THE HEGEMONIC POSITION OF ENGLISH AS A MEDIUM OF INSTRUCTION AT PRIMARY SCHOOL LEVEL IN KWAZULU-NATAL, AND ITS IMPACT ON PARENTS’ PREFERENCES OF SCHOOLING FOR THEIR CHILDREN

by

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The hegemonic position of English as a medium of instruction at primary school level in KwaZulu-Natal, and its impact on parents’ preferences of schooling for their children

by

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Thesis in compliance with the requirements for the Doctor's Degree in Technology: Language Practice in the Department of Media, Language and Communication, Durban University of Technology.

I declare that this thesis is my own work and has not been submitted for any other degree or examination at any other institution.

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Abstract

This study is concerned with the choices parents of second language learners make with regard to the schooling of their children in respect of medium of instruction, and explores the reasons why parents choose to disregard education in their mother tongue in favour of English as a medium of instruction. This is contrary to the Language in Education Policy, as the Department of Education instils in principals, educators and parents the need for children at primary school level to be taught in their mother tongue. The theoretical framework used to address the problem was the Critical Language Approach, this being an appropriate position from which to investigate language and power. A combination of questionnaires, interviews and observation was used to acquire data from parents and management in a large primary school in KwaZulu-Natal. After analysis of the data, which confirmed the hegemonic position of English as influencing choice of medium of instruction by parents of English second language learners, a model was developed to assist them to see the possible consequences of various choices. The model comprised a ten-point questionnaire to identify needs, a flow chart diagram resulting from the needs analysis, a pictograph to assist stakeholders to understand the relevant choices available, and workshops to support the choice of medium of instruction. The value of the research, it is thought, lies in clarifying the various influences at play, in particular, the hegemonic position of English, and offering stakeholders a rational, rather than political or emotional basis for the choice of medium of instruction for second language learners, as well as pointing out the possible consequences of such choices.
Dedication

I dedicate this thesis to:

The

English Second Language

Foundation Phase

Learners

in

KwaZulu-Natal
I persuade parents of English second language learners to

make the right choice

of MOI

for their children.
Acknowledgements

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Acronyms

CDA  Critical Discourse Analysis
CLA  Critical Language Approach
DoBE Department of Basic Education
DoE Department of Education
EFL  English First Language
EHRD Education Human Resource Directorate
EU  European Union
ESL  English Second Language
FET  Further Education and Training
KZN  KwaZulu-Natal
LiEP Language in Education Policy
LoLT Language of Learning and Teaching
MOI  Medium of Instruction
PIRLS Progress in International Reading Literacy Study
SGBs School Governing Bodies
SADTU South African Democratic Teachers’ Union

The convention for use of acronyms in the text will be: the full title will be listed on its first use in each chapter followed by the acronym in brackets. Thereafter, only the acronym will be used (Hoffstee, 2006).
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Chapter 1
INTRODUCTION

1.1 A brief introduction to the study

This chapter outlines the purpose of the research. It commences by briefly explaining the researcher’s observations during a period of twenty-five years, mainly as an educator and a manager. These observations are of the movement of English second language learners from predominantly isiZulu medium schools in rural areas and townships to English medium schools in urban areas and townships. This chapter also looks at the issues related to parents’ choices of medium of instruction (MOI) for English second language learners. The rationale provides a justification by the researcher for embarking on a study of this nature. In the “significance of the study” discussed below some of the anticipated applications of the outcomes of the research can be found. The chapter shows how this research might help parents of English second language learners to make the right choice of MOI for their learners, and ends with the broadly defined aims and objectives of the study.

1.2 Rationale for the study

This study is concerned with the choices parents of English second language learners make with regard to the schooling of their children. As a school teacher, the researcher has observed that parents of ESL learners currently prefer to send their children to English medium schools rather than isiZulu medium schools. This practice is actually contrary to what language policy dictates (Kamwangamalu, 2000), as the Department of Education instils in principals, educators and parents the need for children at primary school level to be taught in their mother tongue (Van Tonder, 1999). This research explores the reasons why parents might choose to disregard mother-tongue education in favour of English as the MOI, as education in the mother tongue, especially during the formative years, would be empowering to the ESL learner in
facilitating access to basic knowledge and concepts at primary school level (Alexander, 2000).

Western influences over the last few centuries have been the core reason for the increased use of English as a language of trade and communication in Africa (Encyclopaedia Britannica, 2006). Shin (2008) informs us that “the demands of participation in a global academic community lead to the conclusion that...students need to be equipped with...literacy”, especially in English. Parents choose English as a MOI because English is regarded as the official international language of communication and trade (School Governing Body Chairperson, 2009). The symbolic power which English is afforded appears to supersede the power of mother-tongue instruction in South African schools (Bourdieu, 1991). According to Bourdieu (1991), learners want to learn the “legitimate” language, in this case English, because of its pivotal role in the production and trade processes and the social status that it confers on its speakers.

It is hoped that this research will offer some insight into the choice of English as MOI where the learner’s home language is isiZulu, and where government policy, as well as the learner’s developmental needs, in fact requires isiZulu as the MOI. The value of the research, it is thought, lies in clarifying the various influences at play, in particular, the hegemonic position of English, and offering stakeholders a rational, rather than political or emotional basis for the choice of MOI, as well as pointing out the possible consequences of such choices. The theoretical framework in which the problem is to be addressed is the Critical Language Approach (CLA), which is an appropriate position from which to investigate language and power (Fairclough, 1989).

English is currently the most popular and widely used language of trade and communication in spite of the fact that South Africa is multi-lingual and multi-cultural. It is also fast becoming the national language of the masses in so called “new” South Africa because of its hegemonic influence in the global arena. The younger generation of black South Africans have accepted western
culture, habits and dressing as a means to fit into the global arena and to be seen as modernised and empowered by the citizens of the more developed countries (Memela, 2011). The new generation of South Africans emulates its local and international big-screen heroes and heroines such as Oprah, Michael Jackson, Usher, Brandy, popular black television presenters, political leaders, and the like. This transition is more and more apparent, especially amongst black communities. The hegemonic position that English possesses locally, nationally and globally influences to a great extent the transition that is referred to above.

Traditional African leaders help to mould the behaviour of their followers and subordinates in their groups in order for members to make a success of their lives (Mwaura, 2007). The infiltration of Christian missionaries into Africa has seen the increased use of English in communities that were previously indigenized and where western culture was formerly rejected (Mwaura, 2007). These African communities are now accepting English as the dominant language that they are required to know and master in order to communicate with the broader national and international communities (Mwaura, 2007; Schmied, 1991). Young South Africans also acknowledge that the indigenous African languages that are enshrined in and protected by the Constitution of South Africa (Republic of South Africa, 1996a) are useful only in communicating with people locally. IsiZulu is predominantly spoken in KwaZulu-Natal (KZN), but is not as widely spoken in the other provinces of South Africa as it is in KZN. During the last census conducted in South Africa it was noted that 23% of South Africans were of Zulu origin (Statistics South Africa, 2003). IsiZulu is not spoken in the other countries of Africa, let alone in the other continents around the world. It is because of this that Zulu parents do not encourage their children to receive an education through the medium of their mother tongue. Elders and leaders readily accept English over mother tongue as the language of choice for the education of their people, as they perceive English to be a vital means of communication for trade and communication with the outside world.

It is possible that the choices the masses are making with regard to the selection of MOI for their children at primary school level are motivated by the
perception that, with the acquisition and mastery of English, it is possible to obtain better jobs and thus a better life for all who are able to make this transition from mother tongue to English MOI. It is believed by these masses that continued use of African indigenous languages leads to unemployment and prevents the growth of the community and the nation. As English is the most commonly spoken language nationally and the most widely used language (often as a second or third language) (Statistics South Africa, 1989; Statistics of South Africa, 2003) it is perhaps slowing the process of Africanization – of both language and culture. There is a noticeable transformation of behaviour patterns – dress, westernization, mass media, and the change in accent – from the rural way of life to urbanization by the new generation of African youth (Memela, 2011; Mutabazi, 2002).

The study will focus on why African parents prefer their children to be enrolled in former model C schools, or public or private schools where the MOI is English in order to get a solid grasp of the English language. There was an increased movement of ESL learners from rural and semi-rural schools from 1994, especially from schools where the MOI was isiZulu. The parents of learners from rural schools seemed suddenly to have realised that an English MOI would be more beneficial for their children to be able to compete in the global arena (Gardiner, 2008). The overwhelming victory of the African National Congress (ANC) in the inaugural democratic elections in 1994 in South Africa motivated and encouraged parents to get a better education for their children than that which they were exposed to during the apartheid era under white dominance. The education that the parents and grandparents of ESL learners received under the apartheid regime taught them to be subservient and passive (Njobe, 1990). English as the MOI was perceived to give Blacks more access to education and better opportunities in life than if they used their mother tongue as the MOI.

Parents of ESL learners are keen to ensure that their children receive the best education possible (Gardiner, 2008). Most of the media used promote the use of English in order to attract a cross-linguistic audience. This portrays English as the dominant language of communication, and could possibly encourage
parents make the choice of English to be the MOI for their children at primary school level. In so doing these parents disregard policy, which states that learners in the foundation phase level should be taught in their mother tongue during their formative years (Grades R to 3) (Department of Education, 1997).

1.3 Statement of purpose

The purpose of this research was to investigate the choices parents of ESL learners make with regard to the MOI for their children at primary schools in KZN. This was done to confirm whether the current practice at primary schools in KZN in keeping with Department of Basic Education (DoBE) policy, the Language in Education Policy (Department of Education, 1997). If it is not, then reasons for this non-adherence to policy would be required. This investigation of the choice of MOI by parents of ESL learners was conducted by means of a survey of all parents of ESL learners at a foundation phase of a large English medium primary school in KZN. The data received was corroborated by means of interviews with educators and members of management at this school where English was the chosen MOI.

1.4 Significance of the study

It is possible that this research may create a new body of knowledge. This new body of knowledge might serve to enlighten and empower parents of ESL learners on what choices to make for their children with regard to the MOI for their children and offer insights to school governing bodies (SGBs) on how to structure the language policy for their school. It may also possibly achieve one or more of the following: guide current and prospective researchers on possible areas for new research, help community leaders to empower the members of their communities, and assist policy formulators and politicians to re-structure the current Language in Education Policy so that it would be accepted by the parents of ESL learners and SGBs in all South African schools. This research, it is hoped, might assist these various stakeholders in selecting the correct MOI for ESL learners at primary schools in KZN. This research and the
recommendations formulated will serve as a guide to parents when making this important choice of MOI for their children.

These parents might now have a guide to assist them to make the right choice. Prior to this study they had only the “Language in Education Policy” to guide them make the most appropriate choice of MOI for their children’s schooling. Many of the parents of ESL learners did adhere to this policy, while others challenged this policy by enrolling their children at English medium schools from as early as possible, most of them from grade R onwards (Brock-Utne and Holmarsdottir, 2004; Gutierrez, Baquedano-Lopez and Asato, 2000).

This research might also serve to empower members of SGBs when selecting the MOI for the children at a school where they are the governors. SGBs are at the forefront when motivating for and selecting the MOI for a school. One of the major tasks that SGBs are responsible for is the selection and adoption of the language of learning and teaching (LoLT) at a school, that is, the MOI (Republic of South Africa, 1996b). Community leaders also play a substantial role in selecting the MOI of the community in which they live, including that used at schools. They have powers to influence role-players at the school through the governance structures as well as through school management. Schools are now encouraged to form partnerships with the various role-players from the community in order to improve services via the school to the community. This research might also serve to empower these various role-players from the community.

This research aims to inform some of the vital stakeholders in the education of ESL learners, namely, policy formulators and politicians, of the needs and wants of the ESL learners and their parents regarding MOI. It is obvious that ruling class ideology dictate the policies that are formulated and implemented. It is also imperative that the ruling class regularly monitor the effectiveness of these policies and amend them to ensure success. This research looks at the success of the current LiEP, and its effectiveness and success at normal public schools in KZN.
One of the core outputs of this study is to develop a model to assist parents of ESL learners make the right choice of MOI for their children. This model would serve to assist and offer support to parents of ESL learners when making this crucial choice of selecting the MOI for their children. Many of these parents enrol their children at schools for various reasons, including “the need to learn English” and “the school is the nearest to their home”. The latter disregards the MOI at the school whereas the former emphasizes the MOI that the child has to learn. The latter, however, emphasizes the safety of the child, as the school is near to the child’s home. Parents of ESL learners are split between these two reasons for enrolling their children at primary schools in KZN.

1.5 Definition of key concepts

1.5.1 Critical language study

The field of critical language study (or “critical linguistics”) falls within the critical paradigm (Habermas, 1972, p. 308). It was developed by Fairclough (1989, 1992, 1993, 1995) using the foundation supplied by Habermas (1972), Bourdieu (1991), Foucault (1986) Giroux (1980, 2001) and Gramsci (1999) to show how social relations of power underpin discourse, which both reflects and sets in place these relations.

1.5.2 Critical language awareness

In linguistics, critical language awareness (CLA) is a notion that relates to a learner's development of practical language capabilities and his/her ability to recognize what constitutes “appropriate” in language. A person's awareness may be heightened by being marginalized by virtue of his/her race, ethnicity, religion, social status and so on. It is thought to be a prerequisite for effective democratic citizenship (Giroux, 1980) and should therefore be seen as an entitlement for citizens, especially children developing towards citizenship in the educational system.
1.5.3 Empowerment/disempowerment

The concepts of “empowerment” and “disempowerment” are used in a social sense, and not in relation to how people are affected by force or coercion (although these may initially set social relations of power in place). Empowerment (or disempowerment) comes about by transcending (or giving in to) the “constraints imposed by socio-economic class and its controlling ideologies” (Schubert, 1986, p.182).

1.5.4 Ideology/hegemony

The terms “ideology” and “hegemony” are closely related: hegemony in a critical language sense refers to the relations of power or power hierarchy set in place, while ideology refers to the (usually) unspoken and implicit beliefs, customs or behaviours which set and keep various power hierarchies in place. The area of “language ideology” refers to the beliefs about the superiority or inferiority of various languages (Schieffelen and Woolard, 1998, p. 3). These terms and associated concepts will be discussed in more detail in Chapters 2 and 3.

1.6 Aims and objectives of the study

The following general aims and objectives acted as a guiding factor in conducting this research.

1.6.1 The aims of this research

The aims of this research are to:

- establish the hegemonic position of English as the MOI at primary school level in KZN;
- investigate how this position affects parents’ choice of MOI for their children in;
- interrogate how the above answers affect the actual practice of MOI in the classroom with learners of English as a second language; and
• provide guidance for parents in the form of a model outlining various choices with their concomitant projected outcomes (i.e. in the form of a stochastic algorithm).

1.6.2 The envisaged measurable outputs (objectives)

The envisaged measurable outputs (objectives) are to:

• develop a model to help parents make informed choices of the MOI for their children.
• develop and present journal articles and conference papers.
• organize and facilitate seminars and workshops on language in education policies and their application with the Department of Basic Education (DoBE), School Governance Bodies (SGBs), Teacher Training Institutions and Teacher Unions.
• develop formal reports to the DOE, SGBs, Teacher Training Bodies and Teacher Unions making recommendations on School Language Policies and their application in practice.

1.7 Overview of chapters

Chapter 1 - Introduction

This chapter sets the research in context with a brief background to the study. It provides the general aims and the scope of the project. The main themes are introduced to the reader and key concepts are elucidated. The value of the study and any new contributions to knowledge are also discussed in this chapter.

Chapter 2 – Literature review

Chapter 2 reviews the position of English as the dominant language of communication, trade and industry in the world today, and looks at how English has achieved its hegemonic status in KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) and South Africa. It examines the ideology underlying use of English as the dominant language of
communication globally and also interrogates the various factors that have influenced the increasing popularity of the use of English as a medium of instruction (MOI) at primary schools in KZN.

Chapter 3 – Research orientation

This chapter deals with the research orientation adopted for this study, critical language theory, and describes the area of critical language awareness as well as the critical language stance adopted in this account. It then discusses the concepts of hegemony and ideology, as well as their relevance to this study. The power of English as global lingua franca is then explored, as well as the issue of whether learners are empowered or disempowered by using English as MOI. The chapter also looks at the issue of empowerment from the perspective of the variety of English used.

Chapter 4 – Research methodology

The methodology chapter details how, where, when and by whom the research was conducted. The chapter also discusses the types of data collected and the methods of recording and analysing the data collected for the study. The reader is introduced to the research design and the study approach. The researcher also introduces the various instruments used in the research, and illustrates the effectiveness of choosing these research instruments to collect salient data for the study.

Chapter 5 – Analysis of quantitative data

This chapter deals with an analysis of the questions from the questionnaires received from the respondents, which took the form of a quantitative analysis. In this analysis the researcher makes reference to the frequencies and modes of the data from the various questions from the questionnaires, and cross tabulations were applied to make extrapolation of data more meaningful. This chapter shows how the trends apparent in the quantitative data answered some of the critical questions of the research.
Chapter 6 – Analysis of qualitative data

In this chapter the interviews conducted and observations made are analyzed by the researcher in order to triangulate and validate the quantitative data analysed in the preceding chapter. The triangulation and validation of data was also used to find commonalities in the trends obtained. The researcher thus strengthened the answers to his critical questions by using both the quantitative and qualitative methods of data analysis. In this chapter, the researcher first presents an in-depth analysis of the interviews, and next provides a comprehensive analysis of the researcher’s observations.

Chapter 7 – Conclusions and recommendations

This chapter first discusses the extent to which the research aims and objectives were achieved. A critique of the research process is then given, followed by recommendations. The main recommendation is use of a model designed to assist parents of ESL learners to make the correct choice of MOI for their children at primary school level, in the hope that this model might guide parents who are unsure as to what MOI to choose for their children at primary school level. The outcomes of this model are given.
Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Chapter 2 will deal with an account of English as the dominant language of communication, and of trade and industry in the world today. Most importantly, this literature review questions how English has achieved its hegemonic status in KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) and South Africa. It interrogates the ideology underlying use of English as the dominant language of communication globally, moving from the earliest phases of English as the language of colonization in South Africa, through the domination of Afrikaans, to the later influence of western ideology on the use of English in South Africa, to the extent that English has become the lingua franca of trade and industry, and thus, a symbol of economic empowerment. It also interrogates the various factors that have influenced the use of English, and the increasing popularity of the using English as a medium of instruction (MOI) at primary schools in KZN. The chapter concludes by unpacking the reasons for this increasing popularity and dominance of English, and by exploring a variety of themes. These are as follows: education in crisis; the role of colonization and its influence on the use of English in KZN and globally; English as the current internationally accepted lingua franca; language and power; instructional media; the choices parents of English second language (ESL) learners make with regard to the MOI for their children; and the mass movement of ESL learners into English medium schools.

2.2 Education in crisis

The constitution of South Africa, Act 108 of 1996, enshrines and protects 11 official languages in South Africa (Republic of South Africa, 1996a). Most of these languages are indigenous African languages. The Language in Education Policy (LiEP) encourages, but does not enforce all learners to receive
mother-tongue instruction at primary school level (Department of Education, 1997).

This policy also subtly encourages public schools in South Africa to prepare learners to be multilingual. There are a number of authors and researchers, such as Alexander (2009), Bloch (2004) and Heugh (2009) who are passionate about mother-tongue education and multilingualism. However, the increasing hegemony of English in post-apartheid South Africa makes this unlikely in the near future. The researcher will investigate the role of English and multilingualism in South Africa, as these are seen as important factors in the current crisis in the South African education system (Fleisch, 2008; Makoni, 2003; Viljoen and Molefe, 2001). The use of mother-tongue education, monolingualism and bilingualism will also be investigated as other important factors in the attempt to address the current national crisis in education.

Learners who are receiving indigenous mother-tongue instruction from Grade 1 are expected to learn a new language from Grade 4 onwards (usually English). In Grade 4 learners are literally thrown into the deep end and expected to swim safely to shore. They are introduced to between 8 to 10 subjects compared to 3 in Grade 3. They are exposed to different subject teachers and a more structured timetable. They must also deal with the feeling of being alone, as they do not have form-based teachers. There is now less individual contact time with the teacher. This state of affairs is further exacerbated by the physiological and psychological changes occurring to the learners in puberty, which is often traumatic for them. In the context of the above discussion, it is not empowering for the learner to learn a new language during this critical phase.

ESL learners are made to feel incompetent by learning a new language when the optimum learning phase for language acquisition has passed. It is not educationally viable to introduce ESL learners, or any other learner, to a new language at this stage: learners best grasp a new language between the ages of 2 and 9, and not during or after puberty (Chomsky, 1965, pp. 47-61; Kibbee, 2003, p. 50; Stark, 1998, p. 8). Chomsky (1965, pp. 47-61) further elaborates
that it is difficult for an individual to master a new language after puberty. By not being able to master the content, grammar and vocabulary of the new language even bright learners will be made to feel incompetent and be degraded. They will feel embarrassed at not being able to perform tasks properly and acquiring the necessary skills to master a new language.

Introducing learners to a new language in Grade 4 poses challenges to the school management team (SMT) as well. If English is the new language, then the SMT must ensure that teachers are empowered to teach the language at the required level. It is advisable to use mother-tongue users of a language or educators who are adequately trained at the required proficiency level to teach the language (Moodley, 2009). This practice is not always possible in the context of education in South African schools because of the influence of politics in education, safety issues and job security. Sufficient teaching resources must also be made available by the SMT to enhance effective lesson delivery. This is difficult to achieve in schools where there is a high percentage of parents who do not pay school fees.

These and other problems in the current South African schooling system are a result of the past legacy of the apartheid system of segregated education. The extent of these challenges is seen in recent descriptions of primary schooling in South Africa as being “in crisis” (Fleisch, 2008; Govender, 2011), referring to the large numbers of learners who have failed in both the international and the local systemic assessments of literacy (Makoe and McKinney, 2009). The Progress in Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) indicated that South African Grade 4 learners’ scores were the lowest of those taking part in the study. The poor performance of learners could be linked to their sudden immersion into an English medium environment. However, parents of ESL learners are choosing to enrol their children at English medium schools, if not in Grade 1 then later in their schooling career, it is thought, because of global and local ideological pressures. This hegemony of English has put enormous pressures both on parents to choose English as the MOI for their children and on schools to provide instruction in English (De Klerk, 2000; Kamwangamalu, 2003; Memela, 2011; Setati, 2008).
2.3 An overview of the hegemonic position of English

As Alexander (2005, p. 12) points out, South Africa is the only country in the world where mother-tongue instruction in schools is not provided for the majority of its children. Emerging economies such as China, India and Japan provide mother-tongue instruction in schools: their emphasis on the learning of English as second language is intended to empower their citizens in the use of English in order to socialise and trade in the international village (Crystal, 1997, p. 26; Jiang, 2011, p. 196).

There are various reasons why people use English as a globally accepted lingua franca, which will be discussed below. The reasons for the increased use of English in South African schools are as follows:

- The impracticality of implementing the LiEP Policy.
- The move to globalisation.
- The negative connotations of Afrikaans (due to its association with Apartheid).
- The predominance of different indigenous languages in different regions. This baffles policy makers as to which indigenous language to choose as the MOI in the region.
- Lack of teacher skills and learning resources. There are more teaching resources available in English than in any of the indigenous languages.
- The impracticality of implementing the LiEP Policy

In a multi-cultural and multi-lingual society such as South Africa, it is not feasible to implement mother-tongue instruction in all schools as is stated by the Department of Education in LiEP (Department of Education, 1997). Some of the schools in South Africa do not have a clear majority of learners from any one of the indigenous official languages, and the choice of any one indigenous official language as the MOI might marginalise other learners in the school. In order to prevent controversy and disharmony amongst the various stakeholders, namely, educators, parents and learners, the Department of Education has devolved the power of choosing the MOI for a school to the parents (Republic of

15
South Africa, 1996b). More parents are now choosing English to be the MOI of their children’s school.

English is the global language of politics, communication, trade and commerce (Crystal, 1997; House, 2003; Jiang, 2011; Kamwangamalu, 2003). In the global arena English is the lingua franca accepted by all the major nations, and especially by the dominating economies of the world, namely, China, India, Taiwan and Japan. Other countries where English was not as popular previously are now changing their views on the use of English as a global lingua franca. In some countries, such as South Africa, western ideology is assisting in the transformation to an English dominated nation.

Afrikaans cannot be considered as a lingua franca, although it is spoken by many in South Africa, because of its apartheid affiliations. The enforcement of Afrikaans during the apartheid era led to the Soweto uprising in 1976 by black students (Bonner and Segal, 1998; Harber, 1989). This caused international indignation. It would be unthinkable for the Department of Education to adopt Afrikaans as an accepted MOI in any specific province in South Africa, unless the choices were voluntary by the parents.

While the Constitution promotes multilingualism, this is not a feasible option in the context of South African primary schools because of a lack of adequately trained human resources. We would, however, expect a regional majority of certain indigenous African languages (in combination, if not by majority of any one). This would translate into isiZulu being taught in all KZN primary schools and isiXhosa being taught in all Eastern Cape and Western Cape primary schools (Alexander, 2005, p. 7). This is not so, however. English is predominant as MOI in a great majority of schools in South Africa.

There are practical and logistical reasons for using English as the MOI at public schools: (1) there is a lack of skills for teaching mother-tongue to learners at all schools in South Africa; (2) there is lack of learning resources in isiZulu and other indigenous African languages (Govender, 2011, p. 59). There are far
more teaching resources available in English. This seems a strange state of affairs after 20 years into democracy (Motshekga, 2011, p. 1).

The *Language in Education Policy*, as alluded to above, indicates that parents should have a choice in selecting the MOI for their children at all public schools in South Africa (Department of Education, 1997; Qorro, 2003). The current trend of parents of isiZulu learners is to enrol their children at English medium schools. This is not a government imposition, nor is it a legal imposition. There seems to be some global ideological influence for these parents to have this affinity towards English as the MOI, particularly in the context of the political liberation that has been attained after years of struggle and revolt against the past Afrikaner regime (Njobe, 1990; Ross, 2008). To bring this current trend into perspective, the researcher has tentatively identified the main phases of hegemonic influence in language use in South Africa (see Table 2.1). It shows how this influence moved in a series of phases, from Phase 1, the time of early colonial influences, which were mainly in the form of expeditions or trading/supply posts, through to Phase 2, colonial expansion on a national scale, and into Phase 3, the era of globalisation (e.g. communication, trade, commerce).

The hegemony imposed by various European powers is reflected in the predominant or “power” language of that phase, except in the case of Phase 3, where English emerges as the preferred lingua franca of South African communication in trade and commerce, and even in the ANC government (e.g. in Parliament). In the “expedition” phase of early colonialism, coercion by armed force is in place rather than ideology: the influence of ideology is experienced more in the “administrative” phase, in the imposition of Eurocentric values in British colonialism and Apartheid (in the latter case, with these values being legally as well as bureaucratically enforced).

Table 2.1 illustrates the anomaly of English emerging as the preferred lingua franca in South Africa, in spite of ANC domination and constitutional imperatives to bring about multilingualism. It is in fact the multilingual nature of South Africa which makes the adoption of an indigenous lingua franca not feasible, although
there are regional preferences (e.g. isiZulu in KwaZulu-Natal). It must be emphasised that Table 2.1 illustrates general trends and tendencies only, and that the current situation in South Africa is the result of a combination of complex factors, which will be discussed in more detail below.

Table 2.1 Phases of hegemonic influence in language use in South Africa

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PHASES</th>
<th>Phase 1 EXPEDITION (territorial)</th>
<th>Phrase 2 ADMINISTRATION (national)</th>
<th>Phrase 3 TRANSACTION (global)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HEGEMONIC INFLUENCE</td>
<td>Portuguese/Dutch/British</td>
<td>Afrikaaner</td>
<td>[Post-liberation] ANC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PREDOMINANT LANGUAGE</td>
<td>Dutch</td>
<td>English-&gt;Afrikaans</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IDEOLOGICAL INFLUENCE</td>
<td>[Coercion - military, by force of arms]</td>
<td>Imposition of Eurocentric values (e.g. Apartheid, British colonialism.)</td>
<td>Social imperatives (true ideology, as it is implicit.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TIME FRAME</td>
<td>1500s – 1800s</td>
<td>1800s – 1900s</td>
<td>1950s – 2000s</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.4 Colonization in South Africa

2.4.1 Factors influencing the use of English in South Africa

There could be numerous reasons English enjoys this hegemonic influence in South Africa, Africa, and the global arena. The main reason can be attributed to colonization (Bamgbo, 2003; Brutt-Griffler, 2003; Pennycook, 1994). Over the centuries history has provided us with details of European powers acquiring territory, annexing land and colonising countries mainly for trade and economic reasons. By colonising other countries the European powers compelled the residents of these colonized countries to learn new languages and sometimes even to follow a new culture and new way of life:

Early colonialism saw the Ndebele tribe and the Khoi (and many other indigenous South African tribes) gradually drown out of their traditional life and into the mining areas and emerging towns with some engaging in migrant labour (Ndlovu-Gatsheni, 2007, p. 188).
The Rhodesian colonizers, who were British, provided “the lingua franca through which the hierarchical articulation of the colonizer and the colonized was accomplished” which was English (Ndlovu-Gatsheni, 2007, p. 174).

The Portuguese and the Dutch were the first European countries to trade with the inhabitants at the Cape in the 16th century (Beck, 2000). In 1652 the Dutch East India Company settled in the Cape to provide food and water to passing merchant ships travelling to the East (Beck, 2000). The first British settlers arrived much later, in 1795 (Ross, 2008). At first they conformed to the Dutch laws in the Cape, but in 1806 the British won control of the Cape. This resulted in the Dutch farmers, or trekboers,¹ as they were commonly referred to, moving inland away from the Cape (Ross, 2008). The British settlers eventually dominated most of the coastal areas such as the Cape, Natal (now KZN), and some Eastern Cape towns. During the period of British rule at the Cape the use of English was promoted and deemed to be the official language of communication in South Africa.

Meanwhile the trekboers maintained Afrikaans (a derivative from Dutch) as their medium of communication. Once the Afrikaners settled inland, they mobilised their forces and prepared to take on the British troops. After many attempts between 1910 and 1948, the Afrikaners eventually took control of South Africa in 1948. Afrikaans had over a century’s head-start in South Africa and its users were scattered throughout the country (Beck, 2000; Ross, 2008). By this time English had enjoyed hegemony mainly through imperialist rule rather than ideological influence. The ruling class Afrikaners tried in vain to undo this from 1948 to the 1990s by imposing on all citizens the necessity to learn Afrikaans in schools (Frederikse, 2001). They even enforced Afrikaner values as part of the school syllabus. The Afrikaner government also enforced apartheid by legislation (introduced gradually) as a means to promote Afrikaner domination and to suppress the blacks in South Africa (Beck, 2000; Sieborger, Weldon and Hinton, 1996).

¹ “wandering farmers”
Afrikaans was thus accepted to be the other dominant language of communication by many white South Africans. Both English and Afrikaans were eventually taught in schools, and were also in wide use by the majority of the inhabitants across all races. In 1948 the Nationalist Afrikaner government eventually took control of South Africa. They entrenched Afrikaner superiority. Afrikaans was now equal in status to English, in South Africa. The many centuries of White dominance have seen the English and Afrikaans languages achieve an elevated status in this country (Republic of South Africa, 1953). Afrikaner nationalism has ensured that these two languages dominate all spheres of life in South Africa; communication, media, politics, trade and industry have all been dominated by these two languages.

In the 70s and 80s there was opposition by black learners in South Africa to learning Afrikaans (Frederikse, 2001, p. 29). This gave rise to many boycotts and uprisings, most notably, the 1976 Soweto uprising where many students were shot and killed by South African police because they marched in protest (Bonner and Segal, 1998). In 1994 the democratically elected African National Congress (ANC) came to power. One would have expected the ANC led government to promote a dominant African language as the main official language of South Africa, as blacks are in the majority in South Africa. However, mindful of the suppression of indigenous language by the Nationalist Government, they enshrined the use of 11 official languages in South Africa, including English and Afrikaans (languages of the imperialists and oppressors) (Republic of South Africa, 1996a).

Since 1994 Afrikaans has been used progressively less than it was during the apartheid era (Statistics South Africa, 1989; Statistics of South Africa, 2003) yet English still enjoys the symbolic power afforded to it from the pre-democratic era (Bourdieu, 1991, p. 84; Bourdieu and Thompson, 1991, p. 192). English use has become more widespread in South Africa for ideological reasons. The use of English thus is now an ideological imposition in South Africa, rather than an imperialist imposition (Memela, 2011). The ruling ANC government promotes the use of English in all spheres of its rule, from national government down to local government. Social influences and ideologies have obliged the
inhabitants of South Africa and many other countries around the world to communicate and disseminate ideas in a common lingua franca (Jiang, 2011, p. 194).

### 2.4.2 Language and power

The above should indicate that the relationship between language and power is a complex one, and not just a matter of colonial or government imposition, and this will be discussed in more detail in the section on the Research Orientation (Chapter 3). Bourdieu, one of the originators of the concept of language and power, moving away from the (then) linguistic approaches to language, suggested that language should be considered “an instrument of action and power” (1991, p. 37). Language and power are related, as one chooses whom to communicate with, when to communicate, how much to communicate and what medium to use in communicating. In order to be accepted into the global arena, one chooses to communicate in the traditionally accepted lingua franca of the world, English (Laster, 2008; Shin, 2008). While traditional linguistics neglected to look at the power-inherent nature of language, later academics, notably Fairclough (1989, 1992, 1995, 2005) focused on this area (sometimes termed: “Critical Linguistics”).

The increased use of English nationally and globally can also be attributed to other factors such as international trade, tourism, sport, media networks, entertainment and international communication (Shin, 2008). These connect the various cultures and countries of the world into one unified global village. The common medium of communication in these linkages is English. In many of these countries English is often used as a second or third language of communication. The ESL users nevertheless see the importance of using English as an international medium of communication in order to be accepted into the global village (Graham-Brown, 1996; Harber, 1989).

This rationale encourages more and more parents of ESL learners to enrol their children at English medium schools, as they would see the international power which English possesses (Shin, 2008). These parents hope that, by enrolling
their children at English medium schools, their children will be empowered sufficiently in order to fit into the global village of trade and industry. Kamwangamulu (2000, p. 121) concurs with these parents when he questions whether mother-tongue instruction would empower those for whom it is targeted. This research consequently inquires whether English as the MOI would empower or disempower those for whom it is intended, especially at primary school level. Kamwangamulu also questions why mother-tongue education is resisted in South Africa today.

If parents believe that English is the best language for education (for their children), then they may even demand English as the LOLT (language of learning and teaching) for their children. (Granville, Janks, Mphahlele, Reed, Watson, Joseph and Ramani, 1998a, p. 6).

This action of parents is likely to maintain the dominance English enjoys over other indigenous languages in South Africa and to confirm its hegemonic position (Fairclough, 1989, p. 57). Such a belief is what Bourdieu calls “symbolic power” (1991, p. 192), which means that a language is powerful only because people give it that symbolic status. Bourdieu emphasises that social practices reinforce this symbolic power of English (2007). In South Africa English is generally accepted to be used in the social company of and be employed with people of cross-cultural backgrounds. In either social or work setting the accepted language of communication is English in KwaZulu-Natal. This is so as both parties want to be heard, understood and accepted by the other because English continues to enjoy the hegemony as a global language of communication. The fluent use of English is also synonymous with power and control. Those English second language speakers who are acknowledged by their fellow English second language speakers as being fluent in this language, English, are accepted as being in power and in control.

2.5 Western ideology and its influence on the use of English in South Africa

Western ideology has also influenced the use of English in South Africa in terms of certain sectors of the indigenous population adopting a western lifestyle.
During the birth of the new democracy in South Africa a new generation of citizens emerged, namely, the black elite. Having adopted many of the values of white society and culture as their own, the black elite not only strove to emulate the whites with whom they frequently came into contact but also felt the need to separate themselves from the black masses, whom they deemed to be of an inferior class (Lacy, 2007, p. 26). After political liberation was achieved, it became noticeable that only certain blacks became affluent in South Africa. After 20 years of democracy in South Africa the majority of blacks are still poor and exploited by this new generation of elite blacks who are now in control (Memela, 2011). There are some poor whites living in townships, but the average white person continues to live a life of comfort and security (Pithouse, 2011). Memela (2011) also reports that this new elitist generation of blacks look like blacks, but speak and act like whites, as they have adopted the western white ideology. In so doing the black South Africans have also deemed it important to master and use the English language progressively more than their mother-tongue languages in order to prove that they belong to this new elite group.

According to Pithouse, the desire of the majority of black South Africans is to hold out manifestations of whiteness as a power to be obeyed, or an idea of whiteness as a norm to be conformed to (Pithouse, 2011, p. 9). This ideology of white superiority is a national preoccupation amongst the elite blacks, and is interrelated with the increased use of English in South Africa. Western ideologies have also influenced the way these South Africans dress, walk and speak (Memela, 2011). In Gramsci’s view, ideology is a world view that is embodied in various activities or it is a world view that is implicitly demonstrated in art, law, economic activities, and all individual or collective life (Gramsci, 1999). There is now a new, modern, and even “cool” way to dress, walk and speak. Western icons from the movie, music and television industries have influenced this behaviour in the “new elite” class. Communication in English now seems to be a craze in both the national and international arenas, and in certain Asian countries this predilection for English is referred to as the “English craze” (Jiang, 2011, p. 194).
2.6 English as the lingua franca

Social influences and ideologies, then, have led to the adoption of English in many countries around the world (including South Africa) to communicate ideas in a common lingua franca (Jiang, 2011, p. 194), with the effects being discussed below.

2.6.1 Lingua franca in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa, and globally

The spread of English across the globe is evident in those who use it as a second or even third language. The primary use for a common language of communication in the global arena is for trade, and to link the various countries of the world both for business and for pleasure. Lesznyak (2004) states that the non-native speakers of English now outnumber the native speakers of English in the world today. There are estimates of about 430 million users of English as a second language in the world (Crystal, 1997, p. 68). Lesznyak (2004) informs us that at the end of the second millennium, in about fifty years’ time, English will have become the global language of communication.

A factor influencing choice of lingua franca is linguistic prejudice. Linguistic prejudice, as defined by Kaschula and Anthonissen (1995, p. 28), involves the perceptions or stereotypes people have of the language used by individuals and groups. This type of prejudice is usually determined in social contexts. During the apartheid era in South Africa, non-whites who could not communicate in English were labelled uneducated or semi-literate, although they could communicate fluently in their mother tongue. Burroughs (2008) affirms this in her study of people who used English as their second or third language of communication. She elaborates that “it seems those with any speaking differences were perceived negatively with regard to task, social, or intellectual capabilities” (p. 289).

This linguistic prejudice consequently obliged Blacks to learn the English language in order to be classified literate and to be perceived as being empowered by their employers (Fang, 2011, p. 1). Blacks also chose to learn
the language of their employers (who were usually Whites) in order to be accepted by them and to become employable in the ever growing farming, mining, manufacturing, trade and industry sectors (Tollefson, 1991, p. 5). The manufacturing, retail, trade and technology sectors have promoted the use of English nationally and internationally. This has ensured that English is accepted as the dominant lingua franca in the world today. If one is fluent in English then one is deemed to be “educated” and, consequently, empowered (Zastrow, 2009, p. 351).

Table 2.2 Hierarchical linguistic pluralism in KwaZulu-Natal - adapted from Spitulnik (1998, p. 170)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Colonial language</th>
<th>English</th>
<th>Used in government, higher education, schools, TV, Radio and daily newspapers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>International language</td>
<td>English</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban lingua francas</td>
<td>English, isiZulu</td>
<td>Used in schools, radio, TV and newspapers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In KwaZulu-Natal</td>
<td>isiZulu</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Languages of dominant ethnic groups in KwaZulu-Natal</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Official languages of South Africa</td>
<td>English, Afrikaans, isiZulu, isiXhosa, Setswana, siSwati, Venda, IsiNdebele, SeSothosa Leboa, Tshivenda, Xitsonga</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As indicated in Table 2.2, there are 11 official languages in use in South Africa (Republic of South Africa, 1996a). Not all of these 11 official languages are given equal status. In KwaZulu-Natal the majority of the population are predominantly from the isiZulu and isiXhosa ethnic groups (Statistics South Africa, 2003a). The dominant urban lingua franca is English and isiZulu. isiZulu is commonly spoken between members of the ethnic groups, but English is popularly spoken across race groups. In rural schools it is common to find the use of isiZulu as the MOI, while in urban areas English is generally used as the MOI in schools. Table 2.2 also indicates that English was initially perceived
to be a colonial language. Today it is widely used in all spheres of interaction, as it is perceived to be an international lingua franca.

2.6.2 The impact of lingua franca on finance - banking, trade and industry

Using English as lingua franca has come to mean “empowered” by western standards, as countries such as China, Japan, Korea, Taiwan and India are all leading world markets with regard to manufacturing, retail, trade and technology (Henderson, 1998; Tung, Lam and Tsang, 1997). Mother-tongue instruction is promoted until high school and tertiary level within these respective countries, which also acknowledge the need to be fluent in English, as English is respected as the language of international trade (Shin, 2008). The governments of these countries therefore provide additional education in English in order for their citizens to be incorporated into the global arena. Krashen (1999) notes that bilingual education is often promoted in countries where English is not the mother tongue. This is because countries which have acknowledged the hegemonic position of English are viewed as being progressive in the international markets (Seidlhofer, Breiteneder and Pitzl, 2006; Setati, 2008; Truchot, 2003). The use of English brings more money into the economy, thus giving the country more power globally.

In South Africa, as in many parts of postcolonial Africa, English dominates the political economy (Probyn, 2009). However, Alexander (2005) points out that language policies are really “governmental strategies designed … to promote the interests of specific classes and other social groups” (p. 2) and do not necessarily take cognisance of the needs of the country in totality, nor, in fact, global needs. Globally the language of trade, industry and communication is English (Lesznyak, 2004; Macedo, 2000; Makoni, 2003). It is the contention of this thesis that in KZN the symbolic power that is afforded to English is acknowledged by the social practices of parents of ESL learners and by. Parents are opting to enrol their children at English medium schools, even if it means travelling great distances to school daily.
The mass exodus of learners from the township and rural schools that were offering mother-tongue education as MOI has been alarming (Njobe, 1990). Politicians, trade unions and Department of Education officials alike are researching ways of filling up these rural and township schools once again. Incentives have been offered to educators to teach in these rural schools. The infrastructure of schools has been improved as a priority. However, these schools will fill up only when the language of learning and teaching (LOLT) is changed to English (Moodley, 2009), notwithstanding other reasons such as the need to improve teacher competence, update teaching resources and improve facilities. Parents are therefore opting to reject schools offering mother-tongue education in rural and township settings in favour of English medium schools (Balfour, 1999). Mgwabe (2009) states that in KwaZulu-Natal, typical middle-class black parents with children in former Model C schools would tell you that they are proud of their cultural heritage, including their mother tongue, but would choose to speak English to their children at home (Granville, 2003b; Gutierrez et al., 2000).

It is the contention of this thesis that parents of ESL learners want their children to interact with the finance, trade or industry sectors at the national and/or international levels and to be more successful than their parents are. They also want to give their children the education that they so desired, and of which they were deprived. The employment opportunities in the finance, trade and industry sectors all require employees to be able to communicate in English (Lacy, 2007). Parents accordingly choose English as the MOI for their children. In so doing these parents give English this symbolic power and elevated status, locally and internationally (Bourdieu, 1991).

2.6.3 The impact of lingua franca on politics

English used as lingua franca has implications not only for banking, trade and industry, but also for politics. In the build up towards the democratic elections in South Africa from 1994 onwards all political parties chose to publicize their party manifesto, slogans and party posters in the language of English. A few chose to translate some of them into the other widely-used official languages, such as
Afrikaans and isiZulu. Voting material was also printed in English, with party emblems next to the text. Voters were therefore required to know either the English language or the party emblem in order to vote for their party of their choice. The latter could prove confusing to the layman, taking into account the large number of political parties there are and the similarities in their emblems and colours. Thousands of voters could in fact have voted for the wrong party. It is apparent obvious from this discussion that the voters’ linguistic competencies were not considered when elections were being planned.

In parliament, local, provincial or national, most of the deliberations are conducted in English. The budget speech is presented in English, except for a few quotes in one of the traditional African languages. The Governor of the reserve bank presents her speeches in English. The bulk of the President’s state of the nation address is presented in English. The list could go on and on. These practices by our politicians are creating a clear awareness in the masses of South Africans of the hegemonic position of English in our lives. Parents take their cue from leaders of the calibre of Nelson Mandela, Jacob Zuma and the like. These leaders promote English to a great extent in their communications with the masses. *The Long Walk to Freedom* was written in English by an ESL speaker, and it was a best-seller. Parents of ESL learners are therefore of the view that if their children were equally competent in English, then they too could be as successful as one of these popular leaders.

### 2.6.4 The impact of lingua franca on the judiciary system

The judicial system, too, is influenced by the hegemonic force of English, as the lingua franca of national and international courts is English (Simpson, 1988). The judges and magistrates in the courts of South Africa preside in English. Translators are provided to assist those who do not understand the lingua franca that is used by the judiciary system, namely, English (Du Plessis, 1995). In using translators much of the linguistic value of a language would possibly be lost through translation, meaning that factual information could be lost or distorted in the translation process during a court case. This translation process would inadvertently result in time being wasted during the court case, thus
resulting in more legal fees being paid by the defendant or the plaintiff to advocates and lawyers.

Those who wish to study law must be fluent in English, but must also include popular official languages in their study as well (Du Plessis, 1995). Those law students who come to university with a thorough grounding in the English language would be at an advantage in their class. Simpson (1988) substantiates the researcher’s declarations that the one skill that deserves particular mention is the ability of a law student to write and comprehend the English language well. A very large part of a lawyer’s life involves the use of written language. All case study journals available to law students in South Africa are printed in English, with a few also printed in Afrikaans. The Afrikaans journals were printed mainly during the apartheid era to promote the increased use of the Afrikaans language within the judiciary system during the apartheid era in South Africa. However, Afrikaans is currently on its way out from being used in the judiciary system in South Africa.

The above portrays the position of power that English currently enjoys in the judiciary system in South Africa and internationally. This hegemonic position of English is unavoidable in the judiciary as national and international courts deal with criminals from varying cultures and linguistic backgrounds. The obvious language of choice in these courts is English, as it is understood and spoken by a large majority of people around the world, as a second or third language by most of them.

2.6.5 The impact of lingua franca on media and communication with the masses

English as lingua franca also has implications for media and communication with the masses. Globally there is the recognition of the increasing importance of communications with people from other cultures and countries. Within the European Union (EU), English has a special role in this regard. The EU promotes all languages spoken by member states, while English is not the most frequently spoken first language (Berns, 2006). It is nonetheless, as
Berns (2006) elaborates, the language two Europeans are most likely to use to make them understandable to each other. This lingua franca occurs in business and everyday interactions amongst Europeans.

The most widespread lingua franca of the media and communication in KZN and South Africa is fast becoming English, although this is challenged by House (House, 2003). House (2003, p. 556) contends that English, as the popular lingua franca of the world, is posing a serious threat to multilingualism in Europe and elsewhere. Today, over a billion people speak English, though for half of them, English is a second language (Henderson, 1998). The special advantage the English language has is that it absorbs terms and concepts from other languages aggressively. It is increasingly becoming the second language of choice around the world.

The omnipresence of English in Europe has led to numerous discussions about its widespread functions and special status compared to all other European languages (Seidlhofer et al., 2006). English is the language that journalists, academics, diplomats and scientists use most often around the globe, and it is the obligatory language for central towers at international airports and for pilots making international flights (Reynolds, 1994).

2.7 Medium of instruction for ESL learners and a schooling systems that would benefit ESL learners

In view of the social influences and ideologies influencing choice of lingua franca in other areas, one needs to consider which medium of instruction at school would most benefit ESL learners

2.7.1 Single medium schools

English is increasingly used as the core medium of instruction at many educational institutions around the world. In countries where English is the mother tongue or the most frequently used language of communication, this single medium instruction in English is understood and accepted as normal practice; it would also seem educationally sound. Tung, Lam and Tsang (1997)
report the results of the large-scale survey of attitudes of students, teachers, and parents toward the use of English as a MOI in Hong Kong secondary schools, where Chinese is the native language of the great majority of students. According to Tung et al., the students and their parents consistently value English over Chinese as a teaching medium, although the parents and students agree with the teachers that instruction in Chinese would be educationally more effective.

European countries are following this trend as well. Coleman (2006) states that there are currently global debates on English as an international lingua franca or, as he puts it, a “killer language.” He points out that the adoption of English as a MOI in educational institutions in Europe is raising increasing concern among politicians and education authorities alike. According to Coleman (2006), the English language is achieving this hegemony because it is one of the only languages that is absorbing and drowning the other languages of the world. To this extent, English has even influenced and transformed the German and Russian languages (Coleman, 2006).

Continuing in this vein, Mazrui (2000) questions whether Africa is being threatened by the possibility of linguistic attrition. In the South African context policy dictates that learners must be taught in their mother tongue from Grade R to Grade 3 (Department of Education, 1997). English is to be introduced to these learners as a second language gradually from Grade 4 onwards. The research by Brock-Utne and Holmarsdottir (2004) shows that whatever the official policies may be in South Africa, the teachers in the classroom will use whatever language they and their students feel most comfortable with. The official policy in South Africa is that school’s governing bodies (SGBs) select the language of learning and teaching (LoLT) at the school, and the language that is selected as the LoLT must be used by all learners at the school. In schools where multilingual and multicultural learners exist, most of them would initially be at a disadvantage until they achieved a good grasp of the language used as the LoLT. Also, at the end of the day learners are assessed in their LoLT, at the various levels. Once these learners go to tertiary institutions they would be obliged to use English as the medium of communication and the MOI. If
English were not their LoLT at school level then they would be at a disadvantage at this stage of their education. This clearly reflects the disjuncture between policy and practice, as policy is aimed at empowering and not disempowering the individual.

Global monolingual ideologies are paving the way for change in the current language policies in the South African schooling context. In teaching ESL learners in English, teachers generally associate code switching and use of mother-tongue with underachievement and slow learners (Li Wei and Martin, 2009; Lin and Martin, 2005). It is for this reason that many of the schools adopt an “English-only” policy from the beginning of Grade R. The SGBs adopt and controls the language that is promoted as the LoLT at schools in South Africa (Republic of South Africa, 1996b). However, their choice of MOI is often contrary to the Language in Education Policy (LiEP) in South Africa, which is advocated by the Department of Basic Education (DoBE) (Department of Education, 1997). Many of the schools are moving away from mother-tongue instruction because of pressures from parents to teach their children through the medium of English. If this is not adhered to then these parents would enrol their children at schools where the medium of instruction is English.

2.7.2 Dual-medium schools

Dual-medium education and parallel medium schooling have a long history in the South African educational context. The study by Plüddemann, Braam, October and Wababa (2005) in the Western Cape found that both dual-medium and parallel-medium education are practised in formerly Afrikaans-medium schools under pressure, driven by the needs of the various communities, to teach through the medium of English. Dual-medium education contextualized in these settings would be a form of code switching as is practised in township and rural schools in other parts of South Africa. This model of dual-medium education employed in the Western Cape is in fact a parallel single-medium model rather than a model designed to promote bilingualism and biliteracy. Plüddemann, Braam, October and Wababa (2005) agree that much advocacy work, teacher training and materials produced in African languages remain to
be done if this form of mother-tongue based bilingual education is to be realized.

Brock-Utne and Holmarsdottir (2004) support the study by Plüddemann et al. by stating that the coping strategies used in the classroom by teachers, such as translating and code-switching, are distorting the concept of dual-medium education in South Africa. They are of the view that this could confuse learners even further as they write examinations in a language in which they are not totally proficient, English. Brock-Utne and Holmarsdottir (2004) conclude that this would mean that learners would pass through the education system without learning all they could have learnt if they had been taught in their mother-tongue. This would not be the case if these ESL learners were immersed into an English medium environment as early as possible (Burroughs, 2008), preferably in Grade R.

At this point it would be apt to introduce the analogy that Qorro (2003) used to compare education and electricity. Qorro (in Rubagumya 2009) states:

> It is not possible to have electricity without copper wires, which act as a conduit for the electricity. In the same manner, it is not possible to have an education without a language through which that education is transmitted. If you want quality education without paying attention to language it is like saying you want electricity but you do not care about the wiring system (Rubagumya, 2009, p. 49).

The potential to use two languages in the classroom in a structured and systematic way to support learning has not been generally recognized or developed in South African schools (Probyn, 2009). A linguistically diverse school would seek to reinstate the use of the languages best known and used by students in the classroom and in extra-curricular activities alongside English (Heugh, 2009). Bilingual classrooms can be effective only if systemic support is given by the relevant education authorities in the form of drafting and implementing appropriate policies, providing suitable support material, and developing realistic teacher training initiatives. The Language in Education Policy developed by the Department of Education in South Africa promotes the use of mother-tongue education during the formative years (Grades R-3) of a
child’s schooling (Department of Education, 1997). From Grade 4 other official languages could be introduced to the learner. Research by Heugh (2009) highlights the difficulty of ensuring that written texts and support material accompany and support languages used alongside English in the classroom. Heugh comments that much of this difficulty is monetary. Budgets, proper planning and educator training initiatives do not cater for dual-medium instruction in the South African context.

2.7.3 Multi-medium schools

Multi-medium instruction in South African schools would be an ideal scenario in the ever increasing multi-cultural and multi-linguistic classrooms. ESL learners who are proficient in the language of teaching and learning (LoLT) could assist teachers in the classroom to translate instructional material to those learners who struggle to grasp the LoLT. Makoe and McKinney’s study, conducted in a multi-lingual urban primary school in Johannesburg reveals, this (Makoe and McKinney, 2009). In this study it is shown how a multi-lingual Grade 1 learner uses her multi-lingual proficiencies to draw her peers into the classroom routines and assists them to make meaning of classroom processes. She also assists the teacher in communicating with the learners from cross cultural backgrounds and a class with learners who speak a variety of languages.

This is indicative of what transpires in multi-lingual classrooms in South Africa today. As an educator of some twenty-five years’ years teaching experience and a manager of over ten years, the researcher has first-hand experience of what is mentioned by Makoe and McKinney in their research. Teachers and managers, in their quest to inflate their enrolment, accept learners of varying linguistic backgrounds and abilities, even if they do not comply with the LoLT of the school. The school researched above even goes further by bussing learners to their school. With the above discussion in mind, the question that needs to be answered is “who chooses the LoLT for a learner?” Is it the learner, the parent, the school, the education authorities or politicians?
2.8 Parents’ choice of MOI as affecting the mass movement to urban areas

This section looks at parents’ choices of schooling for their children in KZN (with regard to MOI) in terms of how it has brought about a mass movement away from township/rural schools to urban areas. The mass exodus of learners from township and rural schools to more urbanized schools in KZN and in the broader context of South Africa has been a practice since 1990. In 1990 Nelson Mandela was released from prison, which heralded the end of apartheid in South Africa. His inaugural speech to the world was presented, to a large extent, in English. This could be one of the foremost contributing factors, with the exception of others, for parents to move their children to English medium schools, better resourced schools, and even bigger schools. Parents now have a choice of selecting the school for their children to be educated in. This research aims to address the issue of which choice should be made, and what can be done to support the consequences (i.e. in terms of MOI) of any given choice.

Parents also have the choice of selecting the LoLT for their children to receive instruction in at ordinary public schools. According to the South African Schools’ Act, Act 84 of 1996, the authority of selecting the LoLT at public schools in consultation with the wider parent population SGBs was devolved to the SGBs (Republic of South Africa, 1996b). The SGBs, in carrying out this authority, firstly take into consideration the demographics of the school and the learners it serves; secondly, the SGBs look at the feasibility of changing the current LoLT of the school (if the need so arises); thirdly, they assess the capabilities of the labour force at its disposal to teach the selected LoLT; and fourthly, they weigh the financial implications of such a change in view of the income of the school.

In selecting the LoLT of the school, the SGB has to ensure that it promotes quality education for all of the learners. Their decision also needs to consider the effects on enrolment trends, as educators and managers would not like to be declared in excess and be transferred to other schools, as would be the case
if the enrolment decreased drastically. This is the scenario at many township and rural schools. Learners have left in their masses due to various factors, one of which includes the possibly be that the MOI is not acceptable to the learner and parent. From 2010 the South African Democratic Teachers’ Union (SADTU) was on a mass drive to “get learners back to the township and rural schools” (South African Democratic Teachers' Union, 2010). Their leaders were brainstorming ways to achieve this successfully in the shortest possible timeframe without disturbing the process of quality public education.

This mass exodus of ESL learners showed the various stakeholders in education that parents have the final say when it comes to the choice of the MOI for their children. This mass movement to English medium schools sends out a clear message to researchers, policy developers, political leaders and Department of Education officials. This action of parents clearly states that the current Language in Education Policy (LiEP) is not satisfying the needs of the learners it serves. LiEP could then be viewed merely as a mechanism to gain popularity for the ruling party and to maintain political power and control over the masses. One wonders if the policy-makers are taking heed of the cries from ESL parents. The actions of parents should inform those in power for future planning and research into necessary changes of LiEP for South African education, and for providing quality public education for all learners in South Africa.

2.9 The immersion of ESL learners into English medium schools: the next generation

What is the appropriate age for learners to acquire a new language? Academics and psycho-linguists differ on this position. Some believe the linguistic competencies need to acquire a new language decrease rapidly after the age of 6 years, while others believe the decline occurs after puberty (Long, 1990). Kuhl, Conboy, Coffey-Corina, Padden, Rivera-Gaxiola and Nelson (2008) believe the prime age for acquiring languages (first or second) would be between birth and two years. They also agree that the degree of interaction in these languages determines the competency reached in the language.
Generally one would be more competent in the language most often used in the home (Benson, 2004, p. 7), while interaction with community members determines the level of competency of other frequently used languages in that community. Reading literature, newspapers, magazines, or other paraphernalia in the second language and listening to others speak the second language also improves competency in that language (Clark, 2002, p. 183). The researcher has observed that in South Africa it is quite common to find White, Indian and Coloured toddlers fluent in commonly used indigenous African languages. This occurs where African maids are employed and are allowed to converse with the toddlers in these indigenous African languages. This form of multilingualism is also promoted in the non-formal social settings and interactions between diverse groups.

African toddlers and infants who live in multi-cultural and multi-lingual societies generally attend crèches and playschools that cater for multi-cultural and multi-lingual children. Others socialize with children from their mixed communities in parks or on the sports field. In so doing, these infants grasp the language used by the other linguistic groups. Some even become fluent in two or more languages before they commence with formal schooling, as shown in the study conducted by Makoe and McKinney in an urban primary school in Johannesburg (2009). A Grade one learner was shown to be multi-lingual before entering Grade one at this school. She was therefore in a position to assist the educator and learners in translating and making meaning of classroom practices.

In a divergent model, the one advocated by the Department of Education, there are children who are being taught in their mother-tongue in primary school and who then struggle in high school and in university where instruction is in English (Moodley, 2009). Mahoney, Thomson, MacSwan, Combs and Reyhner (2004) support early immersion into English medium schools for ESL learners. They are of the view that learners can be taught English only if they are taught in English. They also make the point that learners may learn communicable English, “oral proficiency,” in a year, if they learnt it as a second language. With
this level of proficiency in English learners would not be able to progress through an all-English curriculum at an English medium school. They would need at least three years in the language to master the techniques of language, comprehension and reading (Mahoney et al., 2004). Moodley (2009) further reinforces these views by stating that we should strive for universal education so that we are welcome in the global village.

2.10 The future of English in South Africa

Nunan (2003) indicates that the emergence of English as a global language is having an impact on policies and practices in the seven Asian countries surveyed, namely, China, Japan, Hong Kong, Korea, Malaysia, Taiwan and Vietnam. However, there is an obvious disjuncture between policy and practice in these countries. This crisis of the disjuncture between policy and practice is not unique to the research by Nunan, as this is clearly a global problem. The practice of these parents choosing English as the MOI for their children is fast spreading to other parts of the globe. Although many reasons for this were cited, the overall hegemony of English in the global arena is unavoidable.

Balfour (1999) claims that there is a large amount of local and international writing by academics, politicians and the media of claims to use English as an international language. Similar claims cannot be made for the local South African indigenous languages, although they may be more frequently used as a localised language of communication within sectional linguistic groups, than English as a first language (Statistics South Africa, 1989; Statistics of South Africa, 2003). English is the language most frequently used as a second or third language in South Africa for cross-cultural communication. In a 1998 newspaper article by Nelson Mandela, he recommended that the language of the South African National Defence Force command be changed from Afrikaans to English (Davis, 1998).

Pillay (2010) reports that, in the hope of increasing the pass rate at a predominantly Swazi school, the principal employed an English speaking teacher from KwaZulu-Natal did not allow ESL learners to use any mother-
tongue languages for a year within the gates of the school. At the end of the year all matric pupils passed English with ease. Thus the pass rate improved dramatically at a cost of denying mother-tongue communication in school. Some would view this as being harsh and insensitive, while others would applaud the results this stance had achieved. WakaMsiming (1988) in his article “English threatens African languages and culture” focuses on the poor senior certificate results in 1997. He comments that English as the choice of MOI among speakers of indigenous languages is the core cause of language attrition among speakers of indigenous languages who attend English medium schools. This, he says, will eventually destabilize isiZulu as the most popular language and the most widespread language in use in KwaZulu-Natal (Wakamsiming, 1988).

2.11 Conclusion

Bearing the above discussions and arguments in mind, this review concludes by posing critical questions in order to gain first-hand clarity and insight into the hegemony of English as it operates in the issue of MOI in KZN schools. Attempts will be made to answer the following four critical research questions in the course of this study:

1. What is the hegemonic position of English as medium of instruction (MOI), and why?
2. How does this position affect (if at all) parents’ choice of MOI?
3. How do the answers to the above affect the actual practice of MOI in the classroom?
4. How could the available choices of MOI be modelled for parents in a form which might illustrate the probable outcomes of such choices?

The researcher has embarked on this study as he is strongly of the opinion that the answers to these critical research questions have not been adequately answered in the literature review above. The answers to these four critical research questions, as well as follow-up questions, will follow in the subsequent
chapters of the study. The latter will, it is hoped, serve to provide more insight into the answers obtained from the critical questions.
Chapter 3
RESEARCH ORIENTATION

3.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with the research orientation adopted for this study, critical linguistics. After showing how this fits within the critical paradigm, and reviewing the principles of critical theory, the area of critical language awareness is briefly described, as well as the critical language stance adopted here. The concepts of hegemony and ideology are then discussed, as well as their relevance to this study. The power of English as global lingua franca is then explored, as well as the tensions and contradictions inherent in the issue of being empowered or disempowered by using English as MOI. The chapter concludes after looking at the issue of empowerment from the perspective of the variety of English used.

3.2 Critical linguistics

Critical linguistics (or critical language study, Fairclough, 1989, pp. 1-16) is considered a suitable orientation for this study, as it deals with the relationship between language and power, and is an appropriate orientation within which to investigate language policy and practices at primary school level. Critical linguistics is set within the critical paradigm, as will be shown below. This area of study has been termed “critical linguistics” (O’Halloran, 2005, pp. 343-346), and it is also referred to as a “critical language approach” or “critical language awareness” (Fairclough, 1992). As will be discussed in more detail below, critical linguistics tend to focus on the analysis of texts, but there is also an area devoted to relations of power which exist between different dialects of the same language or between completely different languages (Woolard, 1998), which is the focus of this thesis.
3.2.1 Habermas' theory of knowledge

Habermas identified distinct knowledge-constitutive interests (Habermas, 1972, p. 195; Held, 1990, p. 254) which are the basis for three of the research orientations in current use today. Habermas' knowledge-constitutive interests represent knowledge as being based in human behaviour (i.e., knowledge is viewed as a social construct). Knowledge-constitutive interests are human interests or inclinations which Habermas shows as being actively involved in creating knowledge (1972, pp. 196-197). Habermas identifies three such interests: technical, practical and emancipatory, which have been incorporated into the empirical/analytic, hermeneutic and critical paradigms (termed “sciences” by Habermas) respectively (1972, p. 308). The knowledge-constitutive interests which govern the three paradigms are represented as

Table 3.1 Paradigms developed from Habermas' knowledge-constitutive interests (in Schubert, 1986, p. 181)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TYPE OF SCIENCE OR INQUIRY</th>
<th>Empirical/Analytic</th>
<th>Hermeneutic</th>
<th>Critical</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INTEREST SERVED</td>
<td>Technical</td>
<td>Practical</td>
<td>Emancipatory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOCIAL ORGANIZATION</td>
<td>Work</td>
<td>Interaction</td>
<td>Power</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| MODE OF RATIONALITY        | Posits principles of control and certainty.  
                             | Operates in the interests of law-like predictions that are empirically testable.  
                             | Assumes knowledge to be value-free.  
                             | Assumes knowledge to be objectified.  
                             | Values efficiency or parsimony.  
                             | Accepts unquestioningly social reality as it is.  | Emphasizes understanding and communicative interaction.  
                             | Sees human beings as active creators of knowledge.  
                             | Looks for assumptions and meanings beneath texture of everyday life.  
                             | Views reality as inter-subjectively constituted and shared within a historical, political, and social context.  
                             | Focuses sensitively to meaning through language use.  | Assumes the necessity of ideological critique and action.  
                             | Seeks to expose that which is oppressive and dominating.  
                             | Requires sensitivity to false consciousness.  
                             | Makes distorted conceptions and unjust values problematic.  
                             | Examines and explicates value system and concepts of justice upon which inquiry is based. |
Basic human orientations (Habermas, 1972, p. 196); they are grounded in human behaviour and are thus a social phenomenon (McCarthy, 1978, p. 55). The paradigms of inquiry governed by Habermas’ knowledge constitutive interests reflect the main types of knowledge construction found in western society in particular. They are summarised in a table (see Table 3.1) by Schubert (1986, p. 186), based on a formulation by Hultgren (1982, p. 29). Hultgren’s account was derived mainly from Habermas’ comprehensive theory of knowledge (Habermas, 1972), but also contained input from Bernstein (1976) and Giroux (1980).

3.2.2 Principles of critical theory

The principles of the critical paradigm are those which inform the critical linguistics approach used in this study. The critical paradigm is also referred to as “critical praxis”, or practical action (Grundy, 1987, pp. 60-61). According to Grundy, the critical paradigm requires: “a transformation of consciousness, that is, a transformation in the way in which one perceives and acts in ‘the world’” (Grundy, 1987, p. 99). As with the hermeneutic paradigm, praxis involves a process of making meaning, but meaning is regarded as being socially constructed and not absolute (1987, p. 105). The interest served is emancipatory, which depends on participants having the option of autonomous action (1987, p. 113). The action taken is informed by the theoretical insights gained, and should be a matter of free choice. However, the emancipatory interest deals with the transformation of society rather than the liberation of individuals. Thus the emancipatory interest is an interest in emancipation as a social reality, not an individual achievement (1987, p. 114).

The social organisation of the critical paradigm is power, for a social organisation is needed that “empowers human beings to transcend constraints imposed by socio-economic class and its controlling ideologies” (Schubert, 1986, p. 182). In order to empower people to transcend such constraints, ideological critique is necessary in order to expose that which is oppressive and dominating and to lead to autonomous action. Critique is necessary because ideology, or the “set of ideas or opinions which dominate the thinking of that group of people”, sets in place commonsense or “natural” views of the world.
which might hide or mask unequal forms of social relationship (Grundy, 1987, p. 109). Ideology can present a problem for consensual meaning, as “communication may be ‘systematically distorted’” (1987, p. 107). For this reason, the critical paradigm makes distorted conceptions and unjust values problematic. Dominant ideologies are exposed through a process of reflection which requires sensitivity to false consciousness. This also requires self-examination: “To identify certain values as unjust, it is imperative that those who engage in critical science explicate the values that they hold” (Schubert, 1986, p. 182). According to Popkewitz (1984, p. 54), the critical paradigm did not achieve legitimacy until the 1980s, when its supporters had gained powerful positions in the universities. Gur-ze’ev suggests that in recent times critical theory, while becoming more and more popular in academic circles, has failed the disempowered, and has become part of “normalizing” the education system which perpetuates inequality (2005, pp. 13-14). However, Mason points out that it is in the area of practice, not principles, where critical theory falls short, and that a pedagogy intended to be emancipatory should remain committed to critical theory (2005, p. 315).

### 3.3 Critical language awareness

Critical language awareness (sometimes termed “critical linguistics”) is concerned mainly with the analysis of discourse to expose the underlying power relations implicit in them. Critical discourse analysis (CDA) is necessary for describing, interpreting, analyzing and critiquing social life as reflected in text (Luke, 1997). CDA is therefore concerned with studying and analysing written texts and spoken words to reveal the discursive sources of power, dominance, inequality, and bias and how these sources are initiated, maintained, reproduced, and transformed within social, economic, political, and historical contexts (van Dijk, 1988).

Critical discourse analysis (CDA) explores systematically relationships between discursive practices, texts, and events and the wider social and cultural structures, relations, and processes (McGregor, 2003). There are inherent relationships between the spoken or written word and the actions demanded
from these words. The correlations between these two (the words and the resultant actions), it is hoped, would result in equity, justice, freedom, peace, and hope – the betterment of the human family (McGregor, 2003). CDA strives to explore how these relationships are a factor in securing power and hegemony, and it draws attention to power imbalances, social inequities, non-democratic practices, and other injustices in the hope of spurring people to corrective actions (Fairclough, 1993).

By unmasking the written word we can bring about a different perspective and a deeper understanding of whose interest is being served. McGregor (2003) inform us that discourse analysis challenges us to move from seeing language as abstract to seeing our words as having meaning in a particular historical, social, and political condition. Our words are never neutral. CDA attempts to unite and determine the relationship of the three levels of analysis, namely, the actual text; the discursive practices; and the larger social context that bears upon the text and the discursive practice (Fairclough, 1989; McGregor, 2003). In so doing CDA helps make clear the connections between the use of language and the exercise of power in the above mentioned settings, namely, historical, social, and political settings.

3.4 The critical language stance adopted in this study

While critical linguistics tends to focus on the analysis of texts (Fairclough, 1992; 1995), it is also concerned with relations of power which exist between different dialects of the same language or between completely different languages (Woolard and Schieffelin, 1994). Thus, while this study is still considered to fall within critical language theory, it focuses on power relationships between languages, in other words, how a hegemony has been set in place with English which in South Africa displaces the numerical and political superiority of indigenous languages combined (and separately, in KwaZulu-Natal). This is not to say that certain dialects of English are not more powerful than others, but that there is evidence of an overwhelming desire amongst ESL parents to have their students educated with English as MOI, which is viewed as “liberating” them by leading to academic and, later, career
success. It is ironic that a recently-liberated indigenous population should choose to disregard liberation government legislation specifically designed to respect indigenous languages in favour of a once-hated colonial imposition. For an educator faced with the problems of dealing with this paradoxical state of affairs, a critical stance which interrogates the issue of what actually constitutes disempowerment is the most congruent to the researcher's position of wishing to safeguard the interests of learners, teachers and the school community. It is not an issue of which language should be the MOI, but of considering the consequences of such a choice, and enabling parents, in particular, to make informed decisions based on the projected consequences.

It is the researcher's contention that education should be empowering and emancipatory: it is of no use for an individual to be educated in a specific field if that education is not going to be useful in giving power to the individual to interact with the world. Parents of ESL learners are opting to empower their children by choosing English as a MOI at schools in KwaZulu-Natal and globally. Habermas' theory of knowledge is apt in this perspective as it grounds the researcher's claims of “education for global integration” (Fairclough, 1993; Held, 1990). The education that a child receives is to ensure he/she is able to fit into society, locally or internationally. In this respect the language of teaching and learning is pivotal to the extent of which the child is prepared for this integration.

As a South African of Indian origin the researcher was immersed in an English medium environment from birth. Both his parents were fluent in many of the indigenous Indian languages. He was not exposed to any of them, as his parents wanted him to become fluent in the “oppressor's” medium of communication, English. This played to his advantage, as he mastered the English language and is now fluent in it. He has become empowered through this medium and is proud to call it his newly adopted mother-tongue. Colonial pressures to learn the “oppressor's language” did have advantages, as it was, and still is a global language. There are thousands of people of this generation who are in a similar position.
The cost of mastering the global lingua franca, English, at the expense of losing one’s indigenous mother-tongue is a reality. Losing this indigenous mother-tongue did not prevent the researcher from following and upholding his culture as an “Indian”. He still observes and follows the necessary practices that are required of him as an Indian. This reality of initially losing his original mother-tongue was realized late in the process of mastering the English language. Policy formulators and politicians are afraid that this may be the scenario in South Africa in the near future. The researcher did, nonetheless, take it upon himself to learn the mother-tongue of his fore-fathers at the late age of twenty-seven years. This has been a success as he was by then motivated and determined to achieve a basic understanding of the language. Other South Africans who are non-native speakers of English could follow this example of mastering their mother-tongue, after initially having given in to the pressure to adopt English as lingua franca; they were obliged to do so because of its hegemonic force, imposed by an ideology governing language use, as will be described below.

### 3.5 The concepts of hegemony and ideology

The concepts of ideology, language ideology and hegemony will be discussed in terms of their relevance to this research.

#### 3.5.1 Ideology

It must be stressed that ideology is not a simple or static social phenomenon: Schieffelen and Woolard comment on the “multiplicity, contradiction, and contention among ideologies within particular societies”(1998, p. vii). While conceding that ideology is a contentious term, with little agreement as to its precise definition, Woolard identifies four common characteristics (Schieffelen and Woolard, 1998, pp. 5-7):

1. The first common strand is an understanding of ideology as ideational or conceptual, referring to mental phenomena; ideology has to do with consciousness, subjective representations, beliefs, ideas. …
2. A second, and the most widely agreed-upon, strand is a conceptualization of ideology as derived from, rooted in, reflective of, or responsive to the experience or interests of a particular social position, even though ideology so often (in some views, always) represents itself as universally true. …

3. The third major strand of ideology, often seen as following from the second, is a direct link to inhabitable positions of power - social, political, economic. …

4. A fourth major strand in the text of the ideology concept, closely related but not identical to the third, is precisely the last one pointed to by Thompson: that of distortion, illusion, error, mystification, or rationalization. …

These characteristics or ideology are directly relevant to this research, as follows. The mental phenomena (1.) which motivate parents to choose English as MOI are the focus of this study; the exigencies experienced by ESL learners as a disempowered social group (2.) as a result of their parents’ choice is the researcher’s concern; an attempt is made to identify the political and economic forces (3.) which are thought to influence parents’ decisions; and the researcher interrogates the rationalizing (4.) of these decisions as necessarily being “good” for one’s children.

3.5.2 Language ideology

Woolard refers to language ideology as: “Representations, whether explicit or implicit, that construe the intersection of language and human beings in a social world” (1998, p. 3). According to Woolard (1998, p. 4), “Linguistic or language ideologies have been defined most broadly as ‘shared bodies of commonsense notions about the nature of language in the world’ (Rumsey 1990, p. 346).” However, Woolard points out that language ideologies are not only about language (1998, p. 3):

Rather, they envision and enact ties of language to identity, to aesthetics, to morality, and to epistemology. Through such linkages, they underpin not only linguistic form and use but also the very notion of the person and the social group, as well as such fundamental social institutions as religious ritual, child socialization, gender relations, the nation-state, *schooling*, and law (my emphasis).
It must be emphasised that these ideas are “self evident” (Heath, 1989, p. 3) to the people who hold them, i.e. “obvious” to the extent that their veracity is not interrogated or questioned, nor are the underlying relations of power identified so that these ideas – and the social practices they inform - might be challenged.

According to Woolard and Schieffelen:

The new direction in research on linguistic ideology has ... moved away from seeing ideology as a homogeneous cultural template, now relating it as a process involving struggles among multiple conceptualizations and demanding the recognition of variation and contestation within a community as well as contradictions within individuals (1994, p. 71).

This has resonances with the kinds of contradictions the researcher has noted in KwaZulu-Natal, where parents choose as “power language” an option which not only contradicts the liberation government’s attempts to empower indigenous language speakers but which is manifestly disempowering large numbers of L2 learners in schools.

3.5.3 Hegemony

The earliest use of the concept “hegemony” is attributed to Gramsci, who used it to indicate the power of the state to rule by ideology as well as force (Gramsci, 1999, pp. 506-507) although he also commented on the “growing strength of American capitalism and its increasing hegemony over Europe” (1999, p. 102), which suggests implicit, rather than overt power. According to Philips, it was Williams who was instrumental in separating the concept of hegemony from state - or any institutional - control:

It is in this context of having loosened ideology from any privileged institutional moorings that Williams takes up the concept of hegemony. For Williams, the meaning of hegemony in Gramsci's writings was that of lived reality and practical consciousness, the unarticulated experiences of domination and subordination of different classes. This meant, of course, that hegemony was experienced differently by people in different structural positions (1998, p. 215).

Both Bourdieu (1991) and Foucault's (1986) concept of ideology was that it was, like that of William’s’ “unarticulated” and implicit: Bourdieu’s concept of
“habitus” (2007) highlights the implicit nature of hegemony, while Foucault’s emphasis is on a non-localised domination by powerful discourses (Taylor, 1984). According to Philips, neither Williams, Bourdieu nor Foucault viewed the operation of “ideological hegemony” as being located in specific institutional contexts (1998, p. 216): it is rather a pervasive force which can operate (contested or uncontested) in a number of different contexts.

3.6 The power of English as global lingua franca

This research deals with the power relations associated with the use of English as a universal language of communication. In unpacking this trend of thought, the researcher delineates the status English has achieved in society over the ages. There are various reasons for this elevated status of using English as the common lingua franca of the world, as outlined in Chapter 2. Those individuals and/or communities who have proved to have a good grasp of the English language, in whatever variation, are deemed to be empowered and progressive by those ESL users who do not have a good understanding of the language.

In many countries where English is neither the official language nor the mother-tongue of the country, English is taught to its citizens by specialist English teachers from other countries. Countries such as China and Japan are typical examples of this. Hamel (2003) informs us that this linguistic globalisation will result in the possible death of about 90% of the languages of the world by the end of the twenty-first century. McConnell (2003) affirms this, stating that some 6000 or more languages of the world are likely to become extinct. Many countries see English as a dominating language of power in the world of manufacturing, trade, and commerce today.

The hegemony of the English language is perceptible in its transformation of the many communities and countries around the world. These countries are opting to adopt the English language in part or whole in order to prove to the other communities and countries that they are empowered and progressive, and not disempowering their citizens (Corson, 1999; Shin, 2008). The use of English as a medium of communication on a local and global scale seems to afford its
users more power than those who are not as adept at using the language. These power relations experienced by the use of English as a medium of communication are cross-examined using a specific research approach. In so doing the researcher finds it appropriate to use critical language theory as the approach from which to position this research. This approach brings to the fore the power relations within societies and countries in relation to the lingua franca of that society/country. These power relations clarify the degree to which the lingua franca used empowers or disempowers the citizens of a country, especially if English is not the mother tongue.

3.6.1 The dilemma of empowerment versus disempowerment

The “empowerment” versus “disempowerment” of its citizens has been an age old dilemma that many countries and communities have had to deal with for centuries. In order to contextualize these terms in the study it is imperative first to understand their literal meanings. Empowerment is defined as to “give power” or to “make powerful” (Fowler and Fowler, 1974). Disempowerment, on the other hand, is “to take away power from” or to “make to feel inferior”. These terminologies are further unpacked in the context of this study.

Empowerment may have different meanings to different people. Those in authority may view empowerment of the oppressed and dominated classes as a means to further their own goals. Others may view empowerment as the “development of people’s capacities to explore the full range of what is possible within the given order of discourse, without actually changing it” (Fairclough, 1989, pp. 216-217). I would view empowerment to be a means of giving confidence to the dominated or oppressed classes. Empowerment would also give these oppressed people the opportunity to show their abilities in the community in which they interact. Alternatively, disempowerment would be used by the ruling class to make the oppressed or dominated citizens feel inferior and disenchanted. Friedrich Engels also used the term “false consciousness”, which referred to the misinterpretation of dominant social relations in the consciousness of the subordinate class (Held, 1990; Truchot, 2003).
Parents of ESL learners globally are generally of the view that their children would be empowered if they were taught only through the medium of English at primary school level (Kaiser, 2003; Mackey, 2003). This is evident in the mass exodus of learners over the past two decades from isiZulu medium schools to English medium schools in KwaZulu-Natal. However, many parents in KwaZulu-Natal are also opting to maintain mother-tongue instruction being offered to their children at primary school level. This may be done by choice or they may be obliged to do so because of circumstance. Reasons for the selection of mother-tongue MOI may vary from the lack of choice to the inability to transport their children to English medium schools to a desire to prevent their children from being influenced by the negative aspects of the western world. However, the third reason offered by parents could be seen as form of disempowerment of the learner. While it is understandable for parents to want to keep their children in a cocoon for as long as possible, safe from the evils of the world, this action would also prevent their children from being able to communicate with other communities, both nationally and internationally, as the national and international language of communication is English (Schlyter, 2003; Truchot, 2003).

This hegemony of the English language is one of the factors that is noted as an empowering/disempowering mechanism for the learner in the primary school environment. Parents, educators and academics generally agree that high scholastic performance is empowering to the learner and low scholastic achievement disempowering. This view is endorsed by society by virtue of the fact that, if a learner achieves a tertiary qualification then only would she/he be viewed as a successful citizen. Yet it is well known that progressive entrepreneurs, politicians and academics of the calibre of Tony Factor, Jacob Zuma and Albert Einstein did not perform very well scholastically. One of the greatest leaders of the world, Sir Winston Churchill, was a dunce at school, though he was always excellent in English. Although they were all non-performers in the classroom, they have all made positive contributions in their respective fields. These citizens were disempowered by default in school, by virtue of being non-achievers and slow learners. Yet they overcame this
deficiency, and in their interactions with the world they are noted as empowered and successful. Thus the actual MOI is not the only factor that empowers or disempowers a learner in terms of long-term career prospects, as, even if use of English as MOI led to improvement academic performance, there is no guarantee that success at school is the key to worldly success.

The MOI used, is, however, a primary factor of the empowerment/disempowerment dilemma as far as academic performance within schools in KwaZulu-Natal is concerned. Those learners who are prevented from progressing to the next grade at primary school level on the basis of the lack of adequate grasp and understanding the MOI are also disempowered. They are made to feel stupid and incompetent amongst their peers, although they are eager to learn. They cannot achieve their desired results at school. They cannot do what they aspire to do. They come to school with certain expectations but are inhibited because of language, the MOI. This disempowers the ESL learner at primary school level.

3.6.2 The reflection of the self in relation to others

Bhaktin’s epistemologies reflected on the self in relation to others. He believed that every person is influenced by others in an inescapable and intertwined way (Emerson and Morson, 2005). He also gave much of his attention to the structuralist theory of language. He questioned “how we ever manage to communicate with one another at all” (Emerson and Morson, 2005; Honeycutt, 1994). Bhaktin was, to a great extent, influenced by the Marxist philosophy of language. In this study he placed much emphasis on trying to understand the mechanisms which enabled people to be able to interact with each other, especially in crossing language barriers. He believed that people, societies and countries could not live in isolation from each other: they needed each other in order to interact and be.

In so doing, the diverse linguistic communities of the world would need a common lingua franca as a means to communicate with each other. These communities can be intertwined with and influenced by each other only if they
are understood by each other. More notable interactions would be in the trade, commerce, technology, science and manufacturing sectors. The European Union (EU) notes the use of eleven official languages within its jurisdiction, English being the most popularly used (Truchot, 2003). This change occurred from 1973 when the United Kingdom and Ireland joined the EU. Bhaktin further explains in Fettes (1999) that language is a “centripetal force” in society, as it unites the countries of the world in one unified global village.

3.6.3 The theory of history and power

Giroux is of the view that any discourse about identity invariably reflects upon an analysis of history and power (Giroux, 1994). He also comments that most of the education that matters today is taking place on a global scale. Our education is influenced to a large extent by the technological advancement of communication. To this extent our dressing, eating habits, walking, speaking and learning are rapidly influenced by Western culture through popular western icons. Some of these icons are Michael Jackson, Lionel Ritchie, Oprah Winfrey and Will Smith. Giroux (in Moreno-Lopez, 2005) states that the application of alternative pedagogies which might help to question the power of the dominant classes results in the creation of new collective futures for teachers and students. This is the current challenge for the transforming education system in South Africa regarding MOI. Educators are attempting to redefine the relationship between the culture of society and the politics of the country in order to extend the basis for a transformative and an emancipative practice (Giroux, 1994).

The end goal of education is to encourage students to move beyond their known environment so as to expand their range of possibilities (Giroux, 2001; Grande, 2008). Educators are therefore urged to empower learners adequately so that they might fit into the global arena with relative ease. This empowerment would mean that learners would need to be qualified in the respective field as required and to know the global lingua franca (English) well enough to be able to communicate readily with others. This learning for global integration ought to be a norm in schools in KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) as well. Mother-tongue instruction in isiZulu, which is currently offered in many schools
in KZN, empowers learners to communicate with ease in KZN and a few other provinces in South Africa, but not globally. Policy formulators and politicians should rethink the extent to which they want to empower/disempower the citizens of KZN and South Africa. This should determine the language policy for education in the country, and not political idealism.

3.6.4 The construction of knowledge theory

Torres states that “Freire’s global purpose transcends a criticism of the current educative forms and goes on to virtually become a criticism of culture and the construction of knowledge” (Torres, 2009). Freire is also concerned with the problems of education from a political perspective. He is of the belief that those who have political hegemony control the type of education the masses receive, and also dictate the MOI in which this education must be offered. Freire further asserts that “the schooling system does not change society; instead, society can change the schooling system” (Freire and Faundez, 1985). Here he makes reference to “the crucial role the educational system may play in a cultural revolution” (Torres, 2009). Freire implies that “cultural revolution” is the conscious participation of the masses in changing the political ideologies of the ruling class.

The researcher is of the belief that this stance by Freire could be related to the revolution staged by the students during the “new protests” in the “1976 uprising” in Soweto, South Africa (Bonner and Segal, 1998; Dansay, 1996; Frederikse, 2001). The students protested against Afrikaans being used as a MOI in a sector of the marginalized community. These protests were seen as protests against cultural and linguistic inequalities in the South African schooling system. This reappearance of protests against the MOI could be realized in South Africa in future years as well. These “new protests” could possibly be for English to be acknowledged as the official MOI in all South African primary schools.

Freire offers a solution to avert the above. He says that there must be collaboration between the ruling class and its subordinates (Torres, 2009).
Government must take note of the education the masses want and need in order to prevent the recurrence of the “1976 uprising.” In this current democracy in South Africa the ruling class and policy developers must take heed of the cries of the masses in lieu of their actions of mass movements to English medium schools. They silently demand an education through the medium of English for their children, yet many of them still communicate with each other in their mother tongue outside the school.

### 3.6.5 The influences of dominant class structures in society

The dominant classes of society play an ideological role in the reproduction of social inequalities as their rules and customs function to maintain the hegemony that serves their social and economic interests (Moreno-Lopez, 2005). This further assists the ruling class in keeping the various factions of the dominated class divided against each other in the interest of the ruling class hegemony, as was the case in South Africa during the apartheid era (Republic of South Africa, 1953; 1958). This is also evident in the current political climate in South Africa. The ruling class advocates a “one nation” policy, yet it promotes eleven official languages (Pretorius and Lemmer, 1998; Republic of South Africa, 1996a). This, in the researcher’s opinion, has caused chaos in schools across South Africa. School Governing Bodies (SGBs) are confused as to which language to choose as the MOI. If an indigenous African language is chosen as MOI, then learners would leave in droves to English medium schools, to receive a “better education.” If English is chosen then they must face the consequences of the lack of adequate teaching resources and the lack of suitably qualified human resources, especially in rural and township schools. They are caught between these two evils.

Because learning is an irreversible process, habitus acquired within the family forms the basis of the reception and assimilation of the classroom message, and the habitus acquired at school conditions the level of reception and degree of assimilation of the messages produced and diffused by the culture industry (Bourdieu and Passeron, 1990, p. 43).

Schools are one of the several institutions that serve to bring about a hierarchical social structure through the transmission of “habitus”, or the
inculcation of particular characters in students, teachers, administrators and politicians that engender explicit power practices. The increase in the number of English medium schools, especially in townships, would transfer the power enjoyed by the policy formulators and politicians to schools and social structures. This power referred to is the power to select and implement the MOI for learners at primary schools in KwaZulu-Natal. The current power relation evident is that of the ruling party ideology being imposed on schools through legislated policies. Schools are required to implement mother-tongue instruction from grade one through to grade three. This ruling is, however, flouted at many schools in KwaZulu-Natal.

3.7 Varieties of English

As Wake points out:

...while all speakers (players) in the classroom appear to be speaking the same language (English), indeed very diverse manifestations of the language are present. Thus, within the idea of “one” language, several varieties exist (Wake, 2005, p. 1).

There are a number of dialects and variations of the English language in use, with Indian English, African English, American English, and British English used globally (Fairclough, 1993, p. 202). However, as Fairclough comments: “It is still predominantly British and American English that are taught to millions of people in language schools throughout the world” (1993, p. 202). In adapting the English language to other communities’ practical use, the hegemony of the language is maintained. This power that English possesses is evident in the international interactions between individuals of different countries.

According to Saussure, one aspect of the standardization of a language is that everyone uses it and that everyone holds it in high esteem (Fairclough, 1989, p. 22). In the South African contexts, researchers view standardized dialects of the English language as a more accepted form of the language (Kaschula and Anthonissen, 1995). This form of the English language would be used more often in schools, in official documents and in broadcasting. These speakers of the accepted form of English are seen as educated and developed people.
They are also more likely to be appointed to influential positions of employment. In the school environment, teachers take more notice of learners and parents who use this accepted form of English with great proficiency. This is the obvious power possessed by the use of English at an acceptable level.

This hegemony of English is promoted at Further Education and Training (FET) colleges and in universities in South Africa in order to maintain global standards of tertiary education. English is popularly used as MOI at most tertiary institutions in South Africa today. Only previous Afrikaans medium institutions have switched to dual medium instruction. In this way they preserve the use of Afrikaans as MOI. Kaschula and Anthonissen (1995) are of the view that if a language is afforded official status, the mother-tongue speakers of that language would be particularly advantaged. This research aims to challenge this view. This study is based on the hypothesis that English is the dominant language in South Africa and, as such, is the only feasible option for the lingua franca of the country. The census statistics of South Africa have indicated that English is widely used as the first or second language by a vast majority of its citizens in this country, especially those younger than 40 years (Statistics South Africa, 1989; Statistics South Africa, 2003). The researcher is of the opinion that dual medium schooling at primary school level would be an effective measure to maintain cultural and linguistic harmony in the new democratic South Africa.

Van Dijk is of a similar view in his development of the “social-cognitive” model (Kaschula and Anthonissen, 1995). This model, as Van Dijk elaborates, has three dimensions, namely, text, discourse practice and socio-cultural practice. The author states that social relations and processes are accomplished through routine practice. Routine practice ensures that the language of popular use is learnt in the shortest possible time to ensure effective communication across different cultural and linguistic groups. Learning and using this popular language ensures that the user obtains and maintains certain power relations. Power relations manifest in these cross linguistic interactions. These power relations are evident in the day-to-day social practices, for example, in performing one’s job or a visit to the doctor (Fairclough, 1992). The mother-
tongue speakers of the language in use would be at an advantage in their command and understanding of this language. This may be the scenario of second language English speakers in South Africa, who are introduced to English at a late age of nine or ten. They are taught English as a subject but interaction remains in the mother-tongue. In so doing they do not gain the confidence to use the English language with relative ease. This practice shifts power to mother-tongue English speakers, who have enjoyed this power from before during the apartheid era. I believe that if one wants to see a clear shift in power relations, than, one need to acknowledge that a change in the current educational context is imminent. A change from mother-tongue instruction, to English as a medium of instruction in the foundation phase would help in shifting power from English first language users to English second language users.

3.8 Conclusion

It has been shown that the researcher’s position is congruent with his own experience both as an individual faced with the problem of adapting to an ex-colonial lingua franca and as an educator faced with the problem of accommodating linguistic diversity in schools. While this study falls within the critical language theory, it has been shown that the focus is on the hegemonic influence of one language and its impact on schooling, rather than analysis of specific discourse or discourse practices. The terms ideology and hegemony have been examined in terms of their relevance for this study. The difficulties of defining precisely what disempowerment might constitute have been explored in connection with the paradoxical nature of the swing towards an ex-colonial language when the power relations imposed by the colonial and apartheid eras have to all intents and purposes been reversed by the liberation government’s legislation. Finally, the practicality of using English as lingua franca, and, de facto official language, has been emphasised.
Chapter 4
METHODOLOGY

4.1. Introduction

This chapter informs the reader how the research process was conducted and how progress was recorded and monitored at the various stages of the research. Social research is never entirely free of bias, cannot always be conducted in a controlled environment, does not always adhere to a systematic pattern as was initially planned by the researcher and is not always objective (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007), and there were complexities in this research. This chapter serves as a guide for the researcher and reader as to how the research process was eventually accomplished. It describes the research approach, methodology, research design, study approach, instruments used, sample, and method of collection and analysis of the data for the study. The methodology used is shown to constitute a pragmatic approach developed by the researcher to assist him to accumulate rich data for the study and to accomplish the desired outcomes of the research. The various instruments used in this research are interrogated and discussed. The researcher also elaborates on the effectiveness of using these instruments in acquiring the rich data required for answering the critical questions of the study. The rationale for selecting the sampling techniques utilized is supplied. Thereafter, the method of data collection and analysis is discussed. The chapter concludes with a discussion on the limitations and ethical considerations of the research.

4.2 Mixed method approach

The debate over which methodology best satisfied research in the social and behavioural sciences gave rise to pragmatism, which has been described as the use of both positivism and constructivism during the research process (Aitchison, 2004; Creswell, 2009). One may, however, be used more than the other; or they could be given equal status. This was the official birth and
recognition of the mixed methodology in research, although research using both methodologies did exist in the past to a limited extent (Freeden, 2003; Makanda, 2009; Seargeant, 2009). The researcher is of the opinion that the use of both methodologies was evident mainly in the form of triangulation of data collected; however, the triangulation in this study was conducted in the main using one methodology (i.e. quantitative).

The concept of “needs” is currently driving much of the development and evaluative effort in educational research (Aitchison, 2003). Pragmatists observe a need to diversify research and research practices in the social and behavioural sciences: they are more acquiescent with regard to modification and adaptation of research techniques. The pragmatist approach has been applied by the researcher in conducting this research. The pragmatists’ concern is with the application – what works – and solutions to problems (Creswell, 2009). Creswell elaborates further that researchers who use this approach emphasize the research problem and use all possible approaches available to understand the problem and to find a suitable solution. It was thought that the use of two methodologies (i.e. quantitative and qualitative) would provide an abundance of valuable data for the study and would augment the outcomes of the research. The data obtained from the use of one methodology may be supported by the other, or may even contrast with the other.

4.3 Research methodology

A quantitative study was first planned, a survey using questionnaires. Quantitative research is a means of testing objective theories by examining the relationships among variables (Aitchison, 2004; Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011; Creswell, 2009; Schumacher and McMillan, 1997). Quantitative researchers require knowledge of a range of very precise methods and procedures, all of which are associated with specific terminology (Makanda, 2009). However, sole use of quantitative methodology would also not suffice in answering the critical questions in this study. Qualitative research methodology provides a means of exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or
groups ascribe to a social or human problem (Aitchison, 2004; Creswell, 2009; Schumacher and McMillan, 1997; Tuckman, 1988). It also allows for the triangulation of data.

In order to triangulate the data gathered with the quantitative methodology used, it was imperative to make use of the qualitative data, thus leading to a mixed methodology in this study. The use of the mixed methods has become increasingly popular as a means to harness the strengths of both quantitative and qualitative approaches, to triangulate data and to illuminate statistical findings (Makanda, 2009). Using mixed methods drew on the strengths of both the quantitative and qualitative methodologies in order to develop this study. Within the mixed methodology there are four strategies, namely, the sequential explanatory strategy, the sequential exploratory strategy, the sequential mixed methods, and the sequential transformative strategy (Creswell, 2009; Guba and Lincoln, 2005). Sequential mixed methods are those procedures in which the researcher seeks to elaborate on or expand on the findings of one methodology with another methodology (Creswell, 2009).

The researcher opted to use the sequential mixed method methodology as this best satisfied the needs of this study. The sequential mixed methodology contains strands from the quantitative research methodology and the qualitative research methodology. It has a rationale of incorporating both strands in understanding the research problem and answering the critical questions (Creswell, 2009; Guba and Lincoln, 2005). In keeping with this methodology the researcher first conducted a quantitative study, a survey. He then triangulated the data collected using the qualitative study approach, namely, observations and interviews. The sequential mixed methodology is used to add to the original body of knowledge obtained from the use of the first methodology. This methodology enhances the research, provides rich data for the study, and provides appropriate answers to the critical questions.
4.4 Research design

A research design can be defined as a plan or blueprint of how one intends to conduct the research. The metaphor of building a house, used by Babbie and Mouton, elucidates more clearly the term research design (Babbie, Mouton, Payze, Vorster, Boshoff and Prozesky, 2001, pp. 74-75). The research design focuses on the end-product, namely, the kind of study being planned and the kind of results which are aimed at (Babbie et al., 2001; Cohen et al., 2011; Schumacher and McMillan, 1997). The research questions and the problem being investigated are the point of departure. Research designs are classified into two types: empirical studies and non-empirical studies. Empirical studies involve the study of “real-life” problems, whereas non-empirical studies involve the study of “entities” in the world (Babbie et al., 2001). In order to resolve empirical questions we have either to collect new data or analyse existing available data. Non-empirical questions would include a study of scientific concepts, or competing theories. In this research there is no study of scientific concepts or competing theories undertaken: this is a study or examination of “real-life” problems.

In the empirical work an investigation was carried out into the choices parents of English second language (ESL) learners have to make in choosing the appropriate school for their children. In this study the researcher made use of primary data: all data were collected “first-hand” by the researcher. By using primary data, he ensured that all data received were free of bias and relevant to answering the research questions (in social research this is not always possible to achieve.) This use of primary data also assisted the researcher to maintain some degree of control over the data collected, both in quantity, quality and type. The following data collection techniques were used: survey, observations and interviews. These research techniques are discussed in more detail later in the following sections.
4.5 Study approach

4.5.1 The exploratory approach

The study approach could also be identified as the purpose of the study. The researcher’s rationale in conducting this research was to explore the topic and to come to a logical conclusion. The researcher, therefore, approached this study from an exploratory sphere of influence. An exploratory study is conducted to investigate a topic, or to provide a basic knowledge on the topic under review. The exploratory domain is applied here in order to satisfy the researcher’s interest and desire for a better perception of the study, to explicate the central concepts and constructs of the study, and to develop a new hypothesis about an existing phenomenon (Babbie et al., 2001). There are various other domains from which research could have been conducted. They are the descriptive, explanation and correlation approaches to research. The descriptive approach presupposes that the data is already there. The purpose from a social scientific position would be to describe the situation and events as is evident from the available data (Babbie et al., 2001). The purpose of the explanation approach to social scientific research is to explain effects in great detail. Basic tenet of an explanatory study would be to indicate the causality between the various variables or events (Schumacher and McMillan, 1997). The last approach to social scientific research is correlation studies, the purpose of which is to show the causal relationship between two or more variables (Schumacher and McMillan, 1997; Tuckman, 1988). These latter approaches were, however, not considered suitable in reaching a logical conclusion to this study.

The researcher selected the exploratory domain because he wanted to know the levels and degrees of support there are within a community to assist parents of ESL learners to make the most suitable choice of schooling for their children. Using the exploratory domain, he also wished to formulate a model to assist parents to make an acceptable choice of medium of instruction (MOI) to develop the learning of their children at primary school level. In an exploratory study the researcher reviews related literature on the topic and conducts a survey of people who have had practical experience of the problem being
studied. This is applicable to the study undertaken by the researcher. Bearing the above discussion in mind, the domain selected would provide rich data for the research.

4.5.2 The survey method

This study employed the survey as the core method for collecting the primary data. They can also be used for launching dialogue, facilitating conversation and fostering negotiations in the face of formerly impenetrable barriers (Granville, Janks, Mphahlele, Reed, Watson, Joseph and Ramani, 1998b). Surveys are not new as a technique for conducting research. The survey as a research technique is as old as the Bible – or even older (Babbie et al., 2001; Cohen et al., 2011). It is mentioned in the Book of Numbers 26: 1-2 in the Old Testament, where Moses and his assistants were summoned by God to take a census of the people of Israel who were twenty years and older (Zastrow, 2009). A survey as a technique of collecting information is characterised by the form of data collected and the method of analysis of this data (Tollefson and Tsui, 2009).

In a survey information is collected on the same variable or characteristic from two or more cases/respondents. This information is tabulated on a grid. In a survey the researcher is interested in the cause of the phenomena and not merely in compiling statistics and graphs. He would also form causal relationships by observing similarities and differences of subjects, namely, grouping subjects according to similar traits and comparing them to subjects with differing traits.

The survey method of data collection was chosen as the researcher intended to collate data from a large number of subjects for this study on some common variables. The data received would be primary data as it would be sourced directly from the respondents. The data would not be manipulated by the researcher, as the respondents would fill in the questionnaires in the absence of the researcher. There would, however, be a low control by the researcher on the type of data received. This was because it was anticipated that some of the
respondents would be semi-literate or illiterate, some might not fully understand the questions, while others might misinterpret questions.

4.5.3 Cross-section study

The time dimension is of critical importance in obtaining salient data for a study when conducting research in the social sciences. A researcher can either conduct a longitudinal study or a cross-sectional study. A longitudinal study is when data is collected from the same cases at two or more points in time (Schumacher and McMillan, 1997; Tollefson and Tsui, 2009; Tuckman, 1988). This permits the researcher to observe or collect information by other means over an extended period of time (Babbie et al., 2001).

A cross-sectional study is conducted at a single point in time (Babbie et al., 2001; Schumacher and McMillan, 1997; Tollefson and Tsui, 2009). The data collection and analysis is conducted concurrently during that specific period while the research process is still clear in the researcher’s mind. Salient information could be added to transcripts of interviews if done immediately after the interview, field notes could be amended and missing information added, and observation schedules could also be updated. This study type is when the phenomenon under research is analysed at one given time. Babbie et al. (2001) further explain that exploratory and descriptive studies are often cross-sectional. The researcher was hopeful that a cross-sectional study would present rich and abundant data. The views of parents at one given time are of paramount importance to achieving the desired outcomes of the research and in answering the critical research questions.

4.6 Research instruments

4.6.1 Written questionnaires

A questionnaire is a means of getting direct responses from participants in order to inform and answer the critical questions of the study. A questionnaire could be structured and compiled in three ways, namely, by print, by personal interviews, or by telephone interviews (Hossain and Tollefson, 2009;
Schumacher and McMillan, 1997; Sonntag, 2009). The researcher selected the written questionnaire to extrapolate primary data for this study as it operationalizes the variables under analysis (Babbie et al., 2001). There are various advantages of utilising a written questionnaire for this study.

Written questionnaires are relatively cost effective when compared to the other two forms of questionnaires listed above. The written questionnaire also avoids researcher bias and intimidation of respondents. These often affect responses from participants and may alter the outcomes of the research. Written questionnaires place less pressure on respondents for an immediate response; they may sometimes wish to ponder a question before answering. Respondents have a greater sense of anonymity when answering written questionnaires, as they are completing them in the absence of the researcher (Babbie et al., 2001; Cohen et al., 2011). Responses are more likely to be open and truthful, especially to sensitive questions; respondents would not feel intimidated into providing answers that the researcher would want to hear.

The written questionnaires were administered to learners to forward to their parents. Completed questionnaires were sent by the parents with their children to be given to the class teacher. These were then forwarded to the researcher. This process of issuing, filling in and collecting of questionnaires took approximately two weeks. Learners were given incentives for bringing in the completed questionnaires from their parents. Class teachers were also awarded incentives for adhering to the two week time frame for collecting the written questionnaires.

The questionnaire issued to respondents comprised in the main questions using the Likert scale. Rensis Likert developed this scaling method, which typically uses attitude statements with the standardised “strongly agree, agree, disagree, and strongly disagree” format (Tollefson and Tsui, 2009). This format is relatively easier than open-ended questions for respondents to fill in. The rate of returns of questionnaires tends to be much greater if the Likert type questions are used, as compared to the case where most of the questions are open ended questions (Babbie et al., 2001). Open-ended questions require time-
consuming answers, and respondents tend to disregard these types of written questionnaires. The researcher also used questions that allowed for “yes” and “no” answers, as well as a few open ended questions. Open ended questions were used as they allow respondents to answer freely and without inhibition. They also tend to afford respondents the opportunity to give vent to their feelings, and valuable data could thus be forthcoming by means of open ended questions.

4.6.2 Interviews

Face-to-face interviews are the most common method of data collection in South Africa, in view of the low level of literacy amongst the population (Babbie et al., 2001). During an interview the interviewer is able to explain the questions to the respondents if the questions seem ambiguous. The level of the language can be changed to suit individual interviewees. The interviewer is also able to probe and obtain a deeper meaning to critical questions. Probing could also assist the researcher to gain more clarity on vague answers from respondents. One the most important advantages of face-to-face interviews is the high response rate from participants (Cohen et al., 2011; Hossain and Tollefson, 2009). The interviewer is able to establish a rapport with and motivate the respondent during an interview. Barbour and Schostak (2003) are of the view that “trust” and “meaning” are critical concepts in an interview. There must be trust for meaningful interaction to take place. In face-to-face interviews the interviewer is able to deduce if the respondent has grasped the meaning of the questions which was intended by the researcher. Interviews yield rich insights into people’s experiences, opinions, aspirations, attitudes and feelings (Sonntag, 2009). It was thought that leaders of schools would afford this study rich data based on the latter.

As a consequence, two principals were interviewed from schools where the majority of learners admitted were English second language learners. Both schools offered English as the medium of instruction (MOI). One of the two schools changed its MOI from isiZulu to English a year ago. The other school offered English as the MOI from inception, that is, for over 20 years. The
researcher set an initial appointment with each of the two principals. At the first meeting the consent to conduct research was obtained from both principals. The researcher discussed the format of the research and the types of questions that would be asked. He also outlined the type of data which were required for the study. Both principals were eager to participate in the research and were also anxious to read the analysis and recommendations of the study. Participants were assured of anonymity and that research ethics would be adhered to at all times. The respondents were also informed that they would be allowed to withdraw from the research process at any time they wished.

4.6.3 Observations

When doing participant observation, one is faced with the difficulty of simultaneously being one of the members of the group and also observing everyone else from a researcher’s point of view (Babbie et al., 2001; Schumacher and McMillan, 1997). In so doing the researcher portrays an emic (i.e. insider) view of the study at the principal research site. What is observed at the site depends to a very great extent on how the observer conceptualizes the world and his place within it (Prah, 2008). In observing the participants, the researcher foregrounds his experience at the site (25 years) and is absorbed into the culture of the group. The disadvantage of this is that the researcher may be distracted from the research purpose by tasks given to him by the group (Prah, 2008). Note-making becomes much more difficult and may have to be done after the event. The strength of this method of data collection is its ability to describe naturally occurring events in natural settings (Hossain and Tollefson, 2009). One major advantage of observations is that they can be done at anytime and anywhere (Babbie et al., 2001; Cohen et al., 2011). It is vital that detailed notes of the researcher’s empirical findings and interpretations thereof are maintained. Such observations cannot be captured by using tape recorder or video camera.
4.6.4 Sample

a. Survey and observations

A sample is representative of the population or species that is being researched (Cohen et al., 2011). In a survey or observation, it is not always possible and/or feasible to research the entire group to gather data. In this study a sample was selected from the population and researched; and the findings were generalised to that group. The researcher employed the quota sampling method for this research. A “quota” within this context is part of the overall population that was researched. The participants in the sample being researched must have the same socio-demographic characteristics as the population (Spitulnik, 1998). Random sampling would not have sufficed for this research. If random sampling of all learners at the school had been used then learners who were English first language users may have also been included in the study.

In the light of the above, all parents of English second language foundation phase learners at a large primary school in KwaZulu-Natal were sampled (Kaplan and Baldauf Jr, 1997). Foundation phase learners were selected as they are more receptive to instructions from their educators. Their rate of return of school letters is greater than that of their counterparts in the intermediate phase. Two hundred and fifty questionnaires were issued to foundation phase learners to hand to their parents. Of these, two hundred and two were returned to the researcher. Incentives were offered to learners to return questionnaires to their class teachers. Incentives were also offered to educators to collect questionnaires from learners. Educators also went the extra mile and checked if questionnaires were completed by parents before collecting from the learners. Incomplete ones were sent home with the learners for their parents to complete.

These incentives ensured the high rate of return (80.8%) of the questionnaires by the foundation phase learners to the class teachers (see Figure 4.1). This rate of return was acceptable to the researcher. This high rate of return of questionnaires informed the researcher that there were ample data for the study.
The practices of the parents of the learners, especially grade one learners’ parents, were observed during the registration of learners at the school. Parents were insistent that their children be admitted to this school, although there were other schools in close proximity to this one. They stood in line for days, awaiting a place for their children. Some would come to this school as early as six o’clock in the morning so that they would get an early appointment. This practice of the parents encouraged the researcher to seek valid reasoning for this practice from them. The observations of the nature of parents’ interactions with educators during the course of the year was also observed and recorded. Some of the parents deemed it important to meet with their child’s educator more often than others in order to improve their child’s literacy proficiency in English. These actions of parents warranted further investigation.

**b. Interviews**

The researcher interviewed two principals. Purposive sampling was used to select the two principals. This type of sampling was suitable as it provided principals from different social backgrounds and who served different communities, but both had similar challenges with regard to MOI at their schools. Principals were selected for the interviews as they were at the forefront of decision making at their respective schools. They were ultimately accountable for the admission of learners to their schools. They provided an overview of the admission process, the choice of the language of learning and
teaching (LoLT) at their school, and a brief description of the vision they had for
their school. The researcher also informed them that, in describing the vision
they had, they had to take into account the literacy proficiencies of their learners
because the medium of instruction (MOI) was English at their respective
schools. They also had to provide a synopsis of the coping strategies they
adopted at their schools in order for the English second language learners to
become as proficient as the other learners.

4.6.5 Data

The data were captured on the Excel spread-sheet by a professional data-
capturer. This was outsourced to save the researcher time. The researcher
was also not equipped to capture the required data in the format that was
necessary for the research. Once the data were captured, the researcher
cleaned the data. This was necessary in order to try to eliminate some of the
more obvious errors that might have crept in during the preceding stages
(Babbie et al., 2001; Spitalnik, 1998). Cleaning of data was done to ensure
that all the data from the questionnaires were captured correctly. This was a
laborious process of checking each questionnaire against the entries in the
excel spreadsheet for correctness. The faults were highlighted and sent to the
capturer for corrections. This process was conducted a few times until the
researcher was satisfied that all data captured were a true reflection of what
was in the questionnaires. This process of data capturing and cleaning of data
took approximately three months. There were also inconsistencies that were of
concern to the researcher. Missing data were also taken into account. Some of
these were data such gender and age of respondents. The class teachers were
able to assist with this data. Once this was satisfactorily completed, the data
were analysed.

4.6.6 Analysis of data

The data were analysed using the SPSS analysis programme. The SPSS was
used as it is a powerful tool which is capable of conducting many of the types of
data analysis commonly used in the social sciences (Bernstein, 1976;
Habermas, 1972). The researcher possessed a basic understanding of SPSS
and statistics, but made use of a statistician to generate user-friendly tables and graphs for the study, so that the data could then be analysed by the researcher.

4.7 Limitations

There were a number of limitations to this study. If this research could have been extended to more schools with ESL learners, the larger sample obtained would have yielded more detailed data. The data would then have been more generalisable to the wider population of parents of ESL learners in KwaZulu-Natal.

4.8 Ethical considerations

The researcher ensured the anonymity of respondents. To achieve this, the questionnaires were not numbered prior to being issued to respondents. There were no places for respondents to write their names on the questionnaires. The parents of ESL learners were involved in the research. Questionnaires were issued to learners and collected from learners, who were between the ages of 6-9 years (i.e. they were minors). The researcher and educators could thus not hold the learners accountable for the loss or damage of questionnaires. The researcher and educators also could not apply undue pressure on the learners to return questionnaires, as they were minors. This was the main reason for the researcher to offer incentives to them for returning questionnaires to their educators. The researcher was obliged by research ethics not to report confidential information of respondents. This was important, as some respondents opted to divulge information in confidence to the researcher about the school – the principal, the management members and educators.

4.9 Conclusion

The methodology used enabled the researcher to delineate clear trends in the research process and to guide the researcher systematically in developing such trends. During the data cleaning phase the researcher observed trends emanating from the study in the answers to the questionnaires. These trends
were further triangulated by the researcher’s observations and the interviews of the two principals. The survey method produced a larger sample, which made it easier for the researcher to establish trends in the data. The large sample also presented a generalised perception which could be followed up with interviews and observations. Finally, the large sample also gave the researcher the scope to correlate issues and trends and to form generalisable patterns. These patterns will be analysed and discussed in more detail in the subsequent chapter.
Chapter 5
ANALYSIS OF QUANTITATIVE DATA

5.1 Introduction

This chapter begins with an analysis of the questions from the questionnaires received from the respondents, which took the form of a quantitative analysis. In this analysis the researcher makes reference to the frequencies and modes of the data from the various questions from the questionnaires. Cross tabulations were applied to make extrapolation of data more meaningful. In analysing the quantitative data in this chapter the researcher anticipated that certain common trends and patterns might emerge. These trends answered some of the critical questions of the research.

5.2 Analysis of relevant data from questionnaires: descriptive statistics

5.2.1 Gender of respondents

The researcher undertook to establish the gender of his respondents as he had observed from experience that maternal parents usually took a more active role in the education of the children at primary school level in this community. The frequency table (Table 5.1) outlines the respondents for the study according to gender, showing that almost 70% were females. Another reason that one would have expected a high percentage of females in general at this site was that most of the females in the locality where the research was conducted constituted unemployed females and home executives. They were more available to fill in the questionnaires. The male respondents worked, and in most instances they were the sole breadwinners of their families. The males that participated in this study constituted almost 26%, and were the ones who were eager to participate in the study.
Table 5.1 Gender of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unknown</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>68.8</td>
<td>68.8</td>
<td>74.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>female</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>25.7</td>
<td>25.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>male</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It was noted in Table 5.1 that 11 respondents had omitted to fill in this section in the questionnaire. In their eagerness to fill in the questionnaires it seems that they overlooked this first question. The responses from this section informed the researcher which parent spent more time with the learner with school related work. The parents at this site viewed this questionnaire as being a tool to improve their children’s education.

Figure 5.1 Gender of respondents

The pictorial representation in Figure 5.1 highlights the dominance of females as respondents in the research. The maternal instincts of these females have come to the fore in their opting to be part of this study. They would generally want to be part of any process that improved the education of their children. It could also be that they saw this as an opportunity to provide their children with a better education. The fathers in this community often left the education of their children to the mothers and grandmothers at home, while they earned a living to provide food and clothing for them. Many of them also worked away from home.
and visited once a week, once a month or even once a year. The 26% of males that participated in the study either worked locally, where they could come home on a daily basis, or were unemployed. There was a very high rate of unemployment in both males and females in this community. This was one of the reasons that the Department of Basic Education chose to make this school a “no fee paying” school from the year 2010.

5.2.2 Age of respondents

In asking this question I wanted to establish the age of the respondents I was working with in case age turned out to be a factor in decisions regarding MOI. The ages of the respondents as tabulated in the frequency table (Table 5.2) varied from the 18-29 years category to the over 60 year category. Six of the respondents opted not to disclose their age in either of the respective demarcated categories. This may have been either by error or intentionally to prevent disclosure. Some of the respondents were extended family members and foster parents and resisted full disclosure of these personal details for fear of losing their child support grant. Some were also of the opinion that these details were going to be forwarded to the Department of Basic Education and/or to the Department of Social Services.

Table 5.2 Age of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age in Years</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>unknown</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-29</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>35.1</td>
<td>35.1</td>
<td>38.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>37.1</td>
<td>37.1</td>
<td>75.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>93.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-59</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>98.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60+</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.2 shows that the majority of the respondents were relatively young. 72.2% of the respondents were between 18 years and 39 years. The researcher anticipated that the younger respondents would be modern in their thinking, their aspirations and in their views of education. Many of those in the
40 years and older categories were grandparents; there were many households in the sample where grandparents took care of the children. This was through attrition or because the parent/s worked out of town. Some of the parents had even chosen to leave their children with the grandparents and re-marry, especially those who had had children out of wedlock.

Figure 5.2 Age of respondents

Parents in the 18-29 years category in Figure 5.2 were the youngest category sampled. The children ranged from 7 years to 10 years, from grades 1, 2 and 3. Some of these parents could have given birth to their children while they were still in school. These parents were fluent in both English and isiZulu. The majority of parents (38%) fell into the 30-39 years category. This age group expressed confidence in using both English and isiZulu as languages of communication. This age group is generally deemed to be the age appropriate group of parents for the grades 1-3 learners, the focus of this research. These parents would have been relatively mature when they decided to bear children. 26% of the respondents were grouped as elderly parents, foster parents and grandparents.

The elderly parents in the sample were from the low income households. Some were unemployed while others were casual labourers. This group generally spoke isiZulu to their families most or all of the time. Those who were over 50
years (7%) found it difficult to communicate in English. They chose to keep their heritage language as the medium of communication at home and in the community in which they lived. They found it difficult to learn a new language, English, at this late stage in their lives.

5.2.3 Number of children/grandchildren in school

In this question the researcher ascertained the number of children/grandchildren the parents/ grandparents had enrolled at school. There was an unexpected result that the majority of parents and grandparents (68.8%) had one child only enrolled at school, and the researcher considered the possibility that respondents could have misinterpreted the question and understood it to ask the number of children they had at this particular school or in this grade.

Table 5.3 Number of children/grandchildren at site

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Children</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>unknown</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>66.8</td>
<td>66.8</td>
<td>67.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>89.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>97.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>98.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4+</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A further 21.3% of parents had two children enrolled at school. This was unusual for this community, as parents in this community were previously known to have large families. However, as stated earlier, these parents may have left the community through attrition or work commitment. The frequency table (Table 5.3) shows that only 10.9% of parents in the sample possessed families with three or more children. The earlier assumptions of the researcher may prove correct. From previous experiences in the site, the researcher believed that only 10.9% of the respondents may have understood the question.
Notwithstanding the above, 67% of the parents in Figure 5.3 were observed as being somewhat westernized, and perhaps saw the logic in having small families. Even the 21% who have two children could be classed in this group. These parents tended to follow western trends and encourage their children to do so as well. One of these trends is to use the English language progressively more in all of life’s activities. These trends are clearly noticeable in their children.

![Pie chart showing distribution of number of children/grandchildren at site](image)

**Figure 5.3 Number of children/grandchildren at site**

The 11% of parents with three or more children tended to be more traditional in their mannerisms and choice of language of communication. They tended to use their mother-tongue more than any other language, and their children portrayed the same attributes as their parents. These children are more likely to favour the use of their mother-tongue as well over the use of a non-indigenous language at school. Teachers at this school have a tendency to experience problems with trying to break this barrier of learners using their mother tongue in the classroom.
5.2.4 Medium of instruction (MOI)

The results in the frequency table (Table 5.4) reflect the researcher’s attempts to ascertain some of the parents’ reasons for enrolling their children at this English medium school. He enquired whether the parents of English second language learners elected for their children to learn in the medium of instruction (MOI) of this school, or if the MOI at this school was imposed upon them.

Table 5.4 MOI is parent’s choice or imposed

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid MOI chosen</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>89.1</td>
<td>89.1</td>
<td>89.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOI imposed</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>91.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>missing</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is interesting to note that 180 of the 202 respondents chose to enrol their children at this school. This was done after knowing full well that the MOI at this school was English, and their mother-tongue was not English. According to the data presented, only five of the respondents were obliged to enrol their children at this school because of the locality. Their responses were that the school was close to their homes. These five parents could have chosen to take their children to the nearby isiZulu medium school, but they chose not to. This school is the only English medium school in the area. All the other schools within 1-5km radius of this school were isiZulu medium schools. The majority of the respondents also deemed it essential to afford their children an education through the medium of English.

The 8.4% of missing data in Figure 5.4 is significant in this instance. The 8.4% parents of the English second language learners gave the researcher an indication that they did not understand the question very well. This could be one of the reasons they chose not to answer it. The other could be that they overlooked it in error. The 89.1% of parents who chose to enrol their children at
this English medium school gave the researcher the impression that they wanted their children to receive a progressively better formal education than they had received. At this juncture it seemed to me that these 89.1% of parents perceived English to be a better and more superior medium of instruction for effective learning to take place at primary school level, than mother tongue instruction. These respondents did not favour their children receiving tuition in the language of their mother tongue. They appeared to undervalue the role of mother tongue instruction at primary school level.

5.2.5 Language spoken most often at home

In this section the researcher queried the language that was used most often as a medium of communication at home. It was not surprising to the researcher that most of the respondents spoke isiZulu most often at home. Almost 70% of the respondents spoke only isiZulu at home, as reflected in the frequency table (Table 5.5). Approximately 21% of them used both English and isiZulu as languages of communication in the home. Only 4.5% of the respondents spoke only English at home. The other significant official languages used as a medium of communication at home were isiXhosa (1.5%) and Sesotho (0.5%). The use of the latter two official languages was negligible at this research site. The frequency of the use of these two languages were 4 in total, compared to the 140 who used only isiZulu as a medium of communication at home.
Table 5.5 Language spoken most often at home

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language spoken most often at home</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English and isiZulu</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>13.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>isiZulu</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>29.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sesotho</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>68.8</td>
<td>68.8</td>
<td>98.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 5.5 presents a graphical representation of the use of the official languages at this research site. It reflects the dominance that isiZulu enjoys in this community. Those respondents who had recently moved into this community spoke isiXhosa and Sesotho most often at home. Others who had settled in the community over a longer period had chosen to learn the dominant language of communication in this community, namely, isiZulu. This was done in order for them to be accepted by this community. English is used by those who regularly interact with English speaking people, especially at their places of employment. These respondents value the use of English as a language of communication. They therefore opted to use English and isiZulu or only English in the home as a means of communication with their families. They saw the need to transfer this skill of being fluent in English to their families, and especially to their children.

Figure 5.5 Language spoken most often at home
5.2.6 MOI at child’s school is English

In this question the researcher tested the respondents’ knowledge of the medium of instruction (MOI) that was offered at this school. The frequency table (Table 5.6) indicates that 157 of the respondents had a sound knowledge that English was offered as the MOI at this school. Only 2 of the respondents boldly stated that English was not the MOI at this school. The 38 others who responded in the questionnaires were unsure as to whether English was the MOI or not. Some of these respondents’ children were enrolled at this school for almost three years at the time of the research being undertaken. There were even 5 other respondents who did not answer this question. They could have also been unsure if English was used as the MOI at this school as well.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.Yes</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>77.7</td>
<td>79.7</td>
<td>79.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.No</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>80.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.Unsure</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>18.8</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>97.5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>System</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The statistics in Table 5.6 reflect that almost 80% of the parents who have completed this question in the questionnaire were clear that the MOI at their child’s school was English. The researcher found it surprising that almost 20% (18.8%) of them were unsure as to what MOI was being used at this school. In his opinion this indicated a lack of concern of these 20% of parents towards their children’s education at this school. The 2.5% of respondents who did not answer this question could also be classed in this group of parents. It is apparent from the above statistics that these 20% of parents did not actively participate in the education of their children, for if they had then they would know the MOI used at this school.
Table 5.7 MOI at child's school is English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Valid</th>
<th>Missing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>197</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mode</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The mode for this question in Table 5.7 is 1. The mode 1 was in keeping with the researcher's expectations, indicating that the majority of the parents were empowered as to the MOI used at this school. Earlier in the research it was stated that the majority of the parents enrolled their children at this school because they wanted their children to learn through the medium of English. Only a few brought their children to this school because it was close to their homes. These could be the parents who did not care as to what MOI was being used for the education of their children.

Figure 5.6 MOI at child's school is English

The pie graph in Figure 5.6 shows that almost 80% of the respondents were clear that English was used as the MOI at this school. Almost 20% were either unsure of what MOI was used, or stated that English was not being used as the MOI. These statistics suggested to the researcher that 20% of the respondents did not take an active part in the education of their children. It seemed to the researcher that these 20% merely wanted their children to get a good basic
education. The researcher also deduced that they did not have any knowledge of the language in education policy nor did they know that they could provide input to determine the MOI used at this school.

5.2.7 The language which is important for children to learn at primary school level

The researcher sought to deduce from the respondents’ replies the language that they thought was important for their children to use to learn, namely, the MOI at primary school level. The researcher was aware that the language of communication at home for the majority of respondents was not English. He therefore expected the majority of the respondents to choose their home language as the most suitable language to be the MOI of choice at primary school level. He found the implementation of cross tabulations to be effective in examining this area for the study.

Table 5.8 Language which is important for children to learn at primary school

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Learn English</th>
<th>Learn Home Language</th>
<th>Learn English &amp; Home Language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Strongly</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td></td>
<td>111</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Disagree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Agree</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>37.6</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Strongly</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>55.9</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>99.0</td>
<td>199</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing System</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>202</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The researcher found that the highest frequency, as outlined in the frequency table (Table 5.8), was obtained for opting for children to learn English only. A total of 113 respondents strongly agreed that it was important for children to learn only English at primary school level. This high frequency for opting for children to learn only English at primary school level is thought to be strongly influenced by the hegemony that English currently enjoys. It was evident that only 47 respondents opted for only their home language to be learnt at primary school level.
school level. 88 strongly agreed that it was important for both English and the home language to be learnt at primary school level. A further 76 agreed that it was important for children to learn English at primary school level. A total of 189 respondents agreed that it was important for children to learn only English at primary school level. The frequency table (Table 5.8) also indicates that 148 of the respondents in total agreed that it was important for children to learn only their home language at primary school level. The frequency table further specifies that 177 of the respondents in total found it important for children at primary school level to learn both English and their home language. This high frequency was anticipated by the researcher. The majority of the respondents were nevertheless influenced to a great extent by the hegemony of the English language in everyday usage.

Table 5.9  Language which is important for children to learn at primary school

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>It is important for child to learn English at primary school level</th>
<th>It is important for child to learn home language at primary school level</th>
<th>It is important for child to learn English &amp; home language at primary school level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Valid: 200</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>199</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Missing: 2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>3.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mode</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The mode table (Table 5.9) indicates that the majority of respondents strongly agreed (mode 4) that English was the only language that children should learn at primary school level. The majority of the respondents agreed (mode 3) that only the home language was important for the children to learn at primary school level. It is clear from Table 5.9 that the majority of respondents again agreed (mode 3) that English and the home language were equally important for children to learn at primary school level. It is once again indicated by the mode that the hegemony of English is dominant.
The bar graph in Figure 5.7 graphically depicts the composite choices respondents made with regard to the language which they thought it was important for children to learn at primary school level. It can be seen that the English bar is the tallest bar on the whole, and that this is in the “strongly agreed” column. It is also clear that only 11 of the respondents in total disagreed that English should be learnt by children at primary school level. This frequency is negligible when compared to the 51 respondents who disagreed that it was important for the home language to be learned by children at primary school level. A further mere 22 of the respondents disagreed that both English and the home language were important for children to learn at primary school level. A trend can thus be seen emanating from the above statistics. There is a shift of the respondents towards selecting either only English or both English and home language as the language so that effective learning to take place at primary school level.

5.2.8 The Language which is considered important for children to improve their education

The cross tabulation in the frequency table (Table5.8) makes comparisons of frequencies of the languages respondents deemed important for children to improve their education at primary school level. The researcher attempted to ascertain which language was in fact more important for children at primary school level to improve in all aspects of the curriculum. The data obtained on
each language are discussed in greater detail, as the researcher is of the belief that they provide an interesting basis for analysis.

In Table 5.10 the researcher finds it interesting to note that only 38 (19%) of the respondents strongly agreed that English was important for children to improve their education at primary school level. A lower frequency of 7 (3.5%) strongly agreed that the learners’ home language was important for children to improve their education at primary school level. These statistics were in contrast to the frequency of the respondents who strongly agreed that both English and home language were important for children to improve their education at primary school level. This frequency was 77 (38.1%). This was the highest frequency of the three sets of data obtained.

Table 5.10 Language which is considered important for children to improve education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>English</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Home Language</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>English &amp; Home Language</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>Valid Percent</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>Valid Percent</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>16.3</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.Disagree</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>38.6</td>
<td>39.6</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>64.4</td>
<td>67.4</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>10.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.Agree</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>33.2</td>
<td>34.0</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>46.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.Strongly Agree</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>18.8</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>38.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>97.5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>193</td>
<td>95.5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>97.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing System</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td>202</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td>202</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The converse is observed for the responses of “strongly disagree” and “disagree” in this section. The total of the frequencies of those respondents who strongly disagreed and disagreed that English was the most important language for children to improve their education at primary school level was 92 (45.5%). This is quite high. The researcher also observed that the frequency of respondents who strongly disagreed and disagreed that the children’s home language was important for them to improve their education at primary school level was the highest, being at 163 (80.7%). This was in contrast to those
respondents who disagreed and strongly disagreed that both English and the learners’ home language be used to improve their education at primary school level. This frequency was a low 27 (13.4%). The cross tabulation of the frequencies make it easier for the researcher to conclude his findings.

In the mode table (Table 5.11) it is clear that the majority of respondents did not agree that only English or only the home language was important for children to improve their education at primary school level. For this choice (i.e. of those who responded that only English or only home language was important to improve the education of their children) the mode is 2, which is tabulated as “disagreed”.

Table 5.11 Language which is considered important for children to improve education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>English is important to improve children’s education</th>
<th>Home Language is important to improve children’s education</th>
<th>English and Home Language are important to improve children’s education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N Valid</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>193</td>
<td>197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>2.02</td>
<td>3.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mode</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This indicates that these respondents did not consider any one of these languages as being of sufficient importance to improve their children’s education at primary school level. The mode is 3 for those who declared that both English and the home language was important for improving their children’s education, that is, the majority of the respondents agreed that this was so. They deemed it necessary for both languages to be used in order for children at primary school level to obtain a sound education and a good educational foundation.
The pie chart (Figure 5.8) reflects the valid percentages of data for each language. These percentages were calculated after deleting the missing data from the totals, and thus presented a more representative view of data from respondents who answered this question. It indicates that 34% agreed and 19% strongly agreed that English was important for children to improve their education at primary school level. This balances out the 7% who strongly disagreed and the 40% who disagreed that only English was important for children to improve their education. The difference of those who agreed and those who disagreed is only 6%, which is negligible in this instance. It is clear that the respondents were equally split as to the choices they had to make here.
In Figure 5.9 the data obtained from the respondents present a dissimilar position to the data obtained in Figure 5.8. In Figure 5.9, 67% of the respondents disagreed and 17% strongly disagreed that the learners' home language was important for them to improve their education at primary school level. This was in sharp contrast to the 12% of the respondents who agreed and the 4% who strongly agreed that only the home language of the children was important for them to improve their education at primary school level. There is a marked difference in the percentages of those respondents who agreed (16%) and those who disagreed (84%). There is an overwhelming majority of respondents who disagreed that only the learners' home language was important for an improvement of their education at primary school level.

![Pie Chart](image)

Figure 5.10 English and home language

In Figure 5.10 the researcher was not surprised to note that the vast majority of respondents agreed that both English and learners' home language were important for them to improve their education at primary school level. It is clearly depicted that 39% of respondents strongly agreed and 47% agreed that this was so. This total percentage of 86% of those who have agreed to this were in disparity to those who disagreed (14%) that both English and learners' home language were important for them to improve their education at primary school level.
The composite data in Figure 5.11 presents a holistic view of all the data collected in this section. The data is congruent with data of preceding sections. More respondents viewed both English and learners’ home language as being important for children to improve their education at primary school level than those who viewed only English or only children’s home language as being important. It is also clear from this composite bar graph that the majority of the respondents chose to disagree that only English and only learners’ home language were important to improve their children’s education at primary school level. The respondents did not value an education where only the home language was used, as 130 of the respondents disagreed that learners’ home language was important for the improvement of their children’s education. In contrast to this, a total of 170 of the respondents agreed that the use of both English and their children’s home language were important for the improvement of their children’s education at primary school level. The above data also inform us that only 6 of the respondents strongly disagreed with both English and learners’ home language as being important for the improvement of the children’s education. This was in sharp contrast to the 170 respondents who agreed. On the other hand, a mere 7 of the respondents strongly agreed that the learners’ home language was important for them to improve their education at primary school level. This again was in contrast to the 163 who had disagreed that this was important.
5.2.9 Parents’ medium of communication at place of work

In this section the researcher investigated whether English, an indigenous home language or both languages were used as media of communication at the respondents’ places of work. He also attempted to ascertain the extent to which these languages were used as media of communication in their places of work. The researcher anticipated that the majority of them would respond that they used their home language most frequently in their places of work. This expectation arose as many of the parents who visited the site for other educational matters, chose to communicate in their home language (especially the elderly ones). The younger parents were fluent and apparently comfortable in using the English language as a language of communication when they visited the site.

Table 5.12 Parents’ medium of communication at place of work

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>English</th>
<th>Home Language</th>
<th>English &amp; Home Language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>Valid Percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid Rarely</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>42.6</td>
<td>44.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>22.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All the time</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>27.2</td>
<td>28.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>95.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing System</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.12 shows 55 participants responding that they used English all the time as the medium of communication at their places of work. The frequency of those respondents who used English often as the medium of communication at their places of employment is 43. These two total 51% of the valid percentage. The valid percentage disregards those questionnaires with missing data. This data does not present a clear majority for the use of only English as a medium of communication at the respondents’ places of work. On the other hand a mere 30% of the respondents used their home language often or all the time as a medium of communication at their places of work, whereas the majority of
58.4% of the respondents sometimes used their home language as a medium of communication at their places of work. This is evident in the frequency of 118 of the respondents.

The statistics presented above are consistent with those provided by respondents who used both English and their home languages as media of communication at their places of work. The frequency of these statistics indicate that 71 respondents used both English and home language all the time, as well as sometimes. Those respondents who used both English and home language often as a medium of communication at the place of work is 35. When this frequency is added to those respondents who used both English and home language all the time, it provides an majority of 54.9% of the valid percentage. This data is also congruent with the frequency of those respondents who rarely or sometimes used only English or only their home language as a medium of communication at their places of work (only English – 94; only home language – 142).

Table 5.13 Parents medium of communication at place of work

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>English</th>
<th>Home Language</th>
<th>English and Home Language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N Valid</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>189</td>
<td>193</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>2.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mode</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The mode of those respondents who used only English as the medium of communication at their places of employment was 2. This shows that the majority of the respondents indicated that they sometimes used only English as the medium of communication. The mode of those respondents who used only their home language as a medium of communication at their places of work was also 2. This indicates that the majority of the respondents here also sometimes used their home language as the main medium of communication at their places of work. The mode of the last category does not correspond with the frequencies presented above. The frequency of those respondents who use both English and their home language at their places of work all the time and
sometimes are both 71, whereas the mode is 2. The mode indicates that “sometimes” is selected most often by the majority of the respondents. This is not reflected in Table 5.13, where the mode ought to have reflected 2 and 4.

It is evident from Figure 5.12 that a greater percentage of parents used English and their home language all the times (71) as the medium of communication at their places of employment than those who used only English (55) or only their home language (20) all the time at their places of work. It is also significant that respondents’ indigenous home language was not used very often at their places of work. The data indicates that 118 of the respondents sometimes used their home language as a medium of communication at their places of employment. The data also inform us that 86 of the respondents sometimes used only English as the medium of communication at their places of employment. It is clear that 98 of the respondents have indicated that they used only English often or all the time as the medium of communication at their places of work. This data informs us that the majority of the respondents were employed in environments that favoured promoted the hegemony of English. Those 106 respondents who used both languages often or all the time for communication at their places of employment also eventually acceded to the hegemony of English.

Figure 5.12 Parents’ medium of communication at place of work
5.2.10 Preferred language of respondents when reading print media

In this section the researcher enquired about the language/s respondents used when they chose to read print media such as newspapers and magazines. He also endeavoured to ascertain the frequencies of their choices. The frequencies obtained for each of the languages were cross tabulated to generate tables and graphs. The data was also used to make inferences about their choices.

The researcher noted in the frequency table (Table 5.14) that 112 of the respondents sometimes used only English as their preferred language when they read print media. It was also interesting to note that 76 respondents used only English often or all the time when reading print media. This frequency was quite high for this site. The researcher also observed that 100 of the respondents used only their indigenous home language as their preferred language when they read print media.

Table 5.14 Preferred language of parents when reading print media

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>English</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>English and Home Language</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>Valid Percent</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>Valid Percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>11.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>55.4</td>
<td>56.3</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>49.5</td>
<td>50.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>16.8</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All the Time</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>98.5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>97.5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing System</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A marginally lower frequency of respondents used only home language either often or all the time to read print media. The highest frequency was noted in the third category. 95 respondents indicated that they used both English and their home language as their preferred languages when they read print media. This statistics presented the views of almost 50% of the total respondents who answered this question. Only 78 of the respondents revealed that they
sometimes use both English and their home language when they read print media.

In Table 5.15 the researcher found it unusual that the modes for all categories were 2. The missing data for all categories were negligible. They were 3 for only English, 5 for only home language and 5 for both English and home language. If all these respondents indicated their choices for this section, it would not have effected a change in the mode.

Table 5.15 Preferred language of parents when reading print media

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Valid</th>
<th>Missing</th>
<th>English</th>
<th>Home Language</th>
<th>English and Home Language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>199</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mode</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The means are significant in this respect. The mean for the preferred languages of both English and the respondent’s home language was 2.63. This was significantly the highest of all three means. It also indicates that the mean is closer to 3 than it is to 2. This means that more respondents from this category chose “often” and/or “all the time” than the other two categories. The mean depicted is congruent with the frequencies presented in the previous frequency table.
The bar graph in Figure 5.13 represents a composite pictorial reflection of all the data obtained from the respondents regarding this section. As stated earlier, it was not anticipated that the majority of the respondents would choose “sometimes” for all three categories. The researcher would have expected a greater number of respondents choosing another category as their response to this section. The researcher also observed that a greater number of respondents chose “all the time” as their preferred languages for both English and their home language when they read print media. This phenomenon was also observed for the choice “often” in this section. The researcher noted that more respondents indicated that they used both English and their home languages when they read print media: this view was consistent with data obtained in preceding sections in this study.

5.2.11 Language in which the respondents encouraged their children to read print media

One of the aims of this section was to enquire whether parents’ choice of language used to read print media was similar to the choices they made for their children. The other aim of this section was to investigate if the frequencies and modes in this section differed markedly from those of the previous section, or if they presented similarities.

Table 5.16 Language in which children are encouraged to read print media

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language in Which Children Are Encouraged to Read Print Media</th>
<th>English</th>
<th>Home Language</th>
<th>English and Home Language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid Frequency</td>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>Valid Percent</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>28.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>18.8</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All the Time</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>43.1</td>
<td>45.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>94.1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing Frequency</td>
<td>System</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>202</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The above frequency table (Table 5.16) shows that 45.8% of the respondents encouraged their children to read only English print media all the time. This statistic complemented those 13.4% of the respondents who chose to encourage their children to read print media all the time in only their home language; and the 11.3% of respondents who encourage their children to read print media all the time in both English and their home language. It is interesting to note that over 71% of the respondents either rarely or sometimes encouraged their children to read print media in only their home language. In the third category the data obtained revealed similarities to this. It was equally interesting to note that again over 71% of the respondents either rarely or sometimes encouraged their children to read print media in both the English and home languages. The majority of the respondents opted to encourage their children to read print media in only the English language. This did not match the personal practices of the respondent as revealed in the preceding section. The data obtained from the latter two categories in this section is inversely proportionate to the 65.8% of the respondents who encouraged their children to read print media either often or all the time in English only.

Frequency Table 5.16 also reflects a high frequency of missing data in this section. If these missing data were included in the relevant categories they might have made significant changes to the above data. Either of the categories might have reflected differing views of the respondents.

Table 5.17 Language in which children are encouraged to read print media

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>English</th>
<th>Home Language</th>
<th>English and Home Language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N Valid</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>186</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N Missing</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>2.24</td>
<td>2.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>2.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mode</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.13 reflects the means, medians and modes for the three categories of this section. It is not unusual that the mode of first category is 4. The majority of respondents in this category had indicated that they encouraged their
children to read print media in English only. The modes of the other two categories are 2. The majority of parents in these categories sometimes encouraged their children to read print media in only their home language or in both English and their home language. These mean scores are indicative of the language which the respondents want their children to learn at primary school level.

![Pictorial bar graph](image)

Figure 5.14 Language in which children are encouraged to read - print media

The pictorial bar graph in Figure 5.14 depicts overall the choices that the respondents have made. 87 of the respondents had indicated that they encouraged their children to read print media all the time in only English, whereas a mere 25 respondents encouraged their children to read print media all the time in only their home language. A lesser number of respondents had indicated that they encouraged their children to read print media all the time in both English and their home language. A great majority of respondents (133 respondents) had indicated that they rarely or sometimes encouraged their children to read print media in only their home language. These responses indicated to the researcher the language that respondents deemed most important for their children to know and master at primary school level.

### 5.2.12 Language in which children are encouraged to read library books

This section focuses on the frequencies of language/s that the respondents encouraged their children to read library books. The researcher encompassed
activities from the previous section, but replaced print media with library books. In so doing the researcher anticipated obtaining similar results, as the respondents were still encouraging their children to read either in only English, in only their home language, or in both English and their home language.

Table 5.18 Language in which children are encouraged to read library books

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>English</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Home Language</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>English and Home Language</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>Valid Percent</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>Valid Percent</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>Valid Percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>22.6</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>12.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>48.9</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>31.2</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>22.8</td>
<td>24.3</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>17.2</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>22.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All the Time</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>50.3</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>10.4</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>29.2</td>
<td>31.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>189</td>
<td>93.6</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>92.1</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>189</td>
<td>93.6</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td></td>
<td>16</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td></td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td>202</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td>202</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data in Table 5.18 provide a moderate frequency (59) of those respondents who encouraged their children to read library books all the time in both English and their home language. The data also reflects that 31.2% of respondents valued the use of both English and their home language for their children to read library books. 21 respondents indicated they encouraged their children to read library books all the time in only their home language, whereas 91 of them sometimes encouraged their children to read library books in only their home language. It was not surprising to the researcher that a majority of 95 respondents (over 50%) chose to encourage their children all the time to read library books in only English, while only a mere 36 sometimes encouraged their children to read library books in only English. This data was congruent with the data obtained in the previous section, as anticipated by the researcher.

The mode of the first category was observed as being 4. This informed the researcher that most of the respondents encouraged their children to read library books in only English all the time. The modes for the other two categories in this section were 2. This indicated that the majority of
respondents sometimes encouraged their children to read library books in only their home language or in both English and their home language.

Table 5.19 Language in which children are encouraged to read library books

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>English</th>
<th>Home Language</th>
<th>English and Home Language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N Valid</td>
<td>189</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>189</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>2.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mode</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the mode table (Table 5.19) it is interesting to note that the median for encouraging children to use only English is 4. This suggests that an overwhelming majority of respondents favoured encouraging their children to read library books in English only. This was not true of the other two categories.

Figure 5.15 Language that children are encouraged to read library books

Figure 5.15 indicates that 95 respondents encouraged their children all the time to read library books in English only. It is also observable that 59 respondents encouraged their children all the time to read library books in both English and in their home language, whereas a mere 21 respondents encouraged their children all the time to read library books in only their home language. Those respondents who favoured encouraging their children to use both English and their home language when reading library books were distributed more or less
evenly across the three choices of sometimes (63), often (43) and all the time (59). The data reflects that in the choices for the use of both English and their home language there was not a clear majority for any one choice, as was clear in the other two categories. Figure 5.15 also indicates that the majority (91) of respondents sometimes encouraged their children to read library books in only their home language.

As shown by Figure 5.16, the majority of respondents (50%) deemed it necessary for them to encourage their children all the time to read library books in English only. This suggested that the majority of respondents gave precedence to their children learning the English language. About a quarter of the respondents (26%) rarely or sometimes encouraged their children to read library books in English only. This data is again indicative of the hegemony that the English language enjoyed at this site.

Figure 5.17 shows that only 11% of the respondents encouraged their children all the time to read library books in only their home language. This statistics contrasted with the data obtained for those respondents who rarely encouraged (23%), and those respondents who sometimes encouraged (49%) their children to read library books in only their home language. It was apparent from this data that the majority of respondents did not encourage their children to read library books all the time or often in only their home language.
The choices in this category of encouraging children to read library books in both English and their home language did not indicate an overwhelming majority for any one specific choice, as shown in Figure 5.18. A marginal majority of respondents (33%) indicated that they sometimes encouraged their children to read library books in both English and their home language. This was closely followed by the 31% of respondents who encouraged their children all the time to read library books in both English and their home language.

This suggested that there was no urgency felt by the respondents to equate the importance of reading library books in both English and in their home language.
5.2.13 Language of television programmes watched by respondents

A large amount of language learning occurs through observation and imitation of others. In this section the researcher aimed at finding out which language appealed to respondents more, English or their home language, when they chose to watch programmes on television. In so doing the researcher tried to ascertain the language that respondents deemed more important to learn.

Table 5.20 Language of television programmes watched by respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>English</th>
<th></th>
<th>Home Language</th>
<th></th>
<th>English and Home Language</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>Valid Percent</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>Valid Percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid Rarely</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>37.6</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>51.5</td>
<td>55.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>23.2</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>18.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All the Time</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>31.7</td>
<td>33.7</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>16.8</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>94.1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>92.6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing System</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>202</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the frequency table (Table5.20) it is evident that 40% of the respondents sometimes watch television programmes in English only, while almost 57% of them watch television programmes either often or all the time in English only. The statistics indicate the inverse is true for respondents’ home language. A mere 36.9% view programmes either often or all the time in only their home language, while the majority (55.6%) sometimes view programmes in only their home language. The third category presents respondents’ views on watching television programmes in both English and their home language. A significant majority (75.3%) of respondents watched television programmes either often or all the time in both English and their home language. A minority of 24.7% respondents rarely or sometimes watched television programmes in both English and their home language. It is evident from this data that the majority of respondents deemed it important for them to view television programmes in both English and their home language in order for them to learn, and possibly even master, these languages.
Table 5.21 Language of television programmes watched by respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>English</th>
<th>Home Language</th>
<th>English and Home Language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N Valid Missing</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>190</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>2.48</td>
<td>3.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mode</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Although the mode for category one was 2, the median was 3. This is indicative that the total majority of respondents chose either 3 (often) or 4 (all the time) as their preferred choice for this category. The mode and the median for category two were 2. This informed the researcher that an overwhelming majority of respondents chose option 2 (sometimes). The median and mode for this category also correlated with mean score. This data gave the researcher the impression that fewer respondents opted to view television programmes in only their home language. The third category presented a conflicting view to the other two categories. In category three the mode was 4. The mean and median scores were also 3 and above. This suggested that the majority of respondents chose to watch television programmes in both English and their home language. Respondents’ choices in this section suggested to the researcher that they valued learning both English and their home language equally.

The pictorial representation in Figure 5.19 shows that a majority of 104 respondents chose to watch television programmes sometimes in only their home language. A smaller majority of 76 respondents informed the researcher that they opted to watch television programmes sometimes in only English. It is also significant that 64 respondents chose to watch television programmes all the time in only English. There were another 44 respondents who watched television programmes often in only English. The hegemony of English can be seen to influence these practices.
Figure 5.19 also suggests that the overall majority of respondents chose to watch television programmes often and all the time in both English and in their home language. There were 52 respondents who watched television programmes often in both English and in their home language, while 91 respondents watched television programmes all the time in both English and in their home language. The views of these 142 respondents suggested their intentions in terms of the languages they preferred to learn, as well as the intensity of their wanting to learn these languages. It is also noted that only 40 of the respondents chose to watch television programmes sometimes in both English and in their home language. The data presented in this and preceding sections indicates the intentions of the respondents towards the learning of English and their home language.

5.2.14 Language of television programmes which children are encouraged to watch

In this section the researcher extended the responses of respondents from the preceding section. His intention was to investigate whether respondents’ choices of television programmes watched as shown in the preceding section were comparable to the choices of television programmes they encouraged their children to watch, as shown in this section.
The researcher found it significant that 42.3% of the respondents encouraged their children to watch only English programmes all the time on television. A further 24.9% encouraged their children to watch only English television programmes often. This majority of 67.2% is inversely proportionate to the 30.4% of respondents who encouraged their children to watch television programmes often and all the time only in their mother tongue. The researcher found it strange that the majority (69.6%) of the respondents encouraged their children to watch television programmes only in their mother tongue either rarely or sometimes. The statistics of those respondents who encouraged their children to watch television programmes in both English and in their home language and the statistics of those respondents who encouraged their children to watch television programmes only in English were similar. A majority of 66.2% of the respondents encouraged their children to watch television programmes either often or all the time in both English and in their home language, while a mere 33.8% of respondents encouraged their children to watch television programmes rarely or sometimes in both English and in their home language. Respondents’ data here once again corresponded with the data showing their preferences of the type of education they wanted their children to receive at primary school level.
Table 5.23 Language of television programmes which children are encouraged to watch

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>English</th>
<th>Home Language</th>
<th>English and Home Language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>189</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>192</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>2.32</td>
<td>3.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mode</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the mode table (Table 5.23) it is clear that the majority of respondents chose the fourth choice in category one. This majority of respondents encouraged their children to watch television programmes all the time in English only. In category two the mode was two. This mode indicated to the researcher that the majority of respondents opted to encourage their children sometimes to watch television programmes in only their home language. This is indicative that little emphasis was placed by the respondents to encourage their children to learn only their home language. In the third category the mode for this question was four. Once again, the majority of the respondents chose to encourage their children all the time to watch television programmes in both English and in their home language. The mode of 4 in category 1 and category 4 shows the researcher that respondents’ choices were split evenly between choosing only English and choosing both English and their home language as the languages that were important for their children to learn at primary school level. In both these categories the means and medians were also considerably high, being 3 and above. This signifies that there was an overwhelming majority of respondents who made this choice of “all the time” for both these categories.

The researcher found it significant that the two peaks for “all the time” in Figure 5.20 reflect the frequency respondents encouraged their children to watch television programmes in only English (80) and in both English and in their home language (90). The researcher was also interested to note that 108 of the respondents sometimes encouraged their children to watch television programmes in only their home language.
The researcher also noted that 127 respondents encouraged their children all the time and often to watch television programmes in only English as well as in both English and in their home language. Figure 19 shows that 133 of the respondents rarely or sometimes encouraged their children to watch television programmes in only their home language. The choices made by the respondents clearly indicate the linguistic path they want their children to follow, as well as. The choices that respondents made in this section also indicate that their practices were influenced to a certain extent by the hegemonic position of English in this community.

5.3 Analysis of relevant data from questionnaires using inferential statistics

As some of the descriptive graphs in section 5.3 above showed non-normal characteristics (i.e. did not display symmetrical curves), the researcher probed the reasons for these characteristics by use of inferential statistics. It was thought that hypothesis testing might offer insights into further characteristics of the sample which might help to answer the research questions. In so doing a random sample of 40 respondents (primary sample) was selected from the total population of the 202 respondents. Participants were selected according to those who used both English and isiZulu at home and those who used only isiZulu at home.
The English and English-isizulu samples were descriptively and inferentially analysed in the following data framework of languages English, isizulu and English-isizulu (secondary samples).

The secondary samples are categorised as follows:
- Preference language in Learning
- What language may result in the improvement in education
- Parents’ language of communication at work
- Parents’ language preference in reading of newspaper and magazine
- Parents’ encouragement to read newspaper and magazines in a preferred language
- Parents’ encouragement to read library books in a preferred language
- Parents’ preferred language in watching TV
- Parents encourage children to watch TV in a preferred language

The objective was to determine whether the samples were from different statistical populations.

The hypothesis testing method was used to determine whether the samples were similar or significantly different, as follows. “Null hypothesis” assumes that the samples are from identical statistical populations. “Alternative hypothesis” assumes that the sample comes from different statistical populations. If the null-hypothesis (being the hypothesis that the samples originate from the same statistical population) is rejected (P<0.05), then the conclusion is that there is a statistically significant difference between at least two of the subgroups. If the null-hypothesis is not rejected (P>0.05) (P=0.1995), the conclusion is that there is no statistical significant difference between the different treatments. Whether the null hypothesis is accepted of rejected is decided by the results of the Kruskal-Wallis Test. The Kruskal-Wallis Test statistic is approximately a chi-square distribution, with k-1 degree of freedom where n_i should be greater than 5. If the calculated value of Kruskal-Wallis Test is less than the chi-square table value, then the null hypothesis will be accepted. If the calculated value of Kruskal-Wallis Test H is greater than the chi-square table value, then the null
hypothesis will be rejected, and it can be deduced that the sample comes from a different statistical population.

As mentioned above, the objective was to determine whether the samples were from different statistical populations. This would indicate whether theoretical factors existed that differentiated between them, as well as indicating in which categories there was a common strong bias. If this were seen to occur in categories of language choice in terms of its impact on success in education, it would strongly support the presence of a force such as the hegemonic power of English, as well as its influence on parental choice of MOI for their children. It could be anticipated, however, that the force of English might be dissipated to some extent in terms of the home language being the preferred cultural choice, as well as a more realistic option for some aspects of instruction, considering the general lack of English proficiency of learners in KwaZulu Natal schools.

5.3.1 Primary sample with both English and IsiZulu spoken at home

The results of a sample with both English and IsiZulu spoken at home are given below.

Category (a) Preference of language in learning

A descriptive graph is provided in Figure 5.1 with series (i.e. samples):

1. English
2. IsiZulu
3. English & IsiZulu

This graph (Figure 5.1) displays a tendency of bias towards English as the language of learning, and towards learning in English and home language, as compared to instruction in home language only.
Table 5.24 Preference of language in learning

Results:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Series</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>60.5</td>
<td>64.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The null hypothesis is rejected. This implies that the three samples are independent of each other. This implies that the force or factor skewing the responses is not likely to be a general trend, such as that caused by the hegemonic influence of English. This makes sense in terms of the generally acknowledged fact that learners’ English is so weak that some degree of mother-tongue is necessary.
Category (b) The language which would result in the improvement in education

The descriptive graph is given in Figure 5.2. This graph shows that the parents believe that their children would improve their education if they (i.e., children) were fluent in both the home language and English.

![Figure 5.2](image)

Figure 5.2 Language that would result in the improvement in education

Null hypothesis testing was then carried out.

Table 5.25 Language that would result in the improvement in education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>57.6</td>
<td>40.9</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results

The null hypothesis is rejected. This implies that the three samples are independent of each other, and implies that there is/are other force/s involved.
besides the putative hegemonic power of English. This is understandable as this question refers to general use of language and not just that used in the classroom. Mainly isiZulu-speaking parents with traditional values who disapprove of use of English in the home are not likely to approve its use for learning generally, particularly in terms of their children learning about their indigenous culture.

Category (c) Parents’ language of communication at work

The descriptive graph is given in Figure 5.3.

![Figure 5.23 Parents’ language of communication at work](image)

The descriptive graph depicts similarities in the factors motivating the choices of the different groups.

Table 5.26 Parents’ language of communication at work

Results
The null hypothesis is accepted. The sample seems to appear from the same statistical population. This implies that there were no overall differences between the cohorts. This means that there is general consensus that English should be the language used at work, which fits in with the concept of economic, rather than colonial or political hegemony of English. When English speakers are present, isiZulu speakers tend to use the more powerful language.

**Category (d) Parents’ language preference in reading of newspaper and magazine**

The descriptive graph is as follows:

![Graph showing language preference](image)

*Figure 5.24 Parents’ language preference in reading of newspapers and magazines*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean Ranks for Sample</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>49.8</td>
<td>67.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[
H = 5.92, \quad df = 2, \quad P = 0.0518
\]

Table 5.27 Parents’ language preference in reading of newspapers and magazines

Results
The null hypothesis is accepted. The sample is drawn from the same statistical population. This means that factors influenced the responses with equal intensity (probability). One would expect people to read newspapers in their mother tongue as well as in English, as not only the language, but also the socio-cultural content of the newspaper or magazine is more familiar and comforting. However, the more westernised parents would also find English media acceptable, as they have become more acculturated to western languages and mores.

**Category (e) Parents’ encouragement to read newspaper and magazines in a preferred language**

The descriptive graph is as follows:

![Bar Chart](image)

*Figure 5.25 Parents’ encouragement to read newspapers and magazines in a preferred language*

The parents seem to be encouraging their children to read newspapers and magazines in English.
Table 5.28 Parents’ encouragement to read newspaper and magazines in a preferred language

Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean Ranks for Sample</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>73.8</td>
<td>49.7</td>
<td>57.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The null hypothesis is rejected. This implies that the three samples are independent of each other. There is therefore a strong trend for parents to encourage their children to read newspaper and magazines in English. Whereas a parent might well wish to read linguistic and culturally familiar media particularly magazines, which have a stronger cultural and home focus than newspapers, they might well wish their children to read popular media in English, because of the professional and commercial value of their offspring being in touch with global event and trends.

Category (f) Parents’ encouragement to read library books in a preferred language

The descriptive graph is as follows:
Parents seem to be encouraging their children to read library books in English.

Table 5.29 Parents’ encouragement to read library books in a preferred language

Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean Ranks for Sample</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>H</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>71.5</td>
<td>43.7</td>
<td>61.3</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.0122</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The null hypothesis is rejected. This implies that the three samples are independent of each other. These factors affected the responses from the three samples with different intensity (i.e. uniquely). This diversity of choice is understandable in terms of the fact that one would expect people to do leisure reading in books reflecting their own linguistic and cultural bias. However, more westernised parents might well be interested in western themes and content, and even traditional parents might read in English at times because of the relative non-availability of light reading in isiZulu (although the amount of popular fiction written in isiZulu books is increasing).

Category (g) Parents’ preferred language in watching television

Figure 5.27 Parents’ preferred language in watching television
The descriptive graph (Figure 5.30) shows that parents’ preferences tend towards watching television in both English and home language.

Table 5.30 Parents' preferred language in watching television

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean Ranks for Sample</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>60.7</td>
<td>44.5</td>
<td>76.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results

The null hypothesis is rejected. This implies that the three samples are independent of each other. This is again understandable, as watching TV is a leisure activity, and one would expect (1) cultural preference and the comfort in listening in a familiar language (2) interest in the larger quantity of relatively better produced programmes containing western content and (3) switching between the two for economic reasons (i.e. cannot afford satellite TV) or a lack of quality – and/or new – programmes in isiZulu.

Figure 5.28 Parents encourage children to watch TV in a preferred language
Category (h) (Whether) parents encourage children to watch TV in a preferred language

The descriptive graph is shown in Figure 5.28, and shows that parents believe that there is more value in their children watching television in English.

Table 5.31 Parents encourage children to watch TV in a preferred language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean Ranks for Sample</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>63.3</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>71.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results

The null hypothesis is rejected. This implies that the three samples are independent of each other. Again, as watching TV is a leisure activity, and one would expect (1) cultural preference and comfort in listening in a familiar language and (2) switching between the two options for economic reasons or a lack of quality – and/or new - indigenous programmes. However, there is also a strong case for supposing that having one’s children watching a TV programme in English might improve their language scores at school, as well as the fact that most of the educational programmes are in English.

Deduction:

In categories (a), (b), (e), (f), (g) and (h) the null hypotheses were rejected. This means that responses were distinct in each of the samples, so that certain varied factors could be inferred as influencing these responses. However, in categories (c) and (d) the null hypotheses were accepted, which implies that similar-type factors influenced the responses for the English-isizulu cohort. It could be inferred that the varied factors were a response to the nature and possible outcome of the activity described, while the similar-type factors pointed to a general influence, for example, one similar to the hegemonic influence of English, because use of the language is believed to facilitate the achieving of positive educational and economic outcomes.
5.3.2 Primary sample with only IsiZulu spoken at home.

The results of a sample with only IsiZulu spoken at home are given below.

Category (a) Preference of language in learning

The descriptive graph is as follows:

![Descriptive Graph](image)

Figure 5.29 Preference of language in learning

There is a strong bias towards learning in the medium of English.

Table 5.32 Preference of language in learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Results</th>
<th>Mean Ranks for Sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>67.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$H$</th>
<th>4.51</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$df$</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$P$</td>
<td>0.0980</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The null hypothesis has been accepted. The sample seems to appear from the same statistical population. This implies that there were no overall differences.
between the cohorts. Factors influenced the responses from the three samples with equal intensity (probability). Even parents who spoke isiZulu appear to have realised the benefit of English, in spite of cultural bias, unfamiliarity with English, and dislike of the imposition/encroachment of a “foreign” language.

**Category (b) Language that may result in the improvement in education**

The descriptive graph is as follows:

![Graph](image)

Figure 5.30 Language that may result in the improvement in education

There is an assumption that the child will gain from learning in both languages.

**Table 5.33 Language that may result in the improvement in education**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean Ranks for Sample</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>63.4</td>
<td>35.4</td>
<td>82.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There appears to be a dichotomy between cultural preference and the desire for children to improve educationally.
Category (c) Parents’ language of communication at work

The descriptive graph is as follows:

![Graph showing language of communication at work](image)

Figure 5.31 Parents' language of communication at work

There is a strong bias of parents towards communicating in both languages in work.

Table 5.34 Parents’ language of communication at work

Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean Ranks for Sample</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>60.4</td>
<td>49.9</td>
<td>71.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ H = 7.40 \]
\[ df = 2 \]
\[ P = 0.0230 \]

The null hypothesis is rejected. This implies that the three samples are independent of each other. Three groups English, isiZulu/English and isiZulu are involved. Whatever influencing factors were involved, they affected the responses from the three samples with different intensity (i.e. uniquely).
Possible reasons are that workers are not familiar with or fluent in English, so they converse with each other in isiZulu to avoid embarrassment and build solidarity, but the job demands English is spoken for work purposes.

**Category (d) Parents’ language preference in reading of newspaper and magazine**

The descriptive graph is as follows:

![Graph showing language preference](image)

Figure 5.32 Parents’ language preference in reading of newspaper and magazine

There is a strong bias towards reading newspapers and magazines in English and home language.

**Table 5.35 Parents’ language preference in reading of newspapers and magazines**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean Ranks for Sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[
H = 1.93
\]

\[
df = 2
\]

\[
P = 0.381
\]

*
The null hypothesis is accepted. The sample seems to appear to be from the same statistical population. This implies that there were no overall differences between the cohorts. Similar factors were involved in each choice: using the language they are comfortable with. The family and home aspect of newspapers and magazines is attractive, especially magazines, as English magazines are now more afro-acculturated.

**Category (e) Parents’ encouragement to read newspaper and magazines in a preferred language**

The descriptive graph is as follows:

![Descriptive Graph](image)

**Figure 5.33 Parents’ encouragement to read newspapers and magazines in a preferred language**

Parents seem to encourage their children to read newspapers and magazines in English.
Table 5.36 Parents’ encouragement to read newspapers and magazines in a preferred language

Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean Ranks for Sample</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>71.6</td>
<td>46.4</td>
<td>63.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

H = 10.99
df = 2
P = 0.0041

The null hypothesis is rejected. This implies that the three samples are independent of each other. These factors affected the responses from the three samples with different intensity (uniquely). The educational aspect of reading in English is persuasive, as parents want their children to better themselves.

Category (f) Parents’ encouragement to read library books in a preferred language

The descriptive graph is as follows:

![Graph showing series 1 to 3](image)

Figure 5.34 Parents’ encouragement to read library books in a preferred language

More parents would like to see their children read in library books in English.
Results

The null hypothesis is rejected. This implies that the three samples are independent of each other.

The factors involved affected the responses from the three samples with different intensity (unique). The educational aspect of reading in English prevails, showing the power of English: though unfamiliar, possibly disliked (because of the lingering sense of colonial imposition) and uncomfortable to isiZulu speakers, English is still powerful.

**Category (g) Parents’ preferred language in watching television**

The descriptive graph is as follows:

![Figure 5.35 Parents’ preferred language in watching television](image)
Parents’ responses suggest they want their children to watch television in both English and home language.

Table 5.38 Parents’ preferred language in watching television

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean Ranks for Sample</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ H = 5.34 \]
\[ df = 2 \]
\[ P = 0.0693 \]

The null hypothesis accepted. The sample seems to appear from the same statistical population. This implies that there were no overall differences between the cohorts. Again, English has most power when it appears to offer educational advantages to children.

**Category (h) Parents encourage children to watch television in a preferred language**

![Figure 5.36 Parents encourage children to watch television in a preferred language](image-url)
The descriptive graph in Figure 5.36 shows that children are encouraged to watch television in English and home language.

Table 5.39 Parents encourage children to watch television in a preferred language

Results:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean Ranks for Sample</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>66.2</td>
<td>44.3</td>
<td>71.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ H = 13.49 \]
\[ df = 2 \]
\[ P = 0.0012 \]

The null hypothesis is rejected. This implies that the three samples are independent of each other. These factors affected the responses from the three samples with different intensity (uniquely).

**Deduction of the IsiZulu hypotheses testing:**
Categories (a), (d) and (g) exhibited acceptance of null hypothesis but categories (b), (c), (e) and (f) and (h) exhibited a rejection null hypotheses.

**Comparison of the English/IsiZulu and IsiZulu hypotheses testing:**
Four categories, (b), (e), (f) and (h), exhibited a rejection hypotheses for both English/IsiZulu and IsiZulu cohorts. One category, (d), exhibited an acceptance hypothesis for both English/IsiZulu and IsiZulu cohorts. Categories (a) and (g) exhibited rejection hypothesis in the English-IsiZulu sample but an acceptance hypothesis in the IsiZulu cohort. Category (c) exhibited a rejection hypothesis in IsiZulu, but not in English/IsiZulu.

### 5.4 Conclusion

The descriptive statistics revealed that 89.1% of respondents have chosen English to be the MOI for their children’s education at primary school level, although 69% of respondents spoke isiZulu most often at home. The majority of respondents (77.7%) also pointed out that they were aware that English was the MOI at this primary school. It was found that the majority of parents chose to read print media in both English and their home language, but that a greater
majority encouraged their children to read print media and library books in English only. In the sections “parents medium of communication at place of work”, “language of television programmes watched by respondents” and “television programmes that children are encouraged to watch” both English and home language were deemed to be equally important. It was also evident that the majority of respondents (113) considered it important for their children to learn in English, that is, as the MOI, but were also of the view that home language would assist English second language learners improve at primary school level.

The inferential statistics that the English/IsiZulu and isiZulu cohort responses were constrained by unique factors in the following categories:

(b) What language may result in an improvement in education

(e) Parents’ encouragement to read newspaper and magazines in a preferred language

(f) Parents’ encouragement to read library books in a preferred language

(h) Parents encourage children to watch TV in a preferred language

However, English-IsiZulu and isiZulu responses were constrained by common factors for the following category:

(d) Parents’ language preference in reading of newspaper and magazine

On the other hand, the following categories elicited unique factor responses for the English/IsiZulu cohort but common factor responses for the isiZulu cohort:

(a) Preference language in Learning

(g) Parents’ preferred language in watching TV

Further the following category elicited common factor responses from the English-IsiZulu but unique factor response for the isiZulu:

(c) Parents’ language of communication at work

The implication for the parents’ choice of MOI is that, for those categories where common factors are present a dual language approach should be taken in the
classroom. However, in categories where unique factors are present, home language is preferred in the MOI.

The results of the descriptive and inferential statistics indicate that English enjoys overwhelming support as the parents’ choice for MOI for their children, and has considerable influence in deciding choice of language where activities may lead to improvement in education. However, in some areas there is considerable resistance in terms of parents wanting to retain the mother tongue language, and, consequently, their cultural heritage, against the invasion of what is to all intents and purposes a foreign language. The conflict apparent in these very difficult choices for parents can be seen to reflect the ambivalence in the relationship between Africa and Europe mentioned by Alexander (2009, p. 2).
Chapter 6
ANALYSIS OF QUALITATIVE DATA

6.1 Introduction

The analysis of the qualitative data presented below was carried out to triangulate and validate the quantitative data analysed in the preceding chapter. The triangulation and validation of data was also intended to find commonalities in the trends obtained. The researcher strengthened the answers to his critical questions by using both the quantitative and qualitative methods of data analysis. In this analysis of the qualitative data, the researcher first presents an analysis of the interviews. This is followed by a comprehensive analysis of the researcher’s observations.

6.2 Analysis of Interviews

The two respondents who were interviewed provided rich data for the study. They were asked 15 questions each. Both respondents were asked the same questions to facilitate a comparison of their responses by the researcher. The respondents were from English medium schools that enrolled a majority of English second language (ESL) learners. The home language of the majority of the learners was isiZulu. The analysis of the data obtained from the interviews is clarified below, and served either to support or challenge the data obtained from the survey.

Question 1

Why did you choose to enrol English second language learners at this school?

Respondent 1 informed the researcher that she enrolled the majority of ESL learners from the local vicinity. Many ESL learners were also from outlying areas. This was because the parents wanted their children to receive an
education in a school where the medium of instruction (MOI) was English. They refused an education where the MOI was their mother-tongue.

Respondent 2 stated emphatically that the parents of ESL learners wanted their children to receive an education in English. She also informed the researcher that, when enrolment was carried out, parents would queue from as early as 06h00, as this was the only English medium school in the area. The other neighbouring schools in the area were isiZulu medium schools. Both respondents agreed that ESL parents chose to enrol their children at this school because they offered English as the MOI.

**Question 2**

*Why, in your opinion, do parents of English second language learners enrol their children at English medium schools?*

Respondent 1 said that the parents of ESL learners wanted to empower their children. She said that these parents believed that one of the means of empowering their children was for their children to know the English language well. These parents wanted their children to be fluent when speaking in English.

Respondent 2 agreed with this view and further elaborated that the parents of English second language learners believed that their children would be able to express themselves better if they were exposed to the English language early in their schooling career. The expectations of these parents were that their children should be able to read, write and speak English better than their parents. This expectation of parents of ESL learners resulted in the enrolment at English medium schools being higher than schools which offered mother-tongue instruction in isiZulu.
Question 3

*What criteria do you use to select learners at this school?*

Respondent 1 was clear on the criteria for enrolling learners at her school. She responded that she enrolled children who lived in the locality of the school and she also used the age of the children as a guiding principle for enrolling learners at her school.

Respondent 2, on the other hand, stated that she did not use any criteria for enrolling learners at her school. She also stated that she preferred enrolling a child who was able to execute simple instructions in the MOI. The researcher is of the belief that this practice would not be popular with the parents of ESL learners at this site, as these parents wanted their children to learn a new language in which they were not necessarily fluent at the time of enrolment.

Question 4

*Do you envisage changing the MOI from English to isiZulu in the near future? Why do you say so?*

Both respondents answered with an emphatic “No”. They stated that they did not envisage changing the MOI in the near future at their school. Respondent 2 informed the researcher that the parents determined the language of learning and teaching (the LOLT) at this or any other public school in South Africa. The parents at this school preferred English to be the LOLT for their children. Respondent 1 said that if the LOLT at this school was changed to isiZulu then there would not be enough suitably qualified educators to teach critical subjects such as mathematics, science and English at her school. However, respondent 2 stated that she could prevent the parents of ESL learners at this school from changing the MOI if they so desired.
Question 5

How would English first language (EFL) educators cope with this change in MOI?

The respondents both agreed that a change in the MOI of the school would have major repercussions for the school. Respondent 1 said that the EFL educators would experience great challenges if they were to teach in isiZulu. They were not trained to teach isiZulu or through the medium of isiZulu. She further stated that these educators would probably have to be redeployed to English medium schools.

Respondent 2 disagreed with respondent 1 to a certain extent. Respondent 2 stated that these EFL educators would need to be re-skilled to cope with the change in MOI. This would be in the form of learning the new MOI. She also added that, if this failed, then the scenario would most probably lead to segregation of the staff at this school.

Question 6

Do you think a change in the MOI would affect the enrolment of learners at this school? Explain.

The two respondents agreed that a change of MOI from English to mother-tongue instruction would definitely result in a reduction of the number of learners enrolled at this school. Respondent 2 stated that the parents of ESL learners expected their children to receive a superior form of education at an English medium school. She further stated that, if the MOI at this school were to be changed, then these parents would feel that their children would not receive the standard of education that they were expecting to receive.

Respondent 1 concurred with the views of respondent 2, and also stated that most of the parents of ESL learners at this site opted for their children to attain an education through the medium of English. She further elaborated that the younger parents of ESL learners at this site deemed it necessary for their
children to receive an education through the MOI of English and not in their mother-tongue.

**Question 7**

*What would some of the consequences of this change of MOI be?*

Respondent 1 strongly indicated that, if the MOI at this school were to be changed to isiZulu, then she would not be able to lead the institution as effectively as she is currently doing. She substantiated this by saying that the MOI would be an inhibiting factor in her leadership and management of the educators, the management, the learners, the parents, the governors and the support staff at that school.

Respondent 2 focused mainly on the issue of EFL educators at this school, as there was currently a large number (60%) of these employed at that school. She said that they would have to be retrained in order to acquire the skills and knowledge necessary for them to be able to teach in the new MOI, isiZulu. She agreed that this process of retraining would prove strenuous for them, as many of them were senior educators in the department of basic education. Respondent 1 also agreed that this change of MOI would cause EFL educators to work under stressful conditions, and that these conditions would not be conducive for effective teaching and learning to take place at this school.

**Question 8**

*What mechanisms do you employ at your school to overcome language barriers with learners whose home language differs from the MOI?*

The mechanisms that respondent 1 employed at her school to overcome the language barriers with learners whose home language differed from the MOI were code switching and peer assistance. Educators were encouraged to use code switching in the foundation phase, especially in grades R and 1.
Respondent 2 stated that educators who promoted the use of ‘show and tell’ and flashcards in their lessons were also mechanisms that assisted the educator to overcome language barriers in the classroom. The delivery of content in these lessons often encouraged the use of bilingualism to ESL learners. Flashcards were printed in both English and learners’ mother-tongue. Show and tell lessons were sometimes translated by learners delivering the lesson or by their peers so that all learners could get a thorough understanding of the content. The ESL learners could often grasp the gist of the show and tell lessons by viewing the concrete aids used.

**Question 9**

*What assistance do you receive from other government departments and NGOs in overcoming this challenge of teaching English as a second language?*

Respondent 1 quickly uttered ‘No’. She later reflected on this response and stated that assistance from other government departments and NGOs were very limited in overcoming this challenge of teaching English as a second language at her school. She further stated that the name of her school proved to be one of the main inhibiting factors that prevented her school from receiving aid from these departments. The name of her school was often linked to schools in advantaged areas in KwaZulu-Natal. She also elaborated that the name of the school was inherited from the apartheid regime era in South Africa. During that era this school served the needs of only learners of Indian origin. Since then the demographics of the school changed drastically.

Respondent 2 alluded to the fact that the local library assisted the school in promoting the reading of English. Holiday programmes were conducted to improve literacy with ESL learners from the school at the library. Many learners from the school participated in these programmes during school holidays. Respondent 2 also elaborated at length on the substantive financial assistance offered to the school by the department of basic education (DoBE) for the purchase of teaching resources. These teaching resources facilitated an
improvement in English and in the other learning areas to the ESL learners at this school. She evidently misunderstood the question.

Question 10

*Do you think that this situation of learning in a second language is the ideal for the learners at your school? Explain.*

Respondent 1 was adamant that learning in a second language was not ideal for any learner, especially the ESL foundation phase learners at her school. She would have preferred all these ESL learners to have first enrolled in grade R, before coming to grade 1. The majority of learners enrolled in grade 1 at this school did not attend grade R. This made teaching and learning in grade 1 more difficult for the educator and the learner. She stated that learning became much easier after these foundation phase learners were immersed in the second language for about a year or two.

Respondent 2 opposed this view. She stated that learning in a second language was ideal for the ESL learners at her school, provided it was done in a manner that did not discriminate against these learners. Most of these foundation phase learners were not exposed to the English language prior to them enrolling at this English medium school. She stated that in the early years educators had to have much tolerance and patience when teaching these learners. Respondent 2 also emphasized the use of brightly coloured teaching resources to make the learning process exciting for these ESL learners to grasp the English language. She further emphasized that once these ESL foundation phase learners mastered the skills of listening, reading, speaking and writing in the English language, English became their preferred tool of communication in school and in the community.
Question 11

Do you encourage code switching at your school?
If yes, in what grades and how often do educators and learners code-switch? If not, why?
At what stage will you discourage the use of code-switching at your school?

Respondent 1 informed the researcher that she would encourage the use of code switching only in the foundation phase at her school. Learners would be weaned off the use of code switching gradually as they became more and more proficient in the second language. She also indicated that EFL foundation phase educators make use of learners in their classes to code switch so that the educators could understand what ESL grade R and grade 1 learners were saying. The ESL educators in the foundation phase used code switching as well. They used it to translate words in the mother-tongue to ensure that the ESL learners in their classes grasped the concepts taught.

Respondent 2 stated that code switching must only be used as a last resort, in any grade. She said that she encouraged educators in the foundation phase to try a variety of methods to teach English to these ESL learners at her school. Only if these methods failed then educators should make use of code switching in their lessons. The two respondents concurred that code switching must be stopped completely by the time the learners go to grade 4. They said that three years were adequate for these ESL learners to acquire a good grasp of the second language.

Question 12

What is your view of ‘mother-tongue instruction for the foundation phase’?

Respondent 2 stated quite vehemently that mother-tongue instruction for the foundation phase learners was not a solution to the problem. She stated that if any language was taught properly it could be the MOI. She further elaborated that all educators must be well equipped to teach the language that is used as the MOI at the school, as well as be able to use the MOI with relative ease.
She was also of the view that if mother-tongue instruction was used in the foundation phase then the intermediate phase educators would be faced with the problem of teaching English from the basic level. This would cause a backlog in the education of the learner. This would also cause both the learners and educators to become frustrated.

Respondent 1 presented the view that the sooner the learner is taught in English the sooner he/she would master the language. She elaborated that the sooner the immersion in the new language is made the earlier the learner would be proficient in that language. She cited examples of learners who were enrolled in English medium ex-model C and private schools compared to those learners who enrolled in isiZulu medium schools to strengthen her discussion. In these comparisons it was clear that the learners enrolled at English medium schools from grade R had a better grasp of the English language than those learners who began instruction in English from grade 4 onwards.

**Question 13**

*What would be some of the challenges and coping strategies of educators in the intermediate phase at your school if 12 above were true?*

Respondent 1 was clear in her response to this question. She stated that the educators in the intermediate phase would have no choice but to resort to code switching in the classroom. EFL learners who did not have a good grasp of the mother-tongue would be obliged to make use of learners in their classes to assist with code switching and translations.

Respondent 2 said that these intermediate phase educators would be obliged to cope with these learners who have had grounding in their mother-tongue during their foundation phase years at school. She also indicated that bilingual education would then become a necessity in the intermediate phase at this school. I am of the belief that she was confusing the terms “code switching” with “bilingual education”. Code switching would mean a translation of terms into another language, while bilingual education is being taught two languages
as subjects. This school is currently multi-lingual, as learners are being taught three languages in the intermediate phase. In the foundation phase learners are being taught English only. The MOI is also English. Learners and educators were encouraged to speak English at all times, even during their casual discussions with their peers. This was suggested by the management of the school in order to facilitate a mastery of the English language at a faster pace. It seemed to be working with those educators and learners who were putting this into practice.

**Question 14**

Is there a difference with learners who receive grounding in their mother-tongue compared to those learners who receive grounding in English? Explain.

Respondent 1 stated that she was unsure if there was a difference with learners who received grounding in mother-tongue instruction compared to those learners who received grounding in English. She informed the researcher that she could not make this comparison as she did not interact with learners who received grounding in mother-tongue instruction.

Respondent 2 did interact with learners who received grounding in both-mother tongue instruction and English. She agreed that there was a difference with learners who received grounding in their mother-tongue compared to those learners who received grounding in English. At the outset she stated that the disadvantage of mother-tongue instruction was that all mother-tongue languages in South Africa were not international languages. These languages were only used locally by the inhabitants of South Africa. She also stated that learners who received their grounding in their mother-tongue were at a distinct disadvantage when they enrolled at tertiary institutions. The MOI at most tertiary institutions in South Africa was English, but the majority of learners who enrolled at these institutions were ESL learners. Respondent 2 elaborated that mother-tongue instruction further inhibited learners when they communicated with people globally. She indicated that the international lingua franca was
English, and learners should be prepared from primary school level to merge into the global communication network with relative ease.

6.3 Analysis of observations

The researcher observed the respondents at the research site for the specific purpose of this study over a period of two years. As the principal researcher and a manager at the site, he observed and interacted with respondents over a period of 12 years as a “participant observer”. In so doing, the role of the researcher was unobtrusive and the data gathering process was not jeopardised in any way.

The MOI at the majority of schools in the area was isiZulu. This site was one of three schools within a 5km radius that offered English as its MOI. This prompted parents of ESL learners to enrol their children at these English medium schools. The researcher noticed that parents of ESL learners preferred their children to travel great distances in order to receive an education through the medium of English. Those parents who could afford paying taxi and bus fares did so, while the other parents had no option but to enrol their children at isiZulu medium schools closer to their homes.

The socio economic status of the community was noticed as being poor. According to the annual statistics collated by the school, there were approximately 40% of households in the area that were living below the breadline. The educators at the school sought donations of groceries and clothing for the poverty-stricken learners at the school on a regular basis. There were a large number of learners who lived with their grandmothers, as their parents were either deceased or had abandoned them. These grandparents survived on their normal state pensions. Many learners from this school were also from single parent families, and most single parent families were headed by their mothers. The last survey conducted by the school early in 2010 revealed that almost 60% of learners at the school were registered for and/or receiving child support grants from the state.
During observations at this site, the researcher noticed that the parents/grandparents of ESL learners chose to enrol their children/grandchildren at an English medium school, knowing full well that their children/grandchildren would receive an education through the medium of English. They said that they wanted the next generation of children to be fluent in English. The majority of respondents also stated that English was a universal language whereas isiZulu was a local language. These respondents informed the researcher that they wanted their children to learn the English language in order for them to become employable in the broader international market. They also stated that, if their children learnt through the medium of isiZulu, then they would only be employable in the local economic markets. The respondents informed the researcher that they were satisfied with the MOI offered at this school, as it was what they wanted for their children. They were also happy that their mother-tongue language was taught to their children as a subject at this school and was not totally disregarded.

The admission process at this school was conducted in September or October for the preceding year. The grades, dates and times of admission were advertised at the local library, crèches, shopping centres and other places which were frequented by the residents of this community. Letters were also given to the learners at the school. The criteria for admission to a particular grade were based on vacancies in that grade and the age of the learner, and the learner had to have passed the previous grade. Preference was also given to learners and parents who lived in the area. There was also a great demand from parents who lived further away from the school to admit their children to that school. Previously the management of the school had acceded to such requests. However, more recently, learners who lived further away from the school were refused admission because of the non-availability of places at this school, and their parents were asked to seek placement for their children at schools nearer to their homes.

The enrolment period at this school was usually one month. Prior to 2009 parents used to enrol their children at the beginning of the school year. This practice disrupted teaching and learning at the school for long periods in the
new school year, and obliged the management to conduct the process of admission in the preceding year. In 2009 this process was conducted for a period of one month. The demands of the community obliged the school to enrol more learners into grade 1 for 2010. In the year 2010 a period of three weeks was allocated for admissions for the 2011 school year. However, the admissions for 2011 of almost 160 learners for grades R and 1 were concluded in just three days. This was because more and more parents of ESL learners deemed it prudent to enrol their children early at school. They also saw the urgency to secure a place for their children at an English medium school.

The enrolment at the researcher’s school over the past ten years was over 1100 learners each year. There was always a great demand from parents of English second language learners to enrol their children at this school, as the MOI at this school was English. All specialist rooms at this school were used as ordinary classrooms, as parents from the community and community leaders pressurized the management of the school to enrol more learners than they would normally have enrolled. This was done at the expense of quality education, as class sizes were now inflated to over 40, and these large class sizes affected lesson delivery and discipline in some of the classes. This school was built to cater for a total enrolment of only 720 learners.

The researcher noticed that the ESL educators at this school chose to enrol their children at ex-model C schools, the MOI of these schools being English. They were well resourced, as they all charged a higher school fee than the other public schools. Their teacher: pupil ratio was also much lower than in other public schools. These practices of the ESL educators at this school showed that English was not only the preferred MOI for education of learners for the parents of ESL learners at this site, but that it was also the preferred choice for education of the ESL educators for their children.

In November 2010 the Education Human Resource Directorate (EHRD) conducted a day-long workshop for managers of schools in the Pinetown District. It was an advocacy campaign which focused on “content based language for learning and teaching” (cobalt). This campaign promoted
instruction in English in all public schools in South Africa. The actual programme was scheduled to be work shopped with all educators early in 2011. The researcher was fortunate in being able to attend this advocacy campaign, which promoted the use of English in all learning areas/subjects at public schools where the LoLT was English.

The programme was designed to ensure that indigenous mother-tongue languages would not be totally disregarded in the school curriculum, but would be taught as a subject at primary school level. It was significant to this study that the facilitators of this workshop, who were all Blacks, also encouraged the managers of schools to facilitate changing the MOI at their schools to English. They substantiated this stance by stating that the current status quo of teaching in isiZulu (or any other indigenous language) and assessing in English was confusing and stressful for the learner. Many of the members of the audience were reluctant to acknowledge this stance by the EHRD. Some even stated that many researchers recognized mother-tongue instruction to be the best MOI during the formative years of a child’s education at primary school level. This programme conducted by the EHRD was to the researcher’s satisfaction, as he initially envisaged developing such a language policy for implementation at primary schools in KwaZulu-Natal and in South Africa.

6.4 Conclusion

The analysis of the qualitative data presented a further indication of the practices at this research site regarding ESL learners. The qualitative data correlated with the quantitative data analysed in the previous chapter. The use of both quantitative data and qualitative data thus ensured the collection of sufficient rich data to answer the critical research questions. The use of multiple methods of data gathering ensured the triangulation of data, ensuring the validity of the data collected. The researcher’s conclusions and recommendations are presented in the following chapter.
Chapter 7
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Introduction

In concluding this study this chapter discussed the extent to which the research aims and objectives were achieved. The aims were to explore the hegemonic position of English as the medium of instruction (MOI) at primary school level in KwaZulu-Natal (KZN); to interrogate how this position affected parents’ choice of MOI for their children; to cross-examine how the above affected the actual practice of MOI in the classroom with English second language (ESL) learners; and to provide guidance to parents in the form of a model outlining various choices with their concomitant projected outcomes.

7.2 General conclusions

These findings are listed and clarified as basic principles and themes in the sections below. The findings were from both the quantitative study and the qualitative enquiry. The data acquired from both strands (i.e. quantitative and qualitative) are compared and commonalities are obtained in order to attain a logical conclusion for the study.

This study interrogated data from a variety of sources with the aim of answering the critical research questions and to satisfy the aims of the study. During this summing up process commonalities were sought in the data, as well as main trends emerging from the data analysis phase. The themes which emerged in the course of the analysis are summarised in Table 7.1.
Table 7.1 Themes which emerged in the study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Quantitative Data</th>
<th>Qualitative Data</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Choice of school</td>
<td>The data reflected that the majority of parents chose to enrol their children at this school because of the MOI offered. A negligible percentage of parents enrolled their children at this school because of locality.</td>
<td>Parents informed me that they wanted their children to be enrolled at this school because it was an English medium school.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents’ choice of English as the MOI at school</td>
<td>Quantitative data revealed that an overwhelming majority chose English to be the MOI.</td>
<td>All parents interviewed indicated that they wanted their children to learn through the medium of English.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents’ attitude towards mother-tongue instruction</td>
<td>A very small percentage chose both English and their home language to be the MOI, while no-one chose only their home language to be their MOI.</td>
<td>All parents were against their home language being the only MOI for their children.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents’ reaction to global pressures over English as MOI</td>
<td>Parents succumbed to global pressures by indicating that they wished for their children to use English as the MOI.</td>
<td>Parents succumbed to global pressures as they revealed by their actions of enrolling their children at English medium schools as they wished for their children to learn through the medium of English.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety vs. quality education</td>
<td>Most of the parents indicated that they chose this school as it offered English as the MOI. They did not mind whether their children used public or private transport.</td>
<td>Parents did not mind their children travelling great distances, as long as they received quality education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coping strategies for children to improve in the new MOI</td>
<td>The parents exposed their children to print media and library books printed in English. They also exposed them to television programmes broadcast in English.</td>
<td>Parents wished for the school to conduct extra classes for their children to improve in English. Many of them were confident that the school was empowered sufficiently to assist their children to cope.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The data showed that the research hypothesis was largely correct: the data suggested that English enjoyed a hegemonic position at primary schools in KZN. Parents of ESL learners were influenced to a great extent by this hegemonic position of English at primary school level. This hegemonic position of English emanated from pressure from a variety of fields (local, national and international) on the citizens of South Africa for using English more than any of the other popular languages of the world, including indigenous African languages. English was seen to be significant mainly for the purposes of global trade and industry, and also so that South African citizens could communicate with each other in the global arena with relative ease. The hegemonic position that English enjoys in the global village thus has influence at lower levels in the educational milieu of primary schools in KwaZulu-Natal.

The majority of parents of ESL learners at primary school level wished for their children to be taught through the medium of English in order for them to be accepted into this competitive global village. These parents noted that if their children were taught through the medium of their mother-tongue, namely, isiZulu or any other indigenous African language, then their children would be disempowered and disadvantaged in the global arena. They wanted their children to receive the best possible education so that they would be more successful than their parents. These parents attributed achieving this success to English being used as MOI for their learners in the classroom.

This strongly suggested that it is the hegemonic position of English which affected these parents' choice of MOI for their children in primary schools in KZN; their preference for enrolling their children in English medium schools in KZN further supported the hegemonic position of English. However, while parents deemed it imperative for their children to learn through the medium of English at primary school level, many of them also deemed it important for their children to learn their mother-tongue, albeit as a subject at primary school level. Some parents wanted their children to learn in both their mother-tongue and in English at primary school level.
There are currently many primary schools that are now multi-cultural and multi-lingual in KZN because of the movement of ESL learners from isiZulu medium schools to English medium schools. There are also now many ESL educators teaching at primary schools where English is the MOI. In order to ensure that the ESL learners acquire a better understanding of the content of lessons taught, these educators often opt to code switch in class, as they feel that it is easier to code switch in class than to ensure that ESL learners become more fluent in the MOI. This often has disastrous consequences for the learners, as they become reliant on code switching, and often perform poorly in year-end examinations and standardised tests set by the Department of Education.

After arriving at the commonalities and main trends of the study, the researcher developed a conceptual framework in the form of a model to assist parents of ESL learners make informed decisions when selecting the MOI for their children at primary school level in KZN. The model is practical in nature as it is easily understood by the various stakeholders involved in the education of the learners, namely, educators, parents, DoE officials and learners themselves. However, if the model could have been formulated before the research was conducted then it would have been able to be sampled with a larger segment of the population to test its effectiveness and reliability.

The model is four pronged, as shown in Figure 7.1. The first strand would be a questionnaire to parents consisting of ten questions. The answers to these questions would suggest a list of needs of these parents. This is followed up with a flow chart detailing the consequences of parents’ choices for the various choices of MOI. At the same time, a pictograph can be introduced to these parents, reflecting a graphical representation of the flow chart. It is hoped that this will assist those parents who have challenges with reading, whether in their mother-tongue or in English.

In order for the model to be effective, a series of induction workshops need to be conducted for parents of ESL learners by individual schools at their respective sites, as well as by the Department of Education at centralised sites.
These workshops should be conducted regularly, so that parents and children will not have to experience long term the stress caused by having language barriers affect their learning. The initial induction workshop should be conducted when parents of ESL learners apply for placement of their children at the school. Follow-up workshops should be conducted at regular intervals to guide and inform these parents about their children’s progress while learning in a second (or “other”) language.

7.3 Recommendations

7.3.1 Model assisting parents’ choice of MOI

The main recommendation which developed from this study is a model designed in the form of a ten-point questionnaire to assist parents of ESL learners to make the correct choice of MOI for their children at primary school level (Annexure 10). This model was formulated to guide parents who are
unsure as to what MOI to choose for their children at primary school level, and was piloted with eight parents of ESL learners at the research site. The outcomes of this model are listed below:

- All respondents spoke isiZulu most often at home.
- 50% of respondents (4) stated that isiZulu was the MOI at the school closest to their home.
- 75% (6) indicated that they wanted their children to learn only through the medium of English.
- 100% of respondents (8) replied that English was the MOI at the school where they had enrolled their children.
- All respondents indicated that their children would cope with relative ease with the MOI in all subjects at this school.
- 50% stated that they would use library books printed in English to assist their children to improve, while 25% indicated that homework would be the solution to improving in this medium of instruction.
- 100% of respondents were resolute in their opinion that learning English as a second language and using it as the MOI would benefit their children in communicating with people from other countries and to get good jobs.
- 75% of the respondents informed me that learning in their mother-tongue would not benefit their children as they would not be able to communicate with the outside world.
- 37.5% indicated that they would evaluate their children’s performance at this English medium school between 4 to 6 months, while 62.5% of them did not answer this question.
- 75% of the respondents stated that they would try their best to assist their children improve if they found that they were having difficulties at this English medium school. They would even ask their children’s teachers to assist if the need arose.

A flow chart (Annexure 11) and a pictograph (Annexure12) were derived from the ten-point questionnaire which generated the above data. The flow chart is an analytical type, providing a systematic, logical and rational guide designed
mainly for use by researchers and members from the Department of Education. A much simpler to follow pictograph was also derived from the ten-point questionnaire. This was designed for use by ESL learners and their parents, and will be developed in the form of a poster and/or pamphlet at a later stage.

7.3.2 Recommendations for further research in this area

Further research could be carried out in other provinces in South Africa, as it would be interesting to note if other linguistic groups shared the same ideologies as the sample researched. It would also be interesting to note if other linguistic groups in South Africa viewed English as important as did the sample.

A longitudinal study, on the other hand, might reveal a differing viewpoint. This study was a cross-sectional study. It extrapolated data from a single point in time. A longitudinal study would be interesting as it would extrapolate data at different points in time. It could also track changes in belief patterns in the parents of ESL learners in KwaZulu-Natal, and could monitor changes in language policy from the national education department. All this could be monitored over a longer period than the current research period. A longitudinal study of those learners receiving mother-tongue instruction from grade one through to grade twelve would make an interesting investigation, in comparison to those receiving instruction in a second language (English) from grade one to grade twelve, as well as those receiving mother-tongue instruction in their formative years and then switched to a second language (English) in grade four.

Samples from a variety of societal settings would be interesting to investigate. Such societal settings would include schools from rural settings, from urban settings – ex-model C schools and under resourced schools, and from informal environments. ESL learners from the different types of school environments mentioned above would definitely receive varying degrees of education at each school, depending on the quality of physical and human resources available.
7.4 Conclusion

The data gathered in this study indicated that parents of SL learners tend to register their children at the nearest school – not by locality but by the MOI, i.e. they tend to choose the nearest school that offers English as the MOI for their children. These parents chose English as the MOI for their children because it was perceived that an English medium education would empower their children and prepare them to be competitive internationally, i.e. fit into the global village. Their mother-tongue was not regarded by these parents as a tool for upward mobility in the global arena. Parents of ESL learners were of the view that their children’s progress would be stifled if they were to learn only through the medium of their (isiZulu) mother-tongue at primary school level.

Learning in only their mother-tongue was thought to potentially hinder these ESL learners in other respects as well. It was thought that, when they made the switch of MOI from mother-tongue to English in Grade Four, they would tend to be at a disadvantage. They would be unduly stressed by having to learn a new language at this late stage of development. In a multi-lingual school they would be stigmatised as underperformers in content subjects because they did not have a proper grasp of the MOI. They would grow and be promoted having a minimum grasp of the MOI. This disadvantage would be carried through to secondary school and to tertiary institutions. At university these learners are expected to have an advanced knowledge of English. All tuition is offered in English. A few universities in South Africa translate tuition in indigenous African languages, if they have the resources to do so. These are few and far between. Post-graduates are expected to have a thorough grasp of the English language. If these ESL learners are not taught through the medium of English from the foundation phase level at primary school then they would be at a distinct disadvantage throughout their scholastic life.

My final question is: “When should English second language learners be exposed to English as the MOI in order for them to achieve maximum benefit of this change to a new language of communication?” In my opinion, they must be
exposed to English as the MOI from as early an age as possible. Grade R ought to be the starting point for formal schooling. Informal education in English as a medium of communication should commence in the home, at the playground and at crèches. These ESL learners should be fluent in English by the end of the foundation phase (grade three) at primary school level in order for the playing fields to be levelled for isiZulu mother tongue speaking students.
Appendix 1

ETHICS STATEMENT: Please complete and sign the attached Ethics Questionnaire.

All students who intend to complete research projects under the auspices of Durban University of Technology are required to complete this form. This is an abridged version of DUT’s ethics questionnaire for students conducting research in the field of commerce.

Use the Durban University of Technology's Research Ethics Policy and Guidelines to ensure that ethical issues have been identified and addressed in the most appropriate manner, before finalizing and submitting your research proposal.

Please indicate [by an X as appropriate] which of the following ethical issues could impact on your research. Please type the motivations/further explanations where required in the cell headed COMMENTS. Copying and pasting the appropriate sections from your proposal may not suffice - please ensure that your justification/comments are addressed fully, as issues that inadequately answered will be returned to the student for further comment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>DECEPTION</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Is deception of any kind to be used? If so, provide a motivation for acceptability.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comment:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<p>|    | <strong>CONFIDENTIALITY</strong> |
| 2. | Does the data collection process involve access to confidential personal/organizational data (including access to data for purposes other than this particular research project) without prior consent of the subjects? |
|    | Comment: |
|    | No X |
|    | Yes |
|    | NA |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Question</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>Comment:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Will the data be collected and disseminated in a manner that will ensure confidentiality of the data and the identity of the participants? Please explain.</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>N/A X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Will the data obtained be stored and ultimately disposed of in a manner that will ensure the confidentiality of the participants? If “No” please explain. If “Yes” how long will the confidential data be retained after the study (and by whom) and how will it be disposed of at the end of the period?</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Comment: The data will be retained for the duration of the study by the researcher; copies would be given to DUT. At the end of the study period data will be deleted from all data bases. Printed material will be shredded by the researcher.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Will the research involve access to data banks that are subject to privacy legislation? If yes, specify and explain.</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Comment:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>RECRUITMENT Does respondent recruitment involve any direct personal approach from the researchers to the potential subjects? Refer to the sampling plan in your proposal and copy the relevant sections here.</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Comment:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Are participants linked to the researcher in a particular relationship i.e. employees, colleagues, family, students? If yes, specify how.</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Comment:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>If yes to 7, is there any pressure from researchers or others that might influence the potential subjects to enroll? Elaborate.</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Comment:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Does recruitment involve the circulation/publication of an advertisement, circular, letter etc? Specify.</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Comment:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Will subjects receive any financial or other benefits as a result of participation? If yes, explain the nature of the reward, and safeguards.</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Comment:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Question</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td></td>
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<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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</table>
| 11 | Is the research targeting any particular ethnic or community group? If yes, motivate why it is necessary/acceptable. If you have not consulted a representative of this group, give a reason. In addition explain any consultative processes, identifying participants. Should consultation not take place, give a motivation.  
Comment:                                                                                   | Yes | X  |
| 12 | Does the research fulfill the criteria for informed consent? [See guidelines]. If yes, no further answer is needed. If no, please specify how and why.  
Comment:                                                                                   | Yes | X  |
| 13 | Does consent need to be obtained from special and vulnerable groups (see guidelines). If yes, describe the nature of the group and the procedures used to obtain permission.  
Comment: Informed consent need to be obtained from the Department of Education, the principal of [Name omitted] Primary School, learners and parents of learners. | Yes | X  |
| 14 | Will a Subject Information Letter be provided and a written consent is obtained? If no, explain. If yes, attach copies to proposal. In the case of subjects who are not familiar with English (e.g. it is a second language), explain what arrangements will be made to ensure comprehension of the Subject Information Letter, Informed Consent Form and other questionnaires/documents.  
Comment: The Subject Information Letter, Informed Consent Form and Questionnaires will be translated in the mother-tongue language of need. | Yes | X  |
| 15 | Will results of the study be made available to those interested? If no, explain why. If yes, explain how.  
Comment: Copies of the dissertation will be displayed in the DUT library as reference material for other discerning students. The research findings will be made available to interested officials at the DoE in reports, the principal of the school, as well as to concerned academics at seminars. | Yes | X  |
| 16 | RISKS TO SUBJECTS  
Will participants be asked to perform any acts or make statements, which might be expected to cause, discomfort, compromise them, diminish self-esteem or cause them to experience embarrassment or regret? If yes, explain.  
Comment:                                                                                   | Yes | No |
| 17 | Might any aspect of your study reasonably be expected to place the participant at risk of criminal or civil liability? If yes, explain.  
Comment:                                                                                   | Yes | No |
|    | Might any aspect of your study reasonably be expected to place the participant at risk of damage to their financial standing or social standing or | Yes | No |
18. employability? If yes, explain.  
Comment:

19. Does the research involve any questions, stimuli, tasks, investigations or procedures which may be experienced by participants as stressful, anxiety producing, noxious, aversive or unpleasant during or after the research procedures? If yes, explain.  
Comment:  
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>X</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**BENEFITS**

20. Is this research expected to benefit the subjects directly or indirectly? Explain any such benefits.  
Comment: This research is expected to benefit the subjects indirectly. It is hoped that this research will offer some insight into the choice of English as MOI where the learner's home language is isiZulu, and where government policy (not to say the learner's developmental needs) in fact requires isiZulu as MOI. The value of the research, it is thought, lies in clarifying the various influences at play, in particular, the hegemonic position of English, and will offer stakeholders a rational, rather than political or emotional basis for choice of MOI, as well as pointing out the possible consequences of such choices.  
|   | Yes | X | No |

21. Does the researcher expect to obtain any direct or indirect financial or other benefits from conducting the research? If yes, explain.  
Comment: The researcher will be rewarded by obtaining the degree Doctor of Technology.  
|   | Yes | X | No |

**SPONSORS: INTERESTS AND INDEMNITY**

22. Will this research be undertaken on the behalf of or at the request of a company, or other commercial entity or any other sponsor? If yes, identify the entity.  
|   | Yes | X | No |

23. If yes to 22, will that entity undertake in writing to abide by Durban University of Technology's Research Committees Research Ethics Policy and Guidelines? If yes, do not explain further. If no, explain.  
Comment:  
|   | Yes | No | N/A | X |

24. If yes to 23, will that entity undertake in writing to indemnify the institution and the researchers? If yes, do not explain further. If no, explain.  
Comment:  
|   | Yes | No | N/A | X |

25. Does the researcher have indemnity cover relating to research activities? If yes, specify. If no, explain why not.  
Comment:  
|   | Yes | No | N/A | X |
The undersigned declares that the above questions have been answered truthfully and accurately.

STUDENT NAME : Mr. Jeevarathanum Naidoo (Jeeva)

SIGNATURE : ........................................

DATE : 31st March 2009

................................................

................................................
Appendix 2

7 May 2009

The Principal:
[DETAILS OMITTED]

Madam

Re.: REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT [NAME OMITTED] PRIMARY SCHOOL

I am currently reading for a Doctorate in Technology Degree through the Durban University of Technology. This research study is entitled: *The hegemonic positions of English as a medium of instruction (MOI) at primary school level, and its impact on parents' preferences of schooling for their children.* Part of the study entails research in order to obtain data. The study will interrogate the power of English nationally and internationally. The study will also offer stakeholders a rather rational basis for the choice of MOI and point out the consequences of making such choices. The results of this research will offer parents, school management teams, school governing bodies, researchers and DoE officials some guidance and clarity on the choice of MOI at primary school level.

The researcher undertakes to assure participants of the following:

- To maintain participants’ confidentiality;
- To protect your rights and welfare, i.e. to ensure that no harm comes to you and your school as a result of your participation in this research;
- No manipulation or withholding of information is involved in this study;
- To present information and transcripts used in this research in such a way as to maintain the participant’s dignity, and if in doubt to first consult with participants;
To make available to participants the final copy of this research publication; and
The participants are free to withdraw from this research process at any time, if the need should so arise.

Bearing the above in mind I humbly request of you permission to conduct research at your school.

Yours sincerely

____________________
Promoter
J. Naidoo
Dr D. Pratt - DUT
Doctor of Technology Student
Tel.: [omitted]
Student Number: [omitted]
Fax.: [omitted]
Appendix 3

[DETAILS OF SITE OMITTED]

8 May 2009

Mr J. Naidoo
Doctor of Technology Student]
Student Number: [omitted]

RE.: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT [NAME OMITTED]
PRIMARY SCHOOL

Thank you for your correspondence dated 07/05/2009.

Permission is granted for your research. Hoping that the findings will inform us at school on the best for our learners.

Best wishes for your studies.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully

________________________________________________________________

PRINCIPAL
[NAME OMITTED]
Appendix 4

LETTER OF CONSENT

1 April 2009

Dear Participant

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this research study entitled: *The hegemonic positions of English as a medium of instruction (MOI) at primary school level, and its impact on parents’ preferences of schooling for their children.*

The study will interrogate the power of English nationally and internationally. The study will also offer stakeholders a rather rational basis for the choice of MOI and point out the consequences of making such choices. The results of this research will offer parents, school management teams, school governing bodies, researchers and DoE officials some guidance and clarity on the choice of MOI at primary school level.

The researcher undertakes to assure you of the following:

- To maintain your confidentiality;
- To protect your rights and welfare, i.e. to ensure that no harm comes to you as a result of your participation in this research;
- No manipulation or withholding of information is involved in this study;
- To present information and transcripts used in this research in such a way as to maintain the participant’s dignity, and if in doubt to first consult with you;
- To make available to you the final copy of this research publication; and
- The participant is free to withdraw from this research process at any time, if the need should so arise.

It is hoped that education at large will benefit from your insights in the choice of medium of instruction at primary school level. I acknowledge your sacrifice in
volunteering to add to a body of academic knowledge and your perseverance in carrying out this research to its completion.

Yours sincerely

____________________
J. Naidoo
Doctor of Technology Student
Student Number:

I, ____________________ (participant’s name), agree to participate in this study, to add to the body of academic knowledge on the medium of instruction at primary school level.

____________________  ____________
Participant’s signature   Date
LETTER OF CONSENT

Mbamb’iqhaza

Ngiyabonga ngokuvuma kwakho ukuba ingxenye yalolu cwaningo lwe: “The hegemonic positions of English as a medium of instruction (MOI) at the primary school level, and its impact on parents’ preferences of school for their children”.

Lenhlolovo izocwaninga amandla olimi lwesiNgisi ezweni lonke lakuleli nakwamanye amazwe angaphandle. Lenhlolo izobuye inike abaneqhaza isisekelo sokukhetha ulimi okuzofundiswa ngalo futhi iveze imiphumela edalwe ukuqoka okwenziwe. Imiphumela yalolu cwaningo izonika abazali, izinhlaka zokuphatha ezikoleni, izigungu zokubuswa kwezikole, abacwaningi nabasebenzela uMnyango wezeMfundo izindlela zokucaciseleka ngokukhethwa kolimi lokufundisa ezikoleni zamabanga aphansi.

Umcwaningi uzokwenza loku okulandelayo njengesiqiniseko:

- Ukungadaluli igama lobambe iqhaza;
- Ukuvikele amalungelo nenhlalakahle yakho, ukuqiniseka ukuthi awuhlukumezeki ngokubamba iqhaza kulolu cwaningo;
- Akuzobakhona ukusetshenziswa nokufihlwa kolwazi kulolu cwaningo;
- Ukuveza ulwazi nokusetshenziswe kulolu cwaningo ngendlela ezovikela isithunzi sobambe iqhaza, okuyothi uma ngingenasiqiniseko ngixhumane naye;
- Ukuwenzela ikhophi yokucina yokubhalwe kulolu cwaningo;
- Obambe iqhaza kulolu cwaningo ukhululekile ukuhoxa kulona noma ngasiphi isikhathi, uma kuvela isidingo;

Ngikholwa ukuthi ezeMfundo zonkana ziyosizakala ngemibono yakho yokukhethwa kolimi lokufundisa ezikoleni zamabanga aphansi. Ngobonga ukuzinikela kwakho ngokuba ingxenye yokwandisa ulwazi emikhakheni wezemfundo kanye nokubekezela ukwenza lolu cwaningo luphothulwe.
Ozithobayo

____________________

J. Naidoo
Doctor of Technology Student
Student Number: 20825047

____________________

Mina, ______________________________ (igama lobambe iqhaza), ngiyavuma
ukuba ingxenye yalolu cwaningo, nokunenezela kulwazi emkhakheni wezeMfundo
ngolimi lokufundisa ezikoleni zamabanga aphansi.

____________________

Obamb’iqhaza Usuku
Appendix 5

11 May 2009

Dear Respondent

This questionnaire aims to add to a body of knowledge that is vital for the improvement of education in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa and possibly internationally. The study concentrates on the medium of instruction (MOI) at primary schools and the power of English.

You are therefore required to dedicate a few minutes of your time to answer this questionnaire to the best of your knowledge and experience.

- Remember, there is no right or wrong answer.
- Do not write your name on any part of this questionnaire.
- In cases of multiple choice questions, choose only one answer.
- If you make a mistake, strike it off neatly and write the correct answer.
- Please complete all answers in this questionnaire.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</table>

1. I belong to the age group: (choose only one answer with an X)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>18-29</th>
<th>30-39</th>
<th>40-49</th>
<th>50-59</th>
<th>60+</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2. How many children/grandchildren do you have at this school? (choose only one answer with an X)

<p>| | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>More than 4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. What grade/s are they in?

Grade__, Grade__, Grade__, Grade__, Grade__, Grade__, Grade__

4. Why did you choose to send your child/children to this school?
__________________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________________

5. Choose only one answer with an X.

The medium of instruction offered to my child/ren was as result of my own choice. I chose to enrol them at this school.  

The medium of instruction offered to my child/ren was beyond my control. I was forced to enrol them at this school.

6. How is education at this school different from the education received at the neighbouring school/s in the area?
__________________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________________

7. What language do you speak with your child at home (your home language)?
__________________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________________

8. My child/children is/are taught in English as the medium of instruction at primary school level. (Choose only one answer)

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>I am Not Sure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

170
9. It is important for my child to learn only English at primary school level. 
(Choose only one answer)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10. It is important for my child to learn only his/her home language at primary school level. (Choose only one answer)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

11. It is important for my child to learn both English and his/her home language at primary school level. (Choose only one answer)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

12. My child will improve his/her education if he/she is taught only in English. 
(choose only one answer)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13. My child will improve his/her education if he/she is taught only in his/her home language. (choose only one answer)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
14. My child will improve his/her education if he/she is taught in both English as well as in his/her home language. (choose only one answer)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
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</table>

15. I use only English as a medium of communication at my place of work. (choose only one answer)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>All the time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

16. I use only my home language as a medium of communication at my place of work. (choose only one answer)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>All the time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

17. I use both English and my home language as a medium of communication at my place of work. (choose only one answer)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>All the time</th>
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18. I read newspapers and magazines printed only in English.

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<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>All the time</th>
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19. I read newspapers and magazines printed only in my home language.

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<tr>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>All the time</th>
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20. I read newspapers and magazines printed in both English and my home language. (choose only one answer)

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<tr>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>All the time</th>
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21. I encourage my child to read newspapers and magazines printed only in English. (choose only one answer)

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<th>Rarely</th>
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<th>Often</th>
<th>All the time</th>
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22. I encourage my child to read newspapers and magazines printed only in my home language. (choose only one answer)

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<th>Rarely</th>
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<th>All the time</th>
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23. I encourage my child to read newspapers and magazines printed in both English and my home language. (choose only one answer)

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<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>All the time</th>
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24. I encourage my child to read library books printed only in English. (choose only one answer)

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<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>All the time</th>
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25. I encourage my child to read library books printed only in my home language. (choose only one answer)

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<th>Rarely</th>
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26. I encourage my child to read library books printed in both English and my home language. (choose only one answer)

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<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
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<th>All the time</th>
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27. I watch television programmes only in English. (choose only one answer)

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<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>All the time</th>
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28. I watch television programmes only in my home language.

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<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
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<th>All the time</th>
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29. I watch television programmes in both English and my home language.

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<tr>
<th>Rarely</th>
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<th>All the time</th>
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30. I encourage my child to watch television programmes only in English.

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<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
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<th>All the time</th>
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31. I encourage my child to watch television programmes only in my home language. (choose only one answer)

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<th>Rarely</th>
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32. I encourage my child to watch television programmes in both English and my home language. (choose only one answer)

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<th>Rarely</th>
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33. Are there any comments that you would like to make, or, questions you would like to ask, about the medium of instruction (MOI) used at primary school level.

__________________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________________

~ ~ ~ The End ~ ~ ~

~ ~ ~ Thank You ~ ~ ~

Please place this questionnaire in the envelope provided, seal it and return to the class teacher or the principal of the school.

On behalf of the Durban University of Technology, I thank you for participating in this research. Your inputs, comments and time are valued and appreciated.

The Researcher
Appendix 6

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

EDUCATORS

1. Why, in your opinion, do parents of English second language learners enrol their children at English medium schools?

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

2. What criteria are used to select learners at this school?

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

3. Do you envisage changing the medium of instruction (MOI) from English to isiZulu in the near future? _______ Why do you say so?

________________________________________________________________________

4. How would English first language educators cope with this change in MOI?

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

5. Do you think a change in the MOI would affect the enrolment at this school? _______ Explain.

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
6. What would be some of the other consequences of this change of MOI?
__________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________

7. What mechanisms do you employ, as a class teacher, to overcome language barriers with the learners whose home language differs from the MOI?
__________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________

8. What assistance do you receive from other government departments and NGOs in overcoming this challenge of teaching English as a second language?
__________________________________________________________

9. Do you think that this situation of learning in a second language is the ideal for learners at your school? __________ Explain.
__________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________

10. Do you encourage code-switching at your school? __________
    If yes, in what grades and how often do you and/or learners code-switch?
    At what stage will you discourage the use of code-switching in your class/school?
    If no, why?
    __________________________________________________________
    __________________________________________________________
11. What is your view of “mother tongue instruction for the foundation phase”?
__________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________

What would be your anticipated outcomes of each area of research?
__________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________

Thank You for granting me permission to conduct this interview and for your invaluable responses.

You would be informed of the outcomes of the research.

The Researcher
Appendix 7

Interview Schedule
Management

1. Why did you choose to enrol English second language learners at this school?

2. Why, in your opinion, do parents of English second language learners enrol their children at English medium schools?

3. What criteria do you use to select learners?

4. Do you envisage changing the medium of instruction (MOI) from English to isiZulu in the near future? Why do you say so?

5. How would English first language educators cope with this change in MOI?

6. Do you think a change in the MOI would affect the enrolment at this school? Explain.

7. What would be some of the other consequences of this change of MOI?

8. What mechanisms do you employ to overcome language barriers with the learners whose home language differs from the MOI?

9. What assistance do you receive from other government departments and NGOs in overcoming this challenge of teaching English as a second language?
10. Do you think that this situation of learning in a second language is the ideal for learners at your school? Explain.

11. Do you encourage code-switching at your school?
   If yes, in what grades and how often do educators/learners code-switch?
   At what stage will you discourage the use of code-switching at your school?
   If no, why?

12. What is your view of “mother tongue instruction for the foundation phase”?

13. What would be some of the coping strategies of educators in the intermediate phase at your school if 12 above were true?

14. Is there a difference with learners who receive grounding in mother tongue compared to those who receive grounding in English? Explain.

15. What areas of research would you encourage to be conducted at your school? What would be your anticipated outcomes of each area of research?

Thank You for granting me permission to conduct this interview and for your invaluable responses.
You would be informed of the outcomes of the research.

The Researcher
Appendix 8

OBSERVATION SCHEDULE

1 April 2010

The Researcher conducted observations of the primary respondents (parents of English second language learners) and the secondary respondents (management and educators) at the site for a period of approximately ten years. The actions of respondents were noted all through the admission process. Changes to the duration of the registration process over the ten year period were also observed.

Initially the management of the school attempted to commence with the registration of learners around September of the preceding year. Few parents adhered to this request to enrol their children early. This resulted in parents being in long queues at the beginning of the new school year. The admission of learners in the new school year resulted in much teaching time being lost as educators were called upon to assist in the admission process because of the influx of English second language learners into the area. Standing in long queues often frustrated the parents and many of the elderly parents and grandparents even got ill from being in the heat for prolonged periods. More parents began enrolling their children in the preceding year, when the initial call was made for admission of learners. In the September 2010 a timeframe of three weeks was allocated for the registration of 40 grade R learners and 120 grade one learners for the year 2011. This process was concluded in three days. In the new school year the gates had to be locked as a result of the demands by parents for the enrolment of more English second language learners at the school.
Endeavours were made by the management of the school to seek placement of these English second language learners at nearby isiZulu medium schools. This assistance was refused by these angry parents. They sought admission for their children at this or any other English medium school. This school has always been a popular choice for the parents of English second language learners from a ten kilometre radius of the school. This popularity ensured that the school had maintained an enrolment of approximately 1100 learners a year over a ten year period.
Appendix 9

Model to assist parents seek placement for their children at primary school level

1. What language do you speak most often at home with your children?
   ______________________

2. What language is offered as the medium of instruction (MOI) at the school that is closest to your home?
   ______________________

3. Why don’t you want to enrol your child at that school?
   ________________________________________________________________

4. What language is offered as the medium of instruction (MOI) at the school at which you wish to place your child in?
   ______________________

5. Will your child be able to cope in all subjects with the MOI used at this school? __________

6. What measures would you employ to assist your child to overcome the lag in understanding the MOI at this school?
   ________________________________________________________________
   ________________________________________________________________

7. Will learning in English as a second language benefit your child’s education? _____________
   Explain. ________________________________________________________
   ________________________________________________________________
8. Will your child benefit more if he/she were to learn in his/her mother tongue language? __________
   Explain.
   ______________________________________________________
   ______________________________________________________

9. What time frame would you allow before you evaluate the success of your child’s placement at this English medium school?
   ______________________

10. What actions would you take if you find that your child is not coping with learning in English as a second language?
    ________________________________
    ________________________________

    Thank you for your time.
    Your responses to these questions are valued.
Appendix 10

Model to assist parents of English second language learners make the correct choice of MOI for their children

Home Language

- English

Preference of MOI

- English
- isiZulu

No language learning

- Easy access to oral & written resources

Academic performance
- Learning faster
- Better marks

Globalisation

Not a regular choice made by parents of English first language learners

May be taught as a second or third language to these learners

These are the trends that emerged from the questioning of the respondents
Home Language

isiZulu

Preference of MOI

English

isiZulu

Academic performance

Is slow at first

May be better later with support systems

Need parental support and counselling for feelings of stress, culture shock, stigma and negative feelings for being put at a disadvantage

Lessons to build fluency in English listening/speaking/reading/writing

Extra lessons in academic Subjects geared towards ESL students

Academic performance is slow at first

May be better later when good grasp of MOI is attained

These are the trends that emerged from the questioning of the respondents

No language learning

Less access to oral and written resources

Cannot make use of global material

Jeopardises future prospects and access to university
Appendix 11

Pictograph
Flow charts depicting links between language spoken at home (home language) and the medium of instruction (MOI) offered at primary school level at schools in KwaZulu-Natal.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Home Language</th>
<th>Medium of Instruction</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>isiZulu</td>
<td>English</td>
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<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>isiZulu</td>
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<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Not Ideal

Ideal
Ideal

Home Language
isiZulu

Medium of Instruction
isiZulu

Current Practice

Home Languages
English & isiZulu;
English or
isiZulu

Medium of Instruction
English
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