

**THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE LANGUAGE POLICY AT
TSHWANE UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY: THE CASE OF
INDEGENOUS LANGUAGES**

BY

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DECLARATION

I declare that the implementation of the Language Policy at Tshwane University of Technology: The case of Indigenous Languages is my work and all sources used or quoted have been referenced.

Signature
(AJ Rasila)

Date

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ABSTRACT

The new South Africa is encouraging multilingualism. The Department of Education has given a mandate to promote African languages. The Department of Higher Education came up with higher education language policy in 2002. All the higher education institutions have to choose indigenous languages to promote. Tshwane University of Technology has decided to promote Setswana and siSwati as their primary and secondary languages, respectively, to be used within the university.

This study is about assessing the implementation of the Tshwane University of Technology's language Policy. The researcher uses mixed methods to conduct the research. A survey and observation were used as tools to collect data. The researcher observed the implementation of the language policy at Tshwane University of Technology (Soshanguve Campus). The researcher also reviewed the language policies for Higher education and the Tshwane University of Technology's language policy. The signage, marketing tools, billboards, directions and university documents were observed. This research was based on promoting the indigenous languages. From the data collected, Setswana is not used to convey the message within the university; therefore the indigenous languages are not yet implemented or promoted.

Key words: Implementation; language; language policy; higher education system; higher education institutions; university; university of technology; official language; indigenous language; TUT; Setswana; siSwati.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION.....	i
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	ii
ABSTRACT	iii

CHAPTER 1

BACKGROUND OF THE RESEARCH.....	1
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Definitions of concepts.....	1
1.2.1 Implementation.....	1
1.2.2 Language	2
1.2.3 Language policy	3
1.2.4 Higher education system.....	3
1.2.5 Higher education institution	4
1.2.6 University	5
1.2.7 University of technology	5
1.2.8 Official language	5
1.2.9 Indigenous language.....	6
1.2.10 Interview.....	6
1.2.11 Indirect interview	7
1.3 Background to the problem.....	7
1.4 Problem statement.....	13
1.5 Research aim and objectives.....	14
1.6 Significance of the research.....	14
1.7 Scope of the research.....	14
1.8 Plan of the research.....	15
1.9 Conclusion	15

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW	16
2.1 Introduction	16
2.2 Students' demographics	16
2.3 The acts and policies	17
2.3.1 Republic of South Africa's language acts	17
2.3.1.1 The Bantu Education Act, 1953.....	18
2.3.1.2 Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1961 (Act 32 of 1961).....	18
2.3.1.3 Amendment Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1963 (Act 9 of 1963)	18
2.3.1.4 Constitution amendment Act, 1971	19
2.3.1.5 Republic of South Africa Constitution Act, 1983.....	19
2.3.1.6 Interim Constitution of 1993	20
2.3.1.7 The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996.....	20
2.3.1.8 National Education Policy Act (Act 27 of 1996)	20
2.3.2 Language policies	21
2.3.2.1 The Language-In-Education Policy (1997)	23
2.3.2.2 Higher Education Act, 1997 (Act 101 of 1997)	23
2.3.2.3 The Language policy framework for South African higher education (2001).....	24
2.3.2.4 Language policy for Higher Education (2002)	24
2.3.3 Implementation plan: National Language Policy framework (2003)	25
2.3.3.1 Pan South African Language Board.....	26
2.3.4 Hansard	27
2.3.5 Language units in government departments and provinces.....	27
2.3.6 National Language Forum.....	27
2.3.7 South African Language Practitioner's Council	27
2.3.8 Historical background of South African indigenous languages in higher education	27
2.3.9 Higher educational institutions' language policy.....	32
2.3.10 Language Policy of the Universities of Technology.....	35
2.3.11 Tshwane University of Technology's language policy	36

2.4	Demographics.....	40
2.5	What the specialists say?	43
2.6	Conclusion	46

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....	48	
3.1	Introduction	48
3.2	Research strategy.....	48
3.3	Data gathering techniques	50
3.3.1	Observation.....	50
3.3.2	Survey.....	51
3.4	Data collection	52
3.4.1	Data	52
3.4.1.1	Primary data.....	52
3.4.1.2	Secondary data	52
3.4.2	Population	53
3.4.3	Sampling	53
3.4.4	Sample.....	54
3.4.5	The sampling frame	55
3.4.6	Sample size.....	55
3.4.7	Simple random sampling.....	55
3.5	Data analysis	56
3.6	Report writing.....	57
3.7	Conclusion	57

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS.....	58	
4.1	Introduction	58
4.2	Results on survey	58
4.2.1	Responses of students.....	59
4.2.2	Responses of staff members.....	59
4.3	Results on observation	60

4.3.1	Results on observation of marketing tools	60
4.3.2	Results on observation of university documents	61
4.3.3	Results on observation of notices	61
4.3.4	Results on observation of billboards	62
4.3.5	Results on observation of directions	62
4.3.6	Results on observation of signages	63
4.4	Conclusion	64

CHAPTER 5

ANALYSIS OF THE RESULTS AND INTERPRETATION 65

5.1	Introduction	65
5.2	Analysis and interpretation.....	65
5.2.1	Analysis on the survey	65
5.2.1.1	Analysis on the survey of students.....	65
5.2.1.2	Analysis on the survey of staff	66
5.2.2	Analysis on the observation	67
5.2.2.1	Analysis on the observation of marketing tools	67
5.2.2.2	Analysis on the observation of university documents.....	68
5.2.2.3	Analysis on observation of notices	69
5.2.2.4	Analysis on observation of billboards	70
5.2.2.5	Analysis on observation of directions	71
5.2.2.6	Analysis on observation of signage.....	72
5.3	Challenges.....	73
5.4	Beyond results	74
5.5	Lesson learned	74
5.6	Summary of findings	74
5.7	Conclusion	75
5.8	Recommendations.....	75

REFERENCES..... 76

APPENDICES	81
APPENDIX A: TUT LANGUAGE POLICY	81
APPENDIX B: MARKETING TOOLS	91
APPENDIX C: UNIVERSITY DOCUMENTS	93
APPENDIX D: NOTICES.....	96
APPENDIX E: BILLBOARDS	106
APPENDIX F: DIRECTIONS.....	112
APPENDIX G: SIGNAGES.....	119
APPENDIX H: SURVEY QUESTIONS.....	129

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1:	The 23 Public Universities in South Africa.....	10
Table 2:	Enrolments of undergraduate students according to home language or indigenous languages) at University of Technology	17
Table 3:	List of Universities and Tribal groups.....	30
Table 4:	Guidelines for selecting the indigenous languages for tuition in South African higher Educational Institutions.....	33
Table 5:	The 2001 Census recorded the following home language speakers	41
Table 6:	The 2011 census recorded the following home language speakers	42
Table 7:	Responses of students	59
Table 8:	Response of staff members.....	59
Table 9:	Marketing tools and languages used.....	60
Table 10:	University documents and languages used	61
Table 11:	Language used on notices	61
Table 12:	Language used for billboards	62
Table 13:	Languages used for directions	63
Table 14:	Languages used for signages	63

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Analysis on the response of students.....	66
Figure 2: Analysis on the response of staff members.....	67
Figure 3: Analysis on the observation of marketing tools	68
Figure 4: Analysis on observation of university documents.....	69
Figure 5: Analysis on the observation of notices	70
Figure 6: Analysis on observation of billboards	71
Figure 7: Analysis on observation of directions	72
Figure 8: Analysis on observation of signage	73

CHAPTER 1

BACKGROUND OF THE RESEARCH

1.1 INTRODUCTION

This Chapter focuses on the background of the study. The study is about assessing the language policy of Tshwane University of Technology (TUT) and its implementation. The emphasis is on the implementation of the adopted language policy for TUT. The Chapter comprises of nine sections, namely:

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Definition of concepts
- 1.3 Problem background
- 1.4 Problem statements
- 1.5 Research aim and objectives
- 1.6 Rationale of the research
- 1.7 Scope of the study and
- 1.8 Plan of the research
- 1.9 Conclusion

The next section is 1.2 and focuses on the definition of concepts. This will be followed by 1.3 to 1.9.

1.2 DEFINITIONS OF CONCEPTS

This section focuses on defining eleven major concepts of the research topic, namely:

1.2.1 Implementation

This is an action that follows the plan and makes sure that the work has been done; it is to take action on what is supposed to be done in order to achieve the objectives. This is

confirmed by Gestner (2002) cited in Nkuna (2010:77) when he says implementation is “execution- getting things done, making it happen, it is the most unappreciated skill of an effective business leader.” Gestner agrees with Good (1959:280) who states that implementation “is the devising of ways to carry out a proposal.” Even though Cobarrubias and Fishman (1983) define the term implementation based on language, their definition still has some essential elements similar to Gestner and Good above, Cobarrubias and Fishman, (1983:269) declare: “implementation is that work of cajoling or enforcing compliance with decisions made in code selection and codification, which we usually leave to governments, or school systems, or any other agency that carries weight with the general public, such as the media, whether written or oral”.

1.2.2 Language

From a researcher’s point of view one cannot separate language and culture. While language is a means of communication it also represents culture of a people. Each language has its own culture that is passed from generation to generation. In order to learn somebody’s language one must first understand its culture.

Frank and Pei (1954:119) define Language as “a system of communication by sound, i.e. through the organs of speech and hearing, among human beings of a certain group or commonly using vocal symbols possessing arbitrary conventional meanings.” Frank and Pei define language as a means of communication. This definition is confirmed by Donnelley et al., (2010:62) when they say “language is a system of communication. It connects signals- such as sounds, hand signs, or letters-to meanings.” Furthermore, Donnelly et al., (2010) differ with Wa Thiong’o (1986) about language and culture, Wa Thiong’o (1986) combines both communication and culture in defining the term language. According to Wa Thiong’o, (1986:13) “language has a dual character: it is both for communication and a carrier of culture.” Wa Thiong’o gives three aspects of language as communication: language as real life, speech, and the written signs. He concludes that Language as culture also has some aspects, such as that it is a product of the history which in turn it reflects, and it is an image-forming agent in the mind of a child and language transmits the images of the world contained in the culture it carries.

In like manner, Mutasa, (2006:9) asserts that “language is a carrier of culture, values, ideas and social ideals which it reflects through the images of people struggling with nature and other human beings”.

1.2.3 Language policy

Language policy refers to the decisions taken by language planners in order to arrive at an official language where a particular language is given a status. Ager (2001:5) supports: “Language Policy has similarities with public policy as it is official planning carried out by those in political authority”. Ager continues to say, Language Policy like any other policy may be successful or not in achieving its aims. This indicates that government may plan Language Policy but fail to achieve its aim due to the delay of implementation by the responsible community or institution. Therefore, in a multilingual community a certain language should be selected and standardised and subsequently given a status. Bamgbose (1991) cited in van Huyssteen (2003:19) asserts that “language policy is a programme of action on the role of a language in a given community”. In a multilingual situation, a language policy decision necessary involves the role or status of one language in relation to other languages.”

1.2.4 Higher education system

This means “all learning programmes leading to qualifications higher than grade 12 or its equivalent in terms of the National Qualifications Framework as contemplated in the South African Qualification Authority Act, 1995 (Act No. 58 Of 1995), and includes tertiary education as contemplated in schedule 4 of the Constitution” (Ministry of Education, 1997a).

Ministry of education (1997b) provides the legislative of the Higher Education system in South Africa. The Ministry of Education maintains that the role of higher education in the South African education system is threefold:

- (1) Human Resource Development: the mobilization of human talent and potential through lifelong learning to contribute to the social, economic, cultural and intellectual life of a rapidly changing society;
- (2) High-Level Skills Training: the training and provision of person power to strengthen the country's enterprises, services and infrastructure. This requires the development of professionals with globally equivalent skills, but who are socially responsible and conscious of their role in contributing to the national development effort and social transformation.
- (3) Production, Acquisition and Application of New Knowledge: national growth and competitiveness are dependent on continuous technological improvement and innovation, driven by well-organized and vibrant research and development systems which integrates the research and training capacity of higher education with the needs of industry and of social reconstruction, Higher education Act, 1997 (Act 101 of 1997).

1.2.5 Higher education institution

A Higher education institution is an institution of higher learning that awards higher education certificates, diplomas and degrees i.e. undergraduate and postgraduate. Examples of higher education institutions are colleges or universities. This means any institution that provides higher education on a full-time, part-time or distance learning basis and which is:

- (1) Established or deemed to be established as a public higher education institution under this act;
- (2) Declared as a public higher education institution under this Act; or
- (3) Registered or conditionally registered as a private higher education under this Act; Higher education Act, 1997 (Act no.101 of 1997).

1.2.6 University

A university is an institution that gives training to students for academic or professional careers. South Africa has universities of technology which offer diplomas and degrees. Good (1959:590) defines a University as “an institution for higher education, consisting of a liberal arts college, offering a program of graduate study and having usually two or more professional schools or faculties and empowered to confer degrees in various fields of study.” Cowie (1989:1397) agrees with Good when he says “a university is (an) institution that teaches and examines students in many branches of advanced learning, awarding degrees and providing facilities for academic research”.

In South Africa there was a division between universities and technikons. Technikons were able to award diplomas to their students. However, in 2004, former technikons were transformed into universities of technology.

1.2.7 University of technology

A University of Technology is the same as a University, as they are all higher educational institutions which offer diplomas and degrees; the only difference is that the University of Technology specialises in vocational qualifications.

However Good (1959:289) defines a University of technology as the same as an ‘Institute of technology’ which is “an institution of higher education offering instruction in applied sciences and technology, especially in the various fields of engineering”.

1.2.8 Official language

An official language is a language used as a medium of communication within a country or an institution. In South Africa there are eleven official languages, nine indigenous languages: IsiNdebele, IsiXhosa, IsiZulu, Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda, and Xitsonga, and two official languages of the past: Afrikaans and English. Phaswana (1994:3) states that an official language “is a language used in business,

government, legislation, courts, etc.” There seems to be some consensus about some elements for such a definition with Magwa (2008) saying that an official language “is the language of government, business and administration in a country. This business includes, for example, the civil service, formal education, the judiciary and the commercial sector” (Magwa 2008:40).

1.2.9 Indigenous language

An indigenous language is a language of the original inhabitants of an area, a language which carries history and the culture of a society. Roy-Campell (2003) cited by Marungudzi (2009:11) defines an indigenous language as “a language of African origin and for whom the predominant speakers are native to African countries.” Roy-Campell seems to agree with Magwa (2008:41) who states that an indigenous language is a language that carries the history and culture of a given society or country.” In South Africa indigenous languages are IsiNdebele, IsiXhosa, IsiZulu, Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda, and Xitsonga. Other indigenous languages which are not recognised official languages are: Khoi, Nama and San languages; and South African sign language. Khoi, Nama and San are the languages that were marginalised during the European colonisation and apartheid era. Indigenous languages carry history and culture of the society.

1.2.10 Interview

Interview is a conversation in a form of interaction between interviewer and interviewee. This is supported by Kvale (2010:1) when he states “the researcher interview is an interview where knowledge is constructed in the inter-action between the interviewer and the interviewee”. Kvale continue to say “an interview is literary an inter-view, an interchange of views between two persons conversing about a theme of common interest, (Kvale, 2010:5). Maree, (2007:87) defines interview as a two-way conversation in which the interviewer asks the participant questions to collect data and to learn about the ideas, beliefs, views, opinions and behaviours of the participant.

1.2.11 indirect interview

This is an interview in which the researcher interviews the participants in a form of conversation. The researcher refers to it as an indirect interview for the reason that the participants or the interviewees were not aware of the action. It is also known as a semi structured interview or informal conversational interview. Even if this kind of interview can be bias, but it helped the researcher to get more additional information as open-ended questions were applied. Patton (2002) in Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009:229) defines informal conversational interview as an interview where “questions emerge from the immediate context and are asked in the natural course of things; there is no predetermination of question topics or wording.” The researcher conducted a face-to face indirect interview to obtain the opinions of staff and students on the implementation of the TUT’s language policy. This type of interview is more helpful on the focus group. Kvale, (2015:72) supports: “The focus groups are characterized by a non-directive style of interviewing, where the prime concern is to encourage a variety of viewpoints on the topic focus for the group.”

1.3 BACKGROUND TO THE PROBLEM

Language has been a cause for concern in South Africa; the problem was the language policy and use. South African indigenous languages, such as IsiNdebele, IsiXhosa, IsiZulu Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda and Xitsonga were affected by colonisation. Mutasa (2006:10) asserts that “there is dissociation of sensibilities in the students when they have to speak and think in their indigenous African languages and only to be forced to ‘express’ those thoughts in French or English”.

South Africa was colonised by the British. The Dutch were the first to settle in South Africa when they got permanent settlement in 1652, by that time Dutch became an only official language, and then in the nineteenth century the British colony settled in South Africa. English became the only official language of the Cape in 1822, becoming a threat to indigenous vernaculars. It is emphasised that:

Languages are affected because colonisation and sometimes globalization entail the following: population movements; the spread of migrants' languages and the ensuing contacts of the latter with those of the indigenous, dominated populations; the emergence of new language repertoires and new divisions of labour among the coexistent languages, as well as new dynamics of competition and selection among them; and differential evolution regarding their vitality. (Mufwene and Vigouroux, 2008:1)

Colonisation nearly rendered the South African indigenous languages extinct. In 1909 both English and Dutch were granted official languages by the Union Government Act. In 1925 Afrikaans replaced Dutch as an Official Language (South African History). The National Party created Apartheid in 1948 to maintain white domination while extending racial separation. Apartheid promoted English and Afrikaans as the official languages of South Africa in education. According to Mzamane (2005:102), the extension of the University Education Act, Act 45 of 1959, put an end to black students attending white universities. This Act set up separate 'tribal colleges' for black university students. Language was also used for racial discrimination in South African Higher Education Institutions; likewise the Language Policy in Higher Education Institutions differed according to race. Some Higher Education Institutions were for non-whites (blacks) where Bantu education was taught, and the language medium in the environment of education was English and these higher education Institutions offered limited training. It was then when the so called 'bush' universities were formed, such as: University of Free State in QwaQwa, University of Durban Westville, University of Zululand, University of the North, Medical University of South Africa, and Vista University, University of Fort Hare, University of South Africa, including universities found in the Bantustans such as University of Venda, and University of Bophuthatswana and the old Technikon Northern Transvaal, Mangosuthu Technikon, Cape Peninsula Technikon.

Furthermore, other Higher Education Institutions were for whites and they used the Afrikaans language as a medium of communication. Whites had better education and superior educational facilities, for example, University of Free State in Bloemfontein,

University of Stellenbosch, University of Pretoria, Rand Afrikaans Universiteit, University of Natal, University of Potchefstroom, as well as Pretoria technikon.

In 1961 English and Afrikaans continued to share equal treatment as mediums of instruction in Higher Institution. The language policy continued to be a big problem in the Educational system of South Africa. However, it was during the Soweto riots of 1976, where youth protested against the use of Afrikaans as a medium of instruction. Afrikaans was seen to be used as a tool to oppress blacks. Afrikaans was also seen as a barrier to access and success for black children, (Sukumane, 1998:249-250).

The 1993 Interim Constitution of the Republic of South Africa initiated a strategy to build a non-racial nation and created an environment where all South African indigenous languages would be equally recognized. de Kadt (2005:1) supports:

Seventy years after the language of Afrikaans was first granted official status, South Africa set off on another unique linguistic journey. This time, in 1993, the country became the location of an effort to develop, simultaneously, nine indigenous African languages, granting all nine, along with English and Afrikaans, equal status and proclaiming that education and governmental documentation would be available in all official languages.

The Pan South African Language Board collaborates with structures like the Provincial Language Committees to promote multilingualism, language policy legislation, including the language policy practices, language in education, translation, interpreting, development and promotion of previously marginalised languages, National Lexicography Units to develop dictionaries in all the official languages, and National Language Board advises the Pan South African Language Board on approving lexicography and language standards.

In 2004, South Africa reformed its Higher Education Institutions, merging and renaming all Higher education Institutions into 'Universities'. These universities are divided into

public universities and private colleges. The focus for this research will be on public universities only.

There are 23 public universities in South Africa and these public universities are divided into three types that are: Traditional universities, Universities of Technology and Comprehensive universities. They are outlined in Table 1.

Table 1: The 23 Public Universities in South Africa

Traditional universities	Universities of technology	Comprehensive universities
University of Cape Town	Cape Peninsula University of Technology	University of Johannesburg
University of Fort Hare	Central University of Technology	Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University
University of Free State	Durban University of Technology	University of South Africa
University of Kwazulu Natal	Mangosuthu University of Technology	University of Venda
University of Limpopo	Tshwane University of Technology	Walter Sisulu University
North West University	Vaal University of Technology	University of Zululand
University of Pretoria		
Rhodes University		
Stellenbosch University		
University of the Western Cape		
University of the Witwatersrand		

Source: The free encyclopaedia (2012)

The focus will be on the universities of technology and the comprehensive universities' languages used, past and present. The researcher will compare the languages' status and equality. The University of Technologies named after the merged Technikons. Cape Peninsula University of Technology was formed after the merger of Cape Technikon and

Peninsula Technikon, Durban University of Technology is a merger of M.L. Sultan Technikon, Technikon Natal. Durban University of Technology's language policy adopted English, Afrikaans, and IsiZulu.

Tshwane University of Technology is a merger of Technikon Northwest, Technikon Northern Gauteng, and Pretoria Technikon. Technikon Northwest and Technikon Northern Gauteng were using English as medium of instruction whereas Pretoria Technikon uses English and Afrikaans as a medium of instruction. The Central University of Technology uses English as a primary language of communication whereas Afrikaans and Sesotho are used as supplement languages of communication.

At the Cape Peninsula University of Technology, the medium of tuition is English, except for the education courses at the Wellington campus which are offered in Afrikaans. Afrikaans and Xhosa speaking students may be offered support. The medium of instruction at Cape Peninsula University is English, Afrikaans and IsiXhosa. Walter Sisulu University of Technology and Science is a merge of Border Technikon. At the Walter Sisulu University, English is used as a medium of instruction and they are developing new terminology in IsiXhosa. The comprehensive Universities are University of South Africa which merges Technikon of South Africa and Vista University, University of Johannesburg merges Technikon Witwatersrand and Rand Afrikaans University; Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University, former University of Port Elizabeth and University of Zululand. The University of Zululand language policy has IsiZulu and English as a medium of instruction. The Mangosuthu University of Technology has a dual medium of instruction in IsiZulu and English. Vaal University of Technology language policy encourages English as a medium of instruction but it will adopt Afrikaans and Setswana.

Higher education institutions have been given the right to choose the language of teaching and learning, and also given a task to promote communicative competence among students and staff in all relevant languages; they can identify and promote the learning of one additional or supportive language of tuition. The language should be used to access education, services, and information within the institution. Most

universities have decided on a relevant language policy based on their geographical area and people they serve.

All the universities were given the choice of indigenous languages to promote within the university, and the Technikons were excluded, (ministerial Committee 2005). This also shows that Tshwane University of Technology was excluded. The committee gave a guideline on the indigenous languages to be developed but they only concentrated on the traditional universities whereas the Comprehensive Universities were not given specific indigenous languages. It was said that they are included and also advised to follow the guideline, (Ministerial Committee 2005). The committee did not totally move out from the apartheid criteria of developing the use of indigenous languages in regional and local areas according to the language that the tribe speaks (ministerial committee 2005). This seems like a return to the homeland system.

The University of Johannesburg made English and Afrikaans as languages of tuition in its language policy; it did not choose indigenous languages for communication within the university. In the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University, English is the language of tuition and assessment and the university will develop and promote IsiXhosa language. The University of South Africa is the only university which offers nine South African indigenous languages; at the University of Venda, English is the language of communication within the university; African languages like Tshivenda, Northern Sotho, IsiNdebele, Xitsonga and siSwati are offered as courses.

Phaswana (1994:1) says:

English is used as an official language and is required for university entrance. Afrikaans and the African languages (Tshivenda and N. Sotho) have been accorded very low status. They are not required for university entrance; neither are they used as official languages.

The main emphasis of this research is on Tshwane University of Technology's Language Policy. Tshwane University of Technology's Language Policy uses English as

a medium of instruction and also for communication within the campus. Tshwane University of Technology's language policy states:

The university shall adopt Setswana as the primary indigenous African language whose terminology will be developed for academic, scientific and communication purposes and siSwati as its secondary indigenous African language (in Mpumalanga) see Appendix A. Tshwane University of Technology's Language policy (Tshwane University of Technology, 2005:5).

The university shall promote other African indigenous languages; and also include foreign languages used in South Africa, for example French and German.

1.4 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Most of the higher education institutions are delaying the implementation of the indigenous languages as languages for communication. Van Huyssteen and Nkuna mention that it is easy for the institution to draw the policy but it is difficult to implement. Van Huyssteen (2003) and Nkuna (2010) show a gap between the language policy and the implementation. Van Huyssteen (2003:22) says "even though the language policy looks impressive on paper it is not applied successfully. There is a gap between the language policy by government and its implementation". It was emphasized by Nkuna (2010:1) that "while an attempt is made by the minister of Education to the letter- not taking into account that provision for, say, reforming the tuition policies with regard to medium of instructions teaching, learning, and research required". This discourages students to improve their perception in African indigenous languages and they view their languages as inferior and less important. It also delays students to access information, for their achievement, services to succeed and also to enjoy their South African indigenous languages. Thus, the research question of this study reads:

How Tshwane University of Technology could implement its language policy?

1.5 RESEARCH AIM AND OBJECTIVES

The purpose of this research was to investigate the implementation of the language policy at Tshwane University of Technology, with the following objectives in mind:

- (1) To explore the implementation of the language policy at the Tshwane University of Technology.
- (2) To analyse policies, and communication strategies.
- (3) To evaluate the implementation of Tshwane University of Technology's language policy.

1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RESEARCH

This research will also help other institutions to copy the good practices that the Tshwane University of Technology has achieved. Through this research, both students and staff will benefit as they will be able to access information, services and knowledge in Indigenous languages which they understand better. The study examined the cause of the problem to implement the Tshwane University of Technology's language policy and also come with a solution. This research will motivate the students and staff to value their indigenous languages, and also promote the status of the previously disadvantaged languages.

1.7 SCOPE OF THE RESEARCH

This research was conducted at Tshwane University of Technology only. This University has five campuses such as Soshanguve, Garankuwa, Pretoria, Emalahleni, Nelspruit and Polokwane; however the research was limited to the Soshanguve campus.

1.8 PLAN OF THE RESEARCH

The content of the dissertation comprises of five chapters. They are:

CHAPTER 1 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY: The chapter gives the orientation of the study where the background of the language policy, problem statement, purpose of the study and rationale are fully described. The definition of the concepts and introduction of research methodology are also explained.

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEWS: It covers literature on the theme of this study.

CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY: It gives an explanation of design and method to be used in the research.

CHAPTER 4 RESULTS: It gives the results on survey and observation.

CHAPTER 5: ANALYSIS OF THE RESULTS AND INTERPRETATION provides an outline and interpretation of the findings of the study.

CHAPTER 6 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS: It summarises the study and provides recommendations.

1.9 CONCLUSION

This chapter discussed the introduction of the research where the background to the problem, problem statement, rationale of the research and research purpose has been discussed. The scope of the study and plan of the research are also explained. This chapter gives a brief explanation on how colonization and the apartheid era affected the use of indigenous languages in South Africa. This chapter has also mentions the language policy in higher education institutions, and how the higher education institutions are planning to implement multilingualism.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is about the review of the literature. It focuses into the following sections:

- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 Students demographics
- 2.3 The acts and policies
- 2.4 Demography of the country
- 2.5 What the specialists say
- 2.6 Conclusion

The next section is 2.2 followed by 2.3, to 2.6.

2.2 STUDENTS' DEMOGRAPHICS

Students' demographics show the statistics of the enrolment of undergraduate students according to home languages or indigenous languages at Tshwane University of Technology. Table 2 shows the students enrolments' percentages.

Table 2: Enrolments of undergraduate students according to home language or indigenous languages) at University of Technology

Home language	Total Undergraduate	%
1. Sepedi	1129	4.3%
2. Sesotho	7784	29.7%
3. siSwati	1432	5.5%
4. Xitsonga	2921	11.1%
5. Setswana	5553	21.2%
6. Tshivenda	1942	7.3%
7. IsiXhosa	1369	5.2%
8. IsiZulu	3146	11.9%
9. IsiNdebele	973	3.7%
Total	26249	100.0%

Source: Adapted from (DHE, 2004)

The above table shows the enrolments of students according to home languages. From this enrolment, the highest percentage of students is in the Sesotho home language which has 29.7%, followed by Setswana with 21.2%, IsiZulu with 11.9%, Xitsonga with 11.1%, Tshivenda with 7.3%, siSwati with 5.5%, IsiXhosa with 5.2%, Sesotho sa Leboa with 4.3%, and the language having few numbers of students is IsiNdebele with 3.7%. Even though Sesotho home language seems to have many students on the enrolment but the University chooses to promote Setswana as just a language for communication.

2.3 THE ACTS AND POLICIES

2.3.1 Republic of South Africa's language acts

South Africa introduced different language acts from pre-colonial times to the democratic government era. The main purpose of these acts was to create order with regard to language policy in the country. After the 1994 democratic elections in South Africa, the new government initiated a strategy to build a non-racial nation and created an

environment where all South African Indigenous Languages would be equally recognized, the acts are as follows:

2.3.1.1 The Bantu Education Act, 1953

This Act stipulated that black learners should receive mother-tongue teaching in lower and higher primary grades with transition to English and Afrikaans.

(The Constitutional Assembly, 1953, the Bantu Education (Act 1953)

2.3.1.2 Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1961 (Act 32 of 1961)

During Apartheid, English and Afrikaans were regarded as the only two official languages nationally. Black people were allocated the homelands according to their languages, they were allowed to use their indigenous languages including English and Afrikaans, and multilingualism was practiced regionally. This was based on section 108 of Act no.32 of 1961 which states that “English and Afrikaans shall be the official languages of the Republic, and shall be treated on a footing of equality, and possess and enjoy equal freedom, rights and privileges, Section 109 of Act 32 Of 1961 (South Africa), (The Constitutional Assembly 1961).

2.3.1.3 Amendment Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1963 (Act 9 of 1963)

The 1961 constitution of the Republic of South Africa was amended by section 1 of Act 9 of 1963 where Bantu was declared to be self-governing territory (which in the absence of any other empowering provision may be issued under this subsection) may provide for the recognition of one or more Bantu languages for any of the following purposes, namely, as an additional official language or as additional language of that territory; or for the use in that territory for official purposes prescribed by or under the Act or by later Act. The Bantu language was referring to the indigenous language that was allowed to be used in that region, (The Constitutional Assembly, 1963).

2.3.1.4 Constitution amendment Act, 1971

The aim of this act was to amend the Republic of South Africa's Constitution Act, of 1961, to provide for the recognition of Bantu languages as additional official languages of Bantu areas declared by proclamation to be self-governing territories in the republic, (The Constitutional Assembly, 1971).

2.3.1.5 Republic of South Africa Constitution Act, 1983

This Constitution Act was a continuation of the constitution of 1961 as a language policy remained the same and Section 90 of Act 110 of 1983 emphasized the use of official languages by provincial councils and local authorities. Section 89 of Act 110 of 1983 also showed the equality of the official languages of the Republic i.e. English and Afrikaans, and the recognition of one or more black languages as official languages of that territory. English and Afrikaans were the national official languages and provincially it was English, Afrikaans and Bantu languages depending on the homeland, for example, in the Republic of Venda the official languages were English, Afrikaans and Tshivenda. This was to retribalise black South Africans, as Mesthrie (2002:422) says: "Under the apartheid regime, the language-medium question was most controversial in black education, where the policy of initial mother-tongue instruction was widely denounced as an attempt to retribalise black South Africans," (The Constitutional Assembly, 1983 Republic of South Africa Constitution, Act 1983).

Marivate added that mother-tongue instruction was also used as a tool to prevent blacks from being a united group and fear of competition for jobs: "The Afrikaner government was also motivated by the issue of poor whites and fear of competition for jobs; hence they decided to seal off many jobs and claimed that mother-tongue education was the best education for all races," Marivate (1992:128).

2.3.1.6 Interim Constitution of 1993

The Interim constitution of 1993 was a result of a negotiation process. Section 3 of Act 200 of 1993 provides 11 official languages at national and provincial levels in South Africa. (The Constitutional Assembly, 1993 Interim Constitution of 1993)

2.3.1.7 The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996

This Constitution is referred to as a new democratic constitution of the Republic of South Africa. The constitution of South Africa Act 108 of 1996 chapter 1 section 6 lists the official languages identified as Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda, Xitsonga, Afrikaans, English, IsiNdebele, IsiXhosa and IsiZulu. According to Mesthrie (2002:426) “the new constitution recognized eleven official languages, rejecting the historical bilingual policy which reflected only the linguistic diversity of white South Africans with a multilingual policy more accurately reflecting the reality of the South African society.” The historical language policy was not a true reflection of the South African nation, as a multilingual and a multicultural country, (The Constitution of Republic of South Africa 1996, Act 108 of 1996).

2.3.1.8 National Education Policy Act (Act 27 of 1996)

The main aim of this act is to empower the Minister of Education to determine a national policy for language in education, in order to build a non-racial nation in South Africa, and creating an environment in which respect for languages other than one's own would be encouraged. The aim of the South African language policy is to promote multilingualism and give status of the marginalized or indigenous languages such as: IsiNdebele, IsiXhosa, IsiZulu, Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda, and Xitsonga. Du Plessis and Marlene (2008:7) confirm “this policy is also used to utilize the additive multilingualism principle to facilitate access to education so as to enable learners to achieve full participation in society, in this regard, the link between language and conceptual development is acknowledged”. Multilingualism within the institution will help learners to access language services in their language of choice like editing, translation, and interpreting and document design.

2.3.2 Language policies

A language policy is a domain in the constitution which is proposed by government in order to come up with official languages of the country. Language policy is used to solve language problem within a nation. Spolsky (2012:3) supports “Language planning started by linguists in order to resolve the language problems of newly independent states and called their endeavours language ‘planning’.” The South African nation has experienced two different language policies, i.e. the one under the Apartheid regime which favours the European languages and the other one in a new democratic constitution which favours the South African Indigenous Languages.

There are different definitions of language policy from different scholars; Heugh (1995) cited in van Huyssteen (2003:18) states:

A country’s language policy is a set of principles conceptualized within an overarching framework of values, usually embodied in the constitution. If it is to be effective, the language policy has to be congruent with a country’s national development plan, whereas language planning defined as a term refers to the process of implementing of a particular language policy.

Under the apartheid regime the language policy was ‘active official bilingualism’ coupled with English and Afrikaans speakers attending their own schools. Language development for academic and economic purposes was based on Afrikaans and English only, for example, status planning with respect to Afrikaans and lexical development in Afrikaans. In the new constitution, the language policy is based on multilingualism i.e. all the South African languages have an equal status within the country. Reagan in Mesthrie (2002:426) states “the new constitution recognised eleven official languages, rejecting the historical bilingual policy which reflects only the linguistic diversity of white South Africa with a multilingual policy more accurately reflecting the reality of the South African society.” Bamgbose (1991) in van Huyssteen (2003:19) asserts “language policy is a programme of action on the role or status of a language in a given community. In a

multilingual situation, a language policy decision necessarily involves the role or status of one language in relation to other languages”.

Bamgbose’s (1991) definition is practicable in a monocultural country whereas it is difficult to implement in a multilingual and multicultural country like South Africa. In a multilingual and multicultural country all the languages should share the same status. This is the reason why South Africa’s language policy promotes multilingualism, and gives all the eleven languages an official status.

Language policy should concentrate on the majority number of the speakers unlike the apartheid government where the language policy concentrated on a minority population within a country. Cooper et al (2001:171) state “the studies of language policy, however, concentrate on what I will call “domestic” languages, those in use by major portions of the population within a country.”

McNergney and Herbert (1995) in Mothatha, (2000:14) maintain that “those groups or subgroups in a society who are identifiably fewer than another group are said to be the minority. Nationally, in South Africa, white people, whether of Afrikaner or English descent, are a minority compared to black people.” Batibo (2001) in Trewby and Fitchat (2001:124) say:

Minority language is defined not only by its demographic inferiority but also, and more so by its limited public function, i.e. such languages are usually confined to family communication, village interaction, intra-ethnic contacts and cultural expression. In fact their marginalization and exclusion in regional or national domains are the most conspicuous features of minority languages, for example English (ex-colonial language) spoken by few educated people is not considered as a minority language because of its public functions. Minority languages are usually not sufficiently codified, they lack proper or comprehensive linguistic description, and most of them do not have standardized orthographies or appropriate grammars and dictionaries.

Batibo differs with McNergney and Herbert (1995) about the definition of minority. Batibo relates minority with public functions, so a language which is not standardised, codified and used for wider communication is regarded as a minority language. According to this statement, all the South African Indigenous Languages or marginalised languages are the minorities, whereas English and Afrikaans are the majority languages. Different policies have been discussed in 2.3.2.1 to 2.3.2.4.

2.3.2.1 The Language-In-Education Policy (1997)

This policy aims to promote multilingualism in the teaching and learning environment. Paragraph 5 mentions the main aims of the Ministry of Education's policy for language in education, such as:

To pursue the language policy most supportive of general conceptual growth amongst learners, and hence to establish additive multilingualism as an approach to language in education; to promote and develop all the official languages; to support teaching and learning of all other languages required by learners or used by communities in South Africa, including languages which are important for international trade and communication, as well as South African Sign language; to develop programmes for the redress of previously disadvantaged languages.

2.3.2.2 Higher Education Act, 1997 (Act 101 of 1997)

This Act is to regulate higher education, to provide for the establishment, composition and functions of a Council on Higher Education, to provide for the establishment, governance and funding of public higher education institutions, to provide the appointment and functions of an independent assessor, to provide for quality assurance and quality promotion in higher education, to provide for a transitional arrangement and the repeal of certain laws; and to provide for matters connected therewith.

2.3.2.3 The Language policy framework for South African higher education (2001)

It is based on the constitutional provision in respect of language in education, especially Sections 6; 29(2); 30; and 31(1) (a) of Act 108 of 1996, and the South African Languages Draft Bill. The aim is to develop and promote the official African languages and sign languages of South Africa, i.e. IsiNdebele, IsiXhosa, IsiZulu, Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda, and Xitsonga and to support economic development through the promotion of multilingualism. The Working Group on Values in Education, state two main values to promote in the area of language: i.e. the importance of studying through the language one knows best, or as it is popularly referred to, mother-tongue education and to promote multilingualism. This is to provide for the learning of South African languages by all South African citizens in order to promote national unity and multilingualism.

2.3.2.4 Language policy for Higher Education (2002)

The language policy for higher education (2002) continues to promote multilingualism especially indigenous languages and the sign language of South Africa. According to the language policy everyone has the right to use the language of their choice to access information and services. The policy states that there should be parallel or dual language medium options which would, on the one hand, cater for the needs of Afrikaans language speakers and, on the other hand, ensure that the language of instruction is not a barrier to access and success, this was based on Section 29 (2) of the Constitution, which states that:

Everyone has the right to receive education in the official language or languages of their choice in public educational institutions where that education is reasonably practicable. In order to ensure the effective access to, and implementation of this right, the state must consider all reasonable alternatives, including single medium institutions, taking account of-

- (a) Equity
- (b) Practicability, and

- (c) The need to redress the results of past racially discriminatory laws and practices.

The ministry ensures that language should not act as a barrier to equity of access and success. In order to promote multilingualism, the ministry would like to encourage the development, in the medium to long-term, of the South African languages as mediums of instruction in higher education, alongside English and Afrikaans; to encourage all higher education institutions to develop strategies for promoting proficiency in the designated language(s) of tuition, including the provision of language and academic literacy development programmes, and the promotion of the study of foreign languages.

Editors (2011:3), the Minister of higher education and training, Blade Nzimande, made a proposal to introduce compulsory learning of at least one African language at the universities as a requirement for one to get a qualification; this will help to bring back the status of African languages to both speakers and non-speakers of the languages.

2.3.3 Implementation plan: National Language Policy framework (2003)

The democratic government introduced the National language policy framework (2003) to:

promote multilingualism because South Africa is a rainbow nation, a multilingual and multicultural country. The aim is to promote and develop the previously marginalized indigenous languages and also to promote the equitable use of the 11 official languages with a view to facilitate equitable access to knowledge and information. The implementation plan identified structures and mechanisms for promoting multilingualism.

The implementation structures are:

2.3.3.1 Pan South African Language Board

Section 6 of Act 108 of 1996 also proposed structures like the Pan South African Language Board to advance, facilitate, develop and promote the use of official languages of South Africa, as well as the Khoi, Nama and San languages, and the South African Sign language and advance respect for other languages used by communities or religious groups in South Africa. The Pan South African Language Board is established to develop and promote multilingualism. The Pan South African Language Board collaborates with new structures and mechanisms which are instrumental to develop the indigenous languages. The new structures are:

(A) PROVINCIAL LANGUAGE COMMITTEES

These committees will work with provinces on language matters to promote multilingualism, language policy legislation, including the language policy, practices and legislation of the province; language in education, translation, interpreting, development and promotion literature and previously marginalized languages; research and projects.

(B) NATIONAL LEXICOGRAPHY UNITS

National Lexicography Units will continue to develop dictionaries in all the official languages. They will also help to develop terminology in all official languages. This unit will help to develop the bilingual and monolingual dictionaries.

(C) NATIONAL LANGUAGE BODIES

National Language Bodies consists of specialist in the knowledge of the language to advise the Pan South African Language Board on approving lexicography and language standards, as well as terminology and literature. (Implementation plan: National Language policy framework 2003:12).

2.3.4 Hansard

Hansard offices in parliament and provinces are responsible to provide services in all the 11 official languages, (Implementation plan: National Language policy framework 2003:13).

2.3.5 Language units in government departments and provinces

Language units will be established in government departments and in each province to manage the implementation of multilingualism. Language units will be managing and facilitating training programmes for new recruits in translation, editing and terminology development. (Implementation plan: National Language policy framework 2003:13).

2.3.6 National Language Forum

The National Language Forum will monitor the implementation process on terminology development and language projects. (Implementation plan: National Language policy framework 2003:15).

2.3.7 South African Language Practitioner's Council

The Language Practitioner's Council of South Africa will manage the training, accreditation and registration of language practitioners in order to raise the status of the language profession and the quality of language products by setting and maintaining standards. (Implementation plan: National Language policy framework 2003:16).

2.3.8 Historical background of South African indigenous languages in higher education

Indigenous languages are the languages of the original inhabitants of the area, the languages which carry history and culture of a society. In South Africa nine Indigenous languages which are recognized by the constitution are IsiNdebele, IsiXhosa, IsiZulu,

Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda, and Xitsonga, Other indigenous languages which are not recognized by the Constitution are: Khoi, Nama and San languages; and South African sign language. During the apartheid time, the development of South African Indigenous Languages was restricted, compared to the European languages i.e. English and Afrikaans. South African Indigenous Languages were never developed to be used for academic purposes.

Racism was the major challenge in the political environment. In the history of South Africa, racism affected the use and status of indigenous languages for higher education in two forms: Colonisation using education, the English language and culture, and apartheid using separate development and Afrikaans as a language of oppression. Developing the use and status of indigenous languages for higher education has something to do with democracy. All the languages (the South African indigenous languages) within the Bantustans were called Bantu languages, and they were given a lower status and marginalised. Education within these Bantustans was called Bantu education. The Bantu education Act, of 1953, stipulated that black learners should receive mother-tongue teaching in lower and higher primary grades with transition to English and Afrikaans. Rose (1970:38) states “since 1954, Bantu education in South Africa has been controlled primarily by the Nationalist government and directed along the lines of apartheid “The mother-tongue should be used as the medium of instruction for at least the duration of the primary school,” (Ibid. 1970:57). H.F. Verwoerd made a statement before the senate in 1954 saying, “It is the policy of my department that Bantu education should have its roots entirely in the Native areas and in the Native environment and Native community,” (op.cit, 1970:66).

All these statements show that South African indigenous languages were not recognized nationally under the Nationalist government. The ex-colonial languages have been given a higher status than the indigenous South African languages that were marginalised. The main purpose was to establish self-governing nation states for South Africa’s different black ethnic groups, for example, Vhavenḁa and Vatsonga were separated according to their indigenous languages. That is when the independent TBVC (Transkei, Bophuthatswana, Venda and Ciskei) countries and semi-autonomous homelands

(Lebowa, Kangwane, Gazankulu, Qwaqwa, Kwazulu, and Kwandebile) were created. The previous constitution (during the apartheid era) recognized and protected English and Afrikaans as the official languages of South Africa; this was after Afrikaans replaced Dutch. In independent TBVC countries and in semi-autonomous homelands, provision was also made for some African languages as official languages. South African indigenous languages were recognized and used as additional official languages of that specific homeland. This was emphasized by Swanepoel et.al. (1996:8-9) when they say:

The South African Act of 1909 recognized and protected two official languages, English and Dutch. In 1927 the constitution was amended to include Afrikaans under Dutch which, in practical terms, meant that Afrikaans also acquire official status. This continued until 1983 when a new constitution was adopted expressly recognizing English and Afrikaans as the two official languages. Language rights in the 1909, 1961 and 1983 constitutions were protected and could only be altered by a two-thirds majority.

South African languages were given a low status and treated as inferior and also taken as the languages that cannot be used for effective communication. Rose (1970:78) mentions significant developments since 1954 concerning Bantu higher education. Prior to 1960, black students had been permitted to enrol at:

- (1) The University of South Africa, a total correspondence institution.
- (2) The University of Natal in segregated classes.
- (3) The non-white University College of Fort Hare.
- (4) The open Universities of Cape Town and Witwatersrand.

The plan for Bantu Universities was not only racial but also tribal segregation as in table 3.

Table 3: List of Universities and Tribal groups

<u>University</u>	<u>Tribal group</u>
Stellenbosch	Afrikaans
Pretoria	Afrikaans
Orange Free State	Afrikaans
Potchefstroom	Afrikaans
Fort Hare	Xhosas
Natal University College	Zulus
Transvaal University College	Other tribal groups (such as Sepedi, Tshivenda, Xitsonga, Setswana and Sesotho)

Source: Adapted from (Rose, 1970)

From the above table, languages were also used for racial segregation, for instance; the Afrikaans-medium Universities of Stellenbosch, Pretoria, and the Orange Free State, and Potchefstroom were closed to non-White students. Fort Hare would be for Xhosa students, the Natal University College would be for Zulus, and the Transvaal University College would be for other members of other tribal groups. This was also unfortunate for the Transvaal tribal groups as they had only one University College to attend, regardless of the Universities found in the homelands, such as The University of Venda and The University of Bophuthatswana.

Gxilishe (2009:1) writes that “African languages have not been used for economic value or, at most times, in higher functions, for example, in economic, cultural and practical situations. African languages were limited to use within the family, the cultural group, the Bantustan and the school.”

The South African government never intended to develop South African indigenous languages, instead they continue to promote English, and this also applies to the indigenous language speakers that view the knowledge of English as a sign of

intelligence. Even the South African Native speakers of the indigenous languages thought that the ex-colonial languages (especially English) was associated with better education; this was proven by the 1976 struggle when students protested against Afrikaans as a language of teaching and learning and in favour of English not their indigenous languages. Swanepoel et.al, support this idea when he says:

English became a dominant language in this country for large parts of its colonial history in all industrial, economic and educational spheres while Afrikaans gradually became (sic) the dominant language of the government during the second half of this century. African languages tended to be ignored by successive central governments, (Swanepoel et.al. 1996:15).

Even though different missionary societies were allowed to codify and develop the African languages, it was according to their own limited abilities. For example, they used this opportunity to separate the close dialects into separate languages with separate writing systems. This shows that the Apartheid government never took South African indigenous languages seriously. "Poor planning and lack of coordination between different language boards led to the present situation where these languages still lack the terminology needed to teach the languages as subjects at university level" (Ibid, 1996:15). The new South African democratic government recognizes all the nine South African indigenous languages as well as English and Afrikaans. The democratic government tries to give South African languages the same status as official languages. Most South African native speakers of the indigenous languages still recognize English as the language of liberation, and still associate it with better living and education; for instance, they place their children in English-medium schools. They associate knowledge and use of South African indigenous languages with backwardness, poverty, inferiority and refer to them as local languages. Alexander (2001:9) says "African language speakers tend to believe that their indigenous languages - the so called mother tongues- are adequate only for use in the less prestigious primary domains of family, church and community."

2.3.9 Higher educational institutions' language policy

The higher education institutions have been given the right to choose the language of teaching and learning, and the language of academic purposes, and also a task to promote communicative competence among students and staff in all relevant languages. The institution can identify and promote the learning of one additional or supportive language of tuition; this is based on promoting indigenous languages, (Ministry of Education, 2002). Nkuna (2010:18) defines it as “the two-fold mandate given to the Universities to develop the use and status of indigenous languages: i.e.(a) Primary language of the institution or language of tuition; (b) Language(s) as academic discipline(s) and as part of profession(s)”.

The indigenous language should be used to access education, services, and information within the institution. Mapi (2010:2) supports this idea when stating that:

African languages can be used as languages of learning and teaching at university level. They can be transformed to be market related, so that anyone who has studied them stands a good chance of succeeding in the working environment. And the government needs to work with universities and other institutions to design appropriate courses that might trigger the interest of the young.

Most universities have decided on a relevant language policy based on their geographical area and people they serve. This is a mandate made by the ministerial committee which was appointed by the Ministry of Education in September 2003. The Ministerial committee did not totally move out from the apartheid criteria of developing the use of indigenous languages in regional and local areas, and also according to the language that the tribe speaks. The Ministerial Committee (2005:21) states:

We recommend that each higher education institution should, in the context of the official status of the relevant indigenous language, apply the following regional and locality-specific criteria in its selection of one or

more indigenous African language to be developed for use in higher education. In addition, each institution could use these criteria to formulate a framework that would enable it to make choices and determine priorities, such as: regional and locality-specific criteria, concentration of speakers and students, availability of expertise, availability of infrastructure, affordability, possible linkages and partnerships with English and Afrikaans, economic, social and political significance of courses.

The Ministerial Committee gives a guideline on the indigenous languages to be developed by higher educational institutions, but they only concentrate on the traditional universities whereas the Universities of Technology and Comprehensive Universities have not been given the specific indigenous languages. It was said that they are included and also advised to follow the guideline, ministerial Committee (2005).

On how the ministerial committee selects the indigenous languages according to the higher education institutions, (see table 4).

Table 4: Guidelines for selecting the indigenous languages for tuition in South African higher Educational Institutions

<u>Languages</u>	<u>Higher Education Institutions</u>
IsiNdebele	Pretoria; Unisa
IsiZulu	Johannesburg; Kwazulu natal; North West; Unisa; Wits; Zululand
IsiXhosa	Cape Town; Fort hare; Free state; Nelson Mandela metro; Rhodes; Stellenbosch; Unisa; Western Cape
Sesotho sa Leboa	Limpopo; Johannesburg; Pretoria; Unisa; Venda
Sesotho	Cape Town; Free state; Stellenbosch; Unisa; Wits
Setswana	North-West; Pretoria; Unisa
siSwati	Unisa; Zululand
Tshivenda	Limpopo; Unisa; Venda
Xitsonga	Limpopo; Unisa; Venda

Source: Adapted from (Nkuna, 2010)

The above table shows the universities and their languages selected by the ministerial committee.

Since 2004 South African Universities together with Universities of Technologies follow the instruction from the ministerial committee to choose indigenous languages and develop them as mediums of instruction. Most of the universities follow the guideline given by the ministerial committee and choose the languages according to criteria number one which is based on regional and local languages, as well as criteria number two which concentrates on speakers and students. This guideline does not differ from the apartheid one where the indigenous languages were developed into different regions, i.e. separate development. South African indigenous languages do not share equal status in all nine provinces.

The University of Cape Town uses English as the medium of instruction and administration. The University of Fort Hare has a dual-medium of English as a medium of instruction and IsiXhosa as an additional medium of instruction. The University of Free State chooses Afrikaans and English as a medium of instruction, and also accommodates Sesotho. The University of Kwazulu Natal will continue to use English as its primary academic language and activate the development and use of IsiZulu as an additional medium of instruction. In the University of Limpopo, English is used as a medium of instruction whereas three dominant African languages such as Sepedi, Tshivenda and Xitsonga are offered as academic courses. The North-West University uses English and Afrikaans as the medium of instruction. The University of Pretoria chose English and Afrikaans as their medium of instruction. At Rhodes University, the language of teaching and learning is English. Stellenbosch University has adopted English and Afrikaans as the medium of instruction. The University of the Western Cape chose English as a language of teaching and learning, and Afrikaans and IsiXhosa should be used where it is practical to do so. At the University of the Witwatersrand, the language of instruction is English, whereas the university should promote and support the development of Sesotho. The University of Johannesburg recognizes four languages in its policy, they are: Afrikaans, English, IsiZulu and Sesotho sa Leboa. The university

built Sesotho sa Leboa and IsiZulu terminology databases; and also provided practical courses of these languages for staff and students.

At the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University, English and IsiZulu are the languages of tuition and assessment, and the university develops and promotes the Xhosa language. The University of South Africa is the only university which offers all the South African indigenous languages; i.e. Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda, Xitsonga, Afrikaans, IsiNdebele, IsiXhosa, IsiZulu, San and the South African Sign Language. *Language Policy for UNISA: Proceedings of the Conference on Language Policy, 23 February*. University of South Africa.

The University of South Africa's language policy states: "The University will incrementally develop the nine official African languages as languages of teaching, learning and assessment by making use of the linguistic infrastructure for these languages, University of South Africa (2006:5)."

For the University of Venda, English is the language of communication within the university; African languages like Tshivenda, Xitsonga and Northern Sotho are offered as courses, as Phaswana (1994:1) says:

English is used as an official language and is required for university entrance. Afrikaans and the African languages (Tshivenda and N.Sotho) have been accorded very low status. These languages are not required for university entrance; neither are they used as official languages.

At the Walter Sisulu University, English is used as a medium of instruction and they are developing new terminology in IsiXhosa. At the University of Zululand, the language policy has IsiZulu and English as mediums of instruction.

2.3.10 Language Policy of the Universities of Technology

At the Cape Peninsula University of Technology the medium of tuition is English, except for the education courses at the Wellington campus which are offered in Afrikaans.

Afrikaans and Xhosa speaking students may be offered support. The medium of instruction at the Cape Peninsula University of Technology is English, Afrikaans and IsiXhosa, (Cape Peninsula University of Technology, 2013).

The Central University of Technology uses English as a primary language of instruction whereas Afrikaans and Sesotho are used as supplementary languages of communication, in consideration of the regional preferences. The learning and assessment materials will be made available in Afrikaans, if possible, (Central University of Technology, 2013).

The Durban University of Technology's language policy adopted English, Afrikaans, and IsiZulu, (Durban University of Technology 2013). Mangosuthu University of Technology has a dual medium of instruction in IsiZulu and English, (Mangosuthu University of Technology 2013).

2.3.11 Tshwane University of Technology's language policy

Tshwane University of Technology's Language Policy was approved by council on 29 November 2005. Tshwane University of Technology's Language Policy pointed that; the language policy of the University should reflect the need to promote multilingualism. Under the policy on language of teaching, instruction and development, Tshwane University of Technology chooses English as the primary language of teaching, instruction, communication and documentation, Tshwane University of Technology's Language policy (section 4.2 of November 2005:5). See Appendix A.

(A) INDIGENOUS SOUTH AFRICAN LANGUAGES FOR DEVELOPMENT

The University has adopted Setswana as its primary indigenous South African language, whose terminology it will develop for academic, scientific and communication purposes. The University has adopted siSwati as its secondary indigenous South African language, whose terminology it will develop for

academic, scientific and communication purposes, through the Nelspruit learning site.

(B) FOREIGN LANGUAGES

The University shall promote other languages including foreign languages commonly used in South Africa, through the presenting of language courses or programmes, depending on the demand and the economic viability of such courses or programmes, for example French, Spanish and German.

(C) SUPPORT TO STUDENTS AND STAFF

The University shall academically support students in their efforts to become proficient in the Tshwane University of Technology's language or languages of teaching, instruction and communication. The University shall, furthermore, promote multilingualism, by rendering professional translation services, and support staff members to become proficient in the Tshwane University of Technology's language or languages for teaching, instruction and communication, through various methods of language training, including short courses and workshops. The Tshwane University of technology chose Setswana as an additional language and language of communication within the University. The university did not consider the highest percentage or the majority of students according to indigenous language, as shown on Table 2, Setswana ranks number two with 21.2%. If a University follows the criteria of the highest percentage, they should choose Sesotho as an additional language in their language policy, i.e. Concentration of speakers and students, (criteria number two mentioned by the ministerial committee).

(D) REASONS FOR CHOOSING ENGLISH, SETSWANA AND SISWATI

The Tshwane University of Technology chose English as a language of wider communication on science and business. The University recognizes that

proficiency in English is essential in making a successful career, locally and internationally. Another reason is that 48% of all TUT students stated English as their preferred language; which makes English the preferred language of the students. From the MIS data for 2002 to 2004, Sepedi and Setswana are the African languages spoken most by TUT students. 13% of all students stated Sepedi to be their home language, and 10% of all students indicated Setswana to be their home language. Sepedi and Setswana fall within the same language group. The University chose Setswana because the three campuses of TUT in the Tshwane Metropolitan Area are situated in close proximity to the North-West province, where Setswana is the African language spoken most in the province. It is spoken by 64% of the population in the province.

The University chose siSwati because it is the language spoken most in Mpumalanga. It is spoken by 30% of the population of Mpumalanga, followed by IsiZulu (26%) and IsiNdebele (12%). The University did not state much of the African language development on the campus in the Limpopo province. The policy only says the universities in the Limpopo province are suitable for the development of Sepedi, since Sepedi is the dominant language spoken by most of the population. According to the criteria mentioned by the ministerial committee in order to choose indigenous languages, Tshwane University of Technology uses criteria number one i.e. based on regional and locality-specific criteria. The University chose Setswana and siSwati because they are the regional languages within the place where the campuses are situated. The proposal has been made and also written in black and white but the problem is the action to be done, which means there is no implementation. This was emphasized by van Huyssteen's (2003:22) that "even though the language policy looks impressive on paper it is not applied successfully. There is a gap between the language policy by government and its implementation." Implementation is an action to follow the plan and makes sure that the work has been done; it is to take action on what is supposed to be done in order to achieve the objectives. This is confirmed by Gestner (2002) cited by Nkuna (2010:77) when he says: Implementation is "execution- getting things done, making it happen-is the most unappreciated skill of an effective business

leader.” Gestner agrees with Good (1959:280) when stating that implementation “is the devising of ways to carry out a proposal.”

Even though Cobarrubias and Fishman (1983) , define the term implementation based on language, their definition still has some essential elements with Gestner in Nkuna (2010) and Good (1959) above, they say that, “implementation is that work of cajoling or enforcing compliance with decisions made in code selection and codification, which we usually leave to governments, or school systems, or any other agency that carries weight with the general public, such as the media, whether written or oral,” (Cobarrubias and Fishman, 1983:269). The South African government and the higher educational institutions seem not to follow their plans to implement language policy. They are not willing to develop and promote the use of indigenous languages within the institutions. Mapi (2010:2) supports this view by observing that:

The government seems to be dragging its feet. Many in government present themselves as transformers but, when it comes to implementation there is suddenly nobody willing to talk and take any initiative. They also send their children to private schools, where the indigenous languages are either not taught.

The implementation of language policy in higher education is still a problem. Most of the universities’ language policies have indigenous languages to promote, but it is difficult to implement as they are not following their time-frame. Bamgbose (2000) in Alexander (2001:18) states:

South Africa’s language policy provides a role model for the African continent, particularly in terms of respect for multilingualism, legal backing for policy, and democratization of policy-making. However, it shares some of the weaknesses of language planning practices in Africa, especially the lack of a detailed plan of action for implementation of (the) proclaimed policy.

It is observed by Nkuna (2010:1) that “while an attempt is made to develop the universities’ institutional language policies, they do not follow the demand by the Minister of Education to the letter - not taking into account that provision for, say, reforming the tuition policies with regard to mediums of instructions, teaching, learning, and research is required”. This shows that indigenous languages are given an inferior status, where they cannot be totally trusted to be used for academic purposes. Molope (2010:9) observes that the “BA CEMS is South Africa’s first and only dual-medium degree in which an African language, Northern Sotho, is used as a medium of instruction and assessment with English.” The Tshwane University of Technology seems to delay the implementation of its language policy; based on the above definitions of implementation. English is still used as the only language of communication, teaching and learning within the university.

Other languages like Afrikaans, IsiZulu, Setswana, Sepedi and Tshivenda and Xitsonga are offered as subjects to be taught in the University, they are also offered as third languages to non-speaker students, as well as foreign languages like French, Spanish, and German. English is still taken as the language of power and wider communication within the University. Notices on notice boards, information, names of buildings, official functions, are all in the English language. Certificates are issued with English without the use of (Setswana or siSwati) indigenous languages; this is a big challenge for a parent/guardian who cannot read and understand the English language. Setswana is not yet developed as an additional language for communication. The Tshwane University of Technology’s language policy states that the University will render some workshops, short courses and training to support staff and students to become proficient in the Tshwane University of Technology’s language or languages of teaching, instruction and communication.

2.4 DEMOGRAPHICS

The new democratic government’s language policy concentrates on promoting local languages which are spoken by the majority of the country. The local languages are

referred to as the South African Indigenous Languages (see Table 5 and 6). These tables show the statistics of the home language speakers.

Table 5: The 2001 Census recorded the following home language speakers

Language	Speakers	%
IsiZulu	10 677 315	23.8%
IsiXhosa	7 907 149	17.6%
Afrikaans	5 983 420	13.3%
Sepedi	4 208 974	9.4%
Setswana	3 677 010	8.2%
English	3 673 206	8.2%
Sesotho	3 555 192	7.9%
Xitsonga	1 992 201	4.4%
siSwati	1 194 433	2.7%
Tshivenda	1 021 761	2.3%
IsiNdebele	711 825	1.6%
Other languages	217 291	0.5%
Total	44 819 777	100.0%

Source: Adapted from (SATSSA 2001)

From the above table English ranks number sixth in home language speakers, but is still the country's lingua franca, whereas the top five are the indigenous languages. The language with the majority of home language speakers is IsiZulu with 28.8%, followed by IsiXhosa with 17.6%, then Afrikaans with 13.3%, Sesotho sa Leboa with 9.4%, Setswana with 8.2%, English has 8.2%, Sesotho with 7.9%, Xitsonga with 4.4%, siSwati has 2.7%, Tshivenda has 2.3%, IsiNdebele has 1.6% and other languages 0.5%.

Table 6: The 2011 census recorded the following home language speakers

LANGUAGE	PERCENTAGE
IsiZulu	22.7%
IsiXhosa	16.0%
Afrikaans	13.5%
Sepedi	9.1%
Setswana	8.0%
English	9.6%
Sesotho	7.6%
Xitsonga	4.5%
siSwati	2.5%
Tshivenda	2.4%
IsiNdebele	2.1%
Other languages	1.6%
Total	100.0%

Source: Adapted from (SATSSA 2011)

According to census 2011, IsiZulu is the language with the majority of home language speakers, even though the percentage has been dropped from 23.8% in 2001 to 22.7% in 2011. Followed by IsiXhosa, this has also dropped from 17.6% to 16.0%, and then Afrikaans that increased from 13.3% to 13.5%. English increased with more than one percent from 8.2% to 9.6%. This makes it move from position six in the ranking to position five. Setswana is on number six, with 8.0% as it has dropped with 2%. Sepedi decreased from 9.4% to 9.1%, Sesotho has increased from 7.6% to 7.9%, Xitsonga increased from 4.4% to 4.5%, siSwati decreased from 2.7% to 2.5%, Tshivenda increased from 2.3% to 2.4%, IsiNdebele has increased from 1.6% to 2.1% and other languages have increased from 0.5% to 1.6%. The table of census 2011 reflects the English language in position five but is still the country's lingua franca.

2.5 WHAT THE SPECIALISTS SAY?

Many scholars provide different definitions of language policy. Scholars like Cooper (1989), Bamgbose (1991), Phaswana (1994), Heugh (1995) Alexander (2001), Patten (2001), van Huyssteen (2003), Mutasa (2004), Ricento (2009) Reagan (2009) and Spolsky (2012) contributed greatly towards the field of language policy and language planning.

Wherever language policy is mentioned, there is language planning. According to Spolsky (2012:3) “Charles Ferguson and other linguists agreed that language planning produced a language ‘policy’, an officially mandated set of rules for language use and form within a nation state”. This has been supported by Cooper’s (1989:29) views that “language policy issues fall within the domain of language planning, the language policy term sometimes appears as a synonym for language planning, but more often it refers to the goals of language planning.” This means that language policy goes hand in hand with language planning and therefore both language planning and language policy will be defined. Bamgbose (1991) cited in van Huyssteen (2003:19) defines language policy as a programme of action on the role of a language in a given community. In a multilingual situation, a language policy decision necessary involves the role or status of one language in relation to other languages.” Language policy deals with the selection of a language and also the matter of that language given a status within a community. Heugh (1995) cited in van Huyssteen (2003:18) states:

A country’s language policy is a set of principles conceptualized within an overarching framework of values, usually embodied in the constitution. If it is to be effective, the language policy has to be congruent with a country’s national development plan, whereas language planning defined as a term refers to the process of implementing a particular language policy.

Reagan (2009:134) states: Language policy is an applied social linguistic activity that has the potential to function either as a tool for empowerment and liberation or as a

means of oppression and domination. This statement is relevant to the language policies of South Africa, before and after apartheid. South Africa experienced different language policies, i.e. under the Nationalist government (Apartheid era) and a democratic government (post 1994). During the apartheid era official languages were English and Afrikaans and African languages were limited to use within the Bantustans. The main aim of a language policy in a democratic government was to promote multilingualism within the country. The educational institutions were also given a mandate to promote South African Indigenous Languages as mediums of instruction, (Ministry of Education, 2002). All the eleven languages have been given an equal official status regardless of their percentages of home language speakers; this is what Patten called 'public recognition'. "The political theory of language policy is language recognition i.e. public recognition and individual linguistics autonomy," (Patten, 2001:691). This shows that an official language enjoys public recognition when it is possible to access public services and conduct public business in that language, for example, in education, hospitals, courts and government offices. An individual enjoys linguistic autonomy when he is given freedom to choose a language to use in public and non-public domains. Patten (2001:691) gives an example of the United State where "English only" activists have a campaign to remove the rights of the linguistic minorities and declare English as the official language of the country.

The South African constitution recognized all eleven official languages: Afrikaans, English, IsiNdebele, IsiXhosa, IsiZulu, Sesotho, Sepedi, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda and Xitsonga (South African Constitution of 1996). Spolsky (2012:7) argues "Language symbolizes and represents ethnic identity". Patten continues to say: "A language is an issue of ethical, political, and legal importance in jurisdictions around the world" (Ibid. 2001:691). People must have access to information with the languages of their choice in government documents, hospitals and courts, (South African constitution, 1996). Alexander (2001:124) supports:

Language policy development and language practices, like all other aspects of social life in Southern Africa, have been stamped with the experience of colonial and apartheid rule. The former colonial languages

i.e. English and Afrikaans or Portuguese became and continue to be, the dominant languages of government and of the economy. English and Afrikaans have dominated the crucial domain of education and training, corollary to this statement is the historical marginalization and, in some cases, the actual extinction of the indigenous languages of Southern Africa.

This applies to South Africa as a multilingual and multicultural country, the indigenous languages such as Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda, Xitsonga, IsiNdebele, IsiXhosa and IsiZulu were given a lower status during apartheid, and this was done by the speakers of the languages and also the people who colonized them, hence the new South African language policy is to reinstate the status of the indigenous languages. This was emphasised by van Huyssteen (2003:24), "in South Africa this legacy of the colonized mind manifested in the underestimation of the indigenous African languages and the overvaluing of English and sometimes, Afrikaans is all too well-known to educators." English is still used as a language of power and economy whereas indigenous languages are still undermined.

Phaswana (1994:45) argues that:

To change these attitudes Black South Africans should become conscious of language planning issues and their complications. The indigenous African languages should be promoted as the official languages of government, of the economy and of education. Without such affirmative action, the new national policy will fail to achieve its goal of ensuring the quality and democratization of all languages.

The fact is that South Africans have been given power to promote and treat their languages with dignity, but they still undermine and have no trust on their languages. The South African indigenous languages have a majority of mother tongue speakers than English and Afrikaans, although English is still taken as the language of empowerment and a medium of instruction in different institutions. This encourages

South African's indigenous language speakers to conduct their meetings, church sermons and funerals in English even if there is no one who does not understand the community's indigenous language. Mutasa observes that "people do not see the value in African languages; they do not take African languages seriously," (Mutasa, 2004:7). African languages are not taken seriously but they appear on different language policies. Then Ricento (2009:64) argues:

Language policy has always been about far more than choosing which language to use in government, education, or the law, making decisions about the medium of instructions in schools or the role of translators in courts and governments, or implementing rational state policy resolutions. Language policy has to do with the use of languages as part of language governmentality.

The selected languages on the language policy should be used on the governance, which means those languages must be implemented.

2.6 CONCLUSION

Language policy involves the role or status of one language in relation to other languages, sometimes it appears as a synonym for language planning. The political theory of language policy is language recognition. During the apartheid era, South African indigenous languages were marginalized and given a low status. Language planning focuses on language problem solving, through language cultivation and language reform. Types of language planning are corpus planning, status planning, and acquisition planning, and the orientations of language planning are language-as-problem, language as right, and language as resource. Language policy of the new democratic government's aim is to promote and develop the previously marginalized indigenous languages. The policy is aimed at promoting the equitable use of the 11 official languages with a view to access knowledge and information. The new South African language policy is to reinstate the status of the indigenous languages. The only challenge is when the South African indigenous language speakers reject to use their

languages as they think that English is associated with better education. Language policy for higher education promotes multilingualism and encourages the use of the marginalized South African indigenous languages as mediums of communication within the higher education institutions, with the help of structures like PanSALB etc. Most of the universities have decided on relevant language policies based on their geographical area and people they serve. The implementation of the universities' language policies is still difficult.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Research methodology is a procedure used for data collection to answer research questions. Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009:21) describe research methodology as “a broad approach to scientific inquiry specifying how research questions should be asked and answered.” This chapter is about the collection of data using different designs and methods in order to answer the research question. The following sections will be discussed in this chapter:

- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 Research strategy
- 3.3 Data gathering techniques
- 3.4 Data collection
- 3.5 Data analysis
- 3.6 Report writing
- 3.7 Conclusion

The next section to be discussed is 3.2, and then it is followed by 3.3 to 3.7.

3.2 RESEARCH STRATEGY

The research strategy is a technique which the researcher uses to select research methods, participants, and data collection techniques and analysis methods. For instance, Nieuwenhuis (2007:70) defines a research strategy as “a plan or strategy which moves from (an) underlying philosophical assumption to specify the selection of respondents, the data gathering techniques to be used and the data analysis to be done.”

Mixed method was chosen in this research in order to achieve the research objectives; it was based on the theory of qualitative and quantitative methods. Mixed method helps the researcher to answer the research questions about social experiences and lived realities as it is multi-dimensional. Creswell and Plano Clark (2011:1) called mixed method as “third methodological movement” following the development of first quantitative and then qualitative research. Creswell (2008) in Ivankova, et al., (2007:263) define mixed method research as a “procedure for collecting, analysing and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data at some stage of the research process within a single study to understand a research problem more completely. Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) quoted by Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009:7) indicate that, mixed method has been defined as “a type of research in which Qualitative and Quantitative approaches are used in the types of questions, research methods, data collection and analysis procedures, and/or inferences.”

Both qualitative and quantitative methods were useful to this research as Leedy (1993) in Mutasa (2004:11) when distinguishing qualitative and quantitative says “qualitative research data is verbal and quantitative research data is numerical, which means that it focuses on how often something occurs”. A quantitative method helps to analyse data with graphs and tables. A qualitative method is more interested in the quality of a particular activity whereas a quantitative approach is interested in numerical occurrences. Patton (2002) in Ivankova et al.(2007:263) state that “in mixed methods research, the researcher constructs knowledge about real-world issues based on pragmatism, which places more emphasis on finding the answers to research questions than on the methods used.” Mixed methods helped the researcher on gathering data from multiple data sources because; it allows for contextual interpretations, the use of multiple methods and flexibility in choosing the best strategies to address the research questions. The mixed methods researcher combines quantitative and qualitative strategies within one study, collects both numeric (numbers) data and text (word) data concurrently or in sequence, and chooses variables and units of analysis which are most appropriate for addressing the study’s purpose and finding answers to the research questions, Teddlie and Tashakkori (2003) cited in Ivankova et al. (2007:262).

According to Mason (2006:9), “mixed methods help us to think creatively and outside the box, to theorize beyond the micro-macro divide and to enhance and extend the logic qualitative explanation.” This method was important for this research to get enough details of information and sensitive issues of language policy from the participant’s personal knowledge and experience. Mixed methods allow a researcher to collect data from multiple participants with a variety of techniques and also analysing data in different ways.

3.3 DATA GATHERING TECHNIQUES

The research design is based on the methods selected to collect data in the research. Walliman (2011) mentions five major categories of methods: experimental, survey, archival analysis, historical and case study. In this research, the categories of research strategies selected were observation and survey. These research strategies (observation and survey) are very important to this kind of research. This is what Nkuna (2010) called multi-method approaches and strategies; it emphasizes the interconnectedness of the three research designs: case study, survey and observation in the same study.

The researcher chooses to use observation and survey as they are best to answer the research question. In survey the researcher conducted a face to face survey which is also able to interpret the facial expressions and other bodily gestures.

3.3.1 Observation

Observation is when the researcher uses visual observation of the documents or the inspection of the situation. Maree (2007:83) explains observation as the systematic process of recording the behavioural patterns of participants, objects and occurrences without necessarily questioning or communicating with them. Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009:218) support “the observational data collection strategy is the recording of units of interaction occurring in a defined social situation based on visual examination or inspection of that situation”. The researcher used observation to collect data in order to

get real information on the implementation of the Tshwane University of Technology's Language policy. The researcher observed the secondary data to find the information. In this technique, the researcher focused on secondary data by collecting information from documents, and policies. The researcher observed the university documents, marketing tools, notices, billboards, directions, and signage.

3.3.2 Survey

In surveys the researcher should be able to get the real information and views from the relevant participants. This can lead to the collection of primary data.

Primary data is data which the researcher collects from the research participants; it can be collected through interviews or questionnaires. Primary data is new data that is collected for the research project, while secondary data is available data from sources other than the current research project (Struwig and Stead, 2001).

There are different ways of collecting primary data; these are interviews, surveys, and observation. Saunders et.al., (2000) give three types of collecting primary data i.e. collecting primary data through observation and collecting primary data using semi-structured and in-depth interviews and collecting primary data using questionnaires.

The researcher should select samples before conducting surveys. This is supported by McMillan and Schumacher (2001) and Crowther et al., (1994) quoted by Maree and Pietersen (2007:155) "In survey research, researchers select samples of respondents before administering questionnaires or conducting interviews to collect information about their attitudes, values, ideas, demographics, feelings, opinions, perceptions, plans and beliefs."

Nunan (1992:232) defines a survey as "the collection of data (usually related to attitudes, beliefs, or intentions) from subjects without attempting to manipulate the phenomena/ variables under investigation." Survey data is used to describe and explain the status of the phenomena, to trace change and to draw comparisons.

For this research, the researcher conducted a semi structured interview I or an indirect interview with the staff and students which Patton (2002) in Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009: 229) termed 'informal conversational interview'.

Therefore, after the survey the researcher analysed the data collected in a form of tables and graphs.

3.4 DATA COLLECTION

3.4.1 Data

Leedy and Ormrod (2013:77) define data "as pieces of information that any particular situation gives to an observer". Data is all the information collected by a researcher. There are two types of data, i.e. primary and secondary data.

3.4.1.1 Primary data

Primary data is data which the researcher collects from the research participants; it can be collected through the interview or the questionnaire. Primary data are the new data that are collected for the research project, while secondary data are available data from sources other than the current research project, (Struwig and stead 2001:80). A researcher collected primary data through indirect interview and observation.

3.4.1.2 Secondary data

Secondary data is data that the researcher collects from written documents or policies. Hakim, (1982) in Saunders et al. (2000:188) defines secondary data as "data that have already been collected for some other purposes. Secondary data include both raw and published summaries." Secondary data collected by a researcher helped to provide answers to research questions and also addresses researcher's objectives. Some researchers say that secondary data are more reliable hence they have been tested for validity.

3.4.2 Population

Population is the total collection of the units that the researcher wants to survey. Population is a target group that the researcher wants to study, for example, it can be hospitals, schools or single parents or students. Nardi (2003:97) supports this by saying:

A population is the total collection of units or elements you want to analyse. Whether the units you are talking about are American citizens, schools, editorials in newspapers, or local businesses, when the population is small enough, you can easily survey every element of the population.

Nkuna (2010:112) adds that “the population encompasses the total collection of all units of analysis about which the researcher wishes to draw conclusions.” The population can be human subjects or objects. The research has been conducted at the Tshwane University of Technology. Nunan (1992:231) defines population as “all cases, situations, or individuals who share one or more characteristic.” The population of this research is lecturers, students, marketing tools, university documents, notices, billboards, directions, signages, and communication tools. This population helped the researcher to collect data even on infrastructures like human and financial resources that are used to maintain and promote languages, and to review the drafts of the language policy.

3.4.3 Sampling

Sampling is a process in which the researcher selects a sample from the population to collect data. According to Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) quoted by Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009:169a), “sampling involves selecting units of analysis (e.g., people, groups, artefacts, settings) in a manner that maximizes the researcher’s ability to answer questions set forth in a study.” Later Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) cited in Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009:169b) presented four types of sampling procedures: probability, purposive, convenience, and mixed method sampling. The researcher used a probability

procedure to answer the research question. Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) cited in Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009:170), say this about probability sampling,

Probability sampling techniques are primarily used in QUA-oriented studies and involve “selecting relatively large numbers of units from a population, or from specific subgroups (strata) of a population, in a random manner where the probability of inclusion for every member of the population is determinable.

Leedy and Ormrod (2005:199) say that “in probability sampling, the researcher can specify in advance that each segment of the population will be represented in the sample.” This sets it apart from nonprobability sampling, where the researcher has no way of forecasting or guaranteeing that each element of the population will be represented in the sample (Ibid. 2005: 206). The researcher chose probability sampling as it includes sampling where each unit on the population has an equal chance to be selected, i.e. in random sampling.

3.4.4 Sample

A sample is a chosen group from the population to collect data. Kumar (2005:164) defines a sample as: “a subgroup of the population you are interested in.” van Rensburg et al., (2009:51) explain that “a sample is a part of a whole (or a subset of measurement drawn from the population). A sample, then, is a selected group of elements from a defined population.” Walliman (2011:185) argues: “a sample is a selected number of cases in a population.” The researcher agrees with all the above definitions, a sample is a selected group from the population.

The sample for this research has been chosen from the Tshwane University of Technology’s staff and students, marketing tools, university documents, signage, directions, billboards, notice, and communication tools.

3.4.5 The sampling frame

The sampling frame is a complete list in the population from which a sample can be chosen. Collins et al., (2000:150) says that “the sampling frame is a comprehensive list of all the units or elements in the target population”. Research was conducted at Soshanguve campus of Tshwane University of Technology. The unit in which the researcher got information regarding Tshwane University of Technology’s staff and students are marketing tools, university documents, and signage, directions, billboards, notice, and communication tools.

3.4.6 Sample size

A sample size is the number of participants which the researcher prefers to use in the study. Random sampling was used for selection of the sample size in this research. Neuman (1997) cited in Collins, et al. (2000:150) relates the sample size to: “the number of elements in a sample.” Nardi, (2003:110a) argues that “when a population is more homogenous, elements are required to get a representative sample. The more heterogeneous a population is on a variety of characteristics (let’s say such things as race, gender, and age), the larger the required sample is so that it reflects the diversity.” Then later Nardi, (2003:110b) confirms that “sample size depends on what is being studied.” If the researcher is interested in comparing sub groups like gender, age or racial differences, the sample size will be larger. The researcher’s sample size for this study are twenty staff members and twenty students, fifteen marketing tools, fifteen university documents, fifteen notices, fifteen billboards, fifteen directions, and fifteen signages, from the Tshwane University of Technology’s Soshanguve campus. The researcher chose to use fifteen of each sample in order to get relevant information.

3.4.7 Simple random sampling

Simple random sampling is a type of sampling on which each and every unit on the population has equal chances of being chosen. Brink (1996) in Collins et al. (2000:153) express that “simple random sampling is the most basic of the probability sampling

methods, where each element of the sampling frame has an equal chance of being included in the sample". The researcher should have the list of all the components of the population before selecting randomly. The researcher can record them by their numbers. The researcher can choose any number from the list. Nardi (2003:102) comments that "their names can be written on pieces of paper, placed in a box, mixed well and then, like a lottery, picked out at random." Therefore, in order to achieve a true simple random sample, you must be able to provide a complete list of all possible units in the population from which to choose a sample (Ibid. 2003:105). This technique helped the researcher to get the participants from Tshwane University of Technology Soshanguve campus. The participants were staff and students, marketing tools, university documents, signage, directions, billboards, notices, and communication tools.

3.5 DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis is when the researcher interprets or analyses the collected data. Data analysis depends on the method chosen by the researcher. Maree (2007:37) comments that "researchers in the positivist paradigm prefer a deductive data analysis strategy; researchers in the interpretive (naturalistic) paradigm mostly prefer inductive data analysis, which is more likely to help them identify the multiple realities potentially present in the data."

All the data collected by the researcher have been analysed using graphs, tables and statistics in this research. This helped the researcher to show the frequency of occurrence for certain categories of data and in order to find the main and supportive ideas. Then the researcher was able to compare the participants' responses, it is also easy to identify the participants' differences and similarities.

"There is no one 'right' way [to analyse data]... data can be analysed in more than one way" McMillan and Schumacher (2001) quoted in Maree (2007:37). The researcher agrees with McMillan and Schumacher that data can be analysed in different ways.

3.6 REPORT WRITING

The report of this study is this dissertation consists of five chapters namely: Introduction, literature review, research design and methodology, results, data analysis and interpretation and summary, conclusion and recommendations.

3.7 CONCLUSION

This chapter was about the research methodology, the researcher used mixed methods to answer the research questions. Different aspects such as a research strategy, research design, sampling, sample, the sampling frame, sample size, probability sampling and population, data collection and analysis, secondary and primary, and report writing have been discussed in this chapter.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is about the results on the steps taken in the survey and observation. All these steps support the objectives of the study. The results in this chapter are based on the implementation of the Language Policy at Tshwane University of Technology.

The researcher will integrate the language policy and the implementation thereof in order to check the relationship between the two. This chapter is subdivided into four sections:

- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.2 Results on survey
- 4.3 Results on observation
- 4.4 Conclusion

The next section is 4.2. Then 4.3 to 4.4

4.2 RESULTS ON SURVEY

The researcher performed indirect survey on the implementation of the TUT's language policy to twenty students and twenty staff members. Out of twenty staff members, only 16 responded, and on the students, only 10 responded. For survey questions refer to Appendix H.

4.2.1 Responses of students

The researcher performed indirect interviews to the students of Tshwane University of Technology. The responses of students and their percentages are represented in a form of a table. (See table 7).

Table 7: Responses of students

Responses	Number of students	Percentage
Yes	2	20%
No	2	20%
Don't know	6	60%
Total	10	100%

From the table above, out of twenty students only ten responded, two of the students say yes TUT has a language policy and it is being implemented. Another two say TUT do not have a language policy. Then six show that they do not know about TUT's language policy. This gives a picture that a lot or the majority of students are not aware of the university's language policy.

4.2.2 Responses of staff members

The researcher performs another indirect interview to Tshwane University of Technology staff members. Table 8 represents the response of staff members

Table 8: Response of staff members

Responses	Number of staff members	Percentages
Yes	0	0%
No	4	25%
Don't know	12	75%
Total	16	100%

Out of twenty staff members only sixteen responded from the survey. From that number none agreed that TUT is implementing its language policy, twelve say they do not know about the language policy and its implementation, whereas four say TUT is not implementing its language policy. The samples of the questions are at Appendix H.

4.3 RESULTS ON OBSERVATION

The results are subdivided into eight sections and the sections are discussed under 4.3.1 to 4.3.8.

4.3.1 Results on observation of marketing tools

The researcher observed the language used for marketing tools by the university. Marketing tools are things used by the university to reach out to the community and make the people know about the institution. (See table 9).

Table 9: Marketing tools and languages used

Languages	Number of marketing tools	Percentage
Setswana	0	0%
siSwati	0	0%
English	15	100%
Total	15	100%

The researcher was able to collect fifteen marketing tools. They are all written in English and the samples are recorded to represent the marketing tools. The motto of the University is in English, and not Setswana or siSwati. The information on University materials such as marketing tools is written in English only. (See Appendix B).

4.3.2 Results on observation of university documents

Another observation was done on the language used on the university documents such as study guides and envelopes. (See table 10).

Table 10: University documents and languages used

Languages	Number of university's documents	Percentages
Setswana	0	0%
siSwati	0	0%
English	15	100%
Total	15	100%

From fifteen documents that the researcher observed, all are written in English. No document written in Setswana and siSwati. Only the University's envelopes are written in English and Afrikaans. (See Appendix C).

4.3.3 Results on observation of notices

Observation of the language used for notices that give information and instructions to staff and students. (See table 11).

Table 11: Language used on notices

Languages	Number of notices	Percentages
Setswana	0	0%
siSwati	0	0%
English	15	100%
Total	15	100%

The researcher observed fifteen notices from the notice boards. All are written in English, with none written in Setswana or siSwati. Only ten were recorded in the

appendix. This shows that English is the only language used to convey the message on the notice boards, i.e. notices among students themselves, notices from Lecturers to students, information on scholarships and information on examinations. They are in Appendix D.

4.3.4 Results on observation of billboards

The researcher did an observation on the language used for billboards at the university. For instance; the billboards of the main entrance, (see table 12).

Table 12: Language used for billboards

Languages	Number of billboards	Percentages
Setswana	0	0%
siSwati	0	0%
English	15	100%
Total	15	100%

The information observed by the researcher on billboards is in English. Only six have been recorded. (See examples in Appendix E).

4.3.5 Results on observation of directions

The sign for directions to different places shows the language used at the university. The researcher observed the language used for directions. (See table 13).

Table 13: Languages used for directions

Languages	Number of directions	Percentages
Setswana	0	0%
siSwati	0	0%
English	15	100%
Total	15	100%

The researcher observed fifteen directions within the Soshanguve campus only to find that all are written in English, none written in Setswana and siSwati, but only seven have been recorded in the appendix. (See example in Appendix F).

4.3.6 Results on observation of signages

The signage also shows the languages used in the university. The researcher observed the language used for signage in the university. (See table 14).

Table 14: Languages used for signages

Languages	Number of signages	Percentages
Setswana	0	0%
siSwati	0	0%
English	15	100%
Total	15	100%

The researcher observed fifteen signages and all of them were in English and none were written in Setswana or siSwati languages. English is the only language used for signage within the university. The signages were all written in English. (See examples in Appendix G).

4.4 CONCLUSION

According to the results found, English is the dominant language used for documents; Setswana and siSwati are not used. This shows that English is the only language used to convey the message on the marketing tools; university documents; notices; billboards; directions; and signages. Even a Setswana study guide is written in English. It is only the university's envelopes which are written in English and Afrikaans. The Tshwane University of Technology's Language Policy is not yet implemented. At Tshwane University of Technology none of the indigenous languages are used for academic, scientific and communication purposes as stated in the language policy.

CHAPTER 5

ANALYSIS OF THE RESULTS AND INTERPRETATION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is based on the analysis and interpretation of the results, a summary of findings, and conclusions on the findings as well as recommendations for further research.

The chapter comprises of:

- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2 Analysis and interpretation
- 5.3 Challenges
- 5.4 Lesson learned
- 5.5 Summary of findings
- 5.6 Conclusion
- 5.7 Recommendations

The researcher will start with the analysis and interpretation; the first analysis will be on the survey followed by analysis on the observation of marketing tools, university's documents, notices, billboards, directions, signages, and communication tools.

5.2 ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

5.2.1 Analysis on the survey

5.2.1.1 Analysis on the survey of students

Figure 1 below represents the response of students

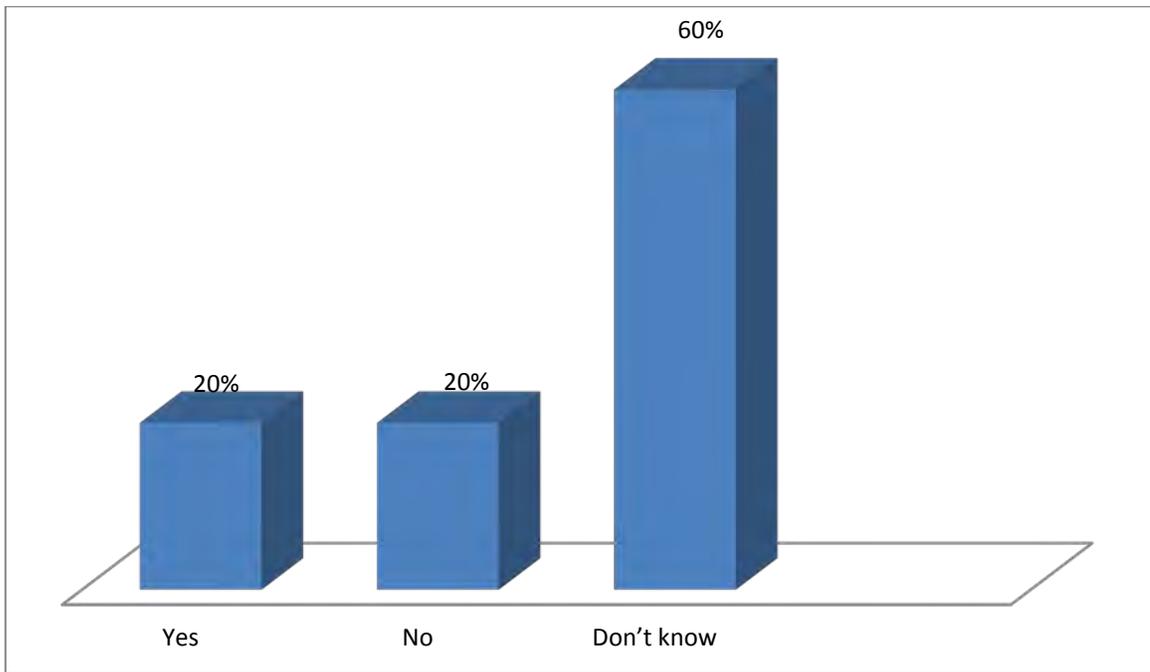


Figure 1: Analysis on the response of students

Out of 100% of students at the university, (60%) say they do not know about the implementation of the language policy, (20%) say the language policy is not implemented, another (20%) say yes the university is implementing it.

5.2.1.2 Analysis on the survey of staff

Figure 2 below represents the response of staff

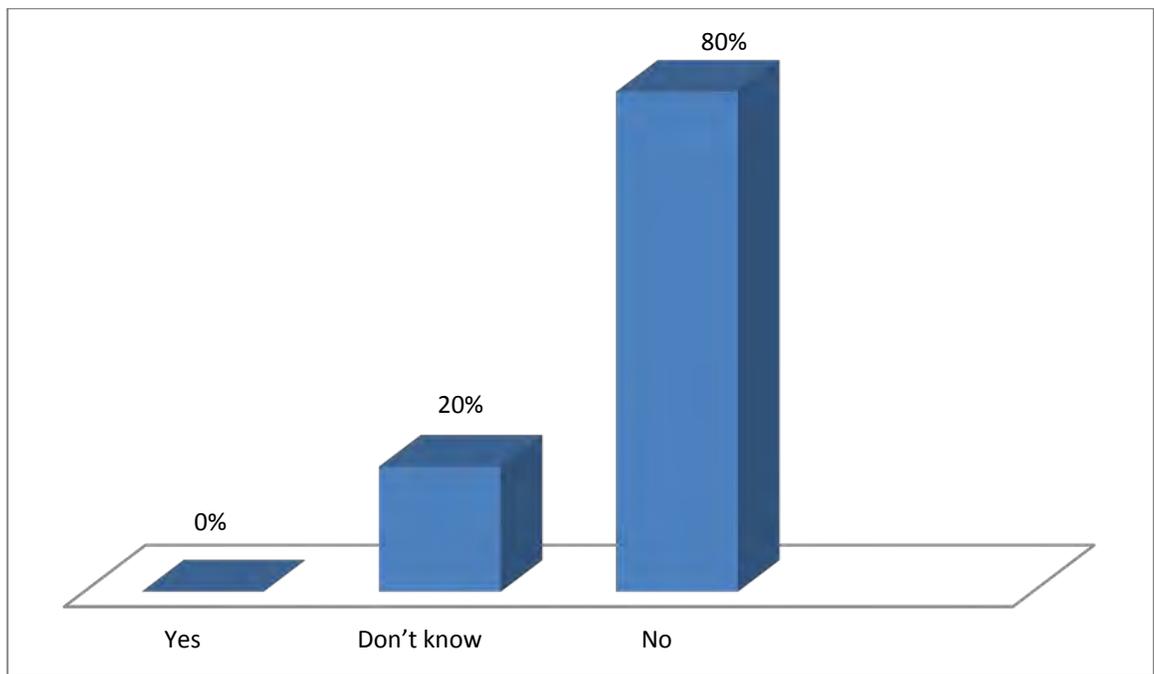


Figure 2: Analysis on the response of staff members

From 100% staff members 80% say no, language policy is not implemented, 20% say they do not know about the implementation, and no one 0% says yes the Tshwane University of Technology's Language Policy has been implemented.

5.2.2 Analysis on the observation

5.2.2.1 Analysis on the observation of marketing tools

Figure 3 below represents observation of marketing tools

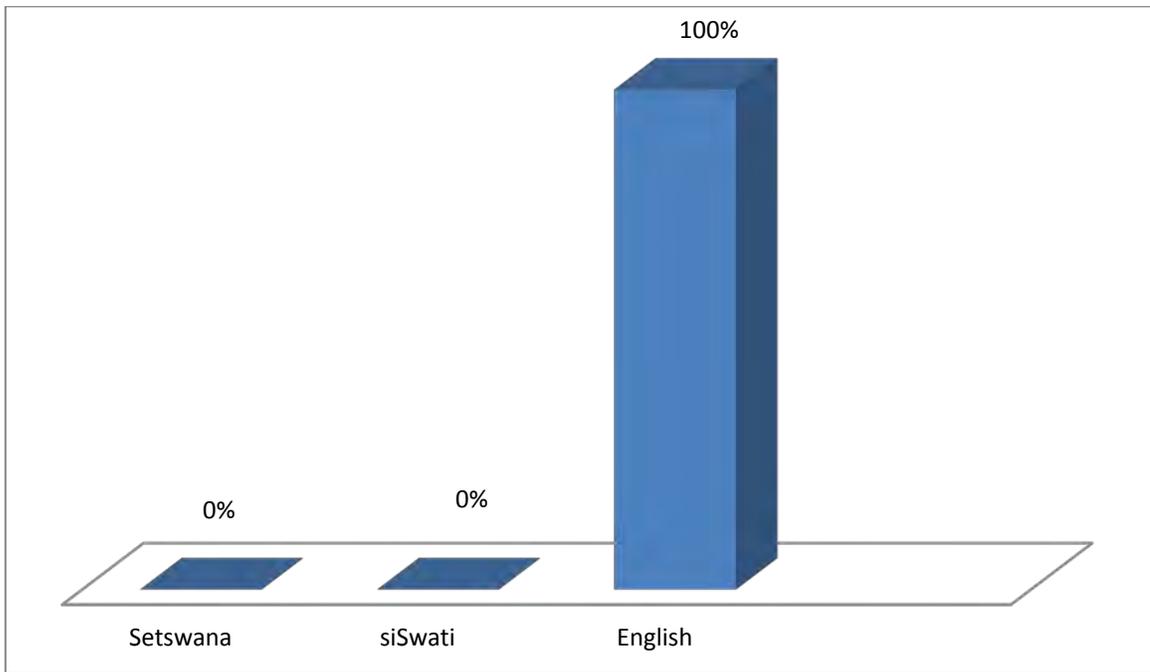


Figure 3: Analysis on the observation of marketing tools

Both 100% T-shirts are written in English language whereas 0% written in Setswana and 0% written in siSwati.

5.2.2.2 Analysis on the observation of university documents

Figure 4 below represents observation of university documents

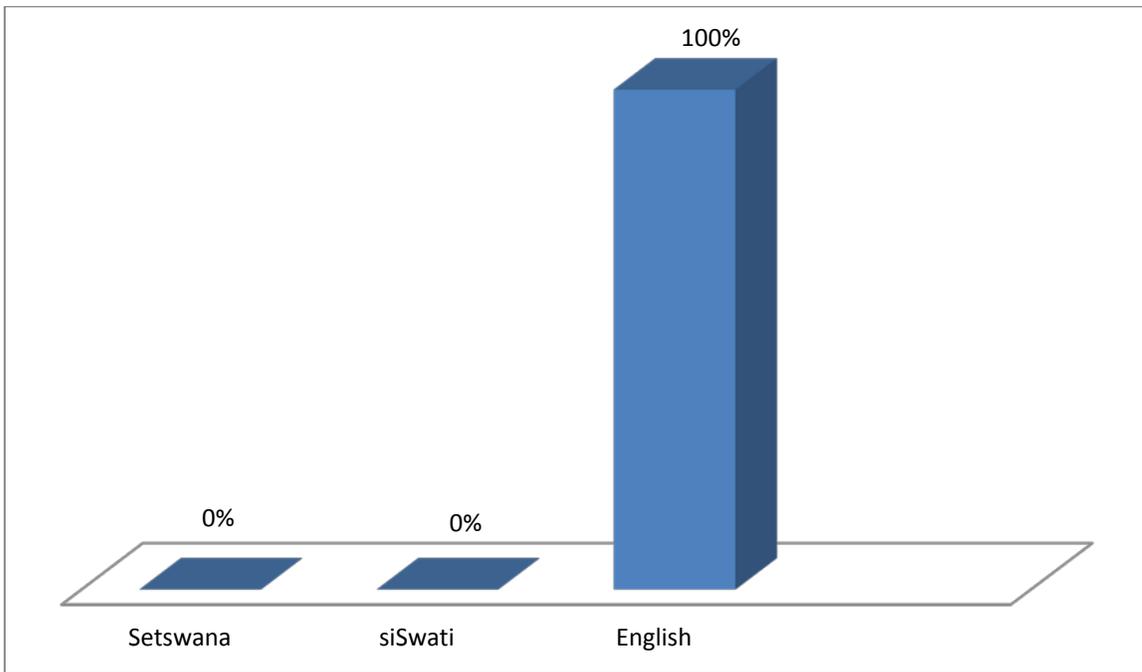


Figure 4: Analysis on observation of university documents

All of 100% documents are written in the English language, no document is written in Setswana or siSwati, the indigenous languages in the university language policy obtain 0%.

5.2.2.3 Analysis on observation of notices

Figure 5 below represents observation of notices

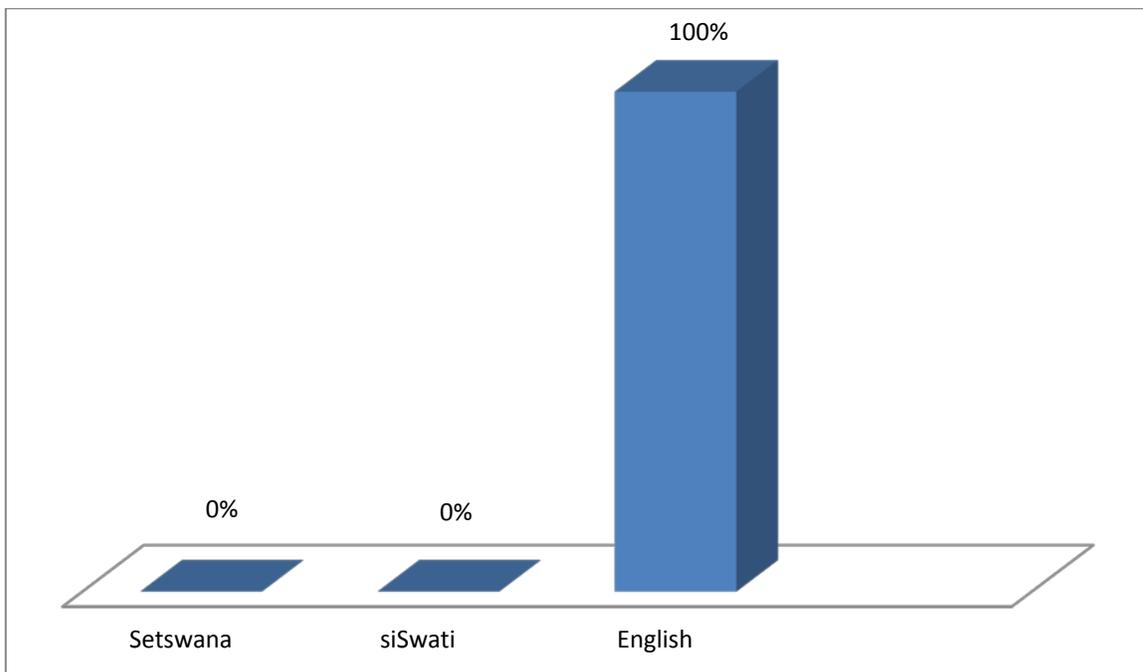


Figure 5: Analysis on the observation of notices

From all the notices within the university, the communication is in English. Indigenous languages found in TUT language policy i.e. Setswana and siSwati are not used to convey messages on notices. This is visible in the graph where English has 100% whereas Setswana and siSwati have 0%.

5.2.2.4 Analysis on observation of billboards

Figure 6 below represents observation of billboards

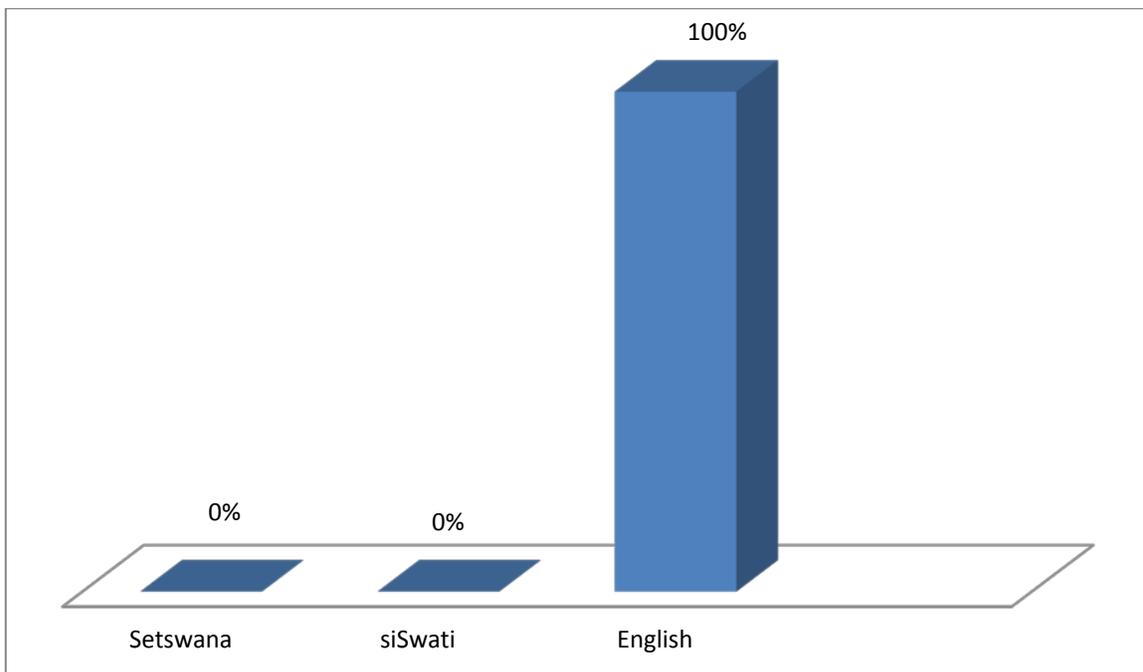


Figure 6: Analysis on observation of billboards

100% of billboards within the university are written in the English language and no billboard is written in Setswana or siSwati and yet they are indigenous languages selected to be promoted by the university. This results in 0% for both Setswana and siSwati languages. The billboards are at the forefront or the entrance of the institution and they should reflect the language policy. As one enters the gate one would be conscientised of the languages used within the institution.

5.2.2.5 Analysis on observation of directions

Figure 7 below represents observation of directions

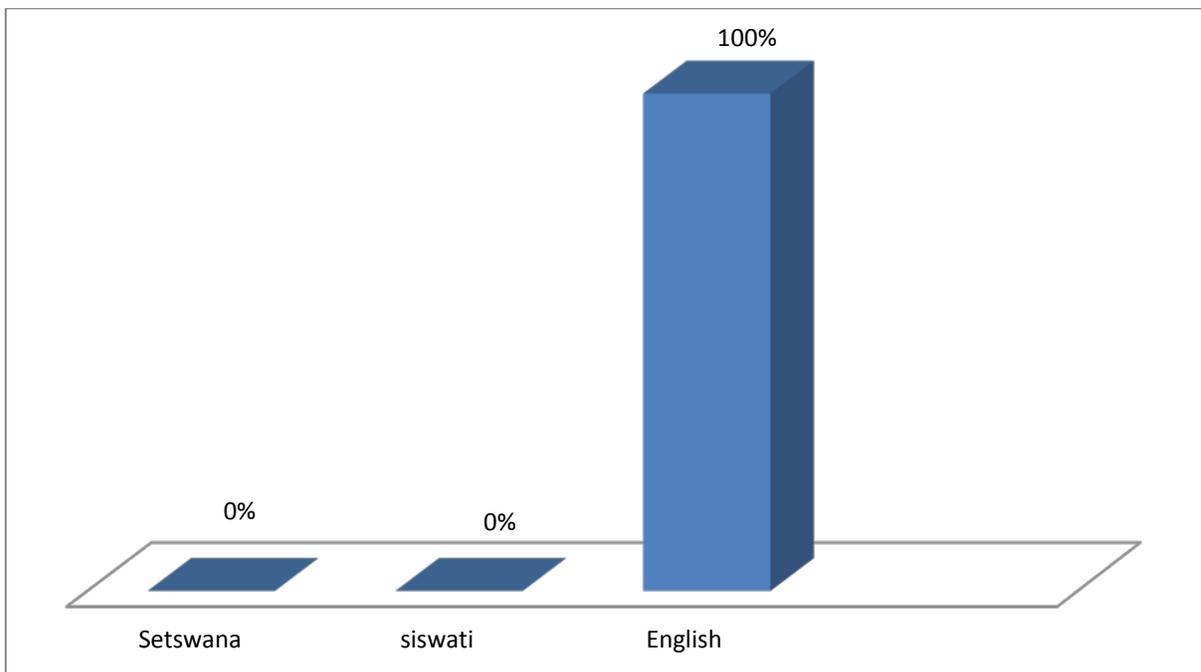


Figure 7: Analysis on observation of directions

Directions from point A to point B within TUT are all written in English, no direction to any point is in any selected indigenous language. In the graph above English has 100% whereas Setswana and siSwati got 0%. It is difficult to establish the languages selected to be promoted within the university.

5.2.2.6 Analysis on observation of signage

Figure 8 below represents observation of signage

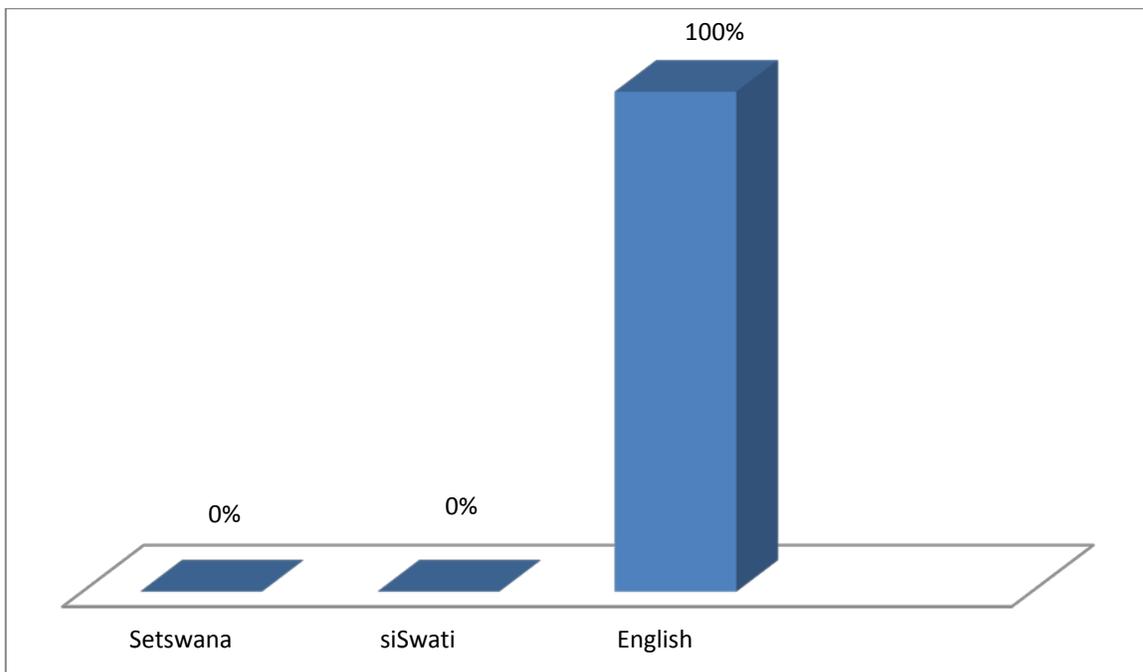


Figure 8: Analysis on observation of signage

All the signage in the university is written in English, none in Setswana and siSwati. Signage is one of the most important symbols to demonstrate the language policy within the institutions. This shows that TUT is still using only one language within the institution i.e. English. The graph shows all the percentages on the signage where English has 100% whereas Setswana and siSwati have 0%.

5.3 CHALLENGES

The researcher has encountered some difficulties or challenges during the study. The researcher encountered a delay with regard to the application to the Tshwane University of Technology's Ethics to conduct interviews. This resulted in the researcher changing research techniques from using a case study and questionnaires to observation and survey. The researcher continues with survey in a form of indirect interview in order to get answers for research questions. This has been a big challenge as the researcher was already prepared with the questionnaires for data collection. Another challenge met during the collection of data was when the researcher wanted to take photos in some premises, she was not allowed to enter those premises.

5.4 BEYOND RESULTS

The Tshwane University research committee should empower researchers to conduct research within the institution rather than delay their applications. Researchers should not be discouraged to conduct interviews within the university.

5.5 LESSON LEARNED

The researcher has learned some lessons, for instance, when a researcher wants to collect data, he/she must not rely on one research method to avoid disappointment and lack of progress. Researchers must have a variety of options to collect data during the research purpose.

5.6 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

The language used for communication, scientific and academic purposes is English. Indigenous languages (i.e. Setswana and siSwati) that are selected to be promoted within the university are not yet implemented. English is still taken as the only official language within the University. All the documents and communications are in English.

Documents like certificates, study guides, covers for question papers and memorandum, and answer books are still issued in English.

Notices from lecturers to students, notices from examination, notices from registration and among students themselves are all in English.

All the billboards, starting with the entrance where one finds the name of the University or the welcome message to the rules of the University are in the English language only.

The directions within the University are written in English, the directions to students' administration, lecture rooms, community hall and examination are all in English.

Signages are also in the English language, signage about the information Centre, residence, dining hall and FM radio.

University materials such as sportswear, key holders and t-shirts are all using the English language. Spolsky (2012:7) says “language symbolizes and represents ethnic identity”, TUT is still using English as medium for communication so it symbolises the Europeans’ identity.

5.7 CONCLUSION

The Tshwane University of Technology still has a problem on the implementation of the language policy. The Tshwane University of Technology’s Language Policy is only a written document on paper. All the information is given in English, indigenous languages i.e. Setswana and siSwati are not yet promoted as mentioned in the TUT language policy. This shows that the university has just chosen the indigenous language (Setswana) in the language policy to fulfil the call from the minister, not to promote it.

5.8 RECOMMENDATIONS

Findings revealed that indigenous languages are not yet promoted as promised in the language policy. It is the role of the university’s stake holders to promote the indigenous languages that have been mentioned in the university’s language policy. The council of the university should draw short term and long term implementable language policy goals to be achieved within certain timelines. The Department of Applied Languages should be given the responsibility to come with the plan to promote the status of the indigenous languages that are in the language policy. They must be given a time-frame to avoid the delay on the implementation. Staff and students should be encouraged to promote the status of indigenous languages.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: TUT LANGUAGE POLICY

LANGUAGE POLICY

Date first issued: Date reviewed:

**Date approved by EMC / Senate: 19 May 2005 / 24 October
2005**

Date approved by Council: 29 November 2005

This policy, its rules, guidelines and procedures shall replace all previous policies and their rules, guidelines and procedures and/or circulars on the language medium or media of the institution.

All previous policies and rules shall be rendered null and void by this approved policy.

1. POLICY ON LANGUAGE OF TEACHING, INSTRUCTION AND COMMUNICATION

It is the policy of the Tshwane University of Technology (TUT) – to use English as the primary language of teaching, instruction, communication and documentation.

2. INDIGENOUS SOUTH AFRICAN LANGUAGES FOR DEVELOPMENT

The University has adopted Setswana as its primary indigenous South African language, whose terminology it will develop for academic, scientific and communication purposes.

2.2 The University has adopted SiSwati as its secondary indigenous South African language, whose terminology it will develop for academic, scientific and communication purposes, through the Nelspruit learning site.

3. DEFINITIONS

In this document, unless otherwise indicated –

“**official languages**” mean the official South African languages of the Republic of South Africa, namely Afrikaans, English, IsiNdebele, Sepedi, SeSotho, SiSwati, Xitsonga, Setswana, Tshivenda, IsiXhosa and IsiZulu;

"**TUT**" means the Tshwane University of Technology, as duly constituted in terms of the Higher Education Act, 1997 (Act No. 101 Of 1997), as amended; and

"**University**" means the Tshwane University of Technology, as duly constituted in terms of the Higher Education Act, 1997 (Act No. 101 Of 1997), as amended.

4. RULES

4.1 The University may use any other official South African languages for communication and teaching purposes where it is reasonably practicable: Provided that such use should not violate the language rights of other people.

4.2 The University shall promote other languages, including foreign languages commonly used in South Africa, through the presenting of

language courses or programmes, depending on the demand and the economic viability of such courses or programmes.

- 4.3 The University shall academically support students in their efforts to become proficient in TUT's language or languages of teaching, instruction and communication.
- 4.4 The University shall, furthermore, promote multilingualism, by rendering professional translation services, and support staff members to become proficient in TUT's language or languages of teaching, instruction and communication, through various methods of language training, including short courses and workshops.

5. DOCUMENTS

Annexure A: Background information to the Language Policy

Annexure 1 –7: Language profile figures and percentage

ANNEXURE A

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

LANGUAGE POLICY

1 Legislative framework

- 1.1 *Section 6(2)* of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 recognises that, given the marginalisation of South African indigenous languages in the past, the State “must take practical and positive measures to elevate the status and advance the use of these languages”.
 - 1.2 *Section 29(2)* of the Constitution provides that everyone has the right, at a public educational institution, to receive education in the official language of his or her choice where that is reasonably practicable. In order to give effect to this right, the Constitution requires the State to consider all reasonable educational alternatives, including single-medium institutions, taking into account equity, practicability and the need to redress the legacy of discriminatory laws and practices.
 - 1.3 *Section 27(2)* of the Higher Education Act, 1997 empowers the Minister of Education to determine policy within the framework of which a higher education institution's Council, with the concurrence of its Senate, should determine the language policy of such institution, publish it and make it available, on request.
 - 1.4 The Minister has determined through the *Language Policy for Higher Education*, published in November 2002, that all public higher education institutions should develop their own language policies within the above Ministerial policy framework, and submit them to the Minister.
- 2 The Tshwane University of Technology (TUT) acknowledges the following:
- 2.1 That there are eleven official languages, and that all official languages should enjoy parity, in respect of esteem, and be treated equally.

- 2.2 That every individual has the right to be taught or instructed in the official language or languages of his or her choice to the extent that teaching or instructing students in such official language or languages would be feasible to the University.
- 2.3 That no language policy should deny any person access to higher education.
- 2.4 That the vast majority of the South African indigenous languages has either not been fully developed or not been developed at all as academic or scientific languages.
- 2.5 That learners in the South African higher education environment are linguistically diverse; therefore, the language policy of the University should reflect the need to promote multilingualism.
- 2.6 That the University's language policy should take into account factors such as financial affordability, practical considerations and the right of a person to be taught or instructed in the language of his or her choice.

3 Language of teaching, instruction and communication

In view of the above considerations and principles, the University shall use English as its primary language of teaching, instruction, communication and documentation.

4 Indigenous South African languages for development

- 4.1 The University shall adopt Setswana as the primary indigenous African language whose terminology it will develop for academic, scientific and communication purposes.
- 4.2 In view of the fact that SiSwati is the primary indigenous language of the Mpumalanga Province, where the University's Nelspruit learning site is situated, the University shall, furthermore, adopt SiSwati as its secondary indigenous African language whose terminology it will develop for academic, scientific and communication purposes, through the Nelspruit learning site.

5 Other official South African languages

The University may use other official South African languages for communication and teaching purposes where it is reasonably practicable: Provided that such use should not violate the language rights of other people.

6 Foreign languages

The University shall promote other languages, including foreign languages commonly used in South Africa, by presenting language courses or programmes, depending on the demand and the economic viability of such courses or programmes.

7 Support to students and staff

7.1 The University shall academically support students in their efforts to become proficient in

TUT's language or languages of teaching, instruction and communication.

7.2 The University shall, furthermore, promote multilingualism, by rendering professional translation services, and support staff members to become proficient in TUT's language or languages of teaching, instruction and communication, through various methods of language training, including short courses and workshops.

8 REASONS FOR CHOOSING ENGLISH

English is the language of communication on the science front and in business dealings all over the world. The University recognises the fact that proficiency in English is essential in making a successful career, locally and internationally.

The University will offer language courses to improve students' proficiency in English with the view to their attaining academic literacy. The University will,

furthermore, offer English courses to staff, whose first language is not English, to improve their proficiency in English.

Data collected from the MIS, for the period of 2002 to 2004, show that 48% of all TUT students had stated English to be their preferred language, which makes English the preferred language of the majority of the students [Annexure 5(a) and 5(b)].

9 REASONS FOR CHOOSING SETSWANA

The MIS data for 2002 to 2004 show that Sepedi and Setswana are the African languages spoken most by TUT students [Annexure 5(a) and 5(b)]. 13% of all students stated Sepedi to be their home language, and 10% of all students indicated Setswana to be their home language.

Sepedi and Setswana fall within the same language group. The University should choose one of the two languages for focusing resources and developing it into a language of teaching, instruction and communication.

The three campuses of TUT in the Tshwane Metropolitan Area are situated in close proximity to the North-West Province, where Setswana is the language spoken by most of the population (see Annexure 6). Setswana is the fourth African language spoken most in Gauteng, after IsiZulu (first), SeSotho (second) and Sepedi (third), (see Annexure 6). Setswana is the second language spoken most in Tshwane (17% of the Tshwane population), after Sepedi (22% of the Tshwane population), (see Annexure 7).

At a provincial level, Setswana is the African language spoken most in the North-West Province. It is spoken by 64% of that province's population, while Sepedi is the African language spoken most in the Limpopo Province. It is spoken by 52% of that province's population (Annexure 6 and 6.1). The universities in the Limpopo Province have a greater claim to and are most be suitable for the

development of Sepedi, since they are situated in the province where Sepedi is the language spoken by most of the population; therefore, Setswana is the more logical choice for TUT to make for developing purposes.

The North-West University is the only institution of higher learning that has currently chosen Setswana for development into a language of teaching, instruction and communication. The North-West University is geographically close enough to TUT, and so is the University of Botswana, for inter-institutional collaboration in the development of Setswana.

In developing Setswana to be a language of teaching, instruction and communication, the University will research and develop language training resources, material and courses in Setswana for staff and students. Staff whose home language is not Setswana will be encouraged to take a Setswana short course with the aim to becoming proficient enough to be able to communicate relatively freely in that language.

The University will collaborate with other institutions, as well as the Government, in developing Setswana as a language of teaching, instruction and communication in higher education.

10 REASONS FOR CHOOSING SISWATI

TUT is the only public institution of higher learning with residential learning sites in Mpumalanga (Nelspruit and Witbank). SiSwati and IsiNdebele are the African languages spoken most in Mpumalanga. These two languages are more marginalised and underdeveloped than any other indigenous South African language.

SiSwati is the language spoken most in Mpumalanga. It is spoken by 30% of the population of Mpumalanga, followed by IsiZulu (26%) and IsiNdebele (12%) (see Annexure 6 under Mpumalanga). The Nelspruit learning site is currently

involved in the development of a SiSwati Dictionary in cooperation with the Pan–South African Language Board (PANSALB).

There have been numerous requests from the Mpumalanga community that SiSwati be offered as a subject at the Nelspruit Campus. The Department of Arts and Culture recently approached that campus with the view to collaboration in establishing a SiSwati Language Research and Development Centre.

Currently, there is no other institution of higher learning that is developing SiSwati into a language of teaching, instruction or communication. No other institution than TUT, through the Nelspruit Campus, is more suitable to develop SiSwati. The Nelspruit Campus lies close to the University of Swaziland, which will make collaboration between the two institutions easy. The University will, through the Nelspruit learning site, develop SiSwati as a language of teaching, instruction and communication.

REFERENCES

Census 2001 Report, Statistics South Africa

Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act No. 108 of 1996

Guidelines for language planning and policy development, PANSALB 2001

Guidelines on the layout of a language policy for Institutions of Higher Education, PANSALB

2003

Higher Education Act, Act No. 101 of 1997

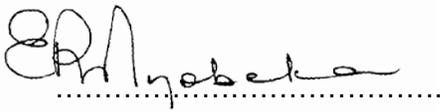
Language Policy for Higher Education, Ministry of Education, 2002

Language Policy Framework for South African Higher Education, Council for Higher Education

(CHE), 2001

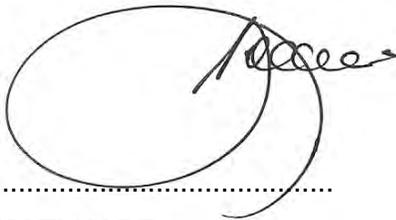
PANSALB's position on the promotion of multilingualism in South Africa: A draft discussion document, 1998

South African Language Bill, *Government Gazette*, Notice No. 24893 of 2003

Handwritten signature of Em Tyobeka in black ink, written over a dotted line.

EM TYOBEKA (PROF)

CHAIRPERSON OF THE EMC AND THE SENATE

Handwritten signature of RV Matlhare in black ink, written over a dotted line.

RV MATLHARE

CHAIRPERSON OF THE COUNCIL

APPENDIX B: MARKETING TOOLS

[B1]



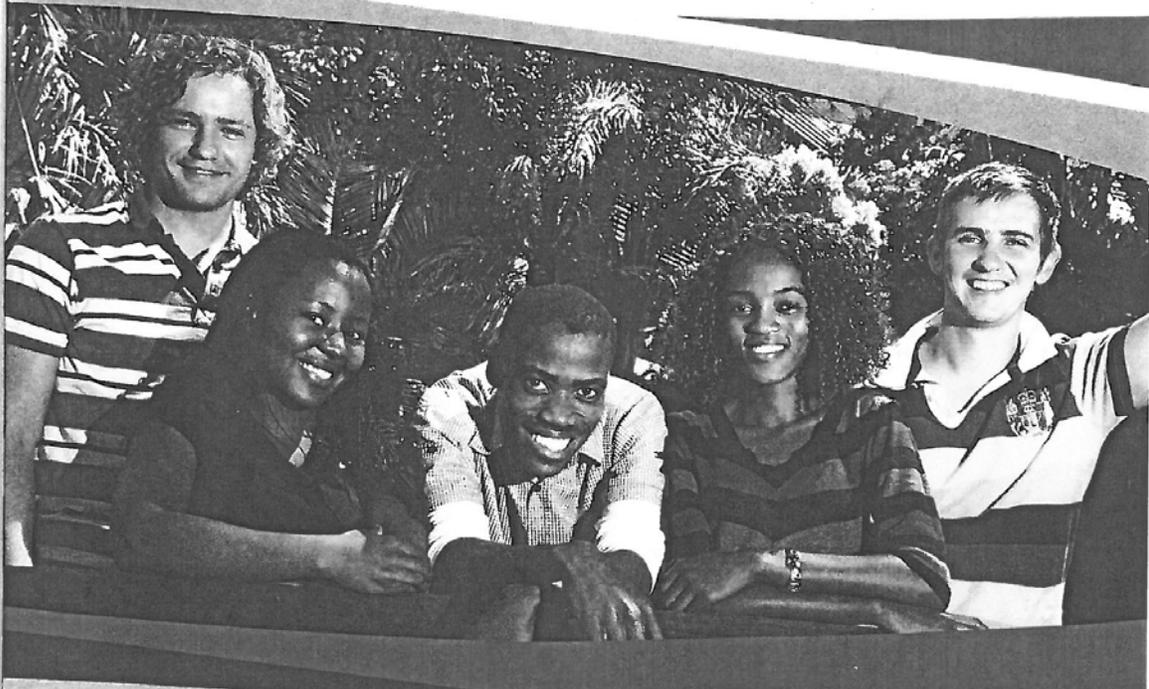
[B2]



[C2]



**Tshwane University
of Technology**
We empower people



Faculty of Humanities

Department of Applied Languages

Practical Northern Sotho

PSN100T/CMO100T/SNR110B/SNR130T

Course Guide

[C3]



**Tshwane University
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Total %

Student number

Surname and initials _____

Subject _____

Course _____

Date _____

Number of answer book (e.g. 1) _____

Faculty/Department _____

DECLARATION

I hereby subject myself to the rules and regulations of
Tshwane University of Technology (see back page for examination rules)

SIGNATURE OF CANDIDATE _____

NB: PLEASE TURN PAGE FOR INSTRUCTIONS.

FOR OFFICE USE ONLY

QUESTION	MARKS ALLOCATED BY	
	EXAMINER	MODERATOR
1		
2		
3		
4		
5		
6		
7		
8		
9		
10		
11		
12		
13		
14		
15		
16		
17		
18		
19		
20		
TOTAL		
FULL MARKS		
Examination mark		
Signature		

APPENDIX D: NOTICES

[D1]



[D2]



[D3]



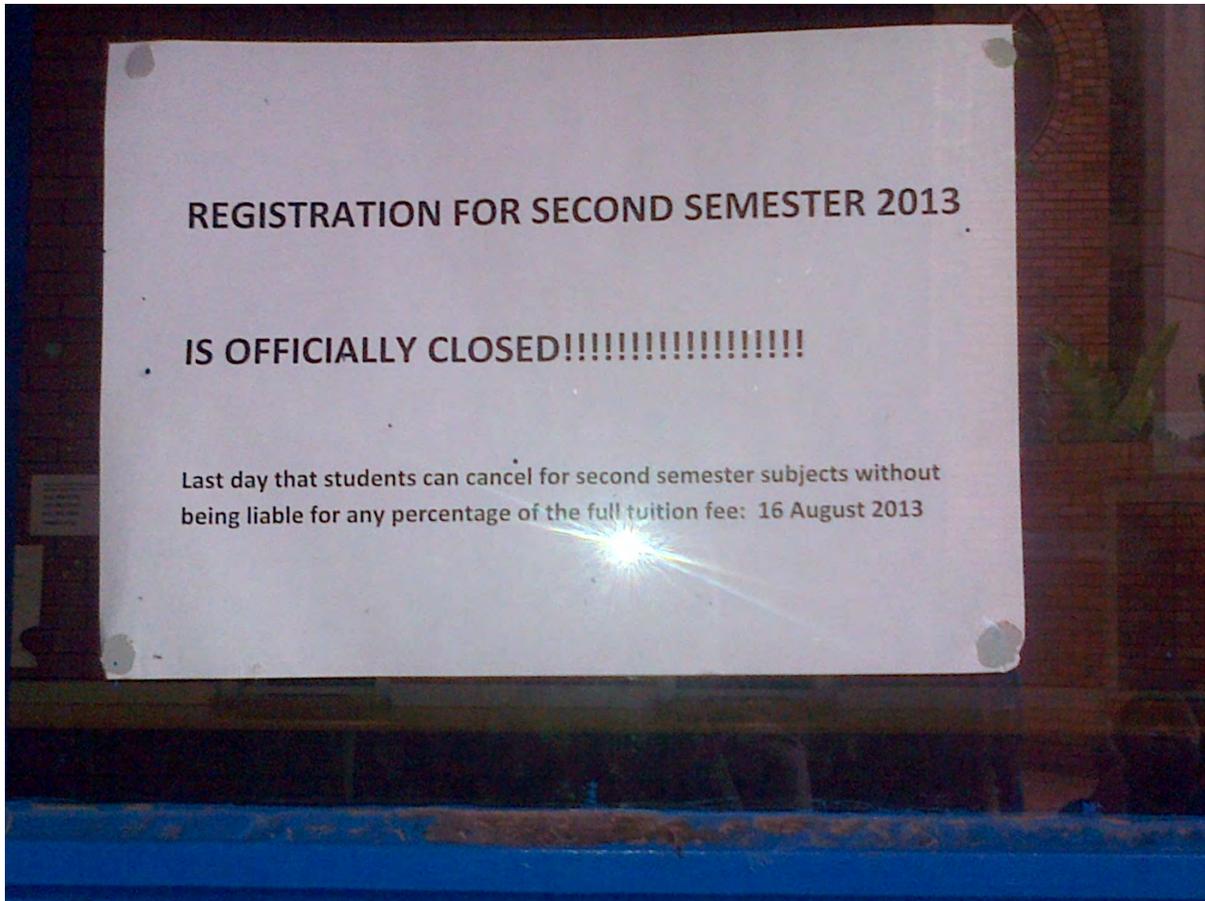
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[D5]



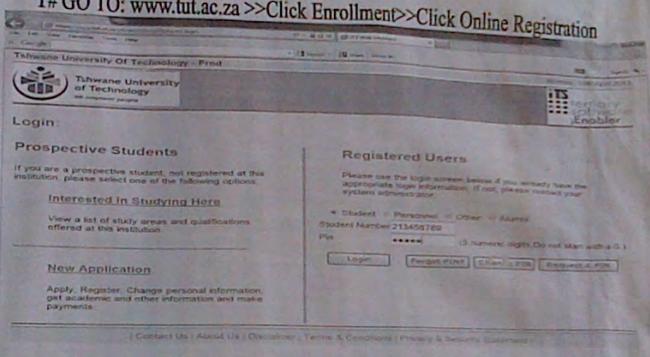
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[D7]

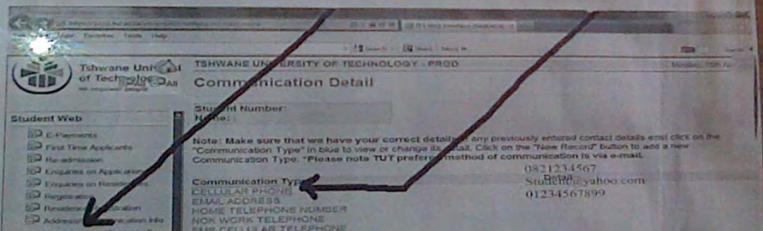
DO YOU WISH TO UPDATE YOUR CELL NUMBER & EMAIL?
Follow these guidelines

1# GO TO: www.tut.ac.za >>Click Enrollment>>Click Online Registration



2# Insert your student number & Pin to log into your account
NB** You Pin can be found on the bottom left corner of your Proof Of Registration

3# On the Main Menu Page >> Click Address/Communication Info>>Click CELLULAR PHC



[D8]

... can be found on the bottom left corner of your Proof Of Registration

3# On the Main Menu Page >> Click Address/Communication Info>>Click CELLULAR PHC

Tshwane University of Technology
TSHWANE UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY - PROD

Communication Detail

Student Number:
Name: |

Note: Make sure that we have your correct details. If any previously entered contact details exist click on the "Communication Type" in blue to view or change its details. Click on the "New Record" button to add a new Communication Type. *Please note TUT prefers method of communication is via e-mail.

Communication Type: 082 1234567
CELLULAR PHONE Details
EMAIL ADDRESS Student@yahoo.com
HOME TELEPHONE NUMBER 01234567899
NOK WORK TELEPHONE
SMS CELLULAR TELEPHONE

New Record

powered by (Mandatory Step 3 of 3)

4# On the Menu Centre Page >> Change your cellphone number and click Save

[D9]



[D10]

NOTICE OF ELECTION

Notice is hereby given of the election process of the Tshwane University of Technology (TUT) Student Representative Council (SRC) 2013/2014: Local SRC, Central SRC, and the Student Faculty Council (SFC). Clause 50.4 of the TUT SRC constitution requires that SRC elections take place in respective Learning Sites in the second semester of each academic year.

THE ELECTION DAY IS ON 20 AUGUST 2013, 09:00 - 20:00

FREE AND FAIR ELECTIONS: ELECTION OFFICE

As per the provisions of the SRC constitution the Electoral Institute for Sustainable Democracy in Africa (EISA) has been appointed to independently manage the election process. All campuses shall have an EISA Presiding Officer. Kindly refer to the Election Time Table below for important dates or contact the Chief Electoral Officer on toll free number: 0800 11 43 73 or email: tut@eisa.org.za for more information. Students are requested to check the relevant notice boards for updated important information and dates on the SRC Election Process.

YOUR VOTE! YOUR RIGHT! YOUR SRC! YOUR VOTE! YOUR RIGHT! YOUR SRC!

2013 ELECTION TIME TABLE

TSHWANE UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY
STUDENT REPRESENTATIVE COUNCIL (SRC) 2013/2014

PHASE 1: PRE-ELECTION

- Approvals: Barriers, Posters, and Flyers
- Registration of Candidates
- Registration of Parties
- Registration of Observers
- Registration of Polling Stations
- Registration of Polling Agents
- Registration of Polling Clerks
- Registration of Polling Officers
- Registration of Polling Assistants
- Registration of Polling Supervisors
- Registration of Polling Inspectors
- Registration of Polling Officers
- Registration of Polling Assistants
- Registration of Polling Supervisors
- Registration of Polling Inspectors

PHASE 2: VOTING

PHASE 3: PRE-VOTING

Activity: Publication of the Election Screening Mass Meeting

Declaration of voting information: date, time, venues, and threshold

NOTICE OF FINAL SRC, LSRC, AND SFC ELECTION RESULTS (SFC) 2011 TUT SOSHANGUVE CAMPUS

Party	Number of Votes	Percentage
Democratic Youth League (DYL)	100	100%
Other Parties	0	0%

NOTICE OF FINAL SRC, LSRC, AND SFC ELECTION RESULTS (SRC) 2011 TUT SOSHANGUVE CAMPUS

Party	Number of Votes	Percentage
Democratic Youth League (DYL)	100	100%
Other Parties	0	0%

NOTICE OF FINAL SRC, LSRC, AND SFC ELECTION RESULTS (LSRC) 2011 TUT SOSHANGUVE CAMPUS

Party	Number of Votes	Percentage
Democratic Youth League (DYL)	100	100%
Other Parties	0	0%

NOTICE OF FINAL SRC, LSRC, AND SFC ELECTION RESULTS (SFC) 2011 TUT SOSHANGUVE CAMPUS

Party	Number of Votes	Percentage
Democratic Youth League (DYL)	100	100%
Other Parties	0	0%

YOUR VOTE! YOUR RIGHT! YOUR SRC!

APENDIX E: BILLBOARDS

[E1]



[E2]



[E3]



[E4]



[E5]



[E6]



APPENDIX F: DIRECTIONS

[F1]



[F2]



[F3]



[F4]



[F5]



[F6]



[F7]



APPENDIX G: SIGNAGES

[G1]



[G2]



[G3]



[G4]



[G5]



[G6]



[G7]



[G8]



[G9]



[G10]



APPENDIX H: SURVEY QUESTIONS

1. Are you aware of Tshwane University of Technology's Language Policy?
2. Is Tshwane University of Technology's Language Policy implemented?
3. Does Tshwane University of Technology's Language Policy applied in all campuses?
4. Which languages do you use for meetings?
5. Notices are written in which language(s)?