is that since some learners feel the need to attain success or to avoid failure, they should be provided with activities that make learners feel that they can do it, and as a result there will be positive results which are valuable for the learners.

2.2.3.8 Equity theories

Equity theories also became part of the language studies after the realisation of the inadequacy of Gardner's socio-educational model (1985, 1997 & 2000), (see 2.2.3.1:25). Equity theories are concerned with "equity, which is characterised by a mathematical ratio of inputs to outcomes" (Oxford & Shearin, 1994:19). For the learner, input consists of any element which the learner thinks can contribute to the work such as intellectual competence, personal characteristics and experience. Outcomes, on the other hand, comprise personally valuable goals which can be attained by the end of the activity or task like exam results, evaluation of performance, praise or reward (Colak, 2008:20). When the learner manages to establish a link between input and outcome, he/she evaluates the value of the task to his/her own or others' standards. When learners realise that there is a big gap between the two, they become unhappy or demotivated (Colak, 2008:20). Oxford and Shearin (1994) claim that in the context of language learning when learners cannot set up this link and cannot see valuable outcome of the tedious language learning process, they are likely to give up, which happens very often at many institutions.

2.2.3.9 Reinforcement theories

In second-language studies, reinforcement theories were also exploited in order to understand motivation from different perspectives. Reinforcement can be defined as anything increasing and sustaining the frequency of behaviour acts as the first element. Examples of reinforcement may include verbal and written praise, and rewards (Brophy, 1998). Spaulding (1992) also emphasises that when learners display desired behaviours; teachers should reward them in order to encourage other learners to demonstrate similar behaviours. The learners who are performing inappropriate behaviours, on the contrary, should be punished so that either the

student displaying inappropriate behaviour or the other learners do not act in the same way in the future. Oxford and Shearin (1994) claim that reinforcement theories are the ones with which teachers are more familiar with. They explain that teachers can reinforce behaviour extrinsically by praise or tangible prizes. Although this can be done in class, intrinsic rewards are more effective; therefore, teachers should also help students to discover intrinsic rewards within themselves or by means of language tasks.

2.3 An overview of attitudes in language learning

In the field of third-language learning, it is a fact that both motivation and attitudes have an impact on students' success in learning a third language. It is also claimed that attitudes have a strong connection to motivation. If a language learner has negative attitudes towards a language, he/she cannot be motivated. Gardner (1985) also comments that attitudes towards the second language may affect the students' motivation to learn. There are many studies conducted on motivation and attitudes from a variety of perspectives. Some researchers investigated the effect of attitudes on success, others conducted studies on how students' attitudes changed due to direct contact with the native speakers of the target language; some worked on identifying whether attitudes could change as a result of instruction. This section deals with studies' findings on attitudes and some models developed by researchers. These are categorised according to main themes identified in the literature, psychology theories, variables of intervention between attitude and motivation, attitude and achievement, and attitude and intercultural contact.

2.3.1 Psychological theories

Mantle-Bromley (1991:373) claims that if attitudes affect the endeavours of the learners to learn another language, teachers of foreign languages should be knowledgeable about attitudes in order to be able to deal with such aspects. She also puts forth that according to psychological theories, attitude has three components, namely, affect, cognition and behaviour. She explains the meaning of attitude as a term which "refers to affect and is an evaluative, emotional reaction, i.e. the degree of like or dislike associated with the attitudinal object" (Mantle-Bromley, 1991:373). For example, if a learner does not like the speakers of a foreign language, it shows the student's attitude towards those people. Cognition, on the other hand, pertains to the learner's knowledge of the target community. If a learner's belief about the target community is negative, such as perceiving it as disrespectful, the learner's language learning

can be obstructed. The third component, behaviour, refers to intentions or actions with regard to the target language. For instance, a learner's attempts to speak like a native speaker, or he/she attempts to find native speakers of the target language to enhance the speaking of the language. These three components form the whole attitude towards the language. In her replication study of Mantle-Bromley & Miller (1991), Mantle-Bromley (1995) attempted to see if a nine-week foreign language exploratory programme would increase the participants' attitudes towards French and Spanish speakers; she found that there was a statistically significant difference in students' attitudes. She concluded that teachers of foreign languages can change students' attitudes towards the culture and target language, especially in cases where students come to class with certain negative attitudes, beliefs or expectations. In a longitudinal study, Lamb (2007) investigated whether there were any changes in students' motivation and learning activity over 20 months, and also attempted to display the internal and external influences which might be related to these changes. The findings of the study showed that students' first positive attitudes towards the language still existed; however, their attitudes towards learning a language formally seemed to have deteriorated over 20 months.

2.3.2 Variables of intervention between attitude and motivation

As result of the suggestions made by Crookes and Schmidt (1991), Dörnyei (1994a), Oxford and Shearin (1994), as well as Tremblay and Gardner (1995:505) proposed a new model which exploited considerations "such as persistence, attention, goal specificity and causal attributions to each other to existing measures of attitudes and motivation and indices of achievement" from other motivational constructs. The new model they proposed demonstrated that there are many variables which interfere with the relationship between language attitudes and motivational behaviour.

Three of these variables are goal salience, valence and self-efficacy. The model demonstrated that language attitudes affect goal salience, because students with positive attitudes have specific language learning goals. On the other hand, students who have negative attitudes tend to pay much less attention to what they would like to attain. They concluded that valence is also affected by language attitudes. There was a causal relationship between valence and motivated behaviour which implied that when the students value learning, there will be higher levels of motivational behaviour. The third variable, self-efficacy, is also influenced by language attitudes as Boland's (1988) study demonstrated that students' reading attitudes enhanced significantly being influenced by their reading comprehension. In another study,

Ruddel (1992) maintains that motivated readers perceive themselves as good problem solvers; however, students with negative attitudes find reading less valuable. What is more, there is a possibility that these students with negative attitudes may affect their classmates.

2.3.3 Attitude and achievement

Kuhlemeier, Bergh, and Melse (1996) also conducted a study in order to investigate whether there was a relationship between students' attitudes towards German, the course material, and the students' achievement in German. The findings revealed that students with positive attitudes were more successful than the students who had negative attitudes in the tests at the beginning of the year. However, the study also showed that students with positive attitudes did not demonstrate higher achievement level at the end of the year. The research also indicated that achievement had no influence on attitudes.

In another study by Gan, Humphreys and Hamp-Lyons (2004:239), it was found that there were significant contradictory attitudes towards College English Course between successful students and unsuccessful students. The successful students were found to claim that they found "the regular classroom teaching rigid or traditional"; however, they reported that they could improve their linguistic knowledge and skills, and their teacher's guidance was important to them. On the other hand, unsuccessful students demonstrated negative attitudes and claimed to feel bored by the teaching style and the teacher. Ur (1991) says that it is a person who is "willing" or even eager to invest effort in learning activities who would progress.

An attitude in Masgoret and Gardner's (2003:127) concept of motivation pertains to "the individual's reaction to anything associated with the immediate context in which the language is taught". In the AMTB, attitude scales are presented in two different headings ('Evaluation of the Course' and the 'Evaluation of the Teacher') as components of attitudes towards the learning situation. In addition to this part, attitudes appear as a subscale (attitudes towards the target language group) in the integrativeness part which refers to "an openness to identify, at least in part, with another language community" (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003:126). They further explain that attitudes towards the target language group are included in the integrativeness component due to the fact that "favourable attitudes towards the group would facilitate such openness, whereas negative attitudes would impede it". An attitude also indicates another subscale (attitudes towards learning the target language) in a motivation component which pertains to goal-directed behaviour. Attitudes towards learning the target language measures

what affect is experienced when the learners are learning a third language. Masgoret and Gardner (2003) investigated the connections between achievement in second language and the five attitude/motivation variables (integrativeness, attitudes towards the learning situation, motivation, integrative orientation, and instrumental orientation) in Gardner's socio-educational model. The findings of the study revealed that there was a higher correlation between achievement and motivation than the correlations between achievement and integrativeness, attitudes towards the learning situation, integrative orientation, and instrumental orientation.

Brown (2000) makes the point that both integrative and instrumental motivations (orientation) are not necessarily mutually exclusive. Learners rarely select one form of motivation when learning a second language, but rather a combination of both integrative and instrumental motivations. This seemed to be the case in this study as the scores of integrative and motivational descriptors were almost the same. The response to the questionnaire statements and interviews revealed that these students were slightly more integratively motivated than instrumentally motivated. They were willing to communicate with isiZulu speakers and integrate into their culture more so than gaining from the learning task by landing a better job and earning a good salary, for instance. While scholars such as Soh (1987) viewed the integrative and the instrumental goals as opposite ends of a continuum, other scholars such as Clement and Smythe (1977) found that both goals are positively related.

2.3.4 Attitude and intercultural contact

Kormos and Csizér (2007:242) emphasise that although there have been a large number of studies done on language learning motivation and language learning attitudes, very little emphasis has been put on the inter-cultural contact, which is the antecedent of language attitude and motivation. They claim that intercultural contact is important, because a language learner is attempting to communicate with the members of the target language community via their own language. It is also important, because when there is an interaction with the native speakers of the target language; learners have a chance to develop their language competence. These opportunities to interact with the native speakers of the target language will affect language students' attitude towards the target language but also attitudes towards the native speakers of the target language and their culture. They maintain that intercultural contact can influence language students' "motivated behaviour, that is, the energy and effort they are willing to put into the L2" (Kormos & Csizér 2007:242). Yashima (2002:57) claims that if language learners

have little daily interaction with target language speakers, it is not possible for them to “have a clear affective reaction to the specific L2 language group”.

In the study by Kormos and Csizér (2007) conducted, they explored the types of contact Hungarian students had, their language attitudes and how they perceived contact circumstances in influencing their attitudes and motivations towards the target language, L2 culture and the L2-learning process. The findings of the study demonstrated that the participants’ attitudes became more positive when they met native speakers of the target language. Surprisingly, none of their participants said that their attitudes turned to negative after meeting an L2 speaker.

2.4 Motivation and language learning

The studies of second-language acquisition (SLA) all reveal the fact that motivation is one of the main factors which affects the success of the language learner. Language teachers, though intuitively, often put forth that learners are unsuccessful, because they are not motivated. Dörnyei (2001a) claims that motivation can help the majority of the learners to learn a language. Oxford and Shearin (1994) also maintain that motivation influences how high the level of the students’ language will be.

Since the introduction of the concept of motivation, many studies have been done on motivation and have revealed correlations between level of motivation and achievement. Researchers all agree on the effect of motivation on language learning (Dörnyei, 2001a, 2001b, 2005; Ehrman, Leaver and Oxford, 2003; Graham, 2004; Semmar, 2006; and Masgoret and Gardner, 2003). However, there is no consensus as to whether integrative orientation or instrumental orientation is more influential on motivation. Gardner *et al*, (1972) claimed that integrative orientation was stronger, and integratively motivated learners were more successful learners than the learners who were instrumentally oriented. The reason for this was that the learners, because they wanted to integrate into the culture where the target language was spoken, were more motivated and also more successful than those learners with an instrumental orientation. Dörnyei (1990:9) claims that instrumental drives and need for achievement may be useful until intermediate level; however, “in order to get beyond this point, that is, to “really learn” the language, one has to be integratively motivated”, in spite of the fact that his research results demonstrated that instrumentality was the most important factor influencing motivation.

Humphreys and Spratt (2008) investigated Hong Kong tertiary students’ motivation towards learning English, Putonghua and an elected language. The results revealed that students

regarded Putonghua with more instrumental value; however, English and the chosen language displayed more association with affective and integrative terms. This finding was significant in that although students were aware of the instrumental value of English, the drive to learn English was not instrumental. Therefore, the researchers suggest that although teachers of English in Hong Kong attempt to address students' instrumental motivation, it should be emphasised that integrative motivation is the key for them.

Wright and McGrory (2005) carried out a research to define the motivational factor which causes the participants to enrol in an Irish class. They found that their participants were integratively motivated, the participant were not much interested in having qualifications which could enable them to find a job in an Irish-medium sector. The participants were more motivated to use Irish in their daily lives enjoying the sound of the language. Peng's (2007) study on the relationship between willingness to communicate in L2 and integrative motivation showed that integrative motivation was responsible for only a small proportion of variation in willingness to communicate.

However, in foreign language settings, it is not possible to expect that integrative orientation leads to better language attainment (Ehrman, *et al.*, 2003). Dörnyei (1990:49) also comments that "affective predispositions towards the target language community are unlikely to explain a great proportion of the variance in language attainment" in English foreign-language (EFL) situations due to the fact that students have little contact with the target language community. Aacken (1999) also agrees with Dörnyei (1990) that lack of a chance to have direct interaction with the native speakers of the target language and instrumental value of the language for career plans contributed to all of the participants having instrumental motivations to learn Japanese. Petrides (2006) also found that the students who believed that English would be very beneficial for their future life were more competent learners than the others. Similarly, Liu (2007) claimed that Chinese students had positive attitudes towards learning it and were highly motivated to learn English; however, they were more instrumentally motivated than integratively. Liu further added that there was a positive correlation between the students' attitudes, motivation and their proficiency in English.

In spite of these discussions on whether instrumental orientation is more influential than integrative orientation, or vice versa, there are also cases in which both instrumental and integrative orientations can be equally influential on motivation of language learners in an English foreign language (EFL) situation. A study conducted by Semmar (2006) showed that

both extrinsic and intrinsic orientations affected students' motivation. Semmar also found that highly successful students demonstrated high levels of both extrinsic (instrumental) and intrinsic (integrative) motivation. Gan, Humphreys and Hamp-Lyons (2004) revealed an interesting point in their research that successful students were both externally and internally motivated. Their reasons for studying English varied from interest, self-confidence, self-efficacy to proficiency tests. However, unsuccessful students had only extrinsic orientation; the only reason for them to study was to pass tests.

2.5 Conclusion

This chapter consisted of the contextual international theory and South African theory of second and third language learning. The chapter also dealt with concepts central to the study. The chapter further gave light to variables that contributed to students' motivation and attitude towards learning a third language. The chapter established that motivation and attitude are intertwined.

It was observed in the literature review that motivation in third language learning is intrinsically related to students' attitudes towards the target language which include perceptions of the related speech community and their culture.

As a result of the literature review, it was revealed that motivation is a complex issue and has multiple dimensions. Researchers from all over the world have been trying to shed light on different aspects of this complicated aspect by trying to identify the term 'motivation' and the kind of motivation orientation the learners embody by developing different theories and frameworks. They have also attempted to determine whether the kind of orientation differed in leading to better proficiency in learning a foreign language. In addition, what role difference play in attitudes towards learning a foreign language and motivation to learn a language. All these studies conducted were non-motivational and attitudinal aspects demonstrate that there is still a great need to investigate these more indifferent contexts. Since there is a high rate of lack of class attendance problem at a UoT in Pretoria, which is assumed to be a result of lack of motivation, this study will help to enlighten the researcher about the attitudes of UoT first- and second-year students towards learning isiZulu and their motivation to learn isiZulu.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter gives information about the design of the research. It also informs about the whole of the study in terms of the data collection tools and procedures for data analysis. This chapter additionally describes the research design in terms of methods used in the study. It further deals with research instruments, such as questionnaires and interviews. What follows thereafter, is a discussion of the population and ethical considerations.

3.2 Research approaches

In this study, the researcher attempted to examine students' attitudes towards learning isiZulu as a third language, motivation level and orientations as language learners and also how these students perform in their given language task. In order to explore attitudes and motivation, a combination of qualitative and quantitative research methodologies was used. The reason for this was for the researcher to 'triangulate', i.e. to back up one set of findings from one method of data collection underpinned by one methodology, with another very different method underpinned by another methodology.

White (2005:80) states that, "qualitative research methodologies deal with data that are principally verbal." The author mentions that this type of research methodology deals mainly with the "understanding of social phenomena from the perspective of the participants" (White, 2005:81). This approach has been chosen, because the respondents were asked to share their experience in their field of study and learning a third language.

Qualitative research is usually used when a researcher's aim is to understand human behaviour. This view is supported by Mokgokong (2004:5). Since the study attempted to examine students' attitudes towards learning isiZulu as a third language, motivation level and orientations as a language learning and also how these students' study habits differed according to their motivation level, the qualitative research approach was the best-suited method for this study as it is more concerned with exploring students' attitudes.

Dörnyei (2001:192) defines quantitative research as follows:

"Quantitative research employs categories, viewpoints and models as precisely as possible defined by the researcher in advance and numerical or directly quantifiable

data are collected to determine the relationship between these categories, to test research hypotheses and to enhance the aggregation of knowledge”.

A quantitative research approach requires that the data collected be quantified in numbers. There are numerous methods within the quantitative research approach, i.e.; descriptive, experimental, exploratory and explanatory research (Struwig & Stead, 2001:7).

Henning, Rensber & Smit, (2008) present the following distinction between qualitative and quantitative research: “In a quantitative study the focus will be on control of all the components in the actions and presentations of the participants.” In this way the respondents are usually restricted to present data in such a way that it can be captured by the “predetermined instruments”. According to Denzin and Lincoln (2000:14), quantitative studies emphasise measurement and analysis of causal relationships between variables, not processes.

Qualitative research, on the other hand, allows freedom and natural development of action and presentation since this is exactly what the researcher wants to capture. Thus, “we do not just look at the actions of human beings, such as their speech and writing, but we also try to find out how they represent their feelings and thoughts in those actions” (Henning, Rensber & Smit, 2008:3).

3.3 Research methods

The research method is a strategy of enquiry, which moves from the underlying assumptions to research design, and data collection (Myers, 2009). Although there are other distinctions in the research modes, the most common classification of research methods is into qualitative and quantitative. At one level, qualitative and quantitative refer to distinctions about the nature of knowledge: how one understands the world and the ultimate purpose of the research. On another level of discourse, the terms refer to research methods, that is, the way in which data are collected and analysed, and the type of generalisations and representations derived from the data. Crotty (1998:216) declares that a research method can be either qualitative or quantitative, or both, regardless of the type of research that is engaged in. He further emphasises that “as researchers, we have to devise for ourselves a research process that serves our purpose best, one that helps us more than to answer our research question”.

This study has used both qualitative and quantitative methods, because it will serve the purpose of the study well and using both methods would aid the study to obtain more information, and

be able to answer the research questions (Crotty, 1998:216). Without a research methodology, it may be practically impossible to do any research, because the methodology of a research project or study gives the researcher the ability to plan his/her research correctly.

3.3.1 Qualitative

Qualitative research is a situated activity that locates the observer in the world. It consists of a set of interpretive, material practices that makes the world visible (Denzin & Lincoln 2000:4–5). These practices transform the world. They turn the world into a series of representations, including field notes, interviews, conversations, photographs, recordings and memos to the self (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). At this level, qualitative research involves an interpretive, naturalistic approach to the world. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of or to interpret, and phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005:3). According to Domegan and Fleming (2007:24) “qualitative research aims to explore and discover issues about the problem on hand, because very little is known about the problem. There is usually uncertainty about dimensions and characteristics of the problem. It uses ‘soft’ data and gets ‘rich’ data”. According to Myers (2009), qualitative research is designed to help researchers understand people, and the social and cultural contexts within which they live.

In qualitative research, different knowledge claims, enquiry strategies and data collection methods and analysis are employed (Creswell, 2003). Qualitative data sources include observation and participant observation (fieldwork), interviews and questionnaires, documents and texts, and the researcher’s impressions and reactions (Myers, 2009). Data is derived from direct observation of behaviours, from interviews, from written opinions, or from public documents (Sprinthall, Schummutte & Sirois, 1991:101). Written descriptions of people, events, opinions, attitudes and environments, or combinations of these can also be sources of data. An obvious basic distinction between qualitative and quantitative research is the form of data collection, analysis and presentation. While quantitative research presents statistical results represented by numerical or statistical data, qualitative research presents data as descriptive narration with words and attempts to understand phenomena in “natural settings” (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000:3). This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or to interpret, and phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000:3).

The approach enables the researcher to listen to the voice of participants through the use of semi-structured interviews. The researcher was also able to centre the analysis of collected data on content analysis, which, according to Du Plooy (2002:84), is a systematic analysis of verbal responses.

3.3.2 Quantitative

Quantitative research makes use of questionnaires, surveys and experiments to gather data that is revised and tabulated in numbers, which allows the data to be characterised by the use of statistical analysis (Hittleman & Simon, 1997:31). In addition, quantitative researchers measure variables on a sample of subjects and express the relationship between variables using effect statistics such as correlations, relative frequencies or differences between means; their focus is to a large extent on the testing of theory. The approach is used in the study by employing a closed open-ended questionnaire and by describing the variables concerned with data collection. According to Bless and Higson-Smith (2000:37), the approach relies on measurement to compare and analyse different variables and scales. The approach enables the researcher to describe the characteristics of the study's population and to produce numerical data by assigning numerical values to questionnaire participants' responses.

The choice for the approach was also influenced by the researcher's need to confirm the stated research questions. As the researcher aims to predict the motivation and attitude between the variables discussed in chapter 1, and to quantify the variation in the study, a quantitative study design is stable from beginning to end (Mack, Woodsong, MacQueen, Guest & Namely, 2005:3).

3.3.3 Qualitative and quantitative research combined

Stake (1995:37) describes three major differences in qualitative and quantitative emphasis, noting a distinction between: explanation and understanding as the purpose of the inquiry; the personal and impersonal role of the researcher; and knowledge discovered and knowledge constructed. Another major difference between the two is that qualitative research is inductive and quantitative research is deductive. In qualitative research, a hypothesis is not needed to begin research; it employs inductive data analysis to provide a better understanding of the interaction of "mutually shaping influences" and to explicate the interacting realities and experiences of researcher and participant (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). It allows for a design to

evolve rather than having a complete design in the beginning of the study, because it is difficult, if not impossible, to predict the outcome of interactions due to the diverse perspectives and values systems of the researcher and participants, and their influence on the interpretation of reality and the outcome of the study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). However, mostly quantitative research requires a hypothesis before research can begin.

Merriam (1998:11–19) states that qualitative case studies in education are often framed with concepts, models and theories. An inductive method is then used to support or challenge theoretical assumptions. Although the research process in qualitative research is inductive, Merriam (ibid: 49) notes that most qualitative research inherently moulds or changes existing theory in that:

- data are analysed and interpreted in light of the concepts of a particular theoretical orientation; and
- findings are usually discussed in relation to existing knowledge (some of which is theory) with the aim of demonstrating how the present study has contributed to expanding the knowledge base.

Stainback (1988:317) lists three basic purposes of quantitative research, i.e. to describe, to compare and to attribute causality. Maxwell (1998:66) enumerates five research purposes for which qualitative studies are particularly useful:

- Understanding the meaning that participants in a study give to the events, situations and actions that they are involved with; and of the accounts they give of their lives and experiences.
- Identifying unanticipated phenomena and influences, and generating new, grounded theories about them.
- Understanding the process by which events and actions take place.
- Developing causal explanations.

Du Plooy (2002:81) says that the mixed method allows the researcher to collect data with the view of increasing the reliability of the study by:

- using inductive and deductive reasoning in the study;

- adding depth and insight to numbers through inclusion of dialogue;
- adding precision to words through inclusion of numbers tallying and statistics;
- making results more generalisable; and
- allowing the facilitation of capturing varied perspectives.

There are advantages and disadvantages in using both qualitative and quantitative research methods. According to Reichardt & Cook (1979) in Rananga, 2008:90), the advantages of using both qualitative and quantitative research methods for the same aim balance each other, and provide more in-depth information, rather than using one research method for information, and since every researcher has their own favourite method, using both methods helps the researcher to triangulate on the underlying truth.

Reichardt & Cook (1979) in Rananga, 2008:90), also outline the disadvantages of using both qualitative and quantitative research methods, i.e. that it would become too costly, and working with both qualitative and quantitative research methods requires much time.

3.4 Research instruments

The following instruments were used to collect the data such as, questionnaire, Likert scale, and interview and language task.

3.4.1 Questionnaires

“A questionnaire is a series of structured questions with a specific topic or issue and is used for the basis of the survey approach (Hart, 2005:357). Furthermore, Lester (1993:67) states that questionnaires can produce accurate data that one can tabulate and analyse quickly. He warns, however, that the researcher should remain objective. An advantage of using a questionnaire is that it saves time, because the researcher can obtain information from all the respondents in a short time.

Oppenheim (1992:100) points out that a questionnaire is:

“Not some sort of official form, nor is it a set of questions which has been casually jotted down without much thought. We should think of the questionnaire as an important instrument of research, a tool for data collection. The questionnaire has a job to do: its function is measurement.”

The questionnaire used for this study comprised of written questions which were divided into three sections, namely i.e., Addendum A, Section A: Personal information on the respondents so that the researcher could have an understanding of their backgrounds; Section B: Learning experiences in the classroom of isiZulu L3; Addendum B: Open and closed-type questions. These types of questions were used, because they help the researcher to see how respondents perceive this research study, test their attitudes towards learning isiZulu as a third language, motivation level and orientations as a language learner. Addendum C was a Likert scale-type questionnaire ranging from 1 to 5 and lastly Addendum D consisted of two language tasks that students had to complete.

3.3.4.2 Likert scale

According to Ben (1998) the Likert scale is a psychometric response scale primarily used in questionnaires to obtain participants' preferences or degree of agreement with a statement or set of statements. Likert scales are a non-comparative scaling technique and are one-dimensional (only measure a single trait) in nature ranging from 1 to 5, for instance (Ben, 1998). Respondents are asked to indicate their level of agreement with a given statement by way of an ordinal scale.

Addendum C was a Likert scale-type questionnaire. The respondents were given a set of options to choose from. Respondents had to evaluate a statement, using the scale of: 5= strongly agree; 4=agree; 3= not sure; 2=disagree; and 1= strongly disagree. The Likert scale-type statements are considered the best way to measure attitudes and awareness among people (Mouton & Marais 1992:4).

The researcher disseminated 40 questionnaires amongst respondents from first- and second-year language students, who speak Sepedi, Setswana, Xitsonga and Tshivenda, which are from North West and Limpopo provinces, to which isiZulu is an unfamiliar language. The respondents were fairly representative in age group, gender, and balanced in social backgrounds. A self-selection sampling method was used in the class of isiZulu for both first and second year of study. Addendum D consists of two given language task the students had to do. According to (Lee, 2000:32) a task is a classroom activity or exercise that has an achievable objective only by the interaction among participants.

Julkunen (1989:33) listed four characteristics of motivating tasks. He suggested that a task is motivating when students enjoy what they are doing, get carried away, and do not regard it as

a required learning activity. A task is also motivating when it stimulates students to communicate using the target language when doing the task.

The respondent's first- and second-year students were given a task which counted 100 marks. Questions were based on nouns, paraphrasing of sentences, tenses absolute and demonstrative pronouns and, lastly, interpretation of a given picture. The objective of using the language task was to check if there's a correlation between motivation and attitudes. Their first- and second-test task was used to check whether there is a correlation between their score achievement and motivation and attitude.

3.3.4.3 Interviews

Forcece and Richer, (1973:169) define the term interview as a dialogue situation – a give-and-take situation between researchers and respondents... much detail can be obtained through interviews, as the respondent is allowed to talk until they exhaust a particular topic. The aim of interviews is to see the world through the eyes of the respondent.

Furthermore, interviews allow the researcher to understand the meanings people attach to their everyday activities (Marshall & Rossman, 1995:80). An interview helps the researcher to collect a large amount of data within a short period of time. A tape recorder was used to record the interviews and important comments were written down. Depending on the need and design, interviews can be unstructured, structured, and semi-structured with individuals, or may be focus-group interviews (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell B 2005:165).

A semi-structured interview was used in this research. According to White (2005:145), the procedure and content of a structured interview are organised in advance. The researcher reads each question and recorded all the interviewees' responses while taking notes. Bell (1993) in Rananga (2008:103) says there is a need to take notes, even though a tape recorder is used. Note-taking plays a major role, in case something happened to the recorder (battery died or the record got lost). The tape recordings were later transcribed so as to establish a record of the collected data.

The structured interview questionnaires were used to enable the researcher to compare the responses of the interviews and those of the questionnaire in order to ensure validity and reliability. Secondly, it was done to make up in advance for those questions that some

respondents might not answer in the questionnaire, as Bailey (1982:183) puts it that one of the advantages of interviews is “to ensure that all questions are answered”.

Interviews were used in order to draw from the respondent, motives that would inform the researcher of the deep-seated and honest feelings of the respondents. The important thing is that “the interviewer is present to observe non-verbal behaviour and to assess the validity of the respondents’ answers” (Bailey, 1982:182). This point of view is in line with Webster and Mertova’s (2007:16) claims that “a concern for the motives brings to the forefront through more traditional research methods”. In the same vein, Bell (1998:91) maintains that the major advantage of the interview is its adaptability. It enables the interviewer to probe responses and investigate motives and feelings, an attribute that is missing in the questionnaires. As was indicated earlier, this study seeks to discover the motivational levels, i.e., instrumental and integrative motivation and their attitude towards isiZulu as a third language. The motives from interviews were of great assistance in this regard and were used to make sure that all questions were answered, as has already been stated above. Again the interview enables the interviewer to explain the questions that might not be clear to the respondents (Bailey, 1982:183) and (Webb & Austin, 2009:33).

Throughout the study a one-on-one qualitative interviewer technique was used. The interview questions were open-ended to allow the respondents to express him or herself freely. The main reason for one-on-one interviewing was that there were ten in total, which is manageable since the majority of them already did the survey questionnaire. Though time-consuming, this type of interview is important in that the researcher obtains individual opinions. No respondent is tempted to imitate his or her friend. This position is confirmed by Webb and Austin (2009:33) as they state that face-to-face interviews are advantageous in that they enable the participants to express their perceptions and feelings honestly, while group interviews might be intimidating for some participants who might feel pressured to concur with others in the group. Data collection procedures and analysis will be explained in the discussion below.

3.5 Data collection procedures and analysis

According to Gaffane (2005:81), data collection is the process of collecting information for a specific purpose; usually, data consists of individual or group information. The most important guideline for improving data quality is to record and report the process by which data is generated.

The researcher received a letter of authorisation to conduct research at a university of technology in Pretoria. Subsequently, the researcher asked her colleagues who do not teach the students to act as a research assistant to avoid conflict of interest as a lecturer. Arrangements were secured with the participants to talk to them face-to-face. They were informed telephonically and via emails regarding date, time and place for filling in the questionnaires and participating in the interviews.

The research assistant agreed to read and explain the implication and signing of the consent form before the participants could participate in the research. De Vos, *et al.* (2002:65) states that every person who takes part in a study should sign an informed consent form which gives details about the researcher. Questionnaires were handed out, together with a language task for them to answer. Submission was done once a respondent raised a hand as an indication of completing the task. Interviews were conducted with some participants on a following day.

There are two types of statistics for analysing quantitative data, i.e., descriptive and inferential statistics. This study used descriptive statistics to analyse the data collected. Jaggi (2003:1) says “descriptive statistics gives numerical and graphic procedures to summarize a collection of data in a clear and understandable way whereas inferential statistics provides procedures to draw inferences about a population from a sample”. Descriptive statistics was chosen, because it offers very simple summaries of the sample, and it seemed a suitable method to analyse the quantitative data collected. To analyse the qualitative data (interviews), the researcher did the following: coded the collected data; sorted the data into categories; made transcriptions of interviews data; and, lastly, interpreted the data for analysis. Sampling procedures will be explained in the discussion below.

3.6 Sample procedures

Under sample procedures, population, sample, sample size and sample methods will be discussed.

3.6.1 Population

Population is the total collection of the equipment or human population that the researcher wants to study. Population is a target group that the researcher aims to study. According to Nkuna (2010:112) “...population encompasses the total collection of all units of analysis about which the researcher wishes to draw conclusions”. The population can be human subjects or

objects as is the case in this study. Nunan (1992:231) defines population as “all cases, situations or individuals who share one or more characteristic.”

3.6.1.1 *Sample*

Kumar (2005:164) defines a sample as: “a subgroup of the population you are interested in.” Brynard and Henekom (2006:54) define sampling as “a technique employed to select a small group (sample) with a view to determining the characteristics of a large group (population). A sample, then, is a selected group of elements from a defined population.” Walliman (2011:185) argues that “a sample is a selected number of cases in a population.” The researcher agrees with all the above explanations, because a sample is a selected group from the population that the researcher uses to collect data from.

For this study, undergraduate students were sampled who are enrolled for a language programme. Students in their first and second year of study who take isiZulu as a third language (practical subject or understood as additional language) were sampled. Research was conducted on second-year isiZulu students in their context of second year of the study and not with regard to their first year. Both females and males within the age range of between 18 and 26 were sampled. The researcher anticipated dealing with 50 participants, but only 40 participants eventually took part in the study. Some targeted participants were not willing to take part due to personal reasons.

3.6.1.2 *Sample size*

In addition to the sampling method, the sample size was another important aspect of the population. Although the basic principle, according to Jarvis and Pavlenko (2008:57), is “the bigger, the better”, empirical researchers believe that scholars should strive for samples that include at least 30 people per group. Based on this, the sample size for this study was in the region of 40, depending on availability, and the respondents’ willingness to participate. These were students who had Sepedi or Setswana or Xitsonga and Tshivenda as their L1 and English as L2 with little or no exposure to isiZulu (L3) when they enrolled to study the subject.

3.6.1.4 Sampling methods

Mwanje (2001b:27) defines sampling as the process involving the selection of a finite number from a given population of interest for purpose of inquiry. He perceives it as a subset or portion of the total population.

The researcher used *non-probability sampling*, because not every person targeted could take part in this study. Those who were available and willing to participate were considered (Leedy, 1997: 204; Fink and Kosecoff, 1998: 39; Neuman, 1997).

According to Struwig and Stead (2001:11), *non-probability sampling* has five types; i.e., convenience sampling, quota sampling, snowball sampling self-selection sampling and purposive sampling.

Bailey (1982:99) explains that with purposive sampling or judgmental sampling the investigator does not “just pick the nearest warm bodies, as in convenience sampling”. The researcher uses his or her own judgement about which respondents’ best suit the purpose of the study.

Purposive sampling is relevant to this study as Burns (2000:463) proposes that “it serves the real purpose and objectives of the researcher of discovering, gaining insight and understanding into a particular phenomenon”.

Purposive sampling is selecting a sample “on the basis of your own knowledge of the population, its elements, and the nature of your research aims” (Babbie, 1990:97). That is to ensure that the population is “non-randomly selected based on a particular characteristic” Frey, *et al.* (2000:132).

3.7 Data analysis

In this section profile of age, demographic information and language background, learning experiences and language task will be discussed. This section additionally describes how data collected from the questionnaire survey and the interview were analysed. In the view of Du Plooy (2002:93), in order to enable the researcher to provide recommendations and reach conclusions, data sourced from completed and returned questionnaires and that from interviews have to be interpreted by the researcher. Descriptive statistics were used to analyse the

responses to the questionnaire, to show trends, attitudes and behaviours of students. The recorded interviews were transcribed and its content analysed for data analysis supporting.

The study sample population consisted of students at a university of technology in Pretoria learning an African language as a third language from the Department of Applied Languages. These students have different profiles as their language background, different L1s, which included about four African languages, and English as L2, which is the language of teaching and learning, and also taught as a language subject. For these students, the acquisition of an L3 was a course requirement, and isiZulu is one of the languages they might select to learn. In data analysis it helps to draw up different profiles of the sample population in order to visualise important parameters quickly and schematically.

3.8 Respondents' profile

3.8.1 Respondents' age range profile

The first profile to be captured is the respondents' age range.

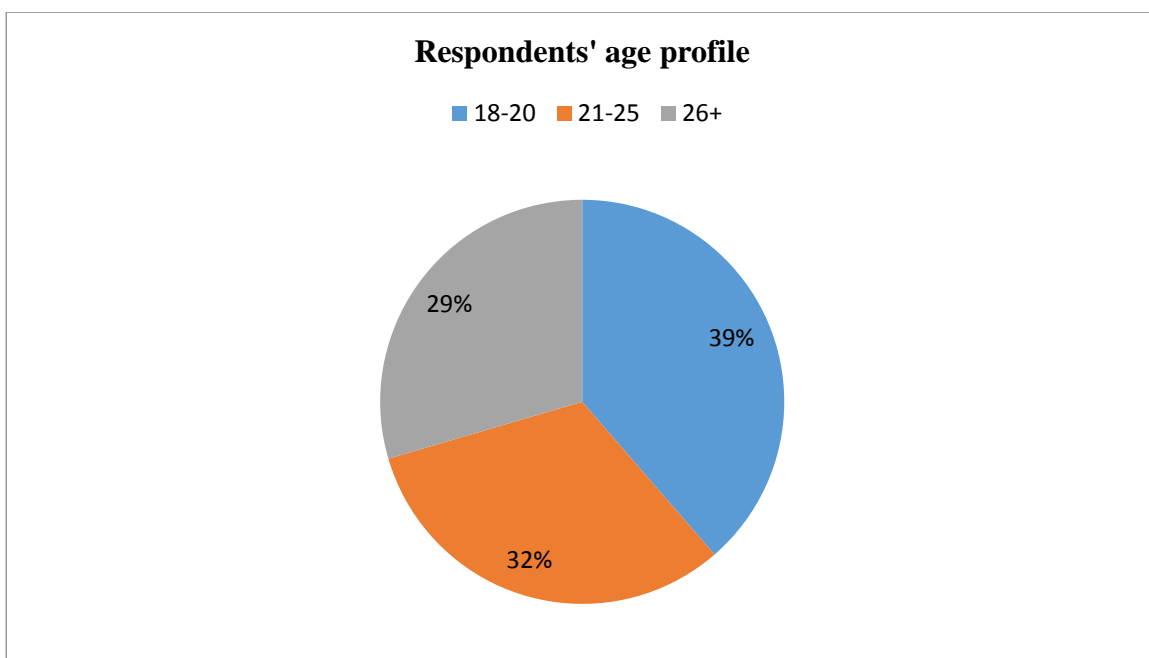


Figure 1: Respondents' age profile (N=40)

Figure 1 above shows that the majority of respondents for the entire study are from the 18–20-year age group. This age group represents 39% of the respondents who took part in completing the questionnaire and were involved in the face-to-face interview session, followed by the 21–

25-year age group at 32%. The lowest percentages of respondents as shown in the table above are respondents above 26 years of age at 29%.

3.8.2 Profile of respondents' demographic information and language backgrounds

The second profile to be captured is the demographic information of the respondents.

Table 1: Respondents' demographic information, language backgrounds and use (N=40)

Variables		Frequencies	Percentages (%)
Gender	Female	26	65
	Male	14	35
Home language(s)	Northern Sotho	11	27,5
	Setswana	07	17,5
	Tshivenda	01	2,5
	Xitsonga	21	52,5
Province	Limpopo	33	82,25
	North West	07	17,5
Other languages spoken, other than your home and English	None	12	30
	SiSwati	02	5
	Others (isiXhosa, IsiNdebele, Sesotho)	26	65
Were you exposed to other languages before coming to university?	No	24	60
	Yes	16	40
	English	01	2,5

Languages used with friends at home	Northern Sotho	12	30
	Setswana	7	17,5
	Tshivenda	01	2,5
	Tshivenda and Xitsonga	19	47,5
	others	0	0
Languages used with friends at university	Northern Sotho, isiZulu, English and Tshivenda	02	5
	Northern Sotho, Setswana and English	22	55
	Xitsonga, isiZulu and Northern Sotho	02	5
	Xitsonga, English and Tshivenda	14	35
Were you exposed to isiZulu before registering for the subject?	Yes	30	75
	No	10	25
If yes, where?	At home	01	2,5
	In the community	10	25
	On TV	17	42,5
	Others	3	7,5
	None at all	09	22,5

What were your level of competence in isiZulu when you started the lessons?	Could understand, but not speak, read and write	20	50
	Could understand and speak, but not read and write	18	45
	None	02	5
What is your current level of isiZulu?	Can understand, but not speak	10	25
	Can understand and speak, but not read and write	10	25
	Can understand, speak, read and write	18	45

Table 1 above indicates that the great part of the participants were Xitsonga speakers, which make 52,5% of the entire sample, Sepedi speakers make 27,5%, the lowest percentage is of Setswana speakers by 17,5% and Tshivenda speakers by 2,5%.

The above table displayed a sample of 60% indicating that English was never used at home, while 40% answered yes. 50% indicated that they use L1 with their friends at home and 1% said they use English to communicate. With regards to the amount of exposure to other African languages and to isiZulu L3 in particular, before they came to university, 60% indicated that they were not exposed to any other language before. 75% indicated that they had never been exposed to isiZulu. Regarding the respondents' levels of competence when they started the L3 lessons, 50% of them indicated that they could understand, but not speak, read or write; 26% could understand and speak, but not read or write, while 24% had no knowledge of isiZulu at all.

Table 2: Respondents' isiZulu L3 learning experiences (N=40)

Variables		Frequencies	Percentages (%)
1. What do you find easier to learn?	Understanding	14	35
	Speaking	17	42,5
	Reading	06	15
	Writing	01	2,5
	Understanding and speaking	02	5
2. What do you find most difficult to learn?	Speaking	07	17,5
	Writing	19	47,5
	Reading	09	22,5
	Understanding	04	10
	Understanding, reading and writing	01	2,5
3. Does your home language make learning isiZulu any easier?	No	06	15
	Not sure	28	70
	Yes	06	15
If yes, how?	The words are far different and not similar in meaning and form	14	35
	The writing conjunctively, while we write dis-conjunctively.	16	40
	Sentence structure is similar	10	25
4. Do you ever use isiZulu outside of the classroom?	Yes	34	85
	No	06	15
	Yes	17	42,5

5. Do you listen to isiZulu radio programmes and watch isiZulu TV programmes?	No	23	57,5
6. Have you become interested in languages, in general, since you started learning an L3?	Yes	37	92,5
	No	03	7,5

3.8.3 Profile of respondents' learning experiences

The third profile to be captured is the learning experiences of the respondents, presented in Table 2.

The data collected from the questionnaire, with regard to the respondents' experience in learning L3, illustrates that respondents found understanding isiZulu easier than speaking and writing, while speaking and writing were shown to be the most difficult to learn. When asked whether their knowledge of Xitsonga, Sepedi, Setswana and Tshivenda made learning isiZulu easier for them, only 23% responded yes, with 49% indicating that words are far different in meaning and forms. As the reason for this 28% said they were not sure whether their L1 makes learning isiZulu L3 easier. 37% said writing is different to writing in their language, because in isiZulu L3 one writes "words combined" (conjunctively) while they write "words separately" (disjunctively) in their respective languages.

Responding to the question on whether they communicated in isiZulu outside the classroom, 75% of the respondents indicated that they did, mostly with their isiZulu-speaking friends, roommates, and, sometimes, with classmates. However, their responses as to whether they listened to or watched isiZulu radio and TV programmes indicated that, on average, 45% of them never did. Responses to questions on whether learning an L3 had increased their interest in languages, in general, and their reasons for registering for isiZulu L3 indicate that 93% displayed positive interest, and 45% registered for the subject because of their interest in acquiring another African language which they could not speak.

3.8.4 Profile of the interview respondents

The fourth profile to be captured is the respondents' interviews.

Table 3: Profile of interview respondents (N=10)

Occupation	Gender	Age range	Home language	Interview codes
Students	Female	18–20 yrs.	Level 1	SFL1
Students	Female	18–20 yrs.	Level 1	SFL1
Students	Female	18–20 yrs.	Level 1	SFL1
Students	Male	18–20 yrs.	Level 1	SML1
Students	Male	18–20 yrs.	Level 1	SML1
Students	Female	18–20 yrs.	Level 2	SFL2
Students	Female	18–20 yrs.	Level 2	SFL2
Students	Female	18–20 yrs.	Level 2	SFL2
Students	Male	18–20 yrs.	Level 2	SML2

The codes in Table 3 above (SML1) mean ‘Student male of level 1’ and SFL2 stands for ‘Student female level 2’. As displayed in the table above, ten (10) respondents took part in answering five face-to-face interview questions. Interviews were conducted in English. The respondents who took part in face-to-face interviews were also part of the bigger group who completed the questionnaires. A structured interview was used (see 3.4.3).

The structured-interview questionnaires were used to enable researcher to compare the responses of the interviews and those of the questionnaire in order to ensure *validity* and *reliability*. Secondly, it was done to make up for those questions in advance so that some respondents might not respond in the questionnaire, but in the interview instead (Bailey, 1982).

Interviews were used in order to draw motives from the respondents that would inform the researcher of the deep-seated and honest feelings of the respondents. The important thing is

that “the interviewer is present to observe non-verbal behaviour and to assess the validity of the respondents’ answers” (Bailey, 1982:182).

3.10 Ethical issues

As stated in Chapter 1, ethical issues are present in any kind of research, and pertain to doing well and avoiding harm. Blanche *et al* (2006:61) posit that the essential purpose of research ethics is to protect the welfare of research participants. The present study conducted in line with the following ethical considerations.

The research proposal and questionnaire were submitted to the ethics committee at the institution of study for approval. Students were invited to participate in a classroom situation and were given an opportunity to decide whether they want to participate. They were given a leaflet containing all relevant information that could help them understand what was involved and what was expected of them. They were encouraged to take part only if they were completely satisfied with all aspects of the study.

Participants were required to sign an informed consent form. They were required also to complete a questionnaire which included questions on biographical information, their learning experiences, Likert scale, interviews and a language task. An estimate of the time it would take to complete the questionnaires was given. After the student had sign the consent form, he/she was handed the questionnaire to complete.

Participants were informed that their voluntary participation gave them the right to withdraw at any stage without penalty or future disadvantage whatsoever, and without having to give a reason for their decision. Their withdrawal would in no way influence their further education at the university. Participation did not imply that any legal claims, rights or remedies were waived. Robson (1993) in Mabovula (2008:189) notes that it is ethically incorrect to withdraw information from the participants or to mislead them if the participants are likely to object or show unease once they are debriefed.

Only the researcher and the supervisors of the study had access to the completed questionnaires. Answers to questions and responses to statements were kept confidential. The identities of participants were not revealed under any circumstances. Nobody outside the study panel would be able to connect any particular student in any recognisable way to the study. Although the result of the study may be published in a scientific publication and/or presented at scientific

meetings, this will be done without revealing the identity of participants. The original questionnaires will be stored in a safe place.

Participants were required to sign a consent form. They were informed that their participation was entirely voluntary without financial gain and that their identity would be protected at all times. Once all students had signed the consent form the interview commenced.

The collection of data only commenced after ethical clearance for this study was obtained by the institution of study.

Participants were given the contact numbers of both the researcher and the study leader as well as the contact details of the chairperson of the university's research ethics committee.

3.11 Conclusion

In this chapter an overview was given about research methodology and design referring to quantitative and qualitative research and the advantages and disadvantages of each. Eventually the advantages of combining quantitative and qualitative approaches were discussed, and mixed method approach was decided on. Respondents' profiles were discussed in this chapter including age range profile, demographic information and language background, learning experiences and interview respondent details.

The chapter explained the sampling procedure and how the research instruments were administered in order to solicit relevant information. It also spelt out how interviews were conducted to enhance the data provided by structured questionnaires. Furthermore, it explained out how data would be analysed for the formulation of findings. Chapter 4, the next focus of the study, indicates the results and findings obtained using the instruments discussed here.

CHAPTER 4: DATA ANALYSIS AND RESEARCH FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the study, and the interpretation of the data collected from the questionnaires, interviews and written tasks. Furthermore, the data collected are compared and contrasted in order to formulate findings. The aim of this study, as explained in chapter 1, was to investigate whether students at a university in Pretoria are motivated to use or learn isiZulu as a third language, and to determine their motivational orientations and attitudes towards learning this language. Two tasks were given to first- and second-year students to test their achievement in the isiZulu language. These were then compared to the analysis of responses on the questionnaires to determine the components of motivation and attitudes towards the third language, isiZulu, and the learning situation. Two types of statistics were used for analysing quantitative data, i.e., descriptive and inferential statistics. This study used descriptive statistics to analyse the data collected. Jaggi (2003:1) says “descriptive statistics gives numerical and graphic procedures to summarise a collection of data in a clear and understandable way whereas inferential statistics provides procedures to draw inferences about a population from a sample”. Descriptive statistics was chosen, because it offers very simple summaries of the sample, and it seemed a suitable method to analyse the quantitative data collected. To analyse the qualitative data (interviews), the researcher coded the collected data according to respondents; sorted the data into categories; made transcriptions of the interviews and, lastly, interpreted the recorded data.

The investigation involved the collection of data in form of a questionnaire, which had 20 statements consisting of instrumental and integrative items, and interviews based on motivational and attitudinal aspects and specific language learning tasks.

According to Landman (1988:59) data are information systematically collected in research; an analysis providing the resolution of a whole into parts. White (2005:104) asserts that data analysis is mainly interpretative and involves the categorisation of findings.

The main aim is to objectively write accounts of real experiences provided by the data. Therefore, in the context of this study, it means the researcher recorded the general response of the research participants and those responses would be presented as they were relevant for

the findings. The study was about undergraduate students who are enrolled for a language programme. The study sampled students in their first and second year of study in isiZulu as a third language (practical subject).

4.2 Questionnaire data

Addendum C of the questionnaire looked at respondents' instrumental and integrative motivation towards learning isiZulu as a third language. Likert scale-type statements were used to draw concluding findings from respondents. There were a total of 20 statements and the *mean* was calculated in average format for each statement and consequently measured. The data was interpreted individually in order to describe the findings. The respondents were rating their answers according to the following scale of descriptors: 5= **totally agree**; 4= **agree**; 3= **not sure**; 2= **disagree** and 1= **totally disagree**. What follows is a summary of the respondents' feedback on instrumental and integrative statements of isiZulu third-language learning in table format (see Table 4). These statements reflect the motivation and language attitudes of the students.

4.2.1 Interpretation of questionnaire data

What follows is Table 4 that captures the interpretation of the questionnaire data.

Table 4: Instrumental and integrative statements (N=40)

No.	Statements	Mean
1.	In learning isiZulu, so that I can broaden my view in learning a third language.	3,8
2.	I am learning isiZulu, because I want to be able to communicate with native speakers and know their culture.	4,4
3.	I am learning isiZulu, because I want to be able to speak it.	4,6
4.	I am learning isiZulu, because I want to deepen my knowledge of languages.	2,7
5.	IsiZulu will be necessary in my life in future.	4,2
6.	I am learning isiZulu, because I can secure a job in future.	4
7.	I am curious about isiZulu as a language.	3,6
8.	My parents told me to study isiZulu.	1,0
9.	I am learning isiZulu, because I am influenced by friends.	1,4

10.	I am learning isiZulu, because I am interested in learning other African languages as they are used at tertiary institutions.	4,3
11.	I am learning isiZulu, because I am interested in other cultures.	4,0
12.	I am learning isiZulu, because it is a prominent African language.	3,8
13.	I am learning isiZulu, because it is more similar to my home language than the other languages I had to choose from.	4,0
14.	I am inquisitive in attending the isiZulu class.	3,5
15.	I find the isiZulu class activities interesting.	4,2
16.	The language work we are doing in the isiZulu class is applicable to daily communication.	4,1
17.	I feel that the isiZulu lecturer wants me to do well in class.	4,5
18.	I feel confident to participate in the isiZulu class.	4,0
19.	I shall, one day, be able to communicate fluently in isiZulu.	4,8
20.	By the end of my isiZulu course, I shall have learned everything I am supposed to know for effective communication.	4,5

What follows is a summary of the data interpretation captured in Table 4.

Statement 1: In learning isiZulu, I can broaden my view in learning a third language.

A mean score of 3,8 among the respondents indicate opinions ranging between ‘not sure’ and ‘agree’ that learning isiZulu can broaden their views. This mean score tends slightly more towards respondents agreeing that the learning isiZulu could widen their view towards learning other African languages.

Statement 2: I am learning isiZulu, because I want to be able to communicate with native speakers and know their culture.

A mean score of 4,4 was recorded here (i.e., between ‘agree’ and ‘totally agree’), signifying more towards totally agreeing that they were learning isiZulu, because they wanted to be able to communicate with the native speakers of this language and know their culture.

Statement 3: I am learning isiZulu, because I want to be able to speak it.

A mean score of 4,6 was recorded for this statement, indicating that the respondents almost totally agreed that they are learning isiZulu because they wanted to be able to speak it, which may actually imply that they knew that it is a lingua franca in South Africa.

Statement 4: I am learning isiZulu, because I want to deepen my knowledge of languages.

This statement obtained a mean score of 2,7 which indicated opinions ranging between ‘disagree’ and ‘not sure’ implying that the respondents were not completely disagreeing with the above statement.

Statement 5: IsiZulu will be necessary in my life in future.

With a mean score of 4,2 respondents revealed that isiZulu would be necessary in their life in future. This statement’s mean is between ‘agree’ and ‘totally agree’, but leaning more towards solely agreeing: respondents realising that isiZulu is the most widely spoken African language in South Africa.

Statement 6: I am learning isiZulu, because I can secure a job in future.

A mean score of 4 ‘agree’ was noted, which indicated that the respondents mostly agreed that by learning isiZulu they could secure better employment possibilities in future. They, therefore, saw isiZulu as an empowering African language.

Statement 7: I am curious about isiZulu as a language.

This statement is aimed at checking whether the respondents were curious about isiZulu as a third language which they can study at a tertiary level for communicative purposes. A mean score of 3,6 was noted here. This statement indicated an argument between ‘not sure’ and ‘agree’, with a more positive inclination towards confirmation.

Statement 8: My parents told me to study isiZulu.

One of the lowest means in the study (1,0) signifying ‘totally disagree’ is recorded on this item. With this statement, the aim was to check whether the respondents were not influenced by their parents to choose isiZulu as subject. However, it was obvious that they made the decision independently.

Statement 9: I am learning isiZulu, because I am influenced by friends.

An overwhelming mean score of 1.4 was recorded here, indicating that respondents were not influenced by friends to study isiZulu: this pointed out that they almost all ‘totally disagreed’, with the statement above, meaning that they decided on this language option by themselves.

Statement 10: I am learning isiZulu, because I am interested in learning other African languages.

Regarding the interest in learning other African languages rendered a mean score of 4,3. In this case, the respondents were almost mid-way adhering to the scales lying between ‘agree’ and ‘totally agree’, i.e. that learning isiZulu was prompted by their interest in other African languages. This can be interpreted as the students’ striving towards multilingualism in a multilingual society.

Statement 11: I am learning isiZulu, because I am interested in other cultures.

This statement sought to find out whether the respondents are interested in the isiZulu culture. Interestingly, a mean score of 4,0 ‘agree’ was noted here, indicating respondents agreeing being interested in other cultures, implying the isiZulu culture too. It also showed that students were aware that languages could be studied without considering its culture to specifically the isiZulu culture.

Statement 12: I am learning isiZulu, because it is a prominent African language.

The purpose of this statement is aimed at checking if the respondents are learning isiZulu because it is a prominent African language. A mean score of 3,8 was recorded. This statement indicated a notion of uncertainty ranging between ‘agree’ and ‘not sure’. However, the score is well above average, which can be interpreted as isiZulu being perceived as one of the significant African languages in South Africa.

Statement 13: I am learning isiZulu, because it is more similar to my home language than the other languages I had to choose from.

The aim of this statement was to find out whether these respondents were learning isiZulu because it is more similar to their home language than other languages that they had to choose from as offered in the curriculum of the language programme of this university of technology in Pretoria. This statement obtained a mean score of 4,0. In this case the respondents ‘agreed’ with the above statement, meaning that this consideration would play a role in making their learning of the language more convenient and easier. This response was rather unexpected since the first languages of these students are Sepedi, Setswana, Xitsonga and Tshivenda and not Nguni languages as isiZulu is, and therefore quite different. (See 3.8.2 for profile of respondents’ demographic information and language background.) Although students

responded by agreeing on similarities between these four languages and isiZulu, it indicates a poor understanding of the posed statement.

Statement 14: I am inquisitive in attending the isiZulu class.

A mean score of 3,5 among respondents indicated opinions ranging from ‘not sure’ and ‘agree’ that they were inquisitive in attending the isiZulu class. This mean score tends slightly towards respondents agreeing that they were inquisitive in attending the isiZulu class. This response showed some hesitance, but not outright disengagement.

Statement 15: I find isiZulu class activities interesting.

This statement received responses which were quite high with a mean score of 4,2 compared to statements 4, 7, 8 and 9. This revealed that the respondents agreed that they found the isiZulu class activities interesting, expressing an eagerness to learn and engage in tasks of learning the language.

Statement 16: The language work we are performing in the isiZulu class is applicable to daily communication.

The objective of this statement was to discover whether the activities performing in class will be applied when interacting with native speakers. The 4,1 mean score recorded here indicated that the respondents ‘agreed’ that the activities they did in class were applicable to daily communication. This reply can be seen as an important practical motivation towards application of the language in everyday communicative situations.

Statement 17: I feel that isiZulu lecturer wants me to do well in class.

With this statement, the aim was to find out whether the lecturer motivated them to do well in class. A mean score of 4,5 was recorded, which swayed the students’ response towards a positive perception of the lecturer’s intention towards teaching them, considering their progress.

Statement 18: I feel confident to participate in the isiZulu class.

With this statement the aim was to discover whether they were able to confidently participate in the language-learning process. In this statement a mean score of 4,0 was recorded, signifying that the respondents ‘agreed’ that they were confident in participating in the isiZulu class, implying that a conducive learning environment was secured.

Statement 19: I shall, one day, be able to communicate fluently in isiZulu.

A mean score of 4,8 was recorded here (i.e., between ‘agree’ and ‘totally agree’), to demonstrate more towards ‘totally agreeing’ with the statement that one day they will be able to communicate fluently in isiZulu. This was a positive perception, but actually quite an ambitious inclination by the students. This statement also links in a way to Statements 2 and 3 earlier.

Statement 20: By the end of my isiZulu course, I shall have learned everything I am supposed to know for effective communication.

The aim of the statement was to check whether they were interested in learning in order to have acquired effective communication skills. With a mean score of 4,5 it was potentially revealed that the respondents were rated among ‘agree’ and ‘totally agree’ descriptors. Respondents happily believed that by the end of their isiZulu course, they would have learned everything that they supposed to know for effective and functional communication. This statement also links in a way to Statements 2,3 and 19 earlier.

4.2.2 Summary of the findings of questionnaire data

As mentioned in chapter two, there are two types of motivation, i.e., instrumental and integrative motivation. *Instrumental motivation* is the utilitarian counterpart of orientation in Gardner’s theory, applying to the potential practical gains of L2 proficiency, such as getting a better job or a higher salary (Dörnyei, 2001b). Integrative motivation is a positive disposition towards the L2 group and the desire to interact with and even become similar to valued members of that community (Dörnyei, 2001b). Also see 2.2.1.2.

Gardner and Lambert (1959:472) refer to *integrative motivation* as the potential for integrating into that group, or at the very least an interest in meeting and interacting with members of the target language group. Statements 1 (3.8) and 2 (4.4) both show high scores, proving that students are integratively motivated. Statement 2 particularly shows that they want to be properly integrated into the isiZulu culture and communicate with native speakers. This would not be valid if they had not been interested in other cultures, confirmed by statement 11 (4.0). As stated by Masgoret and Gardner (2003), integrative motivation is a behaviour of someone who appreciates the target language community, and studies the language for the reason of joining that community. Also see 2.2.1.

The respondents rated statements 3 (4,6), 17 (4,5), 19(4,8) and 20 (4,5) higher than other statements, i.e., the respondents felt that they are empowered to learning isiZulu so that they would be able to communicate fluently, using the language because the lecturer was motivating them to participate in class. Since motivation and attitude towards language learning are interrelated, it can be said that learners demonstrated a positive attitude towards isiZulu, primarily based on their strong integratively motivated inclination. Although their instrumental motivation was also quite high, their integrative motivation proved to be stronger. These statements revealed that the students were integratively motivated. In statements 1 (3,8), 7 (3,6) and 14 (3,5) respondents were not sure whether learning isiZulu would broaden their view or that they were curious just about isiZulu as a language or that they were inquisitive in attending the isiZulu class supported by the statement “*I am learning isiZulu because it is a prominent African language*”. In this case the respondents’ results demonstrated that they were also instrumentally motivated and they wanted to pass a language requirement. Instrumental motivation refers to the perceived pragmatic benefits of L2 proficiency and reflects the recognition that for many language learners it is the usefulness of L2 proficiency that provides the greatest driving force to learn language. It subsumes such utilitarian goals as receiving a better job or a higher salary as a consequence of mastering L2 (Dörnyei, *et al.*, 2006:12). This is confirmed by the high scores of the descriptors in statement 5 and statement 6.

The statements that were rated the lowest were statements 8 (1,0), 9 (1,4) and 14 (2,1) and indicated that the respondents were not influenced by their friends and parents in their choice of learning isiZulu. This reveals that the respondents were integratively motivated to study isiZulu; they confirmed that no one forced or influenced them to choose the language. In conclusion it can therefore be said that they were making independent decisions about language learning, which showed a mature attitude towards learning and choice.

The two statements 15 (4,2) and 16 (4,1) also obtained high mean scores. In these two statements the respondents showed that they enjoyed going to the isiZulu class, because the activities were interesting as they expressed an eagerness to learn and engage in tasks of learning it. It, therefore, benefited them to know the language better and be able to use and to communicate with the target language speakers. Statement 17 was also in agreement that if the lecturer motivated them to do better, students would have a positive attitude towards learning a third language when a favourable environment was created by the lecturer.

4.3 Interview data

The researcher chose to conduct a structured type of interviews with the first- and second-year language students who opted to take isiZulu as a third language (practical language option). The interview questions were seven in number (copies of the transcripts of the interviews are attached as Addendum B). I will only present their responses under each interview, supported by statistics and relevant selected quotations of the responses rendered.

4.3.1 Discussion of the findings of interviews

I used the following codes to categorise the respondents' information:

SFL1> Student Female Level 1

SML1> Student Male Level 1

SFL2 > Student Female Level 2

SML2> Student Male Level 2

This coding was implemented in order to protect the identity of the respondents – see 3.3.4. Below follows a summary of the interpretation of the interview responses based on interview questions which were seven in total.

1. What are your reasons for learning isiZulu?

Most of the respondents gave the reasons why they learned isiZulu. They said it was because they wanted to be able to communicate with Zulu people and have full understanding of the language so that it could help them in the work environment and to be more multilingual. Some of the typical responses were:

'It is good to do a third language, because it prepares me for the working area, and it also prepares me to overcome the problems of the working field.'(SML2)

'I am very interested in isiZulu, and I would like to work where Zulu people are located so I can fluently communicate with them'. (SML1)

'It helps to know other African languages and be able to be multilingual. To know more about that language in order not be stereotyped about it'. (SFL2)

The same view was raised by SFL2 that she wanted to know other African languages and in future it would help her to get a job.

However, SFL2 raised a different view saying:

‘My mother is a Zulu and my dad is Setswana speaking, I would love to know my mother’s home language, because I grew up speaking my father’s home language and I am not speaking isiZulu fluently. The reason is because I want to learn or know both languages equally’.

2. What are your general thoughts about learning a third language?

A vast majority agreed that learning an L3 was hard sometimes, but definitely rewarding. To study languages was enjoyable and people who knew more than one language have many advantages. The majority agreed that it was very good to know more languages. It would help them later in life when they apply for jobs, or when they travel to other provinces where isiZulu will be one of the languages used. They, therefore, generally displayed the desire to become more multilingual.

3. How motivated are you learn a third language?

One student said that in her case the most important thing was that she felt that she needed to know language for a purpose. Another student confirmed this stating:

‘It is fascinating and enjoyable to learn new languages and that it is also a great way to discover another culture and its people’. (SML1)

The majority of the respondents basically agreed that while one is learning a third language one had to have a good teacher who could motivate one. This is confirmed by the following statement by a student:

‘I have a good lecturer who makes learning easy’. (SFL2)

4. What are your attitudes towards learning a third language?

As discussed in Chapter 2, 2.2.2.1, language attitudes depend on an individual’s reaction to anything associated with the immediate background in which the language is taught. In the opinion of Edwards (1994) language attitude is a character to respond positively or negatively to a language.

One student said that she had positive attitudes to learning a third language. She found it fascinating to learn a new language. She also found that people are very friendly when one approached them using the language that they speak (SFL2). The vast majority of the respondents indicated that they had a positive attitude towards learning a third language. They said it was difficult at the beginning of the course, but now they are motivated and inquisitive to continue learning it.

A change from negative to positive attitude was also identified at respondent (SFL2):

'I did not like isiZulu in my first year, but when the time goes by I noticed nothing wrong about it. Now it's very interesting – I am not good at isiZulu, but I can hear and understand some of the words and it's very interesting'.

Another change of a negative towards a positive attitude was revealed in respondent (SFL2):

'I had a bad experience while starting to attend isiZulu class, because I couldn't 'hear' anything, but now I am able to hear and understand what has been said and I am happy to have chosen it'.

It can, therefore, be said that the respondent's attitude towards isiZulu as a third language was generally positive.

5. Do you learn isiZulu best in a classroom milieu or in other places? Why?

A vast majority of the respondents agreed that they learn isiZulu best in a classroom, because the lecturer explained fully and where they didn't understand she gave clarity. Additionally, they said that during the isiZulu lesson the lecturer encouraged them to communicate in isiZulu which motivated them to practice it daily.

Two of the respondents differed somewhat with the former eight, stating:

'Both in the classroom milieu academically and in other places you learn it for fun, because you include Kasi words or code switch with other languages. When I say academically, I meant how to construct words and sentences and learning the history of the language'. (SML2)

'Outside the classroom I mostly listen to Ukhozi FM, because I want to increase my vocabulary'. (SML2)

However, these two still displayed a positive attitude towards learning isiZulu as a language, not necessarily in class during leisure time and informal contact situations in townships.

6. What are your attitudes towards the isiZulu language and people?

A vast majority of respondents had shown a positive attitude towards the isiZulu language and its people, as confirmed by the response below:

'I have a positive attitude towards them, because the isiZulu speaking people are more proud to speak their language and even of their culture. I enjoy socialising with them, because I learn a lot from them and according to my own opinion they are true Africans'. (SFL1)

A negative attitude towards the language was picked up in one of the respondents (SFL2). She stated that Zulu-speaking people didn't want to learn other African languages and isiZulu is somewhat difficult to speak at times. One more extreme negative attitude was identified:

'The Zulu people are sometimes aggressive and like fighting and the Zulu language is deep but easy to understand'. (SFL2)

It can be assumed that students' attitude towards isiZulu and its speakers ranged from positive to negative. It was generally positive, because of pride of the Zulu people and about their language and culture influencing the view of the students. The negative attitude identified may be linked to this very pride, i.e. that Zulus are arrogant about learning other languages and are perceived as aggressive.

7. Have you had any negative attitudes while learning isiZulu? Why? When?

'No' was the answer for all ten respondents, which indicated that they didn't have any negative attitudes while learning the language. Their response was so definite and strong that they did not want to elaborate on it (answering 'why' and 'when') and simply denied it.

4.3.2 Summary of the findings of interview data

Most of the respondents indicated that they learned isiZulu, because they wanted to be able to communicate with Zulu native speakers and have a full understanding of the language and its culture. They all agreed that learning L3 is hard to master initially, but rewarding because they would benefit later in life when applying for jobs, or when they travel to other provinces like KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) where isiZulu is the dominant spoken language. Subsequently, they would be at an advantage, because of the basic skills they acquired during their practical communication classes. The majority of the respondents indicated that when learning a L3 one should have a good lecturer who can motivate one. The vast majority respondents have a

positive attitude towards learning L3 and they discovered that people were friendly when approached using the language they speak. Two respondents showed a change from a negative attitude towards a positive attitude. They indicated that in their first-year classes they initially didn't like isiZulu, because they were struggling to interpret and understand it. However, now in their second year they are able to hear, speak and understand even when the lecturer is not using English (L2) to clarify. The vast majority of respondents said they learn isiZulu best in the classroom, because the lecturer was clear in explaining when they didn't understand the question. In addition, they said that during isiZulu lessons their lecturer encouraged them to communicate in isiZulu, which motivated them to practice it daily. Two respondents have showed to have a negative attitude towards native speakers of isiZulu, indicating that Zulus are sometimes aggressive and too arrogant to learn other African languages. Finally, the majority of respondents indicated that they didn't have any negative attitudes while learning the language. In a study by Kormos and Csizér (2007) of contact Hungarian students reflected on how it influenced their language attitudes and motivations were conducted. The findings of this study demonstrated that the participants' attitudes generally became more positive when they met native speakers of the target language. This is confirmed by the responses to the last interview question where only one respondent had a negative attitude towards the L3, despite contact with the native-language speakers.

4.4 Formative language task for practical isiZulu (L3) first- and second-year students

Two tests were written by first- and second-year students (see Addendum D), and their performance assessment was compared to the analysis of responses on the questionnaire statements and answers to the interview questions to questionnaires to determine the components of motivation and attitudes towards the third language, isiZulu, and the learning situation. The marks used for the study were based on a first- and second-semester assessment of 2014. In this study, it was observed that students' isiZulu marks in the second task increased significantly in relation to the first one. To find the causes of this fact, I chose the answering scripts of 15 students whose scores had increased from the first task to the second. I asked them to write a motivational letter to indicate why they performed better on the second task. Below is Table 5 reflecting their pass percentages for their first and second task respectively. The results of the comparison of marks for first- and second-year third language learners of isiZulu are presented in Table 5.

4.4.1 Respondents' improvement from first to second assessments

What follows the table is a discussion of improvement from first to second assessments (language tasks) by L3 learners of isiZulu.

Table 5: A comparison of achievement (marks) for the task and second task for first- and second-year students (N=15)

LEVEL 1	
First task 1	Second task 2
22%	44%
48%	71%
54%	75%
62%	72%
62%	73%
64%	78%
LEVEL 2	
17%	44%
25%	40%
39%	61%
40%	73%
48%	61%
56%	72%
60%	81%
56%	72%
60%	81%

These responses are based on the exact of the students' motivational letters as to why their assessment marks improved in the second semester as compared to the first semester:

i) *'I study hard, currently like the subject and I am willing to learn the language'.*

ii) *'The teacher helped me to write the correct orthography and gives us lot of activity to practice writing correct spelling',* was the answer from the sample.

iii) *'I had to change my negative attitude towards the subject and we did not attend classes.'*

iv) *'I was more nervous during the first exam'.*

v) *'I was not attending during the first semester of the isiZulu course, I did not understand notes and activity done in class, therefore I did not understand most of the questions that were asked in the task and that made my assessment low'.*

4.4.2 Summary of the findings in the language task assessment

The answers based on the motivation letter that students wrote after second assessments imply that students were able to obtain better scores in the isiZulu task, once they understood the assessment process; they studied more, and had timely access to the isiZulu study material. The fourth research question of the study regarding attitudes towards learning isiZulu examined whether there was a relationship between students' marks and their attitudes towards learning isiZulu. The marks used for the study were the participants' first and second semester assessment of 2014. The percentages of the marks for each student drawn from a sample of 15 answering scripts for the first- and second-semester language task are presented in Table 5.

The results of the comparative analyses showed that there was a statistically significant correlation between marks and attitudes. Based on this finding it was revealed and confirmed by Naiman *et al* in Ur, 1991 that the most successful learners are not always those who have a natural aptitude for learning, but those who possess certain characteristics most of which are clearly associated with motivation. The lack of class attendance of some students during the first assessment showed that they did not change their aptitude for learning. However, these students changed their attitude, became more motivated and increased their assessment result in the second semester.

Brown (1987) explains that learning a third language requires some of all three types of motivation. For example, a learner may have high global motivation to learn a foreign

language, but low task motivation for doing a certain activity. While the second motivation does not depend on the teacher, the first and especially the third motivation is where teachers can have an influence and help learners develop, maintain and enhance their motivation by discussing the benefits of learning the foreign language and by designing and using tasks and activities that are interesting, engaging and enjoyable for learners. (See 2.1.)

Kuhlemeier, Bergh, and Melse (1996) also conducted a study in order to investigate whether there was a relationship between students' attitudes towards German, the course material, and the students' therein in German. The findings revealed that students with positive attitudes were more successful than the students who had negative attitudes in the tests at the beginning of the year. However, the study also showed that students with positive attitudes did not demonstrate higher achievement levels at the end of the year. The research also indicated that achievement had no influence on attitudes. (See 2.3.3.)

4.5 Synthesis and discussion of motivation in and attitude towards learning isiZulu as a third language

The present study attempted to investigate UoT first- and second-year students' attitude towards learning isiZulu L3 and their motivation to learn isiZulu. It was also an endeavour to define these students' challenges in the formal learning classroom and their achievement incentives.

The study revealed through questionnaire statements and interviews that very few of the students' possessed negative attitudes towards learning isiZulu; the majority of them possessed strong positive attitudes and a few had moderately positive attitudes.

The participants of the study had high levels of motivation, being integrative orientation and instrumental orientation. It was also disclosed that there was a high correlation between motivation and attitude and achievement (marks). Tremblay and Gardner (1995) turned out to support Gardner's (1983:228) prediction that:

“Individuals who are integratively motivated would be more active in language learning context; they would work harder than learn faster. Individuals with the more positive attitude towards the target language are more active in the learning process, work harder to acquire the material and show more interest in learning”.

It was further claimed that the students high on integrative motivation continued to learn the target language and retained the language proficiency longer (Gardener. *et al* 1987).

Tremblay and Gardner's (1995) extended model of L2 motivation suggests that an individual's L2 motivational knowledge base that is socially grounded, but also has cognitive and affective components, leads to motivated behaviour, which in turn leads to achievement. This study also adds that students' motivated behaviour of a supportive lecturer encouraged the students to achieve.

Brown (2000) makes the point that both integrative and instrumental motivation (orientation are not necessarily mutually exclusive. Learners rarely select one form of motivation when learning a second language, but rather a combination of both integrative instrumental motivations. This seemed to be the case in this study as the scores of integrative and motivational descriptors were almost the same. The response to the questionnaire statements and interviews revealed that these students were slightly more integratively motivated than instrumentally motivated. They were willing to communicate with isiZulu speakers and integrate into their culture more so than gaining from the learning task by landing a better job and earning a good salary, for instance. While scholars such as Soh (1987) viewed integrative and instrumental goals as opposite ends of a continuum, other scholars such as Clement and Smythe (1977), however, found that both goals are positively related, as also proven in this study. (See 2.3.2.)

In terms of challenges faced by these students, the orthography posed a problem in the formal L3 learning class. This became evident in the students' language profile (see 3.8.3) and also in an extract from motivational letters the students had to write after completing the second language task (see 4.4.1). They demonstrated that writing isiZulu was difficult, compared to the orthography of their respective languages, i.e., Sepedi, Setswana, Tshivenda and Xitsonga. The spelling rules and writing systems affected the students' spelling of isiZulu words, especially the way in which words are conjunctively written instead of disjunctively as in their languages. For instance, in isiZulu the word "Ngiyabonga", (thank you) is written as one word, yet it is written as three separate words in Sepedi "Ke a leboga" also three words in Setswana, "Ke a leboga" and in Tshivenda as three words "*Ndi a livhuwa*" and Xitsonga as two words, "*Na khensa*". However, after orthographical and other linguistic problems were addressed by the lecturer, the students revealed that they then became more motivated and developed a more positive attitude towards isiZulu as L3. Their achievement (marks) also improved as the year progressed as is shown by the comparison of marks between the first and second assessment task. It was then disclosed that there was a high correlation between both motivation and attitude and achievement (marks). This is confirmed by Ur (1991) who says that it is a person

who is 'willing' or even eager to invest effort in learning activities that would progress. Other findings in this study relate to data on the subjects' demography and language backgrounds, as well as information on their L3 learning experiences. These findings were gathered from a questionnaire which the students filled in just before they wrote the learning tasks. It is clear from these data, as they appear in Table 4.2, that there's a correlation between students' achievement and motivation and attitudes towards learning.

The moderately motivated students displayed that they watch television and listen to the isiZulu radio station, attend classes regularly and mostly take notes. However, students with low motivation displayed a small range of study habits in both general study and language study, mostly studying just before tests while some admitted to poor class attendance. The findings also revealed that there was a correlation between the UoT students' motivation and their achievement in isiZulu as a third language.

4.6 Conclusion

This chapter has presented the most important findings of the study. Certain aspects, such as students' motivation in and attitude towards learning a third language, challenges faced in the formal classroom setting and correlation between attitude towards learning and achievement, were highlighted. The interview provided valuable information that supported some of the data collected by means of the survey questionnaire and the language task. Chapter 5 provides conclusion and gives recommendations for motivation and attitudes towards learning a third language.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter summarises the findings, formulates the conclusions and suggests recommendations based on the findings of the study. The study was designed to investigate students' motivation in and attitude towards learning a third language at a university of technology (UoT) in Pretoria. These conclusions and recommendations also provide suggestions to universities and other tertiary institutions that deal with third-language learning.

In Chapter 4, key findings on this study were formulated by means of information extracted from data collection tools, being the Likert-scale questionnaire, the interview and language task. A few findings also link to the students' language profile in Chapter 3. This chapter offers answers to the research questions and discusses theoretical implications and limitations of the current research. Finally, the last section offers suggestions for further research and then provides a brief conclusion to the study as a whole.

5.2 Discussion: Answering the research questions

This section provides answers to four research questions posed in Chapter 1 which correlate with discovering the motivational orientations and attitudes of first- and second-year isiZulu third-language learning students of a UoT in Pretoria.

5.2.1: Research question 1

What motivational orientations and attitudes do learners at a language department of a UoT in Pretoria have towards learning isiZulu as a third language?

5.2.1.1 *Answer to research question 1*

Gardner's (1985) Social Psychological Theory assumes that students' goals when they engage in L2 learning fall into two categories, an integrative orientation and an instrumental one. The former reflects a positive disposition towards a community of L2 speakers and learning their language. The latter refers to a desire to learn the L2 primarily for potential gains associated with L2, such as improved education, career, etc. The answer to the initial research question is based on adopting this idea of integrative and instrumental motivation explained further by (Gardner, 2001).

In addition to Gardner's (2001) idea of integrative motivation, Dörnyei (2003) states that it consists of a positive interpersonal disposition towards the target language and the desire to interact closely with members of that community. While he posited that language learners cherish their own identity and may not necessarily assimilate fully into the target community and culture in order to communicate in the language learnt, the trend in this research shows that for isiZulu third-language learners at this UoT, a stronger connection to and interest in isiZulu culture correlate to positive attitudes towards the isiZulu culture. This can be witnessed through statements of the Likert descriptors in the questionnaire which indicate a high integrative motivation by the respondents. It proves that students are aware that language cannot be studied without considering its culture, which also came out strongly in the interviews, especially where it was stated that the pride isiZulu speakers have for their language and culture also rubbed off on these learners, motivating them to gain more knowledge.

5.2.2 Research question 2

What are the challenges faced by UoT students in a formal isiZulu L3 classroom setting?

5.2.2.1 Answer to research question 2

In their language and learning profiles in Chapter 3 it was found that understanding isiZulu was easier than speaking and writing – the reason being that these language learners at this UoT had ample opportunities being exposed to a multilingual student community, in particular to isiZulu-speaking students from KwaZulu-Natal. The respondents' first languages were Sepedi, Setswana, Xitsonga and Tshivenda and this played a role in their isiZulu writing skills. In the orthography of isiZulu, as a Nguni language, words are written conjunctively instead of disjunctively as is the case in the orthography of their respective first languages. Another challenge faced by these students was the nature of the course. Many indicated that they enrolled for the isiZulu course, because they thought it would be easy, also being an African language, and fun. Instead, they were met with various difficulties, such as challenges with pronunciation (especially the clicks), understanding and writing. These initial challenges combined with poor class attendance in semester 1 resulted in low assessment marks, as became clear in the first language assessment task the students were given. However, after they became more familiar with the linguistic aspects of isiZulu, they became more motivated and their language skills improved considerably in semester 2, as is shown by the results of the second-language task assessment.

5.2.3 Research question 3

To what extent are the learners instrumentally and integratively motivated towards learning isiZulu?

5.2.3.1 Answer to research question 3

Attitude towards the learning situation directly plays into both integrative and instrumental motivations inherent in language learners (Gardner, 1985). To both these constructs, i.e., instrumental and integrative motivation, most students had positive inclinations according to the mean of the responses to the questionnaire descriptors; only a few showed a low inclination. Yet, the integrative motivation's mean was slightly higher than the instrumental motivation's mean amongst learners. The statements dealing with the integrative construct obtained a slightly higher mean and proved that students were more integratively motivated, especially in that they wanted to be properly integrated into the Zulu culture and were eager to communicate with the native speakers of the language.

Furthermore, the majority of students showed an increased interest in isiZulu culture by the end of the second year. However, as proven by a slightly lower, but still quite a high mean (a score of 4 and above) for the instrumental motivation descriptors, many students believed that isiZulu was a necessary language element for their career, due to it being the most widely spoken language in the country, and the most popular African language, actually also being perceived as the lingua franca. Their more positive integrative motivation was supported by the statements confirming their maturity of choice, not being influenced by parents or friends to choose the language as a subject amongst other languages offered by the language department; and their integration being more important than financial gain in a career, for instance.

5.2.4 Research question 4

What is the correlation between the students' attitude towards learning isiZulu and their achievement in the language?

5.2.4.1 Answer to research question 4

The lack of class attendance of some students during the first semester assessment showed that they did not have a natural aptitude for learning. However, these students changed their attitude from negative in the first semester to positive in the second, as a result became more motivated and increased their assessment result in the second semester. This, therefore, resulted in a high correlation between attitude and achievement. Noels *et al* (1991) stated that the most successful learners are not always those who have a natural ability for learning, but those who have certain personalities clearly associated with motivation. The components, integrative motivation, achievement and attitude towards the learning situation are usually fairly connected, which has repeatedly proved to be the major variables related to L3 achievement. In other words, a student who has a positive attitude towards the learning situation, but who displays low motivation, is unlikely to achieve much in terms of L3 proficiency. Thus, for high levels of motivation to be sustained over a long period of time to master a L3; it needs to be supported by a high level of integrativeness and a positive attitude towards the learning situation.

Finally, language attitude is directly connected to motivation. According to Gardner and MacIntyre (1993:9) “motivation needs an affective basis to be maintained and it seems reasonable to argue that attitude serves this function”.

5.5 Conclusions of the study

The data obtained by means of a questionnaire, interview, language task and language profile in the survey leads to the following conclusions:

- > The respondents were integratively motivated, because they indicated that they are learning a third language in order to be multilingual and wished to be absorbed by the isiZulu speech community and understand their culture.
- > The respondents said that they wanted to survive in the South African working environment where isiZulu is regarded a lingua franca, which means they are instrumentally motivated.
- > In terms of how motivated they were, respondents indicated to have both types of motivation. It was also notable that the respondents were slightly more integratively than instrumentally motivated to study isiZulu as a L3.

> It was further observed that learning a third language needs a competent and patient lecturer so that the students can be motivated to attend classes regularly, take part in activities, learn and communicate in the L3.

> However, the students showed that they were motivated enough to achieve success in third-language learning, even mastering the writing and pronunciation of the language which they initially found difficult.

> Respondents showed a positive attitude towards isiZulu indicating that Zulu people were very friendly when approached using the language they speak. This motivated them to practice their communicative skills more and to integrate into the Zulu culture.

> A change of negative to positive attitude was shown where respondents said that in their first semester they were not particularly keen about the language, but later realised that it was valuable learning isiZulu as L3, once they were motivated. Thereafter, they actually enjoyed communicating, were able also to follow isiZulu by listening attentively, understanding it and speaking it much better.

5.6 Recommendations

The following recommendations can respectively be made for L3 students and lectures of IsiZulu, based on the findings and conclusions:

Students

> Students should be aware that in the context of this study all indigenous South African official languages are equally important, in particular isiZulu being their selected L3.

> Students should show willingness to communicate regularly with speakers of the language, which is very important in learning a third language, even if they make mistakes in the process.

> In order to obtain practical L3 skills, they should repeat and learn language structures so that they can apply them when engaging in conversation.

> Students should become more multilingual by being encouraged to learn more languages, with the result to become more flexible and competent communicators in the workplace by being instrumentally motivated.

> Students should understand that their learning a third language, especially an African language, plays an important role in the maintenance of these languages, which are under threat by English as a dominant empowering language in South Africa.

> To successfully learn a third language, here isiZulu students should at the same time be willing to integrate into such a speech community and its culture, being integratively motivated.

Lecturers

> Lecturers should create a positive learning environment in L3 classes so that students can be motivated to participate in language tasks and activities. Lessons presented by lectures in the language department should enable students to acquire the necessary functional communicative language skills.

> Lecturers of third languages should be cognisant of language attitudes displayed by students so that issues in this regard can be dealt with swiftly. It was further observed that learning a third language needs a competent and patient lecturer so that the students can be motivated to attend classes regularly, learn and communicate in the L3.

> Students' performance should be monitored so that the underachievers could get assistance from the lecturer by means of remedial intervention and motivation to change an observed negative attitude to a positive one, i.e. to gain interest in learning L3.

> Lecturers must be well conversant, preferably by first-language speakers, in the language they teach for the students to imitate them in pronunciation and idiomatic language use.

> Lecturers need to establish the multilingual contextual background of the language students' role and needs within South Africa as informed by the Constitution of South Africa (1996) and UNESCO Education Position Paper (2003).

> Lecturers need to make third-language learners aware of the key elements of the National Language Policy Framework (2002), establishing their role in the following aspects:

* Encouraging the learning of other official indigenous languages.

* Promoting national unity and linguistic and cultural diversity.

The following recommendations can be made for L3 learning at *language departments* at tertiary institutions and to the *Department of Education*:

> The language department at a university of technology in Pretoria, also at other universities or tertiary institutions, should continually organise ‘career days’ in order to inform students about positions and requirements for the language practice and communication industry.

> These language departments should stimulate excellence in L3 learning and communication by rewarding students who perform well by means of a token such as a certificate or a book award.

> The Department of Higher Education under the auspices of the government should encourage all language departments of all South African tertiary institutions to offer indigenous (African) language programmes. These offerings, even as third languages, will ensure the future maintenance of these languages despite the dominant status of English as a powerful language of wider communication.

5.7 Suggestions for further research

While the study focused on a sample of the first- and second-year students who chose to take isiZulu as a third language at a UoT in Pretoria, a longitudinal study tracking students from first to third year in isiZulu L3 (or any other official African language for that matter) learning, may yield valuable data regarding the monitoring of progress of language mastery from the first to the third year, including the success of the lecturer in this regard.

It would be interesting to compile a motivational and attitudinal profile of all students who study third languages at this UoT as well as at all other universities or tertiary institutions in South Africa.

5.8 Limitations of the study

This is a research study conducted on a relatively small scale and therefore the findings cannot generally apply to other UOTs or even other universities or tertiary institutions as far as third language learning is concerned. One of the limitations of the study could be the researcher’s own bias, because of involvement in the teaching of isiZulu. However, the researcher’s first-hand experience could be seen as a positive insightful factor in second- and third-language learning.

5.9 Conclusion

In this chapter the research questions were answered by means of the findings from data collected; also the objectives for the study were addressed. Lastly some recommendations were made directed towards students, lecturers, language departments and the Department of Education as regards third language learning (and teaching). It was found that if students do not want to learn a third language, they essentially will not learn, unless their attitude changes through motivation to become integrative or instrumental. Some students are initially motivated to learn a third language, however, because of frustration with the class environment and complications within their language learning experience, their positive attitude towards language learning can decrease.

Furthermore, it was proven that learning a third language successfully correlates with a willing emersion into the culture of that language. Concerning the implications of this study, I learned that this research is vital to third-language lecturers as well as to curriculum designers. Taking into consideration motivation and its constructs, it can help in creating a learning environment that is specific to the context the language is used in. Having knowledge of students' attitude, orientations, concerns and interests of learning a third language will, therefore, increase our understanding as lecturers and as a result increase student motivation. According to the research findings in this study this increase in motivation will have a positive impact on learner achievement.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- AACKEN, S. V. 1999. What motivates L2 learners in acquisition of Kanji using CALL: a case study. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, vol. (12):2, 113–136.
- BABBIE, E. 1990. *Survey Research Methods* (2nd ed.). Belmont, California: Wadsworth.
- Bailey, K.D. 1982. *Methods of social research*. New York: The Free Press.
- BAKER, C. 1992. *Attitudes and Language*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd.
- BEN, S. 1998. *Designing the User Interface: Strategies for effective human-computer interaction*. (3rd ed.). Addison Wesley Longman, Inc. 136–143.
- BLANCH, ET AL. 2006. *Research Practice*. University of Cape Town Press.
- Bless, C., & Higson-Smith, C. 2000. *Fundamentals of social research methods: An African Perspective*. 3rd ed. Cape Town: Juta.
- BOGARDUS, E.S. 1931. *Fundamentals of social psychology*. New York: Century.
- BOLAND, T. 1988. De ontwikkeling van de leesattitude in het basisonderwijs: Een longitudinale benadering. [The development of the reading attitude in primary education: A longitudinal approach]. *Tijdschrift voor Onderwijsresearch*, vol. (13), 3–15.
- BRYNARD, P.A. & HANEKOM, S.X. 2006. *Introduction to research in management-related fields*. 2nd ed. RSA, Pretoria: Van Schaik Hatfield.
- BROPHY, J. 1998. *Motivating students to learn*. Boston: McGraw-Hill.
- BROWN, H. D. 1987. *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching* (2nd ed). Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- BROWN, H. D. 2000. *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. New York: Longman.
- BROWN, H.D. 2001. *Teaching by principles*. New York: Longman.
- BURNS, R. 2000. *Introduction to Research Methods*. London: Sage.
- CENOZ, J. 2003. The Addictive Effect of Bilingualism on Third Language Acquisition: A review. *The international Journal of Bilingualism*, vol. (7), 71-88.

- CLÉMENT, R., GARDNER, R.C., & SMYTH, P.C. 1977. Motivational variables in second language acquisition: A study of francophones learning English. *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science*, vol (9), 123-133.
- ÇOLAK, A. 2008. Attitudes, motivation and study habits of English learners: The case of Baskent University second year students. Master Degree.
- CRESWELL, J.W. 2003. *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- CROOKES, G., AND SCHMIDT, R. W. 1991. Motivation: Reopening the research agenda. *Language Learning*, vol. (41), 469–512.
- CROTTY, M. 1998. *The Foundations of Social Research: Meaning and Perspective in the Research Process*. London: Sage.
- DE VOS, ET AL. 2005. *Research at grass roots for the social sciences and human service professions. 3rd Edition*. Johannesburg: Van Schaik.
- DECI, E. L., AND RYAN, R. M. 1985. *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behaviour*. New York: Plenum.
- DEHBOZORGI, E. 2012. Effects of attitude towards language learning and risk-taking on EFL students' proficiency. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, vol. (2):2:41–48.
- DENZIN, N.K., & LINCOLN, Y.S. 2000. *Handbook of qualitative research* (eds). Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- DENZIN, N., & LINCOLN, Y. 2005. *Handbook of qualitative research* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Department of Arts and Culture. IMPLEMENTATION PLAN: NATIONAL LANGUAGE POLICY FRAMEWORK. (2002), 22–337. Pretoria.
- DOMEGAN, C. & FLEMING, D. 2007. *Marketing Research in Ireland – Theory and Practice*. Dublin: Gill and MacMillan Ltd.
- DÖRNYEI, Z. 1990. Conceptualizing motivation in foreign language learning. *Language learning*, vol. (40), 45–78.
- DÖRNYEI, Z. 1994a. Motivation and motivating in the foreign language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, vol. (78), 273–284.

- DÖRNYEI, Z. 1994b. Motivation and motivating in the foreign language classroom. *Modern Language Journal* vol (78), 273–284.
- DÖRNYEI, Z. & CSIZÉR, K. 1998. Ten Commandments for motivating language learners: results of an empirical study. *Language Teaching Research* vol (20):3, 203–229.
- DÖRNYEI, Z., & OTTÓ, I. 1998. Motivation in action: A process model of L2 motivation. *Working Papers in Applied Linguistics*, vol. (4), 43–69.
- DÖRNYEI, Z., & KARMOS, J. 2000. The role of individual and social variables in oral task performance: *Language Teaching Research*, vol (4):3, 275–300.
- DÖRNYEI, Z. 2001a. *Motivational strategies in the language classroom*. UK: Cambridge University Press.
- DÖRNYEI, Z. 2001b. *Teaching and researching motivation*. Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.
- DÖRNYEI, Z. 2003. *Attitudes, Orientations, and Motivations in Language Learning*. Malden, Mass: Blackwell Publishing.
- DÖRNYEI, Z. 2005. *The Psychology of the Language Learner*. London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- DÖRNYEI, Z. 2006. Creating a motivating classroom environment. In J. Cummins and C. Davison (eds). *The Handbook of English Language Teaching*. New York: Springer.
- DÖRNYEI, Z., & USHIODA, E. 2010. *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (eds.). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- DU PLOOY, G.M. 2002. *Communication research, techniques, methods and application*. Cape Town: Juta.
- EDWARDS, J. 1994. *Multilingualism*. London: Routledge.
- EHRMAN, M. E., LEAVER, B. L., & OXFORD, R. L. 2003. A brief overview of individual differences in second language learning. *System*, vol. (31), 313–330.
- FINK, A. & KOSECOFF, J. 1998. *How to conduct survey – a step-by-step guide* (2nd ed.). London: Sage publications.
- FORCECE, D. P. & RICHER, S. 1973. *Social Research Methods*: Prentice Hall Inc.

- FREY, ET AL. 2000. *Investigating Communication: An Introduction to Research Methods*. (2nd ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- GAFFANE, M. 2005. *Language Practice as an asset in a Multilingual and Multicultural context*. M. Tech. Dissertation. Pretoria: Tshwane University of Technology.
- GAN, Z., HUMPHREYS, G. & HAMP-LYONS, L. 2004. Understanding successful & unsuccessful EFL students in Chinese universities. *The Modern Language Journal*, vol. (88):2, 229–244.
- GARDNER, R. C., & LAMBERT, W. E. 1959. Motivational variables in second language acquisition. *Canadian Journal of Psychology*, vol. (13), 266-272.
- GARDNER, R. C., & LAMBERT, W. C. 1972. *Attitudes and motivation in second language learning*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- GARDNER, R.C. 1979. Social psychological aspects of second language acquisition. In H. GILES & R. ST. CLAIR (eds.) *Language and Social Psychology*, 193–220).Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
- GARDNER, R. C. 1985. *Social Psychology and Second Language Learning: The role of attitudes and motivation*. London: Edward Arnold.
- GARDNER, R. C., & SMYTHE, P. C. 1981. On the development of the attitude/ motivation test battery. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, vol. (37), 510-525.
- GARDNER, R. C., TREMBLAY, P. F., & MASGORET A. M. 1997. Towards a full model of second language learning: an empirical investigation. *Modern Language Journal*, vol. (81), 344-362.
- GARDNER, R. C., & MACINTYRE, P. 1993. Anxiety and second language learning: Toward a theoretical clarification. *Language Learning*, 39, 251-275.
- GARDNER, R. C. 2003. Attitudes, motivation, and second language learning: a meta-analysis of studies conducted by Gardner and associates. *Language Learning*, vol. (53):1, 123–163.
- GARDNER, R.C. 2001. Integrative Motivation and Second Language Acquisition. In Z. Dörnyei & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Motivation and Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 1-19) Honolulu, HI: The University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.

- GEE, J. P. 1989. Literacy, Discourse, and Linguistics: an introduction. *Journal of Education*, vol. (171):1, 5–17.
- GRAHAM, S. J. 2004. Giving up on modern foreign languages? Students' perceptions of learning French. *The Modern Language Journal*, vol. (88):2, 171–191.
- HART, C. 2005. *Doing your masters dissertation*. London: Sage Publications.
- HAMMARBERG, B. 2010. The Language of the Multilingual: Some Conceptual and Terminological Issues. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, vol (48), 91-104.
- HARLEN, W., & CRICK D. 2003. Testing and Motivation for Learning. *Assessment in Education*, vol (10):2, 169 - 208.
- HENNING, E., VAN RENSBERG, W. & SMIT, B. 2008. *Finding your way in qualitative research*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- HITTLEMAN, D.R. & SIMON, A.J. 1997. *Interpreting educational research: An introduction for consumer of research*. Upper Saddle River: N.J. Prentice Hall.
- HOLMES, J. 1992. *An Introduction to Sociolinguistics*. London: Longman.
- HUDSON, G. 2000. *Essential introductory linguistics*. Blackwell Publishers.
- HUMPHREYS, G. & HAMP-LYONS, L. 2004. Understanding successful EFL students in Chinese Universities. *The Modern Language Journal*, vol. (88):2, 229-244.
- HUMPHREYS, G. & SPRATT, M. 2008. Mmany languages, many motivations: a study of Hong Kong students' motivation to learn different target languages. *System*, vol. (36), 313–335.
- JARVIS, S. & PAVLENKO, A. 2008. *Cross-linguistic Influence in Language and Cognition*. Madison Ave: Routledge.
- JIGGS, S. 2003. Descriptive statistics and exploratory analysis. Indian Agricultural Statistics research institute. Library Avenue: New Dolhi. vol. (1):1, 1–18.
- JULKUNEN, K. 1989. Situation and task-specific motivation in foreign-language learning and teaching. In Dörnyei, Z. (1989). *Motivation and Second Language Acquisition*: University of Huwai.

- KAR, N. 2011. Ethics in Research. Research Articles – The Odisha Journal of Psychiatry. *Black County Partnership NHS Foundation Trust*, 17, Jan: 3–28.
- KELLER, J. 1983. Motivational design of instruction. In Reigeluth, C.M. (ed.), *Instructional Design Theories and Models: An overview of their current status*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum. 383–434.
- KORMOS, J. & CSIZÉR, K. 2007. An interview study of inter-cultural contact and its role in language learning in a foreign language environment. *System*, vol. (35), 241–258.
- KRASHEN, S. D. & TERRELL, T. D. 1983. *The natural approach language acquisition in the classroom*. Trowbridge: Redwood Burn Limited.
- KUHLEMEIER, H., VAN DEN, B., & MELSE, L. 1996. Attitudes and achievements in the first year of German language instruction in Dutch secondary education. *The Modern Language Journal*, vol. (80):4, 494–508.
- KUMAR, R. 2005. *Research Methodology: A Step-By-Step Guide for Beginners*: Sage
- LAMB, M. 2007. The impact of school on EFL learning motivation: an Indonesian case study. *TESOL Quarterly*, vol. (41): 4, 757–780.
- LANDMAN, W. A. 1988. *Basic concepts in research methodology*. Pretoria: Serva Publishers.
- LEE, J. 2000. *Task and Communication in Language Classrooms*. New York: McGraw.
- LEEDY, B. D. 1997. *Practical research – Planning and design* (6th edition). New Jersey: Von Hoffman Press.
- LESTER, J. D. 1993. *Writing research papers, a complete guide*. New York: Harper Collins College Publishers.
- LINCOLN, Y. S., & GUBA, E. G. 1985. *Naturalistic inquiry*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- LIU, M. 2007. Chinese Students' Motivation to Learn English at the Tertiary Level. *Asian EFL Journal*, vol. (9):1, 126–146.
- MABOVULA, N.N. 2008. *A philosophical exploration of democratic participation in school governance in selected South African black school in Eastern Cape Province*. Unpublished PhD Thesis: Stellenbosch.

- MACK, N., WOODSONG, C., MACQUEEN, K.M., GUEST, G. & NAMELY, E. 2005. *Qualitative research methods: A data collector's field guide*. North Carolina. Family health international.
- MACINTYRE, P.D., CLEMENT, R., DÖRNYEI, Z., & NOELS, K.A. 1998. Conceptualizing willingness to communicate in a L2: *A situational model of L2 confidence and affiliation*, vol. (82):4: 545–562.
- MANTLE-BROMLEY, C. 1995. Positive attitudes and realistic beliefs: links to proficiency. *The Modern Language Journal*, vol. (79): 3, 372–386.
- MANTLE-BROMLEY, C. & MILLAR, R. B. 1991. Effect of multicultural lessons on attitudes of students of Spanish. *The Modern Language Journal*, vol. (75), 418–425.
- MARSHALL, C. & ROSSMAN, G. B. 1995. *Designing qualitative research*. London: Sage Publications.
- MASGORET, A. M. & GARDNER, R. C. 2003. Attitudes, Motivation, and Second Language Learning: A Meta-Analysis of Studies Conducted by Gardner and Associates. *Language Learning*, vol. (53), 123–163.
- MASLOW, A. 1962. *Towards a Psychology of Being*. Princeton, NJ: Van Nostrand.
- MAXWELL J.A. 1998. Understanding and validity in qualitative research. *Harvard Educational Review*, vol. (62):3, 279–300.
- MCDONOUGH, S. H. 1989. *Psychology in Foreign Language Teaching*. George Allen & London: Unwin Ltd.
- MERRIAM, S.B. 1998. *Qualitative research and case study applications in education*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- MILLS, N., PAJARES, F., & HERRON, C. 2007. Self-efficacy of college intermediate French students: relation to achievement and motivation. *Language Learning*, vol. (57):3, 417–442.
- MODIRKHAMENE, S. & MANN, C.C. 2010. *EFL Learner's Additional Language Proficiency and Academic Achievement Possible Effects of Bilinguality: Findings from Iran*. Saarbrücken: Lambert Academic Publishing.

- MOKGOKONG, S. R. 2004. *Knowing and Understanding the World through Naming: A Case of the Capricorn District*. Unpublished Masters Dissertation. Polokwane: University of Limpopo.
- MOUTON, J. & MARAIS, H. C. 1992. *Basic concepts in methodology of the social sciences*. Pretoria: HSRC.
- MWANJE, J.I. 2001a. *Issues in Social Science Research Methodology* (Module 1). Ethiopia: Organization for Social Studies in Easter and Southern Africa (OSSREA).
- MYERS, M. D. 2009. *Qualitative research in business & management*. London: Sage.
- NEUMAN, W. L. 1997. *Social Research methods: Qualitative and Quantitative approaches*. Toyko: Allyn and Bacon.
- NGUBANE, B.S. 1996. Towards a National Language Plan for South Africa. Summary of the Final Report of the Language Plan Task Group (LANGTAG).
- NKUNA, P. H. 2010. *The 11 official languages: An advantage for South Africa*. Midrand: Hlovasi Productions cc.
- NOELS, ET AL. 1991. Perceptions of teachers' communicative style and students' intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. *The Modern Language Journal*, vol (83):1, 23-34.
- NOELS, K. A., PELLETIER, L. G., CLÉMENT, R., & VALLERAND, R. J. 2000. Why are you learning a second language? Motivational orientations and self-determination theory. *Language Learning*, vol. (50), 57–85.
- NUNAN, D. 1992. *Research methods in language learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- OLSEN, W. 2004. *Traingulation in Social Research: Qualitative and quantitative methods can really be mixed*. M. Holborn, Ormskirk: Causeway Press.
- OPPENHEIM, A. N. 1992. *Questionnaire design, interviewing and attitude measurement*. New edition Great Britain: Biddles Ltd.
- ORB, A., EISENHAUER, L. & WYNADEN, D. 2000. Ethics in Qualitative Research. *Journal of Nursing Scholarship*, vol. (33):1, 01–04.
- OXFORD, R. L., & SHEARIN, J. 1994. Language learning motivation: Expanding the theoretical framework. *The Modern Language Journal*, vol. (78), 12–28.

- OXFORD, R.L. 1996: A synthesis of strategy instruction for language learners. In R. Oxford (Ed.), *Language Learning Strategies Around the World: Cross-cultural Perspectives* (pp. 227-246). Manoa: University of Hawaii Press.
- PENG, J. E. 2007. Willingness to communicate in an L2 and integrative motivation among college students in an intensive English language program in China. *University of Sydney Papers in TESOL*, vol. (2), 33–59.
- PETRIDES, J. R. 2006. Attitudes and motivation and their impact on the performance of young English language learners. *Journal of Language and Learning*, vol. (5):1, 1–20.
- PICKENS, J. 2005. Attitudes and perceptions. In Borkowski, N (ed.), *Organizational behaviour in Health Care*. London: Jones and Bartlett Publishers. 43–76.
- RANANGA, N. C. 2008. *Professionalising storytelling in African language with special reference to Venda. (Doctoral Thesis) University of South Africa.*
- RUDELLE, R. B. 1992. A whole language and literature perspective: Creating a meaning making instructional environment. *Language Arts*, vol. (69), 612–620.
- SALKIND, N.J. (ed.) 2008. *Encyclopedia of Educational Psychology: Cooperative Learning*. USA: Sage.
- SEMMAR, Y. 2006. An exploratory study of motivational variables in a foreign language learning context. *Journal of Language and Learning*, vol. (5):1, 118–132.
- SOH, K. 1987. Language use: *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Education*, vol. (8), 443–449.
- SPAULDING, C. L. 1992. *Motivation in the classroom*. USA: McGraw-Hill, Inc.
- SPOLSKY, B. 1989. Conditions for Second language learning: Introduction to a general theory. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- SPRINTHALL, R.C., SCHUMMUTTE, G., & SIROIS, L. 1991. *Understanding educational research*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- STAINBACK, S. 1988. *Understanding and conducting qualitative research*. Dubuque, IA: Kendall/Hurt.
- STAKE, R.E. 1995. *The art of case study research*. London: Sage Publications.

STRUWIG, F. W. & STEAD, G. B. 2001. *Planning, designing and reporting research*. Cape Town: Pearson Education South Africa: Hanli Venter. (ISBN 1 868 91081 4).

The Constitution of South Africa, (Act 108 of 1996). 1996. Pretoria: Typeface Media.

TILESTON, W. D. 2010. *What every teacher should know about student motivation*. California: Corwin Press.

TODEVA, E. & CENOZ, J. (eds.). 2009. *The Multiple Realities of Multilingualism*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

TREMBLAY, P. F. & GARDNER, R. C. 1995. Expanding the motivation construct in language learning. *The Modern Language Journal*, vol. (79):4, 505–518.

UNESCO Education Position Paper. 2003. *Education in multilingual world*. Paris: UNESCO.

UR, P.A. 1991. *Course in language teaching. Practice and theory*: Cambridge University Press.

USHIODA, E. 1996. Developing a dynamic concept of motivation. In Hickey, T. and Williams, J. (eds) *Language, education and society in a changing world*. Multilingual matters, Clevedon, 239–45.

WALLIMAN, N. 2011. *Your research project designing and planning your work*. London: Sage.

WEBSTER, L. & AUSTIN, P. 2009. The family maths programme: parents' perceptions of what influences their engagement, enjoyment and confidence within a complex learning community. *Education as Change*, vol. (1), 27–44.

WEBSTER, L., & MERTOVA, P. 2007. *Using narrative inquiry as a research method. An introduction to using critical event narrative analysis in research on learning and teaching*. New York NY: Routledge.

WELMAN, C., KRUGER F., & MITCHELL B. 2005. *Research Methodology 3rd edition*. Oxford University Press Southern Africa. ISBN: 978 0 19578901 0.

WHITE, C. J. 2005. *Research: a practical guide*. Pretoria: Ithuthuko Investment Publishing.

WILLIAMS, M. 1994. Motivation in foreign and second language learning: An interactive perspective. *Educational and Child Psychology*, vol. (11), 77-84.

WILLIAMS, M. & BURDEN, R. 1999. *Psychology for Language Teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

WRIGHT, M. & MCGRORY, O. 2005. Motivation and adult Irish language learner. *Educational Research*, vol. (47):2, 191-204.

YASHIMA, T. 2002. Willingness to communicate in a second language. *The Modern Language Journal*, vol. (86), 54-66.

Addendum A: PROFILE OF RESPONDENTS' DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION, LANGUAGE BACKGROUNDS AND USE

Questionnaire

Dear respondent,

This questionnaire is for research purposes only. All the information provided will remain confidential and will be used only for research purposes.

Instructions: Please tick or make a cross to indicate the relevant responses to the questions below, elaborating only where requested.

A. PERSONAL INFORMATION OBTAINED FROM STUDENTS:

1.1 Gender: Male Female

1.2 Age: 18–20 years 21–25 years 26 years and above

1.3 Year of study 1st year 2nd year

1.4 What is your home language? (Indicate more than one language, if that is the case)

Sepedi Tshivenda Other (specify)

1.5 Did you do your home language as a subject at school? Yes No

1.6 If yes, from grade _____ to grade _____

1.7 What other languages(s) are you proficient in, apart from your home language and English?

1.8 Where you exposed to isiZulu before coming in a University? Yes No

1.9 Is English ever used as a means of communication in your home? Yes No

1.10 What language(s) do you use when socialising with your friends in the community?

1.11 What language(s) do you use when socialising with your friends at university?

B. PROFILE OF ISIZULU LEARNING EXPERIENCE

2.1 Have you had any exposure to isiZulu before coming to university? Yes No

2.2 If yes, where?

At home In the community On TV Other (specify)

2.3 What was your level of competence in isiZulu when you started with classes?

None at all Can understand, but not speak, read and write.

Could understand and speak, but not read and write Other (specify)

i) What is your current level of competence in isiZulu?

Can understand, but not speak. Can understand and speak, but not read and write Can understand, speak, read and write Other (specify)

ii) What do you discover easiest to learn?

Understanding Speaking Reading Writing

iii) What do you think is most challenging to learn?

Understanding Speaking Reading Writing

2.4 Do you use isiZulu outside of the classroom? Yes No

2.5 If yes, with whom?

2.6 If no, give reasons

2.7 Do you listen to isiZulu Ukhozi FM radio programmes?

Never Rarely Often Daily

2.8 Do you watch isiZulu TV programmes?

Never Rarely Often Daily

2.9 Since you started learning isiZulu, have you become more interested in languages in general? Yes No

2.10 Do you think learning any African language in addition to your home language is important? Yes No

2.11 If yes, why?

Addendum B: PROFILE INTERVIEW QUESTIONS AND TRANSCRIPTIONS

Instructions: Please listen carefully to the following questions and answer as fully and honestly as possible. Please give reasons where needed.

1. We learn isiZulu, because we want to be able to communicate with Zulu people and have full understanding of the language. Some of the typical responses were:

‘It is good to do a third language, because it prepares me for the working area, and it also prepares me to overcome the problems of the working field.’(SML2)

‘I am very interested in isiZulu, and I would like to work where Zulu people are located so I can fluently communicate with them’. (SML1)

‘It helps to know other African languages to be able to be multilingual. To know more about that language in order not be stereotyped about it’. (SFL2)

What she said. ‘My mother is a Zulu and my dad is Setswana speaking, I would love to know my mother’s home language, because I grew up speaking my father’s home language and I am not speaking isiZulu fluently. The reason is because I want to learn or know both languages equally’. (SFL2)

2 ‘Learning a language that I don’t know is hard sometimes, but it is worthwhile’. (SFL1)

‘It is good to know more languages, because it is going to help us in future when we apply for a job even when we travel to provinces like KZN where isiZulu is mostly spoken’.

‘I think in my case I chose isiZulu, because I want to be multilingual for job opportunities’

‘It is fascinating and enjoyable to learn new languages and that it is also a great way to discover another culture and its people’. (SML1)

3‘I had positive attitudes to learning a third language’. (SFL1)

‘I found it fascinating to learn a new language’. (SFL2)

‘I also found that people are very friendly when one approached them using the language that they speak’. (SFL2)

‘It was difficult at the beginning of the lesson, but now they are motivated and inquisitive to continue learning it’. (SFL2)

‘I did not like isiZulu in my first year, when the time goes I noticed nothing wrong about it. Now it’s very interesting – I am not good at isiZulu but I can hear and understand some of the words and its very interesting’. (SML1)

‘I had a bad experience while starting to attend isiZulu class, because I couldn’t hear anything but now I am able to hear and understand what has been said and I am happy to have chosen it’ (SFL2).

5 ‘I learn isiZulu best in a classroom, because the lecturer explains fully and where I don’t understand she gives clarity’. (SML2)

‘My lecturer encourages us to communicate in isiZulu in class and that motivates me to practice it daily. (SFL1)

‘I learn isiZulu better in class, because our lecturer explains better than my Zulu friend’ (SML2)

‘I think in isiZulu class, because the lecturer gives fully detailed information’. (SML1)

‘In the classroom’. (SFL1)

‘Both in the classroom and in other places you learn it for fun because you include Kasi words or code-switch with other languages’. (SFL2)

‘I learn better in an isiZulu classroom’. (SML1)

‘Both in the classroom milieu academically and in other places you learn it for fun, because you include Kasi words or code switch with other languages. When I say academically I meant how to construct words and sentences and learning the history of the language’. (SML2)

‘Outside the classroom I mostly listen to Ukhozi FM, because I want to increase my vocabulary’. (SML2)

6 ‘I have a positive attitude towards them, because the isiZulu-speaking people are more proud to speak their language and even in their culture’. (SML2)

‘I enjoy socialising with them, because I learn a lot from them and according to my own opinion they are true Africans’. (SF1)

‘Zulu’s don’t want to learn other African languages and isiZulu is somewhat difficult to speak at times’. (SFL2)

‘The Zulu people are sometimes aggressive and like fighting and the Zulu language is deep but easy to understand’. (SFL2)

‘I enjoy communicating in isiZulu with my roommate.’

‘I enjoy studying isiZulu, because is a lingua franca and I am positive that one day I will be fluent and communicate with Zulu speakers with confidence’. (SML2).

7‘I don’t remember having and any negative in isiZulu class’ (SFL1)

‘No, I don’t have a negative attitude’.

Addendum C: LIKERT SCALE

Instructions: Please, make a tick [√] or make a cross [x] in the box applicable to your response.

No.	Statements	Mean
1.	In learning isiZulu, so that I can broaden my view in learning a third language.	
2.	I am learning isiZulu, because I want to be able to communicate with native speakers and to know their culture.	
3.	I am learning isiZulu, because I want to be able to be able to speak it.	
4.	I am learning isiZulu, because I want to deepen my knowledge of languages.	
5.	IsiZulu will be necessary in my life in future.	
6.	I am learning isiZulu, because I can secure a job in future.	
7.	I am curious about isiZulu as a language.	
8.	My parents told me to study isiZulu.	
9.	I am learning isiZulu, because I am influenced by friends.	
10.	I am learning isiZulu, because I am interested in learning other African languages as are used at tertiary institutions	
11.	I am learning isiZulu, because I am interested in other cultures.	
12.	I am learning isiZulu, because it is a prominent African language.	
13.	I am learning isiZulu, because it is more similar to my home language than the other languages I had to choose from.	
14.	I am inquisitive in attending the isiZulu class.	
15.	I find the isiZulu class activities interesting.	
16.	The language work we are doing in the isiZulu class is applicable to daily communication.	
17.	I feel that the isiZulu lecturer wants me to do well in class.	
18.	I feel confident to participate in the isiZulu class.	
19.	I shall, one day, be able to communicate fluently in isiZulu.	
20.	By the end of my isiZulu course, I shall have learned everything I am supposed to know for effective communication.	

Addendum D: LANGUAGE TASKS

Section A - FIRST LANGUAGE TASK

FORMATIVE TASK FOR PRACTICAL ISIZULU FIRST- AND SECOND-YEAR STUDENTS

UMBUZO/QUESTION 1

Khombisa kule misho elandelayo: amabizo, izabizwana sokukhomba, izezo, isandiso (senkathi, sendawo nesesimo). Isiphawulo esikhomba (umbala, inombolo kanye nechasisayo), ondaweni, izihlanganiso kanye nomusho ongumbuzo/ (Identify nouns, demonstratives pronouns, verbs, adverb (time, place & manner), adjectives (colour, number & description), locatives, conjunctives and interrogation in the following sentences.

- 1.1 Umuntu **omkhulu** uyadla. [1]
- 1.2 **UThoko** udle kakhulu. [1]
- 1.3 Izingane **zifunda** kahle. [1]
- 1.4 Ukudla kwakho uzokuthola **ekhishini**. [1]
- 1.5 Ugeze ngani **namuhla**? [1]
- 1.6 Namuhla **kuyabanda**. [1]
- 1.7 **Lowo** mfana uyeyisa. [1]
- 1.8 Umama ungithengele imoto **ebomvu**. [1]
- 1.9 Ubaba ulimele **kabuhlungu**. [1]
- 1.10 **Lo** muntu ngiyamazi. [1]
- 1.11 Imithi **emingingi** iwile. [1]
- 1.12 **UMgungundlovu** indawo **enhle**. [1]
- 1.13 Uziphethe kabi **kanti** uyakholwa [1]
- 1.14 Ugogo **yena** ugula njalo [1]
- 1.15 Izinkwa **ezintathu** sezibolile [1]

(15)

UMBUZO/QUESTION 2

Qedela le imibuzo elandelayo ngokuhumusha okubhalwe ngokugqamile/Complete the following questions by filling in the correct question word in bold.

- 2.1 Uyakwazi (**to keep a secret**)?
- 2.2 Uyakwazi (**to use both hands**).
- 2.3 Linye na (**cat**) lakhe?
- 2.4 Uyakwazi (**drive**) imoto?
- 2.5 (**Trousers**) amanzi na?
- 2.6 Izolo kusihlwa ubukeleni (**ku-TV**)
- 2.7 Unemoto? Uthenge imoto (**yours**) kuphi?
- 2.8 Uyakwazi ugibela (**hores**)?
- 2.9 Uyakwazi (**run**)?
- 2.10 Uyakwazi (**to speak softly**)?

(10)

UMBUZO/QUESTION 3

Le ndima ingoSindiswa. Ibhale kabusha bese ulungisa ingxenye ebhalwe ngokugqamile/This is a paragraph about Sindiswa. Rewrite it and correct the parts written in bold.

Mina ~~-Sindiswa~~. Ngithi ngingowakwaNkosi noma ngithi isibongo **sami** ~~-Nkosi~~. Mina ~~-intombazane~~ futhi ~~-uthumbu~~ ekhaya. ~~-iwele~~ noThemba. Thina ~~-zalwe~~ ngo-1978. **Ngina-abafowethu** ababili, uThemba noVusi. UVusi ~~-uthumbu~~. UVusi ~~-thanda~~ ~~-tetema~~. Ekhaya mina ~~-sebenza-~~. Njalo ekuseni thina **sigeza**. Thina **sigeza** umzimba futhi **siklubha** amazinyo. UThemba ~~-lungis-~~ ibhrakufesi. Mina ~~-endlul-~~ imibhede. Ngokotaphasi 7 sonke ~~-phum-~~. ~~-gijimel-~~ esitobhini sebhasi. Ibhasi ~~-fik-~~ ngo-7:20 esitobhini kanti esikolweni (ibhasi) ~~-fik-~~ ngo-7:45. Isikole -ngen- ngo-7:55. Esikoleni mina ~~-hlangan-~~ ~~na-abangane~~ bami, UNomusa noSizakele noVelaphi. Thina ~~-bingelelan-~~. Thina sonke ~~-y-~~ ekilasini. Ekilasini (thina) ~~-thol-~~ uthisha. Thina sonke ~~-bingelel-~~ uthisha. Uthisa ~~-thand-~~ ~~-xox-~~ ~~na-~~ **thina** ekuseni. Uthisha ~~-fik-~~ masisha ngoba ~~-funa~~ ~~-phumula~~.

(15)

UMBUZO/QUESTION 4

4.1 Bhala imisho elandelayo ikhombe izikathi ezilandelayo ezahlukene/Write the following sentences indicating different tenses.

4.1.1 Izingane zibhala isivivinyo

Inkathi edlule/Past tense

Inkathi ezayo/Future tense

Iphike/Negative

4.1.2 UBusisiwe ubhala incwadi.

Inkathi edlule/Past tense

Inkathi ezayo/Future tense

Iphike/Negative

4.1.3 Uthisha uchaza izibalo

Inkathi edlule/Past tense

Inkathi ezayo/Future tense

Iphike/Negative

4.1.4 Abafana badla inhloko.

Inkathi ezayo/Future tense

Iphike/Negative

4.1.5 Udadewethu uphemba umlilo.

Inkathi ezayo/Past tense

Inkathi edlule/Future tense

Iphike/Negative

(15)

UMBUZO/QUESTION 5

5.1 Dweba isihlahla ngomndeni wakho/Draw your own family tree structure.

(5)

5.2 Chaza indima edlalwa ngamalunga omndeni wakho/ Explain the roles of members in your family.

(5)

/10/

UMBUZO/QUESTION 6

Phendula imibuzo engezansi usebenzise iphazili/Answer the questions below in Zulu by the usinga puzzle/ Use the crossword provided to answer the following questions:

1.1 k	h	u	l	u	M	a	n	1.12 i	1.13 i
1.2 l	1.14 y	a	h	a	M	b	a	n	n
t	e	1.3 p	h	e	K	a		d	d
h	n	1.4 t	h	e	N	g	a	l	o
i	1.5 z	a	m	a	N			u	d
	a	1.6 d	o	k	O	t	e	l	a
1.15 t	1.7	z	i	n	C	w	a	1.16 d	i
h	1.8			l	A			u	1.17

i	i			1.9 w	O	z	a	r	e
n	y	1.10 u	k	u	d	l	a	l	l
a	e	1.11 u	w	u	m	z	a	l	a

ACROSS

- 1.1 Instruction given to **a group** of people to **speak/talk**.
- 1.2 It (a dog) is going/ leaving.
- 1.3 Cook.
- 1.4 Buy.
- 1.5 This is how you tell someone to **try**.
- 1.6 Form used to **address a doctor**.
- 1.7 As a student you are expected to read these.
- 1.8 How do you tell someone to be **quiet**?
- 1.9 Call out to one person to **come**.
- 1.10 Food.
- 1.11 It's a cousin.

DOWN

- 1.1 At my /our place.
- 1.12 People live here.
- 1.13 Opposite of a woman.
- 1.14 Instruction you would give to your son to **make tea** (two words).
- 1.15 Plural form of **I**.
- 1.16 Be expensive.
- 1.17 Word meaning **request**.

(18)

UMBUZO/QUESTION 7

Isifundo sokuqondisisa/Comprehension

(EZEMNOTHO NOTHUTHUKISWA KWENDAWO UMBATHA UMAKHI WEZINDLU)

UMbatha wakubona kudala ukuthi abantu baneziphiwo namakhono ahlukene. Wakubona kudala ukuthi endaweni lapha kukhona abafana namantombazane anekhono elincomekayo lokusebenzisa izandla.

UMbatha ungumakhi wezindlu. Uthi waqala wafundela ubuthishela ekolishi lasesikhawini. Wafundisa iminyakana ezikoleni, walahla phansi. Waqonda esikoleni samakhono eMlazi. Waqhuba kulesi sikole iminyaka emibili vo. Wabuyela khona endweni yakubo. Waqala ngokwakhela abantu izindlu zangaphandle. Ngemali ayithola wazithengela amathuluzi okwakha anele. Wabuye wathenga neveni yokumthatha imbeke lapho afisa ukuya khona. Futhi le veni yamisa ekuthuthukiseni izinto zokusebenza.

UMbatha akakukhohlwanga ukuthi unguthisha. Wakhuluma nabazali kanye nothisha ukuthi bonke abafana namantombaze abaneminyaka engu-18 noma ngaphezulu abafisa ukuzibona ukuthi banjani esitinini bengeza kuye. Bazosebenza ngezimpelasonto. Ngaleso sikhathi uMbatha wayakhe isikole saseMfekayi. Wabachazela kahle abazali nothisha ukuthi akaqondile ukuhlukumeza nokugqilaza izingane. Ngalokhu uqonde ukuthuthukisa amakhono agqibelekile kubantwana.

Okwabathokizisa labo abavunayo ukuthi babethola imfalakahlana. Iningi lalabo abakhombisa ikhono eliphezu kwakuthi lapho beqeda esikoleni ibanga leshumi baqonde emakolishi athuthukisa la makhono.

Namuhla uMbatha ukhombisa izikole eziyishumi nantathu azakhile ngale ndlela. Ngenxa yokuyhi usebenzisa abantwana bendawo ubiza kancane. Okukhulu kakhulu ukuthi abaningi bawulandelile lo msebenzi wakhe. Abanye bangomakhanda (ababazi). Abanye bangoplama. Abanye banamapendane.

Okujabulisa du ukubona abafana bendawo abaphume ezandleni zakhe umfo kaShandu besungula umfelandawonye wabantu abanala makhono sewakhe inxanxathela yezitolo eMkhoboza, neseMandlankala.

Kuzwakala sengathi nguye futhi uVulindlela Construction ozokwakha ifemu yezinsimbi yakwa-Iscor laphaya ngaseMacekane eMpangeni. Shandu sikwethulela isigqoko.

7.1 Phendula le mbuzo engezansi/Answer these questions below:

7.1.1 Zingaki izikole esezakhiwe nguMbatha?

[1]

- 7.1.2 Kungani kukuhle ukushintsha umkhakha ngesinye isikhathi? [1]
- 7.1.3 Izingane zesikole eziningana ikusasa lazo lakhiwa uMbatha. Kunjani? [2]
- 7.1.4 Kungani abantu bezidinga kangaka izindlu? [1]
- 7.1.5 Usho ngani ukuthi uMbatha kwamsiza ukuqala ngokuba nguthishela. [2]
- 7.1.6 UShandu isithakazelo sakwabani? [1]
- 7.1.7 Usho ngani ukuthi kubi ukuthi ulwazi onalo ulufihle lusize wena wedwa? [2]
- 7.1.8 Izingane ezikhuthele ziba nayo imali yazo zisafunda isikole? Kunjani? [2]

(12)

7.2 Phendula ngokuthi IQINISO noma AKUSILO IQINISO

- 7.2.1 Uhlakaniphile uShandu? _____ [1]
- 7.2.2 Uvulindlela Construction yigama lendawo? _____ [1]
- 7.2.3 UShandu usazo ceba kakhulu kunakuqala? _____ [1]
- 7.2.4 Umnikelo KaMbatha wabamkhulu kakhulu? _____ [1]
- 7.2.5 UMbatha waqala wafundela ubuthishela? _____ [1]

(5)

(17)

ISAMBA/TOTAL = 100

Section B - SECOND -LANGUAGE TASK

UMBUZO/QUESTION 1

Shintsha **amabizo** emishweni elandelayo ufake **izabizwana zoqobo**. Bhala izabizwana zoqobo kuphela /Replace all **nouns** in the following sentences with **absolute pronouns**. Write the absolute pronouns only.

1. Iitshe elikhulu livimbe umgwaqo.

2. Izitsha zigcwele ukudla.

3. Amakhehla aphuza utshwala.

4. Ugogo uthanda ukuphuza ubisi.

5. Izintombi zithenge izingubo ezinhle esitolo.

6. Izinyoka zidla amagundwane.

7. Abafana belusa izinkomo.

8. Ubuso bukaZodwa bugcwele amabala.

9. USifiso noThemba badlala ibhola.

10. Irobothi livalela izimoto.

(10)

UMBUZO/QUESTION 2

Bhala **isabizwana sokukhomba** sikhombe izindlela ezintathu, **eduze, buqamama, nakude kulamagama angezansi**/Write the demonstrative pronouns of the following nouns pointing three (3) positions:

Ibizo	eduze	buqamama	kude
1. Ubuhle	_____	_____	_____
2. Inkomo	_____	_____	_____
3. Abafana	_____	_____	_____
4. Ukudla	_____	_____	_____
5. Imilenze	_____	_____	_____
6. Isono	_____	_____	_____
7. Izinja	_____	_____	_____
8. Ogogo	_____	_____	_____
9. Umfana	_____	_____	_____
10. Isitsha	_____	_____	_____

(30)

UMBUZO/QUESTION 3

Humusha imisho elandelayo ngesiZulu /Translate the following sentences into isiZulu

1. How are you?

2. This young man likes to talk to young girls.

3. I wish to go with you.

4. You must learn to speak isiZulu.

5. Doctor, my neck is aching.

(10)

UMBUZO/QUESTION 4

Humusha le misho elandelayo enezinombolo ngesiZulu/Translate the following sentences by writing out the numbers in isiZulu in full sentences.

1. Milk costs R6.

2. There are 25 girls in the room.

3. My uncle has 30 cows.

4. My cousin will visit us on the 2nd of April.

5. There are 100 cents in a rand.

6. Mother is cooking supper for 15 people.

7. December has 31 days.

8. Today is the 19th of March.

9. My grandfather is 78 years old.

10 Tomorrow is my sister's birthday; she will be 24 years old.

(20)

UMBUZO/QUESTION 5

Guqula imisho elandelayo uyise enkathini ezayo nedlule/Change the following sentences into the future tense and past tense.

1. Ingane idlala ibhola.

2. Izinja zikhonkotha amakati.

3. Ihashi ligijima kakhulu.

4. Uthisha ufundisa izingane.

5. Umama upheka ukudla.

(10)

UMBUSO/QUESTION 6

Bhekisisa isithombe onikezwe sona bese uphendula imibuzo elandelayo. Phendula ngokugcwele/Look carefully at the given picture and answer the questions that follow. Answer in full sentences.



1. Benzani laba bantu abasesithombeni?

2. Bangaki abantu abasesithombeni?

3. Bahlezi kuphi? Usho ngani?

4. Yisiphi isikhathi sonyaka? Usho ngani?

5. Yisiphi isikhathi sosuku? Usho ngani?

6. Bahlobene kanjani (relationship) laba bantu abasesithombeni?

7. Nhloboni yesilwane esesithombeni?

8. Abantu abadala benzani?

9. Lona wesifazane yena uthweleni ekhanda?

10. Yisikhathi sini?

(10)

ISAMBA/TOTAL = 100