

**THE FIT BETWEEN GOVERNMENT LANGUAGE
POLICIES AND INSTITUTIONAL LANGUAGE
POLICIES: THE CASE OF INDIGENOUS
LANGUAGES IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN HIGHER
EDUCATION SYSTEM**

by

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DECLARATION

I declare that **THE FIT BETWEEN GOVERNMENT LANGUAGE POLICIES AND INSTITUTIONAL LANGUAGE POLICIES: THE CASE OF INDIGENOUS LANGUAGES IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN HIGHER EDUCATION SYSTEM** is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

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Signature

(PH Nkuna)

Date

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ABSTRACT

The new higher education system of South Africa is in the process of transformation. Part of the transformation process involves raising the use and status of indigenous languages to become essential part of the country's higher education system. The constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996) laid a foundation responding to the imperative regarding the use and status of indigenous languages. The Ministry of Education (Higher Education) pays special attention to fitting their education policies to the constitution by incorporating subsection 27(2) of the Higher Education Act, 1997 (Act 101 of 1997) that states "subject to the policy determined by the Minister, the council, with the concurrence of the senate, must determine the institutional language policy of a public higher education institution and must publish and make it available on request". The Language Policy for Higher Education was published by the Ministry of Education in November 2002. Lastly, the Ministry of Education appointed a Ministerial Committee "to advise on the development of African (indigenous) languages as mediums of instruction in higher education." This committee published its report in 2005. This study investigates the fit between government language policies and institutional language policies. The focus is on indigenous languages in the South African higher education system. The main purpose is to argue for the design of an integrated institutional language policy framework in a holistic way. The study population consisted of the 23 universities and the indigenous language academic staff. A case study and survey were used. All twenty-three indigenous language units from the 23 universities' departments were used in the survey section of this research. A random sample of respondents was used, all the respondents were indigenous language academic personnel. Questionnaires were sent to each one who agreed to participate. This questionnaire was the main research instrument for collecting data. The research showed that there is no fit between government language policies and institutional language policies. It is recommended that improvements in fit between government language policies and institutional language policies be embarked upon across the 23 universities' staff members and stakeholders (students).

KEYWORDS

Council; senate; academics, government language policies; institutional language policies; higher education system, indigenous languages; universities.

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CHAPTER 1

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

South African universities tend to oversimplify the challenges of the language policy in higher education. For example, some of the country's universities see their institutional language policies as independent from the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (Act 108 of 1996) and the government language policies. While an attempt is made to develop the universities' institutional language policies, they do not follow the demand by the Ministry 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 is required. As a result, the fit between government language policies and the institutional language policies' that should lead to the development of the use and status of indigenous languages for university education constitutes a significant problem for many South African universities. It is the problem that often cripples universities' potential to meet the challenges of transformation, in particular, “the failure of African people to be nationalistic enough in linguistic terms” (Mazrui & Mazrui, 1998, cited in Khoza, 2005:105).

Sayed (2002:45) says “what is ignored in educational policy change is the fact that changing policy intention does not immediately translate into changed practice.” So, this study outlines a key area concerning transformation in South Africa's higher education system: the development of the use and status of indigenous languages (isiNdebele, isiXhosa, isiZulu, Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda, Xitsonga, Khoi, Nama, San and SA sign language) to become an essential part of university education. It is an attempt at opening up a discussion of the fit between government language policies and the institutional language policies of all the 23 universities of the country. This chapter is divided into nine sections, as listed below:

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Background to the study and challenges
- 1.3 Definition of concepts
- 1.4 Problem statement
- 1.5 Purpose of this research

- 1.6 Rationale for the study
- 1.7 Scope of the study
- 1.8 Plan of the research
- 1.9 Summary

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY AND CHALLENGES

The background to the study and challenges are informed by the composition of the higher education system's environment or the sum of all variables or forces that have a positive or negative effect on the fit between government language policies and institutional language policies. The higher education system's environment can further be subdivided into two environments: external and internal environments as discussed below.

1.2.1 The external environment

Law (2009:219) defines the external environment as "institutions and people outside the business organisation that affect it." In the context of this study, the external environment refers to the institutions and people outside the 23 South African universities. This environment is "subdivided into the market and macro-environment" (Marx, Van Rooyen, Bosch & Reynders, 1998:38). The macro-environment is fundamental to the fit between government language policies and institutional language policies: Law (2009:344) defines the macro-environment as "the wider environment that creates the forces that shape every business and non-profit enterprise." The demographic, institutional, international and political forces are four major components of the macro-environment that can determine the fit between government language policies and institutional language policies. The four forces are explained in subsections (a) to (d)

(a) Demographic factor

The noun 'demographics' in simple terms is often used in place of demography, the study of human population, its structure and change. "Demography is the study of the human population in terms of size, density, location, age, sex, race, profession and other statistics" (Marx et al. 1998:64). Thus, the demographic environment (also known as the social environment) is related to people (speakers and users of the languages). In this case,

management of the universities should familiarise themselves amongst others with four factors in the demographic environment, i.e.:

- (1) The changing trends of the population of South Africa since the dawn of democracy to the present day.
- (2) The distribution of the South African population and its concentration in the area in which the university concerned is located.
- (3) The distribution of the South African population in terms of the fields of study and the specialisation of the university concerned.
- (4) The distribution of the South African population in terms of predominantly, widely spoken and principal languages in the province in which the university concerned is located.

There are two major documents that create order and guide the 23 universities' councils when making decisions on developing the use and status of indigenous languages to become an essential part of their education, namely:

- (1) The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (Act 108 of 1996); and
- (2) The National Language Policy Framework (2003).

(b) Institutional environment

This environment is large and includes all those institutions to which individual South African universities have direct or indirect commitments or links. The main institution in this case is the South African Government (for example, the Department of Higher Education, the Department of Arts and Culture, and all other government departments, state or semi-state institutions). In this case, the management of the universities should familiarise themselves with four factors of the institutional environment, namely:

- (1) Pan South African Language Policy mandate of promoting multilingualism and its focus on the promotion and creation of conditions for the development and use of all official languages (Afrikaans, English, isiNdebele, isiXhosa, isiZulu, Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda and Xitsonga); Khoi, Nama and San languages; and sign language; the promotion and underwriting of respect for all languages commonly used by communities in South Africa, including German, Greek, Gujarati, Hindi,

Portuguese, Tamil, Telegu and Urdu; and Arabic, Hebrew, Sanskrit and other languages used for religious purposes in South Africa.

- (2) Government Language policies for different ministries or departments, with special reference to their impact on the designation of indigenous languages as essential part of education for the institution concerned.
- (3) Higher education Acts and amendments; policies, White papers and reports in relation to decisions, proposals and guidelines on designating primary languages of the institutions or languages of tuition and languages as academic disciplines and languages for professions.
- (4) Concentration by the Government of South Africa on promoting the right of individuals to receive education in the official language(s) of their choice and individual's right to freedom of expression, which includes academic freedom and freedom of scientific research.

There are 12 major documents in the institutional environment designed to create order or to guide the 23 universities' councils when making linguistic decisions. These are tabulated below:

- (1) The South African Qualifications Authority Act, 1995 (Act No.68 of 1995);
- (2) The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (Act 108 of 1996);
- (3) The Language in Education Policy (14 July 1997);
- (4) The Higher Education Act, 1997 (Act 101 of 1997);
- (5) The Education White Paper 3: A Programme for the Transformation of Higher Education (1997);
- (6) Language Policy Framework for the South African Higher Education (2001);
- (7) Gerwel Committee Report on the position of Afrikaans in the university system (2002);
- (8) Language Policy for higher education (2002);
- (9) The Ministerial Committee Report on the development of indigenous African languages as mediums of instruction in higher education (2005);
- (10) Higher Education Qualifications Framework (2007);
- (11) The Higher Education Amendment Act, 2008 (Act No. 39 of 2008); and
- (12) The National Qualifications Framework Act, 2008 (Act No. 67 of 2008).

(c) International environment

As a word, the term ‘international’ means involvement of, interaction between or encompassing more than one nation, or generally reaching beyond national boundaries. For example, an international language is a language spoken by residents of more than one country. “In linguistics, an international language is one spoken by the people of at least two nations, but preferably a large number of nations” (Wikipedia, 2010: 1 citing Language Map). In this case, the management of the universities should familiarise themselves with four factors of the international environment, namely:

- (1) Eight of the nine indigenous languages which are official in South Africa are international languages: isiNdebele, isiXhosa, isiZulu, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda and Xitsonga.
- (2) Some of the indigenous languages are official languages in other countries: Sesotho, Setswana and siSwati.
- (3) The working languages for institutions in African regions and world institutions.
- (4) The language of international business is English.

There are two main documents designed to create order or guide the 23 universities and any other South African higher institutions in the development of the use and status of indigenous languages to be part of university or higher education institutions that form part of the international environment, namely:

- (1) The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (Act 108 of 1996); and
- (2) Language Policy for higher education (2002)

(d) Political environment

“Management decisions are, however, also affected by the political course of events in a country and by international political trends”(Marx et.al., 1998:71). The adjective ‘political’ refers to “concerning the state or its government, or public affairs generally” (Metcalf & Thompson, 2003:633). Thus, political factors are the influential situations and scenarios that in turn affect political decision and policy. In the case of this study, it is the council’s decisions of the university concerned that are affected by the course of events in a country and by international political trends. In this case, the management of the universities should familiarise themselves with five factors in the political environment, i.e.:

- (1) The government's ideological standpoint, policy and vision concerning matters such as primary languages of institutions or languages of tuition and languages as academic disciplines and languages as part of professions in higher education.
- (2) South Africa's political trends and their influence on the choice of primary language(s) of institutions or language(s) of tuition and language(s) as academic discipline(s) and language(s) as part of professions in higher education.
- (3) International political trends and their influence on local higher education institutions and international markets.
- (4) Pressure groups (or power groups) such as language associations in politics.
- (5) The stability of the government.

There are five major documents that can guide the 23 universities on making decisions to develop the use and status of indigenous languages to become an essential part of their education that forms part of the political environment. These are tabulated below:

- (1) Freedom Charter (1955)
- (2) A policy Framework for Education and Training (1994)
- (3) The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (Act 108 of 1996);
- (4) Language Policy for higher education (2002); and
- (5) The National Language Policy Framework (2003).

Other macro-environment forces that need the attention from the councils of the 23 universities when making decisions on developing the use and status of indigenous languages for the higher education system are economic, physical and technological forces. However, these forces and the international force must not be used as an excuse to exclude the indigenous languages as had been the case for many years. Moreover, the councils of the 23 universities also need to consider other government language policies in different departments, especially when dealing with the issues of languages for professions. For the legal profession, for example, the management of the university concerned should consider a language policy for the Department of Justice and Constitutional Development. This should be done with all other government departments.

All the government departments attract a human resource cadre from the universities that will service the people of the Republic in the official languages (Afrikaans, English, isiNdebele, isiXhosa, isiZulu, Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda or Xitsonga). This human

resource cadre needs to have skills in the country's official languages—a main challenge for the universities' professional qualifications.

1.2.2 The internal environment

At the broader university level, there are many factors that affect the way in which a language is designated to be an essential part of an institution. It is through the mediation of the 'institutional environment', however, that these broader, environmental forces are made meaningful in relation to the decisions on formulating and executing the institutional language policy that incorporates indigenous languages as part of the primary languages or languages as stand-alone academic disciplines and languages for professions for the education of the university concerned. It is about bringing the external factors discussed in subsection 1.2.1 into the university concerned. The internal environment has three important factors in relation to this context: Vision, governance and access to factors of production. All these three forces determine the capability of the university concerned to formulate and execute its institutional language policy. The three internal environment forces are explained in subsections (a) to (c).

(a) Vision

In the context of this study a vision defines the desired or intended future state of a university in terms of its fundamental objective and, or strategic direction. It is a long term view, sometimes describing how the university would like the world in which it operates to be. Five common characteristics of South African universities' visions are observed below:

- (1) What the university wants to be, and how the university wants the world in which it operates to be;
- (2) It concentrates on the future;
- (3) It is a source of inspiration; and
- (4) It provides clear decision-making criteria.
- (5) Some are short and some are long vision statements.

Short versus long vision statements represent variations among the vision statements cited from eight of the 23 universities. These variations support the views of Collins & Porras (2000:219) that a "vision has become one of the most overused – and least understood – words in the language. The word vision conjures up all kinds of images." This problem also

challenges the clear decision-making criteria mentioned in (4). It is a threat to the fit between government language policies and institutional languages policies, and to the development of the use and status of indigenous languages for higher education in the country. Collins & Porras (2002:222) cited in Porras, Emery & Thompson (2007:75) maintain:

Management team without vision will invent mission statements for their employees, who in turn become cynical when the obvious don't 'walk the talk' realities mark the words as empty platitudes.

Basically, a vision statement is not a complete vision. The understanding of the concept 'vision', as an internal force forms part of institutional language policy formulation and execution. In their paperback volume of *Built to Last*, Collins & Porras (2000:220) say that "A well conceived vision consists of two major components – *core ideology* and *envisioned future*." Core Ideology is important as it is:

Not derived by looking to the external environment; you get at it by looking inside. It has to be authentic. You can't fake an ideology. Nor can you intellectualise it (Porras, et al., 2007:76).

So, the management of a South African university should note that a core ideology refers to:

Core values and sense of purpose beyond just making money – that guides and inspires people throughout the organisation and remains relatively fixed for long periods of time (Collins & Porras, 2000:48).

Hence, a "value is a belief in action" (Garratt, 2003:63), while "a purpose is a fundamental reason for an organisation's existence" (Ibid., 2003:58). Thus, core values should not "be confused with specific cultural or operating practices; not to be compromised for financial gain or short term expediency" (Collins & Porras, 2000:73). The core purpose should also not "be confused with specific goals or business strategies" (Ibid., 2000:73).

Envisioned future is the second component of a vision. It also consists of two parts – Vision level BHAGs and Vivid Descriptions. In *Built to Last*, Collins and Porras coined the phrase Big Hairy Audacious Goals (BHAGs), which is pronounced as 'bee-hags'. BHAGs:

Engages people, – it reaches out and grabs them in the gut. It is tangible, energising, highly focussed. People get it right away; it takes little or no explanation. It has a clear finish line, so the organisation can know when it has achieved the goal (Collins & Porras, 2000:94).

The last part of envisioned future is vivid descriptions. This is: “A vibrant, engaging, and specific description of what it will be like to achieve the BHAG... Passion, emotion and conviction are essential parts of the vivid descriptions” (Ibid., 2000:233).

(b) Governance

Section 26 of the Higher Education Act, 1997 (Act 101 of 1997) provides an institutional governance structure that constitutes the following structures and offices as outlined by the Ministry of Education (1997a):

- (1) Institutional forum
- (2) Council;
- (3) Principal
- (4) Senate;
- (5) Vice –principal;
- (6) Students' representative council; and
- (7) Other structures and offices.

Section 27(2) of the Higher Education Act, 1997 (Act 101 of 1997) states that “subject to the policy determined by the Minister, the council, with the concurrence of the senate, must determine the institutional language policy of a public higher education institution and must publish and make it available on request” (Ministry of Education 1997a:24). Four structures and offices from the list above need to be clarified here for the purpose of understanding how the institutional language policy can be formulated and executed.

THE INSTITUTIONAL FORUM must advise the council on issues affecting the council, including the implementation of the Higher Education Act, 1997 (Act 101 of 1997) and the national policy on higher education; race and gender equity policies; the fostering of an institutional culture which promotes tolerance and respect of fundamental human rights and creates an appropriate environment for teaching, research and learning; and perform such function as determined by the council.

THE COUNCIL is a body of a university. In the context of this study, the council’s role is and remains, to oversee the total formulation, execution, and legal compliance, of the institutional language policy. The council consists of the principal; the vice-principal or vice-principals; ±

five persons appointed by the Minister; elected members of the senate; elected academic employees; elected students; elected employees other than academic employees; and additional persons. At least 60 percent of the members of the council must be persons who are not employed by, or students of the university concerned. Election of members must be determined by the institutional statute or an Act of Parliament. The members of a council must have knowledge and experience relevant to the objectives and governance of the university concerned (including knowledge on language issues); and must participate in the deliberation of the council in the best interest of the university. The council chairman is the boss of the council not of the university concerned.

THE PRINCIPAL of a university is the boss of the daily executive operations of the university, reporting to the council. The chairman of the university council's job is to design and chair the process of the council's meetings and subsequent activities. The principal's role is to run the university's business. "They are both powerful positions and the two people need, therefore, a mutual respect and to agree on a way of working together" (Garratt, 2003:14). If this is not the case, then in this context the university will remain with a lopsided institutional language policy. Essentially, the council decides on the institutional language policy which it then delegates to the principal "whilst keeping the ultimate direction-giving responsibilities and liabilities to themselves" (Ibid., 2003:40).

THE SENATE is accountable to the council for the academic and research functions of the university and must perform such other functions as may be delegated or assigned to it (including the formulation, execution of and legal compliance, with the institutional language policy) by the council. It must consist of the principal; the vice-principal or vice-principals; academic employees of the university; employees other than academic employees; members of the council; members of the students' representative council; and such additional members as may be determined by the institutional statute. Appointment or election of the members must be determined by the institutional statute or an Act of Parliament. The majority of members of a senate must be academic employees of the university concerned. The chairman of the senate has a double function – the boss of the senate and the boss of the university.

Besides the institutional forum, council, principal and senate, there are other issues that need to be explained here, which are also part of the Higher Education Act, 1997 (Act 101 of

1997). They are also crucial to the university governance and formulation and execution of an institutional language policy. They include:

The council and senate of a university may each establish committees to perform any of their functions and may appoint persons, who are not members of the council or the senate, as the case may be, as members of such committees. The council and senate are not divested of responsibility for the performance of any function (including their function on an institutional language policy) delegated or assigned to a committee. The council and senate of a university may jointly nominate committees, known as joint committees, to perform functions that are common to the council and the senate. The composition, manner of election, functions, procedure at meetings and dissolution of a committee and a joint committee are determined by the institutional statute, institutional rules or an Act of Parliament.

The council of a university may draft an INSTITUTIONAL STATUTE, subject to the approval of the Minister of Higher Education, to give effect to any law relating to the university and to promote effective management of the institution in respect of matters not expressly prescribed by any other law; and institution rules to give effect to the institutional statute. An institutional statute or institutional rules in connection with the academic functions of the university concerned, including the studies, instructions and examinations of students and research, may not be made, amended or repealed except with the concurrence of the senate of such institution.

(c) Access to factors of production

Vision and governance are certainly important, but without factors of production, one may never spark a university's imagination, transform it or declare a sensational institutional language policy and the development of the use and status of indigenous languages for higher education. Begg, Fischer and Dornbusch (1997:106) say: "An input (or factor of production) is any goods or service used to produce output." In this context the inputs are:

LABOUR: "Human beings as factors of production" (Black, 2002:261). In this context, the labour supply consists of all those able and willing to use the institutional language policy, to teach and research in indigenous languages, to speak the indigenous languages, to teach and research indigenous languages as academic disciplines and teach indigenous languages in any field of study or professions in the 23 universities. So, a South African university cannot execute an institutional language policy "unless the right people focus on the right details at

the right time” (Bossidy, Charan & Burck, 2002: 33). The division of labour is crucial in the context of a transforming higher education system like the one of South Africa, because:

The greatest improvement in the productive powers of labour, and the greater part of the skill, dexterity, and judgement with which it is anywhere directed, or applied, seem to have been the effects of the division of labour (Skinner, 1999:109).

The effects of division of labour in the context of this study will be more easily understood by considering the mandate given to those universities on the manner in which they should develop the use and status of indigenous languages. The mandate includes using them for tuition, as academic disciplines and as languages for professions. Thus, labour force for the indigenous languages is required in all offerings and all departments of the university concerned. A flexible labour force is also necessary in some cases. Indigenous language specialist will have to be brought in as temporary staff as the teaching, learning and research of a specific indigenous language in a particular work situation (for example, teaching an indigenous language in a profession) demand. Furthermore, “labour is very varied in its levels of skills and qualifications” (Black, 2002:261). Indigenous languages experience a skills shortage. For instance, in the history of South Africa:

Afrikaans was developed by full-time linguists, many of whom were paid by the Government, different missionary societies were allowed to codify and develop the African languages according to their own agendas and according to their own limited abilities (Cluver, 1996:16).

This is the same practice observed in most of the 23 universities. A person who is not competent in an indigenous language teaches it. Thus, labour is a serious challenge for the university concerned.

ENTREPRENEURIAL ABILITY: ‘Entrepreneurial’ is derived from the noun ‘enterprise’. Black (2002:145) says an enterprise is:

A business venture, private or public... the combination of initiative, foresight, and willingness to take risks required to make a success of running a business.

The 23 universities are autonomous and government institutions or government and non-profit enterprises. It is for this reason one can expect them to have an entrepreneurial ability to execute their institutional language policies, namely: “organisational and management skills, initiatives, and willingness to take risks” (Law, 2009:222). A university that executes its

institutional language policy and develops the use and status of the country's indigenous languages should conform to three important management issues (see Table 1.1 below)

Table 1.1: Three important management issues

Management Practices	Talent and task	Capabilities
(1)Strategy (2)Execution (3)Culture (4)Structure (5)Talent (6)Innovation (7)Leadership (8) Mergers and partners	(1)Influence (2)Interpersonal facilitation (3) Relational creativity (4)Team leadership	(1)Talent (2)Speed (3)Shared mind-set and coherence (4) Brand identity (5) Collaboration (6) Learning (7)Leadership (8) Customer connectivity (9) Strategic unity (10) Innovation (11)Efficiency

Source: Butler and Waldroop (2004); Nohria, Joyce and Roberson (2003) and Ulrich and Smallwood (2004)

The 23 universities should excel in the above three issues. Firstly, in the case of management practices, Nohria et al. (2003:48) speak about “Making 4+2, work for you.” They identified two categories of management practices: primary management practices (strategy, execution, culture and structure) and secondary management practices (talent, innovation, leadership, and mergers and partners). They called the winning combination of the primary and secondary management practices the 4+2 formula for business success. Hence, the 23 universities require this formula to run an institutional language policy project. They have to excel at four primary practices and embrace two of the four secondary practices. Secondly, in the case of talent and task, Butler and Waldroop (2004:79) maintain: “facilitation, teamwork, influence, and creative communication – they’re all people skills. The trick is to match talent with tasks.” To maximise the linguistic diversity and personal relationship in an institutional language policy project, the university leader should first understand all four areas of relational work to match employees’ interest and skills to their responsibility in an institutional language project so that everyone gains. This is a confirmation of the view of De Bono (1998: 100) that “the purpose of any operation is to deliver value to someone. The best operations deliver value to everyone involved.” The 23 universities should match the talent

with task to deliver the value of the institutional language policy to everyone with no linguistic discrimination. Lastly, Ulrich and Smallwood (2004:119) say:

These capabilities – the collective skills, abilities, and expertise of an organisation – are the outcome of investments in staffing, training, compensation, communication, and other human resources areas. They represent the ways that people and resources are brought together to accomplish work. They form the identity and personality of the organisation by defining what it is good at doing and, in the end, what it is.

The capabilities referred to by Ulrich and Smallwood are the capabilities listed in the right column of Table 1.1 above. Capitalising on those capabilities could help any of the 23 universities or other public higher education institutions operating in South Africa in the delivery of their institutional language policy projects that incorporate developing the use and status of indigenous languages for higher education.

CAPITAL: This refers to “the man-made factor of production, usually either machinery, and plant (physical capital) or money (financial capital)” (Law, 2009:90). However, the concept can be applied to a variety of other assets, such as human capital or intellectual capital. Capital is generally used to enhance productivity of the other factors of production (labour and entrepreneurial ability in this context). So, to succeed in the institutional language policy projects that incorporate developing the use and status of indigenous languages for higher education, the 23 universities must make choices on acquiring and using scarce resources, such as capital resource. None of them can successfully deliver an institutional language policy project that incorporates the development of the use and status of indigenous languages for higher education without capital. In terms of section 40 of the Higher Education Act, 1997 (Act 101 of 1997), there appear to have been nine pathways of accumulating capital as adapted from the Ministry of Education (1997a), namely:

- (1) Funds allocated by the Minister in terms of section 39;
- (2) Any donations or contributions received by the university;
- (3) Money raised by the university;
- (4) Money raised by means of loans;
- (5) Income derived from investments;
- (6) Money received for services rendered to any other institution or person;
- (7) Money payable by students for higher education programmes provided by the university;

- (8) Money received from students or employees of the university for accommodation or other services provided by the institution; and
- (9) Other receipts from whatever source.

The institutional language policy project of the university concerned can get a boost from the nine pathways listed above. “Education is now the single largest item in South African’s budget” (Vieter, 2007:137). Above and beyond the nine pathways listed by the Higher Education Act, 1997 (Act 101 of 1997), paragraph 8.3 for the Language Policy Framework for the South African higher Education (CHE, 2001) provides measures that can be implemented in the medium to long term. Recommendation 8.3.1 of this paragraph states:

As part of the facilitation and promotion of the national language policy in Higher Education, Centres for Language Development should be identified and be located in designated Higher Education institutions. The Centre should undertake the research and development work required in the case of each of the marginalised official and endangered South African languages. Such a “Centre” could be distributed across various Higher Education institutions in a region, or in several regions, depending on whether the particular language is a disciplinary focus of the institution or whether it has the relevant expertise. The distribution of tasks as well as of the resources that would go with the development projects should be negotiated between the Ministry of Education and the Higher Education institutions concerned. These Centres should be established and funded by the Ministry of Education in collaboration with the Department of Arts, Culture, Science and Technology and the Pan South African Language Board (PanSALB) and should necessarily liaise with these organs (CHE, 2001).

The last part of this recommendation proposes that extra funds towards the projects of Centres for Language Development be provided by the Ministry of Education. Furthermore, the Ministry of Education (2002:16) recommends “the promotion of the study of South African languages and literature through planning and funding.” If the institutional language policy project for a specific university absorbs all the funds allocated to it, the university has too little surplus to invest in this project. Thus, the department or school concerned should try to get extra funds for the project by forging relationships with corporate bodies or funders. This can be done by selling knowledge, capabilities or competence to the companies.

1.3 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS

Five eye-catching concepts emerged from the research topic. They are:

1.3.1 Fit

According to Mayor et al. (2005) fit may refer to one of eight meanings: be right size/ shape, about clothes, be suitable/ similar, match truth/ description, be suitable for something, measure for cloth, etc, add equipment to something or provide qualifications. In this study, fit refers to two of the given meanings outlined above, i.e.:

- (1) Be suitable or similar enough to belong to a group; and
- (2) To be the truth or the same as what someone describes or asks for.

Hence, the question is whether the institutional language policies of those 23 universities listed in Table 1.1 or those of any other public higher education institutions operating in South Africa are compatible with or accommodate the Government language policies. According to de Bono (1998:136) “the concept of ‘fit’ includes strategy, policy, personalities, agendas, and so on”. The emphasis in this study is on policy and whether the idea of universities on tuition policies fit the idea of the country’s government language policies. The difficulty with ‘fit’ is that only traditional ideas will be seen to ‘fit’ the usual behaviour of the institution. It is very difficult to get the Government language policies to work if they do not fit the style and shape of the tuition policies of the institutions. A very valuable and workable language policy for higher education may fail because of this lack of ‘fit’.

1.3.2 Government language policies

With the advent of democracy, Government language policies became a serious issue in South Africa. Various documents relating to this concept have been published.

The focus in this subsection of Government language policies is on policies relevant to the development of the use and status of indigenous languages for education. There are seven fundamental documents defining Government language policies. These are:

- (1) Language in Education Policy (14 July 1997);
- (2) Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (Act 108 of 1996);
- (3) Language Policy Framework for the South African higher Education (2001);
- (4) Gerwel Committee Report on the position of Afrikaans in the university system (2002);
- (5) Language Policy for higher education (2002);

- (6) National Language Policy Framework (2003); and
- (7) The Ministerial Committee Report on the development of indigenous African languages as mediums of instruction in higher education (2005)

Note that the seven documents include Acts, reports and policies. All seven of these documents together are referred to as ‘Government language policies’ in the research topic of this study. The importance of all the fundamental documents on Government language policies and their link to the fit between the government language policies and institutional language policies will be discussed in chapter 2.

1.3.3 Institutional language policy

It is essential to begin the description of this concept with the definition of the concept ‘tuition’. Mayor et al., (2005) provide the following two definitions:

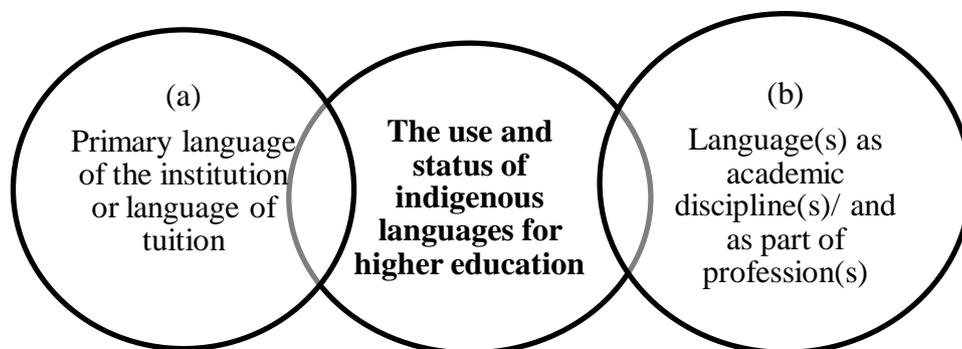
- (1) Tuition means the work that a teacher does when he or she teaches a particular subject, especially to one person or a small group; and
- (2) Tuition means money that you pay to take lessons, especially at a college, university, or private school.

The definition in (1) is crucial for this study. It entails “teaching or instruction” (Metcalf & Thompson, 2003:894). Tuition has to do with six verbs - to teach, to lecture, to train, to educate, to coach and to instruct. Crowther, Kavanagh and Ashby (1995) outline different meanings for the six verbs, including:

- (1) To teach is used in most formal and informal situations and can refer to an academic subject or a practical skill for any age group;
- (2) To lecture is used instead of to teach in universities;
- (3) To train means to give somebody the instruction and practice they need in order to learn a job or skill;
- (4) To educate refers to the development of knowledge and intellectual skills, especially children’s. This usually happens through the formal education system of schools and universities;
- (5) To coach is also used to describe non-formal teaching, either of an academic subject or of a sport; and
- (6) To instruct means to teach people a skill, or to show them how to do something practical.

Tuition excludes none of the above six verbs. Tuition suggests merging the scholarship of teaching, lecturing, training, educating, coaching, and instructing with the paradigm of learning. “The crucial aspect in students’ learning is the meaning they make out of what universities teachers provide” (Badley, 2003:304). A student is in “the process of acquiring knowledge or actual possession of such scholarship” (Reber, 1995:411). Thus, the mandate given to the 23 universities to develop the use and status of indigenous languages is twofold (see Figure 1.2 below).

Figure 1.2: The two-fold mandate



The Radial Cycle shows an overlapping relationship between (a) Primary language of the institution or language of tuition and (b) Language(s) as academic discipline(s)/ and as part of profession(s) with the central idea (the two-fold mandate to develop the use and status of indigenous languages). Section 6(2) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (Act 108 of 1996) recognises that because of:

the historically diminished use of and status of the indigenous languages of our people, the state must take practical measures to elevate the status and advance the use of these languages (The Constitutional Assembly, 1996:4).

This section of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (Act 108 of 1996) serves as the basis of the two-fold mandate given to the 23 universities to develop the use and status of all South African languages for higher education system. It has support from sections 6(1), 6(5) and 29(1) of the Constitution. It also has a support from all the other fundamental documents of the Government language policies already listed in this study. Above and beyond the documents listed above, there are two more documents supporting the two-fold

mandate and, the institutional language policy projects that incorporate developing the use and status of indigenous languages for higher education system. The two documents include:

- (1) The Higher Education Act (Act No. 101 of 1997); and
- (2) The Education White Paper 3: A Programme for the Transformation of Higher Education (1997).

1.3.4 Higher education system

To fully appreciate the fit between government language policies and institutional language policies, we also need to understand the higher education system. The Higher Education Act, 1997 (Act No. 101 of 1997) is a policy of Higher Education (HE) system in South Africa. This Act defines the concept 'higher education' as follows:

Higher education' means all learning programmes leading to qualifications higher than grade 12 or its equivalent in terms of the National qualifications 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: 14).

The Higher Education Act, 1997 (Act 101 of 1997) and five other documents are fundamental documents that explain the complete system of the South African Higher Education. The following is the list of the documents:

- (1) The South African Qualifications Authority Act, 1995 (Act No.68 of 1985);
- (2) The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (Act No. 108 of 1996);
- (3) The Higher Education Qualifications Framework (2007);
- (4) The Higher Education Amendment Act, 2008 (Act No. 39 of 2008);
- (5) The National Qualification Framework Act, 2008 (Act No. 67 of 2008);
- (6) The Higher Education Amendment Act, 2008 (Act No. 39 of 2008).

The Education White Paper 3: a Programme for the Transformation of Higher Education provides the legislative of the HE system in South Africa. In this Education White Paper the *Ministry of Education (1997b)* maintains that the role of higher education in South African education system is threefold:

- (1) **Human Resource Development:** the mobilisation 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-organised and vibrant research and development system which integrates the research and training capacity of higher education with the needs of industry and of social reconstruction.

The importance of the Higher education system and the fundamental documents and the link to the fit between government language policies and institutional language policies will be discussed in chapter 2.

1.3.5 Indigenous languages

The dictionary meaning of the word 'indigenous' is "native to a particular geographical area" (Reber, 1995:365). A particular geographical area in the case of this study is South Africa. Hence, indigenous refers to native to South Africa. Thus, indigenous languages in this case are native languages to South Africa. Nine of the 11 official languages recognised by the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (Act No. 108 of 1996) are indigenous languages. They include isiNdebele, isiXhosa, isiZulu, Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda and Xitsonga. Besides those nine languages, there are other indigenous languages which are not recognised by the Constitution: Khoi, Nama and San languages; and SA sign language. Thus, the use and status of the nine indigenous languages that are recognised official languages by the Constitution as well as the other indigenous languages that are not recognised by the Constitution need to be developed. They are all indigenous languages of the country.

1.4 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The previous sections outlined the background to the study and explained concepts on the research topic. The 23 universities are challenged to deliver their two-fold mandate to develop the use and status of indigenous languages to become an essential part of their education. Hence, the research problem is defined as:

What is the fit between government language policies and institutional language policies, and its impact on developing the use and status of indigenous languages in the South African higher education system?

1.5 PURPOSE OF THIS RESEARCH

The purpose of this research is to investigate the challenges of developing the use and status of indigenous languages in the 23 universities. The study has four major objectives, namely:

1.5.1 To explore environmental issues affecting institutional language policies in higher education

The focus in this objective is to answer the question: When does a language become an essential part of university education? The objectives will be linked with the history of developing Afrikaans and English as an essential part of the South African university education.

1.5.2 To investigate the universities' activities to improve the use and status of indigenous languages

The focus in this objective is to answer the question: What are the 23 universities' activities and their performance on the use and status of indigenous languages? The effectiveness will be linked to South Africa's past development of English and Afrikaans as an essential part of university education.

1.5.3 To evaluate the universities' progress on recognition of the indigenous languages

The focus in this objective is to answer the question: Has the recognition of indigenous languages been initiated? This will be linked to the 23 universities' institutional language policies and how they respond to the content of Government language policies.

1.5.4 To develop explanatory theory that can promote best practice in institutional language policies

The focus in this objective is to answer the question: Can the explanation be generalised? This will be linked to the 23 universities' institutional language policies and to provide guidance on the theory that can help them develop the use and status of indigenous languages without further delay.

1.6 RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

Multilingualism is fast becoming an important issue for tuition in the country's education system. However, determining how to take advantage of the opportunities that multilingualism is creating will not be easy for most university councils. The 23 universities' councils are required to focus in a systematic way on what multilingualism can allow them to do. Some of the values that this study presents, which the management responsible for the planning of the fit between government language policies and institutional policies need to consider, are democracy, linguistic rights, freedom and equality. By exploring the values, councils for the 23 universities can realistically assess the value of shaping the fit between government language policies and institutional language policies, the development of the use and status of indigenous languages and the challenges that will need to be addressed. A sound fit between government language policies and institutional language policies begins with articulating what is possible. Thus, the councils of the 23 universities, their "passion, confidence and intelligence will always matter" (Gerstner, 2002: 275).

1.7 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

This study surveys the challenges that South African universities councils have to address in fitting government language policies and institutional language policies, while developing the use and status of indigenous languages. The scope of the research is a survey in the 23 public universities of the country. The research boundaries are limited to the fit between government language policies and institutional language policies and how this fit improves the use and status of indigenous languages.

1.8 PLAN OF THE RESEARCH

The study is divided into seven chapters (see Table 1.2 below).

Table 1.2: The seven chapters of the study

Chapter	Description
1	General introduction
2	Literature review
3	Methodology
4	Case study and survey results
5	Findings
6	Analysis and interpretation of research findings
7	General conclusion and recommendations

Chapter 1 covers the background and challenges, definition of concepts, problem statement, research purpose, scope of the study, research plan and its summary. Chapter 2 covers the literature review on various aspects such as external and internal environment while the emphasis is on establishing what makes a language to become an essential part of university education. Chapter 3 covers aspects such research strategy and sampling methods. Chapter 4 outlines the use of a case study to collect secondary data and a survey to collect primary data. Chapter 5 profiles the research findings and the profiling is based on both secondary and primary data collected in chapter 4. Chapter 6 covers the analysis and interpretation of all the findings profiled in chapter 5. Thus, chapters 3, 4 and 5 prepare the delivery of the second and third objectives: To investigate the universities' activities to improve the use and status of indigenous languages; and to evaluate the universities' progress on the development of indigenous languages. Chapter 6 delivers two objectives. Lastly, chapter 7 covers two aspects: general conclusion and recommendations. The general conclusion gives a summary of the study from chapter 1 to 6. The first part places the emphasis on the first three objectives, while the second part provides recommendations that will include the delivery of the fourth objective: To develop an explanatory theory that can promote best practice in institutional language policies.

1.9 SUMMARY

This chapter provided a structure for an investigation of the challenges of fit between government language policies and institutional language policies, that encourages developing the use and status of indigenous languages for the country's higher education system. The background to the study was discussed. The discussion was situated in the external environment and the internal environment of the 23 universities. Challenges were pointed out and important concepts emanating from the research topic's perspective were defined. The problem statement was outlined and the research question was presented. The research purpose was discussed and four major objectives of the study were identified. Lastly the scope and then the research plan were briefly discussed.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews relevant literature and other completed research to form the theory needed for the empirical study. There is a considerable body of research available on aspects of the importance of fit between the government language policies and institutional language policies that can lead to the development of the use and status of indigenous languages in the country's 23 universities. The review focuses on various aspects, such as the 23 universities, and the first objective of the study. The review is divided into:

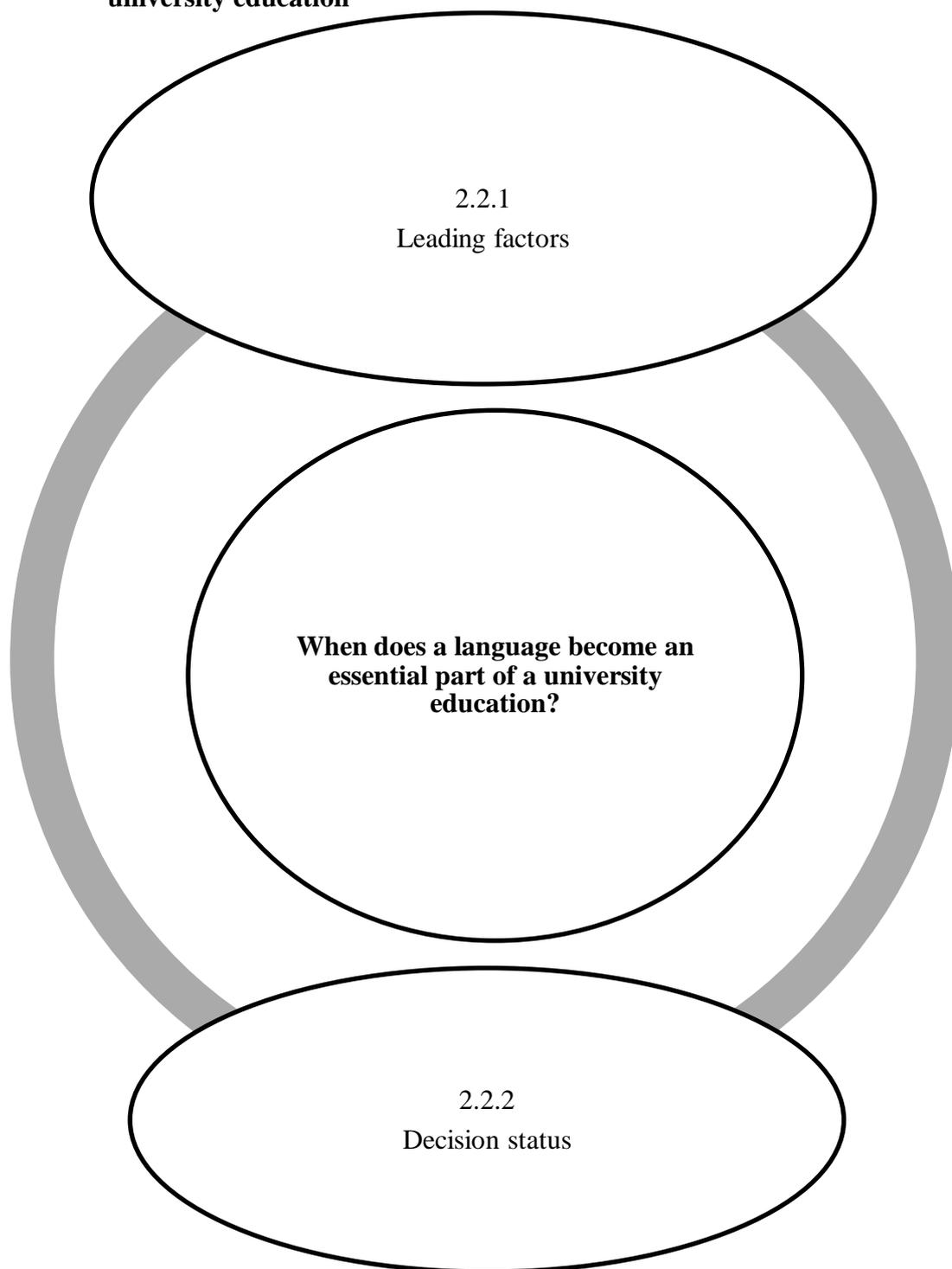
- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 Literature on 'when does a language become an essential part of university education?'
- 2.3 Literature on the external environment
- 2.4 Literature on the internal environment
- 2.5 Summary

2.2 LITERATURE ON 'WHEN DOES A LANGUAGE BECOME AN ESSENTIAL PART OF UNIVERSITY EDUCATION?'

Before studying the external and internal environments, it is crucial to answer the question: when does a language become an essential part of a university education? To understand this section it is important to divide it into two subsections (see Figure 2.1).

The Radial Cycle represents the relationship between the two elements to be discussed here and the central idea (When does a language become an essential part of a university education?). It emphasises both the central idea and how the elements in the outer ring of circles contribute to the central idea.

Figure 2.1: Two leads towards designation of a language becoming essential part of university education



2.2.1 Leading factors

These are leading factors found to be influencing decisions on the choice of a language becoming an essential part of university education and that are crucial to answer this question: when does a language become an essential part of a university education? They are linked to the decision status to be discussed in subsection 2.2.2. There are two leading factors, namely:

understanding the concept ‘language’ and the common trends. The two leading factors are discussed in subsection (a) and (b), respectively.

(a) Understanding the concept ‘language’

To answer the question: when does a language become an essential part of university education, one should first understand the concept ‘language’ and its function. Reber (1995:406) says:

A language is what we speak, the set of arbitrary conventional symbols through which we convey meaning, the culturally determined pattern of vocal gestures we acquire by virtue of being raised in a particular place and time, the medium through which we code our feelings, thoughts, ideas and experiences, the most ubiquitous behaviour of humans.

This definition leads us to view language from two sides, as defined by Ngugi (1986:13), when he says: “Language, any language, has a dual character: it is both a means of communication and a carrier of culture.” To make the dual character of a language understandable, Ngugi also identifies the different aspects of the two characters of a language: Language as communication has three aspects or elements; and language as culture has three aspects or elements (see Table 2.1 below).

Table 2.1: The different aspects of the two characters of a language

Communication aspects	Cultural aspects
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> (1) The language of real life (2) Speech (3) Written sign 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> (1) Culture as a product of history which in turn reflects (2) An image-forming agent in the mind of a child. (3) Mediating between me and my own-self; between my own-self and other selves; between me and nature.

Source: Adapted from Ngugi (1986)

Statistics South Africa provides the percentage by home language speakers of the South African languages (see Table 2.2 below).

Table 2.2: Percentage of South African population by home language

Language	Speakers	Percentage
IsiZulu	10677000	23, 8%
IsiXhosa	7907000	17, 6%
Afrikaans	5983000	13, 3%
Sepedi	4209000	9, 4%
Setswana	3677000	8, 2%
English	3673000	8, 2%
Sesotho	3555000	7, 9%
Xitsonga	1992000	4, 4%
Siswati	1194000	2, 7%
Tshivenda	1022000	2, 3%
IsiNdebele	712 000	1, 6%
Others	217 000	0, 5%
Total	44820 000	100.0%

Source: Adapted from STATSSA (2001) cited in Nkuna (2010:30)

The percentage of the population that speaks indigenous languages not recognised by the Constitution as official languages was not identified by Stats South Africa. They might have included them under other languages such as Afrikaans, isiXhosa and others (especially Khoi, Nama, and San languages). The population that speaks SA sign languages is formed by people born among the different language groups: They are found among speakers of Afrikaans, English, isiNdebele, isiXhosa, isiZulu Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda, Xitsonga and other languages.

Considering the different aspects of the two characters of a language in Table 2.1 and the data provided by STATSSA in Table 2.2, the nine indigenous languages (isiNdebele, isiXhosa, isiZulu, Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda and Xitsonga) are a means of communication and carriers of the culture for 78% of the South African population. Afrikaans and English together are a means of communication and carriers of the culture for the 21.5% of the South African population. Lastly, other languages are a means of communication and carriers of the culture for the remaining 0.5% of the South African population. All of the above languages display the six aspects or elements found in Table 2.1.

Linking the dual character of language to education, Chumbow (2005:169) maintains:

Language is the normal medium of communication of knowledge and skills in all educational (institutional) systems. Effective acquisition of knowledge and skills can take place only if effective communication via a language medium has taken place.

Thus, there is a need for developing the use and status of all South African languages to become an essential part of university education.

(b) The common trends

There are familiar trends of choosing a primary language(s) or language(s) of tuition, academic language(s) and language(s) for a specific profession. For the purpose of this study two trends are identified, i.e. European trend and South African trend.

EUROPEAN TREND: In *Adam Smith: the Wealth of Nations Books IV-V*, the question of how language becomes an essential part of a university education is answered in the following manner:

When Christianity was first established by law, a corrupted Latin had become a common language of all the Western parts of Europe. The service of the church accordingly, and the translation of the Bible which was read in churches, were both in that corrupted Latin; that is, in the common language of the country. After the interruption of the barbarous nations who overturned the Roman Empire, Latin gradually ceased to be the language of any part of Europe. But the reverence of the people naturally preserved the established form and ceremonies of religion long after the circumstances which first introduced and rendered them unreasonable are no more. Though Latin, therefore was no longer understood anywhere by the great body of the people, the whole service of the church still continued to be performed in that language. Two different languages were thus established in Europe, in the same manner as in ancient Egypt; a language of the priests, and a language of the people; a sacred and a profane; a learned and unlearned language. But it was necessary that the priests should understand something of that sacred and learned language in which they were to officiate; and the study of the Latin language therefore made, from the beginning, an essential part of university education (Skinner, 1999:354).

It was not so for either Greek or the Hebrew language. That is why:

the knowledge of those two languages, therefore, not being indispensably requisite for a churchman, the study of them did not for a long time make a necessary part of the common course of university education. There are some Spanish universities, I am assured, in which the study of the Greek language has never made any part of that course (Ibid., 1999:355).

It was a legal and domain status that made Latin an essential part of a university education. Christianity was the domain and it was legalised in Europe and this was the reason why Latin was made an essential part of university education right in Europe.

SOUTH AFRICAN TREND: Studies in South Africa with the colonial education in general will be considered first, followed by studies on higher education in particular. Christie (1991:34) maintains:

The British authorities paid far more attention to education than the Dutch had done. They wanted to use education as a way of spreading their language and traditions in the colony – and also as a means of social control. They declared English to be the official language, and they attempted to anglicize the church, the government offices and the schools. They set up a number of schools in the British tradition, and they brought over teachers from Britain.

The establishment of higher education during the British rule was driven by the same goals described by Christie. For instance, English became the primary language or language of tuition for the South African College (the first higher education institution) which was opened in 1829. Colonisation influenced the choice of languages for the College programmes. For instance, McKerron (1934) provides the following information:

- (1) English was the primary language and language of tuition for all disciplines;
- (2) The College had a Department of General Literature: Dutch literature, English, Latin and Ancient languages were taught;
- (3) English language teachers gave the instruction in the English Language, taught the ancient language with the theory, history and practice of English Grammar and Literature, so as to impart habits of investigation and of discussion and composition in English and an acquaintance with the history and moral and civil policy of the species;
- (4) Dutch language teachers gave instruction in the Dutch language, taught the ancient language with the theory, history and practice of Dutch Grammar and Literature, so as to impart habits of investigation and of discussion and composition in Dutch and an acquaintance with the history and moral and civil policy of the species.

Languages recognised by the College were not academic disciplines in their own right. English was the only official language of the country at the time and it was the primary language of the College or language of tuition. The teaching of Ancient languages was

diminished and their use and status were relegated to the Church. Thus, as in Europe, the legal and domain status made English, Dutch, Latin and Ancient languages an essential part of the South African College in 1829. English was the only official language at the time. For that reason English became the primary language or language of tuition in all fields of study at that College.

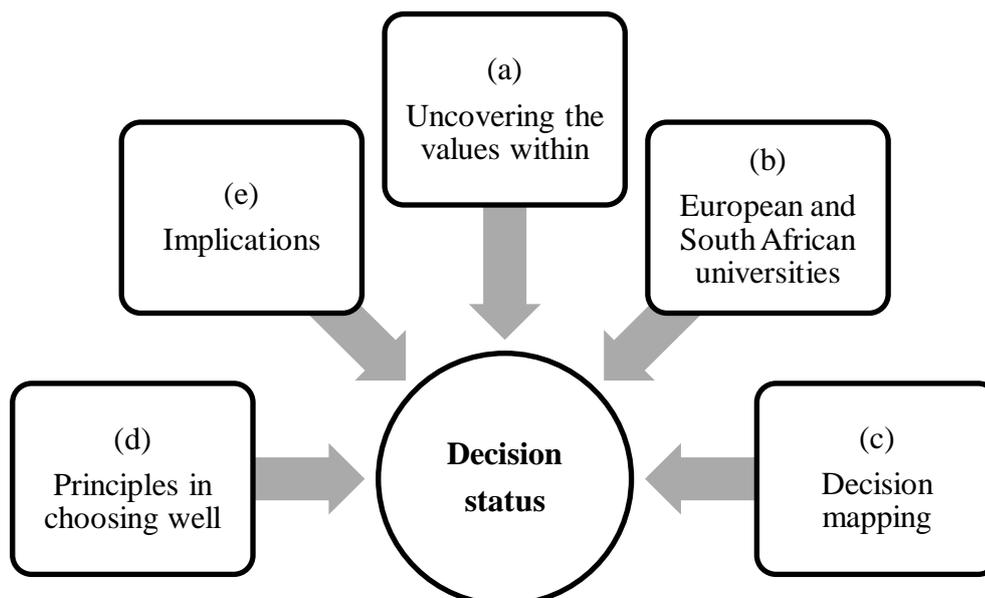
2.2.2 Decision status

Changes in the broader legal environment affect nearly every aspect of how universities develop the use and status of languages for university education. The influence of the legal environment in this study has been revealed in both the case of Latin in Europe and the case of English, Dutch, Ancient Languages and Latin in South Africa. Urbany, Reynolds and Phillips (2008) published an article on value-based decisions, as reflected below:

- (1) Value-based decision making has in fact come to take on the exclusive meaning of socially responsible decision making;
- (2) All decisions – whether judged highly ethical, grossly unethical or anywhere in between – are value-based. That is, a decision necessarily involves an implicit or explicit trade-off of values; and
- (3) Because the values that underlie our decision making are often buried in the shortcuts we take, we need a means for revealing those values and expressly thinking through the trade-offs between them.

The question now is: Did the European universities and the South African College utilise a value-based decision making model? The answer to this question can be established from five aspects of a value-based decision making model (see Figure 2.2 below).

Figure 2.2: The Value-Based Decision Making Model



Source: Adapted from Urbany et al. (2008)

The Converging Radial Cycle shows that the decision status (the central idea in the circle) is related to the aspects on the periphery of the figure. The contributions of these aspects to the decision status are discussed in subsections (a) to (e) here.

(a) Uncovering the values within

The concept ‘value’ is variously defined. Reber (1995) provides seven definitions of ‘value’. Two of those seven definitions are relevant to this study, namely:

- (1) Value is the quality or property of a thing that makes it useful, desired or esteemed; and
- (2) Value is an abstract and general principle concerning the patterns of behaviour within a particular culture or society which, through the process of socialisation, the members of that society hold in high regard.

Language itself does not possess value. The value of language is given by its role in a (social) transaction. These are social values and form central principles around which individual and societal goals can become integrated. Classic examples are language rights, use and status in higher education. Therefore, “a value is a belief in action” (Garratt, 2003:63). In the words of Urbany et al. (2008:75):

Values are enduring beliefs, both hard-wired (i.e., acquired genetically) and

shaped by cultural context, about preferred “end states.” Whether we think it or not, values guide our everyday behaviour, even mundane choices.

Along this line Covey (2004:24) maintains:

Each of us has many, many maps in our head, which can be divided into two main categories: maps of *the way things are* or *realities*, and maps of *the way things should be*, or *values*. We interpret everything we experience through these mental maps. We seldom question their accuracy; we’re usually even unaware that we have them.

The value-based decision making in this context helps to understand the European and South African trends on the choice of Latin and English, Dutch, Ancient languages and Latin as essential parts of university education in the respective continent and country. It also helps to understand the importance of the dual character of language: a means of communication and a carrier of culture, when taking a linguistic decision in a multilingual situation.

(b) European and South African universities

Consider the two trends in 2.2.1 (b): Developing the use and status of Latin as an essential part of university education in Europe and the use and status of English, Dutch (Afrikaans), Ancient Languages and Latin as essential parts of university education in South Africa are good examples. The examples follow below align to the information and quotations in 2.2.1(b):

- (1) The decision taken by Europeans to recognise Latin only, to become an essential part of university education in Europe was legal, but abysmal and undermined some of the values of the European population.
- (2) The decision taken in South Africa to recognise English, Dutch, Ancient languages and Latin to become essential parts of university education in South Africa was also legal, but abysmal and undermined the values of the indigenous population of the country.

(c) Decision mapping

Do the two decisions taken in Europe and South Africa map onto the Urbany et al (2008)’s value-based decision making model outlined in Figure 2.2? Yes, the two decisions build around choice options, consequences, outcomes and values or goals as shown below:

- (1) Decision makers in both Europe and South African universities had no choice options as they were responding to a specific domain(s): Christianity and, colonisation and Christianity, respectively;
- (2) In both countries the decision makers supported what was the most obvious action without truly considering other choice options;
- (3) Christianity was the domain that drove the decision makers in Europe to choose only Latin as an essential part of European university education;
- (4) Colonisation and Christianity were domains that drove the decision makers in South Africa to choose English, Dutch, Ancient languages and Latin to be essential parts of the South African College education;
- (5) The difference between the decisions taken in Europe and South Africa was that in Europe it was the domain (Christianity) that had legal status, while in South Africa it was not the two domains that had legal status, but the English language that was an official language of the Cape Colony when the first college – the South African College - was opened in 1829.

There was a major decision error in both the linguistic decision taken for European universities and the linguistic decision taken for the South African College as seen in consequences, outcomes and values/goals. The consequences are tabulated in (1) to (3) and the outcomes in (4) to (5) below:

- (1) Positive and negative consequences are found in both European and South African linguistic decisions;
- (2) The positive consequence for the European linguistic decision was that Latin was the common language of all the western parts of Europe. However, the negative consequence was that Latin was a corrupted language and it did not satisfy the dual character of a language as a means of communication and a carrier of culture for all Europeans;
- (3) The positive consequence of the South African decision was that both English and Dutch had a dual character – they were languages of communication and carried English culture and Dutch culture, respectively. The negative consequence was that when the College was established in 1829, only English had official status, while Dutch did not. All these led to the fight for language superiority.

- (4) In the case of the European decision the study of the Latin language, was an essential part of university education from the beginning. It was not so for Greek or Hebrew. For a long time the study of Greek and Hebrew did not form a necessary part of a common course of university education. For instance, Skinner (1999:355) confirms that “there are some Spanish universities... in which the study of the Greek language has never yet made any part of that course”; and
- (5) In the case of the South African decision, English and Afrikaans became an essential part of university education. The study of indigenous languages (Khoi, Nama and San languages; isiNdebele; isiXhosa; isiZulu; Sepedi; Sesotho; Setswana; siSwati; Tshivenda and Xitsonga) was neglected.

This brings us to the aspect of values of languages given by their role in a (social) transaction, social values and the classic examples of language rights, recognition and promotion in education, namely:

- (1) In the case of the European decision Latin became the everyday language of educated people. For instance, degree certificates were still printed in Latin in some universities in South Africa until recently; and
- (2) In the case of the South African decision English medium and Afrikaans medium universities were established. There are no universities with Khoi, Nama and San languages as medium; neither are there universities which make use of isiNdebele, isiXhosa, isiZulu, Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda or Xitsonga as medium. Thus, English and Afrikaans have superior roles in the social transactions and social values in South Africa.

(d) Principles in choosing well

This section commences by listing what principles are and what principles are not (see Table 2.3 below).

Table 2.3: Principles and non-principles

Principles	Non-principles
(1) Fairness (2) Integrity and honesty (3) Human dignity (4) Service (5) Quality or excellence (6) Potential (7) Growth (8) Patience, nurturance, encouragement	(1) Practices (2) Values

Source: Adapted from Covey (2004)

A principle is “a fundamental truth or law” (Metcalf & Thompson, 2003:651). Along these lines, Boon (2007:95) confirms: “principles are fundamental world truths and do not change with time.” Thus the principles in choosing well are not about practices or values. In this study the decision makers’ understanding of principles in choosing well should sensitise them to other possibilities as indicated below:

- (1) **Principle 1:** Every action represents a choice;
- (2) **Principle 2:** Every choice option has both positive and negative consequences;
- (3) **Principle 3:** Every decision is a trade-off of values.

The decision makers in both Europe and South Africa neglected **Principle 1** and slipped into habitual practices of satisfying specific domains – Christianity or Colonisation or both and failed to realise that there are other choice options. For instance, they failed to realise the value of indigenous languages in both countries. If we could get the decision makers in both Europe and South Africa to go back and lay out the decision analysis more completely, they would identify **Principle 2**. The negative consequences include discrimination, which is illegal. Extending these consequences to values, the conclusion might be that the outcomes of the two decisions are inconsistent with the dual character of language and the value of languages in society. “A long line of research suggests that when people make decisions, they tend to weigh perceived losses more heavily than perceived gains” (Urbany et al., 2008:78). But the decision makers in both Europe and South Africa in this case were willing to achieve personal and cultural gain at the possible expense of language rights, the majority of those countries’ population and integrity. It is crucial for the decision makers in this context to confront the values inherent in their choices and what they are giving up in realising those values. In other words, the decision makers on the choice of language to become an essential

part of university education in Europe and South Africa would be starting with the hard reality of sacrificing integrity and their personal responsibility.

(e) Implications

The linguistic decisions taken in Europe and South Africa were impacted negatively by the following:

- (1) Legal status such as official status of the domain of language use, for instance, Christianity in Europe;
- (2) Legal status such as designated official language(s), for instance the case of English and Dutch (Afrikaans) in South African universities;
- (3) Colonial status such as designated colonial language, for instance the case of English in South African universities;
- (4) Racism and separate development, for instance the case of South African universities which were established along racial lines and language differences;
- (5) Undermining indigenous languages as in European universities, which neglected to recognise, promote and develop Greek and Hebrew as essential parts of university education and as in South African universities where indigenous languages (Khoi, Nama and San languages, isiNdebele, isiXhosa, isiZulu, Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda and Xitsonga) were neglected; and
- (6) Relegating indigenous languages to the private realm, where a vibrant oral tradition exists, while promoting Western languages which hold out the promise of access to wider opportunities. For instance, in South Africa fluency in English is associated with education and distances the elite from their constituencies.

In an attempt to answer the question: ‘when does a language become an essential part of university education, the legal status (official status) and domain status (colonial and Christianity in the past) were used as starting points. The mistakes of linguistic discrimination committed in both the European and South African higher education system in the past, still require the researcher to look deeply into the literature on the external environment and the literature on the internal environment in sections 2.3 and 2.4, respectively.

2.3 LITERATURE ON THE EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT

The external environment and internal environment were discussed in chapter 1 of this study. This section focuses on the literature on the external environment, while literature on the internal environment will be discussed in section 2.4.

Four factors of the external environment (factors in the macro-environment) were briefly discussed in chapter 1: demographic, institutional, international and political environments. It is important to note that the 23 universities' councils "cannot influence the macro-environment or, in exceptional cases, only to a negligible degree" (Marx et al., 1998:39). Thus, a separate review of literature for each of the four factors is necessary here.

2.3.1 Demographic factor

This factor has five major challenges that the councils of the 23 universities are required to consider when deciding on developing the use and status of indigenous languages for higher education. Relevant literature on the five challenges is presented below:

(a) Constitutional and legislation aspects

Two government documents relevant to this environment were identified in chapter 1: The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (Act 108 of 1996); and The National Language Policy Framework (Ministry of Arts and Culture, 2003). The contents of these documents provide a clear picture of the way in which the 23 universities can respond to the demographic environment. Section 6 (1) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (Act 108 of 1996) provides for the recognition of 11 official languages (Afrikaans, English, isiNdebele, isiXhosa, isiZulu, Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda and Xitsonga). Section 6(5) of the Act, states:

Pan South African Language Board established by national legislation must –
(a) promote, and create conditions for, the development and use of (i) all official languages; (ii) the Khoi, Nama and San languages; and (iii) sign language; and (b) promote and ensure respect of (i) all languages commonly used by communities in South Africa, including German, Greek, Gujarati, Hindi, Portuguese, Tamil, Telegu and Urdu; and (ii) Arabic, Hebrew, Sanskrit and other languages used for religious purposes in South Africa.

The National Language Policy Framework (2003) indicates:

The costing exercises conducted by the National Treasury and DAC in 2001 demonstrated that the estimated costs of implementing functional multilingualism are sustainable and can be accommodated with minor adjustments to planned budgets (Ministry of Arts and Culture, 2003: page number not provided by the source).

Owing to this costing exercise, the National Language Policy Framework proposes:

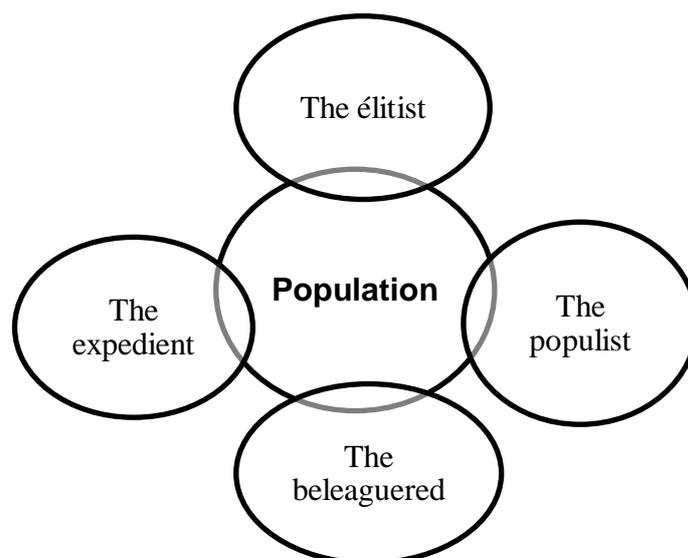
Whereas provinces and local governments will be led by their unique linguistic demographics, national government departments will have to make official documents available in – (a) Afrikaans; (b) English, (c) Xitsonga; (d) Tshivenda; and at least one of the following in each group: (e) isiZulu, isiXhosa, isiNdebele, siSwati (Nguni group); Sesotho, Setswana, Sepedi (Sotho group) (Ibid., 2003: page number not provided by the source).

The contents provided from both the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (Act 108 of 1996) and the National Language Policy Framework (2003) give a clear picture of the demographic strategy to be used by councils of the 23 universities to choose specific indigenous languages and develop their use and status for higher education.

(b) Perspectives on demographic factor

Koorts (2000) identifies four perspectives of social (demographic) influences (see Figure 2.3).

Figure 2.3: Perspectives on social (demographic) influences



Source: Adapted from Koorts (2000)

The Venn diagram in Figure 2.3 shows the overlap between the four social (demographic) influence perspectives that are major threats to the 23 universities in the development of the use and status of indigenous languages in their education, namely:

- (1) The *elitist perspective* favours the creation of higher-status universities;
- (2) The *populist perspective* meets two challenges, namely practicality and equity;
- (3) The *beleaguered perspective* characterises universities that are facing problems of declining enrolment, inadequate funding, and diminishing public report; and
- (4) The *expedience perspective* reflects an eagerness to try out new ideas and to take risks.

The overlapping of all four social (demographic) influence perspectives implies that they are all threats to the development of the use and status of indigenous languages to become part of university education.

(c) Emotional climate and culture

This refers to the ‘emotional’ side of the South African population versus the mixed cultures. Some members of the population seem to continue with the apartheid culture or to move backwards to the colonial culture while the national culture is an open system moving towards change and democracy. For instance, Cluver (1996: 19) maintains:

The general language planning debate about the position and futures of languages shows certain general topics which require further research: The maintenance of minority languages, (such as Tsonga and Venda in South Africa).

This was a step to marginalise some of the indigenous languages (Tshivenda and Xitsonga) at the University of South Africa (UNISA). This is the type of information that tends to mislead the 23 universities when choosing indigenous language(s) to develop their use and status. In terms of section 16(1) (d) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, (Act 108 of 1996), Cluver has the right of expression including academic freedom and freedom of scientific research. However, his right extended to advocacy of hatred that is based on race and ethnicity as spelt out in section 16(2)(c) of the Act. It also undermines section 6(1) of this Act, when some languages are still referred to as minority languages. Moreover, there are sources providing a similar picture to that of Cluver, Editors Inc (2009), for example (see Table 2.4 below).

Table 2.4: Predominant, widely spoken or principal language(s) for nine provinces

Province	Population	Dominant Language(s)
Eastern Cape	6.91m	isiXhosa
Free State	2.88m	Sesotho, English and Afrikaans
Gauteng	10.45m	Afrikaans, English and isiZulu
Kwazulu-Natal	10.11m	isiZulu, English and Afrikaans
Limpopo	5.27m	Sepedi, English and Afrikaans
Mpumalanga	3.59m	siSwati, isiZulu, English and Afrikaans
North West	3.43m	Setswana
Northern Cape	1.13m	Afrikaans
Western Cape	5.56m	Afrikaans and English

Source: Adopted from Editors Inc (2009)

It is not clear how the Editors Inc determined the common language(s) in different provinces. The use of the concepts: predominantly, widely spoken and principal languages by Editors Inc, is confusing. Editors Inc seems discriminatory, because there are three official languages which do not appear in any of the nine provinces as predominant, widely spoken or principal language(s): isiNdebele, Tshivenda and Xitsonga. This is the type of information that tends to mislead the 23 universities' carefulness on their mandate. Thus, Editors Inc (2009) and Cluver (1996) challenge councils of the 23 universities on determining the demographic environment towards equal development of the use and status of all South African indigenous languages.

(d) The number of speakers

Statistics South Africa gives a clear picture of these languages (see Table 2.2 in section 2.2). Reading the information provided in Table 2.2 carefully, one will observe that the recognition of the status of a particular language is not determined by the number of its speakers. For instance, STATSSA (2001) as cited in Nkuna (2010) shows:

- (1) **Afrikaans** has 5 983 000 home language speakers from the entire SA population;
- (2) **English** has 3 673 000 home language speakers from the entire SA population;
- (3) **IsiNdebele** has 712 000 home language speakers from the entire SA population;
- (4) **IsiXhosa** has 7 907 000 home language speakers from the entire SA population;
- (5) **IsiZulu** has 10 677 000 home language speakers from the entire SA population;

- (6) **Sepedi** has 4 209 000 home language speakers from the entire SA population;
- (7) **Sesotho** has 3 555 000 home language speakers from the entire SA population;
- (8) **Setswana** has 3 677 000 home language speakers from the entire SA population;
- (9) **siSwati** has 1 194 000 home language speakers from the entire SA population;
- (10) **Tshivenda** has 1 022 000 home language speakers from the entire SA population; and
- (11) **Xitsonga** has 1 992 000 home language speakers from the entire SA population.

The basis of the official status is not the number or percentage of the speakers. For instance, isiNdebele is the home language of 712 000 (1.6%) or less than a million of the total population of South Africa and has equal official status to any of the other ten official languages, including isiZulu which is the home language of 10 677 000 (23.8%) or more than 10 Million of the total population of South Africa. The status is transferred to the provincial situation (see Table 2.5 below).

Table 2.5: Percentage of provincial population by home language

EASTERN CAPE

Languages	Population %
isiXhosa	83.4%
Afrikaans	9.3%
English	3.7%
Sesotho	2.5%

FREE STATE

Languages	Population %
Sesotho	64.4%
Afrikaans	11.9%
isiXhosa	9.1%
Setswana	6.8%
isiZulu	5.1%

GAUTENG

Languages	Population %
isiZulu	21.1%
Afrikaans	13.6%
Sesotho	12.6%
English	12.0%
Sepedi	11.2%

KWAZULU-NATAL

Languages	Population %
isiZulu	80.0%
English	13.4%
isiXhosa	3.5%
Afrikaans	1.5%

LIMPOPO

Languages	Population %
Sepedi	54.8%
Xitsonga	18.1%
Tshivenda	16.8%
Afrikaans	2.6%
Setswana	2.1%

MPUMALANGA

Languages	Population %
siSwati	29.9%
isiZulu	24.1%
Xitsonga	11.6%
isiNdebele	10.3%
Sepedi	10.2%

NORTHERN CAPE

Languages	Population %
Afrikaans	56.6%
Setswana	33.7%
isiXhosa	5.4%
English	2.1%
Sesotho	1.0%

WESTERN-CAPE

Languages	Population %
Afrikaans	55.5%
isiXhosa	23.7%
English	19.3%

NORTH-WEST

Languages	Population %
Setswana	64.8%
Afrikaans	9.2%
isiXhosa	7.6%
Sesotho	6.8%
Xitsonga	3.4%

Source: Burger, Cronjé and Tibane (2004) and Wikipedia(2010)

Information in some provinces is questionable, for example, in Gauteng a claim of five languages can be questioned. For example, learners and their teachers for unlisted languages such as Setswana, Tshivenda and Xitsonga are simply excluded. Their parents are also excluded.

(e) **Population change**

Population is not fixed; it changes (see Table 2.6 below).

Table 2.6: Total population by province – Census 1996, 2001 and CS 2007

Provinces	Census 1996	Census 2001	% Change 1996/2001	Census 2007	% Change 2001/2007
Eastern Cape	6147244	6278651	2.1	6527747	4.0
Free State	2633504	2706775	2.8	2773059	2.4
Gauteng	7624893	9178873	20.4	10451713	13.9
Kwazulu-Natal	8572302	9584129	11.8	10259230	7.0
Limpopo	4576133	4995534	9.2	5238286	4.9
Mpumalanga	3124203	3365885	7.7	3643435	8.2
Northern Cape	1011864	991919	-2.0	1058060	6.7
North West	2936554	3193676	8.8	3271948	2.5
Western Cape	3956875	4524335	14.3	5278585	16.7
South Africa	40583573	44819778	10.4	48502063	8.2

Source: STATSSA (2007) General Information: www.statssa.gov.za

Population change can strengthen the development of the use and status of indigenous languages. For example, the decrease of population in the Northern Cape Province by -2.0% might increase the number of isiXhosa or Setswana speakers in another province. Those isiXhosa or Setswana speakers may register as students in a university located in the province concerned.

2.3.2 Institutional factor

The institutional factor was first introduced in chapter 1 of this study. Responding to this factor, Clegg (2003:817) says:

To fully appreciate what is happening in higher education, we also need to understand the structural and policy changes that are delivering mass education, restricted resources and changes in priorities in individual institutions and across the sector.

Thus, the literature that informs the institutional factor are the Acts, policies and reports. They form the three major challenges to the institutional environment. They are reviewed as in the following order:

(a) Constitutional and legal aspects

The rights were first tabled in section 3 Act 200 of 1993. Referring to the Act, Wiechers (1996:8) says:

Our present Constitution, on the one hand, consolidated the existing state of affairs by recognising the status of languages at the time of its coming into operation and, on the other hand, created conditions for the promotion of multilingualism.

Of particular interest to the 23 universities' development of the use and status of indigenous languages in education, are subsections (2) and (9). Subsection (2) states the general principle, namely that:

Rights relating to language and the status of languages existing at the commencement of this Constitution shall not be diminished, and provision shall be made by an Act of Parliament for rights relating to language and the status of languages existing only at regional level, to be extended nationally in accordance with the principles set out in subsection (9) (The Constitutional Assembly, 1993 cited in Wiechers, 1996:11).

The principles in subsection (9) prescribe how legislation, official policy and practice in relation to the use of languages should be implemented. It also has a serious impact on the universities because universities according to South African law, are public law institutions. Moreover, the 23 universities should guard against the use of any language for the purposes of exploitation, domination or division (sub-article 9(c)).

The rights were strengthened by the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (Act 108 of 1996). Subsections 6(2) and 29 (2) of this Act are of particular interest to the 23 universities. Subsection 6(2) states:

Recognising the historically diminished use and status of the indigenous languages of our people, the state must take practical and positive measure to elevate the status and advance the use of these languages (The Constitutional Assembly, 1996:4).

Along these lines, councils of the 23 universities should consider the programmes or qualifications they offer to avoid perpetuating the diminished use and status of the indigenous languages. Higher Education Amendment Act, 2008 (Act 39 of 2008) defines higher education as “a qualification that meets the requirement of the HEQF” (The Presidency, 2008:2). The HEQF indicates that the South African higher education qualifications occupy six levels of the NQF: levels 5 to 10. Levels 5-7 belong to undergraduate studies and levels 8-10 are postgraduate. Each NQF level has a level descriptor. Level descriptors provide guidelines for differentiating the varying levels of complexity of qualifications in the framework. The framework has nine qualification types (see Table 2.7 below).

Table 2.7: Nine qualification types for HEQF

Undergraduate	Postgraduate
(1) Higher certificate	(1) Postgraduate Diploma
(2) Advanced Certificate	(2) Bachelor Honours Degree
(3) Diploma	(3) Master’s Degree
(4) Advanced Diploma	(4) Doctoral Degree
(5) Bachelor’s Degree	

Source: Adapted from the CHE (2007)

Another important factor relevant to the use and status of indigenous languages found in the HEQF, is the language of qualification certificates and academic transcripts. The HEQF recommends:

The language of each qualification certificate and transcript issued to a student within the South African education system must be consistent with the Ministry of Education's Language Policy for higher education (Pretoria, November 2002) and the approved language policy of issuing institution. A central aspect of the Ministry's policy is the promotion of multilingualism (Ministry of Education, 2007:13).

Section 2 of the South African Qualifications Authority Act, 1995 (Act No.68 of 1985) outlines five objectives of the National Qualifications Framework. Namely:

- (1) Subsection 2(a) states that the NQF objective is to create an integrated national framework for learning achievements;
- (2) Subsection 2(b) states that the NQF objective is to facilitate access to, and mobility and progression within education, training and career paths;
- (3) Subsection 2(c) states that the NQF objective is to enhance the quality of education and training;
- (4) Subsection 2(d) states that the NQF objective is to accelerate the redress of past unfair discrimination in education, training and employment opportunities; and
- (5) Subsection 2(e) states that the NQF objective is to contribute to the full personal development of each learner and the social and economic development of the nation at large.

The right to further education, the definition of higher education and the threefold role of the South African higher education system contribute to the direction of this study. Subsection 29(2) of the Act confirms the right to choose the language of tuition. This subsection states:

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 educational alternatives, including single medium of instruction, taking into account (a) equity; (b) practicability; and (c) the need to redress the results of past racial laws and practices (The Constitutional Assembly, 1996:14).

Besides the Constitution, the Higher Education Act 101 of 1997 puts a challenge to the 23 universities on the issue of languages. The Act states:

Subject to the policy determined by the Minister, the council, with the concurrence of the senate, must determine the language policy of a public higher education institution and must publish and make it available on request (Ministry of Education, 1997a:24).

(b) Policy and legislative guidelines

Regarding this aspect, it is crucial to consider Alexander's (1996:110) statement that: "There is a range of issues that will require careful and detailed research if we are to arrive by a democratic process at a legitimate and acceptable language policy." The constitutional and legal aspects discussed above form part of the issues. The policy and legislative guidelines prepare the 23 universities to get into gear and start with the development of the use and status of the indigenous languages. Paragraph 2.79 of the Education White Paper 3: A Programme for the Transformation of Higher Education (1997) tabulates the language questions that the language policy framework of Higher Education needs to address. These include:

- (1) The language(s) of learning (medium(s) of instruction) at universities, bearing in mind the fundamental right of persons to receive education in the official language or languages of their choice at universities, where it is reasonably practicable to do so, and the duty of the state to ensure effective access to and implementation of this right;
- (2) The language(s) of communication at universities;
- (3) The role of higher education in promoting, and creating conditions for the development of all South African languages, including the official languages, the Khoi, Nama and San languages, and elevating the status and advancing the use of the indigenous languages of our people.
- (4) The role of higher education in preparing sufficient language teachers, interpreters, translators and other language practitioners, to serve the needs of our multilingual society;
- (5) The role of higher education in promoting the language-based arts; and
- (6) The role of higher education in preparing South Africans for effective linguistic communication with the rest of Africa and the world in the fields of culture, diplomacy, science and business.

Four years later (in 2001) the Language Policy Framework of the South African Higher Education was published by the Council of Higher Education (CHE). The following summarises the recommendations of the CHE in the framework:

- (1) The policy framework is based on constitutional and legislative provision;
- (2) Provides directives on multilingualism in a democratic South Africa;
- (3) Identifies six relevant aspects and trends – languages of tuition, development of

indigenous languages, general trends, international experience, and rationale for monolingualism and the role of higher education institutions in the promotion of multilingualism;

- (4) Provides directives on the link between the national language policy and education language policy. On this aspect the language policy emphasises that a language policy for higher education can only be successfully formulated as part of a comprehensive language policy to cover all levels of the education system;
- (5) Provides clarification on colonial bilingual education. On this aspect the language policy states categorically that no specific comments are made on the use of either English or Afrikaans in Higher Education, because legally their status is no different from the other languages recognised by the Constitution. However, as South Africa is emerging from a culture of colonial bilingual education, reference to the status of the two languages and their role in education is appropriate. It will be helpful for all concerned if we look to the future;
- (6) Clarifies that generally, policies and plans for language in education must be informed by the adopted and implemented national Act(s); and
- (7) Contains a recommended language policy for the South African higher education system. It divides the recommendations into three categories: steps that can be implemented immediately; measures that can be undertaken in the short term; and proposals for medium to long term implementation.

The language policy framework of South African Higher Education (2001) resulted in the appointment of an informal task group ('the committee') chaired by Professor GJ Gerwel. The report was submitted to the Minister of Education with the following eight recommendations:

- (1) As the context within which its specific recommendations are received, the Ministry approves the general principle that each one of the official languages be assigned to one or more universities to attend in systematic and planned manner to the broad development of that language;
- (2) The Minister confirmed as policy the Statement of the National Commission on Higher Education that as a medium of academic expression and communication, and apart from any political and historical considerations, Afrikaans is a national asset which is worthwhile retaining;

- (3) The Minister reaches agreement with the University of the Free State, the Randse Afrikaanse Universiteit and the University of Pretoria that all their offerings shall be available in English, while at the same time their right to offer in the medium of Afrikaans where there is such a demand, shall not be impaired;
- (4) The University of Stellenbosch and the Potchefstroom University be charged, in line with recommendation 1 above, to take, as part of their institutional task, the responsibility for the continued and sustained development of Afrikaans as language of scholarship and institutional life;
- (5) The above two universities submit to the Minister a comprehensive plan as to how they will execute the above mandate and that its implementation and effect be monitored on an agreed upon, regular basis;
- (6) The above two universities submit to the Minister a comprehensive plan on how they would ensure social and racial inclusivity within their predominantly Afrikaans-medium character;
- (7) The Minister addresses, with regard to the Potchefstroom University, the issue of its Christian character as contained in its Act and Statutes; and
- (8) The Academy of Science of South Africa be approached for advice on ways in which language academies could play a role in the promotion and development of the different official languages in the country.

The main brief of the Committee as approved by the Minister was to:

provide (...) advice and recommendations about ways in which Afrikaans, whose achievements as scientific and academic language had been recognised as a national asset by the National Commission on Higher Education, can be assured of continued long term maintenance, growth and development as a language of science and scholarship in the higher education without non-Afrikaans speakers being unfairly denied access within the system, or the use and development of the language as a medium of instruction wittingly or unwittingly becoming the basis for racial, ethnic or cultural division and discrimination (NPHE cited in Gerwel, 2002:2).

The Language Policy for higher education was published by the Ministry of Education in November 2002. It has six major recommendations:

- (1) The development in the medium to long-term, of South African languages as mediums of instruction in higher education, alongside English and Afrikaans;

- (2) The development of strategies for promoting student proficiency in designated language(s) of tuition;
- (3) The retention and strengthening of Afrikaans as a language of scholarship and science;
- (4) The promotion of the study of South African languages and literature through planning and funding incentives;
- (5) The promotion of the study of foreign languages; and
- (6) The encouragement of multilingualism in institutional policies and practices.

In September 2003, the Minister of Education appointed a Ministerial Committee “to advise on the development of African (indigenous) languages as mediums of instruction in higher education” (Ministerial Committee, 2005). The Committee was chaired by Professor N.S. Ndebele and its report was published in 2005. The report contains the following six recommendations:

- (1) Sustaining the indigenous African languages is a national imperative;
- (2) The ultimate responsibility rests with the national government;
- (3) An application by each higher education institution of regional and locality-specific criteria; concentration of speakers and students; availability of expertise; availability of infrastructure; affordability; possible linkages and partnership with English and Afrikaans; and economic, social and political significance of courses;
- (4) A communicative competence in at least one indigenous African language should be a legal requirement for a person to gain employment and promotion in the public service or any state institution;
- (5) A communicative competence in at least one indigenous African language should be rewarded, particularly in cases where the person’s home language is English and/or Afrikaans; and
- (6) Higher education institutions, government and the private sector should collaborate in identifying on a regional basis prioritised courses that could be progressively translated into an African language.

The Committee proposed guidelines for selecting the languages of tuition in South African universities (see Table 2.8 below).

Table 2.8: Guidelines for selecting indigenous languages for tuition in South African universities

Languages	Higher Education Institutions
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 (Sepedi)	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 the Ministerial Committee (2005)

2.3.3 International factor

“Before you move to a new country... Start learning the language. You may never become fluent, but your attempts will demonstrate respect” (Clouse & Watkins, 2009:118). So, the 23 universities’ councils should take note of international challenges when developing the use and status of indigenous languages to become part of their universities’ education. These major challenges include:

(a) Foreign language(s) training

The promotion of the study of foreign languages is one of the six recommendations of the Language Policy of Higher Education (2002). This makes sense because:

Universities without a foreign language component will find it difficult to establish international relations with universities the majority of students of which do not speak the language of the country of the institution (Vogel, 2001:384).

Most students in the 23 universities are South Africans, but it is possible that students can be attracted from other countries within the SADC region. The languages of those countries vary (see Table 2.9 below).

Table 2.9: The state of SADC official and spoken languages

Country	Spoken languages	Official languages
Angola	Portuguese, Bantu	Portuguese
Botswana	Setswana, Kalanga, Sekgalagadi, English	English
DRC	French, Lingala, Kingwana, Kikongo, Tshiluba	French
Lesotho	Sesotho, isiZulu, isiXhosa, English	English
Madagascar	French, Malagasy	French, Malagasy
Malawi	English, Chichewe	English, Chichewe
Mauritius	Creole, Bhojapuri, French	French
Mozambique	Emakhuwa, Xichangana, Portuguese, Elomwe, Cisená, Echuwabo	Portuguese
Namibia	English, Afrikaans, German, Oshivambo, Herero, Nama	English
Seychelles	English, French, Creole	English, French
South Africa	English, Afrikaans, isiZulu, isiXhosa, isiNdebele, Sesotho, Sesotho sa Leboa (Sepedi), Setswana, Siswati, Tshivenda, Xitsonga	All the 11 languages are official languages
Swaziland	English, iSwati	English, iSwati
Tanzania	Kiswahili, Kiunguji, English, Arabic	Kiswahili, English
Zambia	English, Bemba, Kaonda, Lozi, Lunda, Luvale, Nyanja, Tonga	English
Zimbabwe	English, Shona, Sindebele, Xichangana	English

Source: Adapted and compiled from African Connexion (2007)

Vogel (2001:282) maintains: “A university with a cross-border, international orientation could not function without a foreign language component.” So, any of the 23 universities with a cross-border, international orientation could function if they have a foreign language component. However, ten (66.7%) of the 15 countries mentioned in Table 2.9 (including South Africa) have English as their official language and two (33.3%) have siSwati (iSwati) as their official language (South Africa included). Five (50%) of the 10 countries with English as an official language have other official languages. Four (26.7%) of the 15 countries have French; two (13.3%) have Portuguese; and four (26.7%) use at least four different indigenous languages (Chichewe, kiSwahili, Malagasy and iSwati) in their respective countries. In short, any university among the 23 universities with a cross-border, international orientation could function if it has five (Chichewe, French, kiSwahili, Malagasy and Portuguese) languages representing foreign components. In addition, Section 235 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (Act 108 of 1996) states that:

The right of the South African people as a whole to self-determination as manifested in the Constitution, does not preclude, within the framework of this right, recognition of the notion of the right of self-determination of any community sharing a common culture and language, within a territorial entity in the Republic or in any other way, determined by the national legislation (The Constitutional Assembly, 1996:136).

The 23 universities can consider this element of self-determination when they engage in a cross-border orientation or with international students from Botswana, Lesotho, Mozambique, Namibia, Swaziland and Zimbabwe. Although, Setswana, Sesotho, Xichangana (Xitsonga), Afrikaans, and Ndebele (isiNdebele) are not the designated official languages of Botswana, Lesotho, Mozambique, Namibia and Zimbabwe, respectively, their speakers represent 35.4% of the total population of South Africa (calculated from Table 2.2). This 35.4% of the South African population shares common cultures and languages with parts of the population in Botswana, Lesotho, Mozambique, Namibia and Zimbabwe, depending on the language concerned. In contrast to the SADC situation:

South Africa's historically white universities have their roots firmly in the academic tradition of the developed world; the universities and their staff have some tough lessons to learn if they are to adapt successfully to the real life demands of a developing country undergoing a rapid and sensitive transformation process (Jobbins, 2002:62).

Thus, the SADC mandate should not only be referred to the Historically Black Universities (HBUs). All the 23 universities should avoid considering English and the other colonial languages (French and Portuguese) as the only foreign languages from the SADC. They should also include the other official languages: Chichewe, kiSwahili and Malagasy. Furthermore, they should strengthen the development and use of the indigenous languages (isiNdebele, Setswana, Sesotho, siSwati and Xitsonga) to also accommodate foreign students from Zimbabwe, Botswana, Lesotho, Swaziland and Mozambique.

(b) Globalisation

A large literature has appeared both on impacts of globalisation in general, its link with colonialism, and on its manifestations in the education and training sector (Akooje & McGrath, 2004). Manifestations of globalisation in Africa, according to Oduaran (2000) include political globalisation, socio-cultural globalisation, economic globalisation, and globalisation in education. Oduaran believes that as principle and practice, globalisation has become a reality and, indeed, a driving socio-economic, cultural, political, educational force,

which we cannot afford to ignore. Most countries in Southern Africa have experienced globalisation as externally imposed, whereas, in South Africa it was largely generated internally by the state and the major business groups that dominate the economy (Carmody, 2002). Thus, the 23 universities' councils should lean towards the educational aspect of globalisation if they want to succeed in their mandate of developing the use and status of indigenous languages to become an essential part of their education. According to Vogel (2001:381) "Foreign language training is a requirement for all students in higher education as well as a necessity for Europeanisation and globalisation". Vogel outlines four components necessary for foreign language training and globalisation. They are:

- (1) A consensus exists among politicians, in industry and universities, and among students that a global economy depends on the internationally minded, interculturally trained, multilingual graduate. The global player today needs foreign languages and more specific skills in intercultural communication;
- (2) Above all, universities without a foreign language component will find it difficult to establish international relations with universities the majority of students of which do not speak the language of the country of the institution;
- (3) Language teaching should be needs based and should be able to react to the changing world. This task can be accomplished only if the conditions and outcomes of language teaching and learning are under continuous scientific scrutiny; and
- (4) Foreign languages should not be a by-product of academic education, a perk for students. They should be fully integrated and be made a required part of most study programmes, be they in philosophy or engineering. Doing so is what economic and cultural globalisation demand.

Councils of the 23 universities should consider Vogel's components with caution. They may take note of Garrett's (2004:84) view when he says:

Globalisation has benefited middle-income countries less than either richer or poorer countries... Middle income countries have failed to find a niche in world markets ... Middle-income countries find ways to 'tech up' and enter the global knowledge economy.

Vogel's study was based on nine European languages (German, English, Polish, Russian, Spanish, French, Finish, Swedish and Latin), the languages of richer (developed) countries. He argues:

The teaching staff of the Language Centre comes from eleven countries. Most of them are native speakers of the target language ... One of the essential demands of EU language policy is that every citizen be competent in at least two community languages apart from his or her mother tongue ..., the global player of today needs foreign languages and more specific skills in cultural communication..., ‘English only’ as an individual goal is not sufficient for the labour market...If institutions of higher education refuse to teach such languages, they should be aware of the fact that by their actions they are contributing significantly to the dominance of English in academe and in the business world (Vogel, 2001:383).

The 23 universities’ councils should know that they are operating in a developing country. Secondly, need to know that South Africa could not start globalising Europe. Lastly, they need to know that English is not the only language that can take South African people to the global market (see Table 2.10 below).

Table 2.10: The global state of official languages and spoken languages

Mother tongue speakers	Millions	Official language	Populations (Millions)
Chinese	1,000	English	1400
English	350	Chinese	1100
Spanish	250	Hindi	700
Hindi	200	Spanish	280
Arabic	150	Russian	270
Bengali	150	French	200
Russian	150	Arabic	170
Portuguese	135	Portuguese	160
Japanese	120	Malay	160
German	100	Bengali	150
French	70	Japanese	120
Punjabi	70	German	100

Source: Guardian (1992) 11 February cited in Doole and Lowe (2001:70)

From Table 2.10 it is clear that English leads the list of official languages of the globe. This may jeopardize the focus of the 23 universities to promote multilingualism because people become keen to learn English only. “Their ability to communicate in it, they believe, will facilitate access in the labour market, and on the basis of this alone the status of English is likely to gain further ground” (London, 2001:394). Thus, the English dominance is also seen as an opportunity for the South African universities to cater for students from the globe. However, Koorts (2000:383) says that “since education is regarded as a guarantee of social and economic gain, access and quality are mechanisms to ensure it.” Thus, measuring the global languages in terms of the official status in the globe is not the only best option. Nkuna

(2010:7) says: “Regional and world organisations and institutions employ a specific number of designated working languages.”

Table 2.11 below is incorporated to illustrate the working languages in various international institutions.

Table 2.11: Examples of working languages in fourteen regional and world institutions

Institution	Designated working language(s)
UN	Arabic, Chinese, English, French, Russian, Spanish
WTO	English, French, Spanish
ICC	English, French
AU	Arabic, English, French, Portuguese, and Spanish
SADC	Afrikaans, English, French, Portuguese,
ILO	English, French, Spanish
IOC	English, French
ITU	English, French, Spanish
EC	English, French, German
FTAA	English, Spanish
SCO	Chinese, Russian
Mercosur	Portuguese, Spanish
NATO	English, French
FIFA	English, French, German, Spanish

Source: Nkuna (2010:135)

Note that, according to the information presented in Table 2.11, English does not form part of their working languages in all the institutions. Moreover, none of the institutions in Table 2.11 above designates English as its stand alone working language. Thus, the 23 universities’ councils are challenged by factors and views such as:

Globalisation, in other words, lends more credence to the idea of linguistic parallelism, which posits the distinction in language status in terms of functional specialisation, than it does to the idea of linguistic hierarchichisation, which equates status difference with inequality and domination (Lysandrou & Lysandrou, 2003:208).

This brings to the fore serious challenges to the supremacy of English. This insinuates that:

Any convincing account of the advent and the impact of English language supremacy in the contemporary era must be one that allows for the necessity of linguistic parallelism but at the same time recognises the possibility that

such parallelism is more pernicious than benign in its overall result (Ibid., 2003:210).

Following Lysandrou and Lysandrou, four challenges are facing the 23 universities' management. They are:

- (1) **Two-space theory and progression:** Physical and price spaces;
- (2) **A two-space view of English – English as the language of progression:** English as a local language versus English as a global language of communication, and English's global role in physical space versus the same role in price space;
- (3) **The 'functionalist' view of English – English as the language of progress:** A functional division of labour between local languages and global English is in unavoidable in today's conditions; and
- (4) **The 'power' view of English – English as a language of domination:** Domination theorists do not make a clear-cut separation between language as a medium of identity and language as a medium for intelligibility because of their belief that no language structure can ever be entirely divorced from its historical legacy or entirely emptied of its specific socio-cultural content.

To succeed in developing the use and status of indigenous languages in their respective universities, while addressing the global factor, the 23 universities' councils will have to do a careful study of the four challenges listed above. They must first adhere to the view on access to English that:

At this point it is apposite to note that a significant proportion of the total population of South Africa cannot understand English: exactly what proportion cannot be accurately determined, but it is so high by all measures that it cannot and must not be disregarded in developing policy ... Any language policy concerned with equity and the ability of citizens to participate fully in the national life has to take these facts into account (Ridge, 1996: 18).

In the case of the first challenge referred to as the two-space theory and progression, the 23 universities' councils should pay attention to the fact that physical space identifies with the process of progression, a continual if chequered improvement in the position of the world's majority and the price space identifies with the process of regression, a continual decrease in the relative position of the world's majority. In the second challenge referred to as a two-space view of English – English as the language of progression, the 23 universities' councils

should pay attention to the fact that English in its local role can be said to be largely benign in its impact insofar as its linguistic features can over time be reworked and shaped to fit in with a particular community's own experience and priorities. Moreover, in its global role, English as a language of communication may appear to be potentially harmful in its impact given that the format it must have to fulfil that role is beyond local control. In the case of the third challenge referred to as the 'functionalist' view of English – English as the language of progress, the 23 universities' councils should pay attention to the fact that:

There is a general acknowledgement of the fact that those groups within certain communities who can command English, or standardised forms of English in particular, have access to the most prestigious posts or the most lucrative jobs, while those who cannot are consigned to positions of inferior rank or status. There is acknowledgement in other words, that English reinforces the divisions between the included and the excluded, between the 'haves' and the 'have nots', and that, as a consequence, it may help to crowd out local minority languages or language dialects that cannot be maintained in parallel with efforts to embrace English as a means of participating in material progress (Lysandrou & Lysandrou, 2003: 223).

This quotation corresponds with that of Ridge (1996), quoted above. The result of the 'functionalist' view of English – English as the language of progress is depicted by Moodley (2000:103), who says:

New African elites define competitiveness in the global arena as a crucial goal. To this end, despite talk of African Renaissance, African languages are relegated to the private realm, where a vibrant oral tradition exists. Western languages which hold out the promise of access to wider opportunities are valued. Fluency in English and French is associated with education, status and urbanity, which both distinguishes as well as distances the elite from their constituencies.

This brings us to the last challenge referred to as the 'power' view of English – English as a language of domination. In this challenge, the 23 universities' councils should adhere to the fact that:

Language domination may now rely more on choice and persuasion than on coercion and brute force, and it may now depend on more general forms of pressure rather than on face-to-face confrontations, but either way the dominator-dominated nexus is still identified as an essentially associative one in which the nationality and the cultural identity of the counter-parties is preserved (Lysandrou & Lysandrou, 2003:228).

Along these lines, Moodley (2000:103) emphasises:

All major languages spoken in a territory need official recognition and state. People need to be given choices as to the language in which they wish to have their children educated. The preservation of non-dominant languages against the hegemonic power of western influence is valued intrinsically in the same way that the preservation of all natural species is cherished.

The Government language policies in South Africa recognise all languages as equal, including the colonial and apartheid languages as well as the indigenous languages. Thus, the 23 universities' councils should acknowledge:

The change in the status of English as a world language mirrors this globalisation of commodity-based relations of power and exploitation. The dissolution of colonial structures means the complete and substantive, as opposed to the merely relative or formal, termination of English's role as an instrument of oppression. The English language now serves only as a language of community and, as far as its world role is concerned, as a neutral language of communication. However, although it itself is no longer a medium through which power and authority are exercised, the English language most certainly contributes to the perfection of such a medium (Lysandrou & Lysandrou, 2003:229).

Those are the challenges and the 23 universities' councils, like any other management, cannot dictate on any component of the macro-environment including the behaviour of languages on globalisation.

2.3.4 Political factor

Prior to the first democratic election in South Africa in 1994, access to higher education was "highly skewed on racial lines" (Groenewald & Thulukanam, 2005:85). Racism is 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. Thus, the challenges facing councils of the 23 universities in the political factor are racism, colonial legacy, apartheid and democracy. Various sources of literature on these challenges are reviewed in subsection (a) to (d).

(a) Racism

In the words of the first democratically elected president of South Africa, Mr. Nelson Mandela: “Racism pollutes the atmosphere of human relation and poisons the mind of the backward, the bigoted and the prejudiced” (Crwys-Williams, 2004: 89). For the Councils of the 23 universities to succeed in their indigenous language projects, they must first understand the impact of racism on the diminished use and status of the country’s indigenous languages. Their understanding of this concept should include their understanding of the relationship between language and race. Ashcroft (2001:311) maintains:

Language and race are deeply implicated in Western thought because the rise of language studies not only paralleled the rise in race thinking but they were seen, throughout the nineteenth century, to be virtually synonymous. The link between philology and ethnology provided a powerful foundation for the marriage of linguistic hegemony and racial marginalisation that came to be fundamental to imperial discourse. But, ironically, that spurious link had a powerful residual effect on the thinking of post-colonial writers and intellectuals in the twentieth century, who often saw strategies of resistance in terms of the ‘racial’ autonomy of mother tongues. The dangerous inheritance of the link between language and race is a model for the problems surrounding all discursive resistance.

So, the relationship between language and race is the major political environment challenger to councils of the 23 universities. Thus, to succeed in the indigenous language projects, those councils should familiarise themselves with this relationship. Ashcroft identified various aspects with the topic of language and race, including:

- (1) To understand the link between language and race, we must go back long before the emergence of race as a category of physiological discrimination, to the ‘othering’ the subject of Europe’s colonial expansion;
- (2) The language of race, like all language, is central in, and generated by, relations of power;
- (3) The language of race always pushes the goal of integration to assimilation, where a black man could only become integrated when he started to behave like a white one;
- (4) Language exists as much to conceal as to signify. The language of inter-racial relations is a demonstration of the importance of its use and meaning. The use of such a language can be a way of embedding racist attitudes. The embedding of such attitudes is fundamental to the language of race itself.
- (5) The reality of racial experience centres in language;

- (6) The development of the concept of linguistic races, which saw language and race as inseparable, and the figurative power of language in which chromatic signifiers performed the cultural work of racial ‘othering’,
- (7) Language is a discourse firmly demarcated by the cultural boundaries of European civilisation. Proficiency in language represents civilisation. Every colonised people finds itself face to face with the language of the civilising nation, and the changed language and the changed person are the same thing.

Discrimination, colonial expansion, relations of power, assimilation, inter-racial relations, racist attitudes, racial experience, linguistic races, European, civilisation and colonised people are key concepts which should be taken note of by the 23 universities’ councils. They should design institutional language policies that aim at eradicating discrimination, colonial expansion, and relations of power, assimilation, inter-racial relations, racist attitudes, racial experience, linguistic races, Europeanization, false civilisation and colonial minds from colonised people. Their focus will have to be on developing the use and status of indigenous languages while guarding against all practices of racism inherent in the above concepts.

(b) Colonial legacy

Colonisation has been identified as part of language and race. In the words of Nelson Mandela:

The nineteenth-century colonisation of the African continent was in many respects the culmination of the Renaissance-initiated expansion of European domination over the planet (Crwys-Williams, 2004: 89).

Thus, the body of literature in this aspect is both recent and rapidly growing, especially in the field of education, yet both less recognised and less established in higher education systems. “Colonialism can be viewed in a historical perspective, including the perspective of the future” (Dirlik, 2002:428). It led “the political control by one nation over another nation or a society striving to become a nation” (Ibid., 2002:430). In South Africa, a colonial state was first started by the Dutch, then by the British people, all from Europe. Social structure, government and economics within the South African territory of the colony were changed by the European colonists. Colonial powers used strong policies and their languages to colonise Africa (including South Africa in particular), (see Table 2.12).

Table 2:12: Four main colonial powers controlling Africa

Belgian Colonies	British Colonies
(1) Belgium did not see its policy as part of the motherland; and (2) Deliberately held back on providing education to Congolese people.	(1) The policy was initially known as “guardianship”; (2) The policy renamed the “partnership” led to independence within the Commonwealth; and (3) Gave power to the English-educated African élites.
French Colonies	Portuguese Colonies
(1) The policy was based on the principle of “assimilation” and (2) The people who absorbed the French culture and French language became French citizens.	(1) Portuguese government's policy of assimilation; and (2) Turning the African man into a Portuguese man, with a mind to eventual equality and reform.

Source: Adapted from Nkuna (2010)

Education, assimilation, language, culture, guardianship, partnership, English-educated élites and turning the African man are the concepts dominating the policies of the four colonial powers in Africa. Understanding the impact of these concepts in the diminished use and status of indigenous languages is also the basis of the indigenous languages project.

The 23 universities’ councils should consider this understanding as a challenge and that it forms part of the first challenge of language and race that was discussed in subsection (b) above. The above concepts disclose that the languages of the colonial masters became colonisation tools of the nations. It is one of the reasons researchers such as Moodely (2000:103) observes:

Language policy challenges the role of the body politic in addressing the fundamental rights of citizens not only to use their mother tongue in public but also to have it recognised by the state and its institutions. Two conceptions are juxtaposed: African languages under colonialism, and African languages as minority languages in spite of political transformation and African majority government. The language of the coloniser is valorised even in situations where the colonised hold political power.

The observation by Moodely seems to be a true reflection of the 23 universities. The impact of colonisation and diminished use and status of indigenous languages in general and in the country’s higher education in particular can be seen from the nineteenth to twentieth century.

Higher education in South Africa began during the 19th century. So, councils of the 23 universities should start to problematise the diminished use and status of indigenous languages in higher education from the 19th century. This approach will help them understand how to transcend this match so that a single conception of a post-colonial institutional language policy that incorporates indigenous languages is forged.

Councils of the 23 universities should learn that the link between British colonisation and Christianity provided a powerful foundation for the marriage of linguistic hegemony and racial marginalisation that came to be fundamental to the choice of language of university education. The British rules and policies date back to 1806 or 23 years before the commencement of higher education in the country. For instance:

The English element was considerably strengthened by the arrival of about 5000 English colonists in 1820 ...Two years later Lord Charles Somerset issued a proclamation making English the official language of the country (McKerron, 1934:120).

In terms of the British rules and policies the colonial Government “was in no way ready to understand or sympathise with the aspirations of ‘the people’ ” (Louw & Louw, 1986:23). It focused on importing English immigrants and anglicising the Cape. English became the sole official language of the Cape in 1822 and the British rules and policies remained colonial in principle. This was the beginning of English hegemony in South African higher education. English became the primary language or language of tuition for the South African College (the first higher education institution) which opened in 1829. Colonisation influenced the choice of languages for the College programmes (see section 2.2). Languages recognised by the College were not academic disciplines in their own right. English was the only official language of the country at the time and it was the primary language of the College or language of tuition.

The teaching of Ancient languages was diminished and their use and status were relegated to the Church. Then, “the first university, the University of Cape of Good Hope, was established in 1873” (Groenewald & Thulukanam, 2005:85). Its establishment led to the sustainability of English domination. For instance, McKerron (1934:126) says:

The new regime alarmed English-speaking teachers. Roughly one quarter of the teaching staff of the province, had been imported from Great Britain... Another difficulty arose out of the fact that the chief examining board of the

country, the University of Cape of Good Hope, had at that time made no provision for examination through the Dutch medium.

Indigenous languages were neither part of the South African College nor the University of Cape of Good Hope. However, the foundation for their diminished use and status was laid during the 19th century. Thus, it is important for the 23 universities' councils to keep in mind that those teachers, who were native speakers of English, were imported from Britain only to teach English in South Africa. In contrast, indigenous languages were learnt in Europe as part of African studies. Ward (1945) as cited in Nkuna (2006:31) identified three major reasons for the colonisers to learn an indigenous language, namely:

- (1) The ultimate success of the worker in Africa, whether he be trader, settler, missionary, anthropologist, educator, or administrator, depends to a large extent upon his language performance;
- (2) To talk with Africans more and more freely, getting into closer contact with them, and scoring greatly by winning respect from the natives themselves, who are flattered by the white man's efforts to speak their language; and
- (3) If a white man wants to say or to ask something which is worth saying or asking, he will be understood by the great majority of natives only when he speaks to them in their own language.

English remained the only medium of instruction for the teaching, learning and research of those indigenous languages, so as to impart habits of investigation and of discussion and composition in English and an acquaintance with the history and moral and civil policy of the Africans. For example, the results of such learning include:

To speak a native language, therefore, helps one to associate oneself with the group and generates a feeling of confidence, the advantage of which cannot be overrated. Even today these reasons dominate the South African environment. In the field, colonisers were learning pronunciation, tones, orthography, grammar and vocabulary (Nkuna, 2006:32).

However, the colonisers faced serious challenges in the study of indigenous languages, while they were in their native countries. Ward (1945) cited in Nkuna (2006) identified ten of those challenges, namely:

- (1) There are a large number of languages and many dialects;

- (2) The particular nature of most of the indigenous languages;
- (3) The difficulty of obtaining instruction of any kind in the language before proceeding to the country. Instruction in a number of languages was provided in certain centres in Europe and South Africa;
- (4) The social segregation in which Europeans and Africans lived made it difficult for the European to have continuous contact with indigenous language speakers;
- (5) The fact that a number of indigenous languages had not yet been written down;
- (6) The lack of grammar systems, dictionaries, textbooks and graded reading material in those indigenous languages that have been recorded;
- (7) The inadequacy of some of the existing grammar systems and dictionaries, which in the light of modern linguistic research were out of date;
- (8) The inadequacy of teaching available in the field;
- (9) The student, no less than the native teacher, often had no defined aim in his/her work, and both were satisfied with a performance of elementary character; and
- (10) Insufficient time given to indigenous language work.

The South African College and the University of Cape of Good Hope ignored those challenges, and:

Different missionary societies were allowed to codify and develop the African languages according to their own agendas and according to their own limited abilities. This frequently meant that what could be seen as a range of closely related dialects were split into separate languages by separate missionary societies and developed as separate “languages” with separate writing systems (Cluver, 1996:16).

The truth of Cluver’s sentiment quoted above is strengthened by Heyns, Pieterse and Erasmus’ (1988) lists of different missionary activities on the writing of the first orthographies of the indigenous languages, including:

- (1) Sesotho was put into writing by French missionaries.
- (2) Setswana was first written by missionaries of the London Missionary Society.
- (3) Sepedi (Sesotho sa Leboa) was converted to writing by the Berliner Missionsgesellschaft.
- (4) Tshivenda was first written by the Berliner Missionsgesellschaft.

Note that the Nguni languages and Xitsonga are not included in Heyns et al.'s list. Secondly, the writing of the three Sotho languages (Sesotho, Setswana, Sepedi) was started by three different missionary societies. Lastly, the writings of Sepedi and Tshivenda were started by the same missionaries. As far as the Nguni languages and Xitsonga are concerned, only two of the Nguni group were committed to writing during this period, namely:

- (1) **IsiXhosa:** The London Missionary Society and Glasgow Society established a Presbytery. The printing department of this Presbytery printed the first isiXhosa primers and reading sheets in 1831.
- (2) **IsiZulu:** The American Mission exercised the greatest influence. This mission was the first body in Natal to issue literature in isiZulu.

Heyns et al., (1988:69) mention that Xitsonga's "literary development has been relatively slow." The first writings of the three Sotho languages support the statement of Cluver that 'what could be seen as a range of closely related dialects were split into separate languages by separate missionary societies and developed as separate "languages" with separate writing systems'. The fact that Sepedi and Tshivenda shared the same missionary society is a cause of concern. The missionaries' work was the starting point of diminished use and status of indigenous languages, a challenge for councils of the 23 universities. They hint at the fact that the missionaries were Westerners (Europeans) and that foreign influences dominated the lifestyles and languages of indigenous languages in South Africa as expressed by the following quotation:

Western civilisation has affected traditional Black lifestyles and cultures in many important ways, not least their languages. These are languages; rich as they are in vocabulary, and flexible as they may be in the expression of the ideas, could not define all the new things, all the content of the White man's civilisation. New words were needed to name new things, new forms of expression to convey new ideas (Ibid., 1988:69).

In this way dozens of English and Afrikaans words became incorporated in the various indigenous languages, for example, in isiZulu the word *ibhulukwe* (pair of trousers) comes from the Afrikaans word *broek*. In Sepedi (Sesotho sa Leboa), the word *diphilisi* comes from the English word pills. And the Xitsonga word *buku* comes from the English word 'book'.

There is no problem with borrowing; however there is a need to develop those indigenous languages which the councils of the 23 universities should address.

The 20th century began with a serious challenge to English domination. However, the challenge already began during the 19th century when:

British policies...led inexorably to a mass exodus of Afrikaners from the Cape from 1834 onwards. This emigration, called the Great Trek, was an extremely significant milestone in South African's history...The trekboers ...made roads and educated their children on their own. They have also developed their own language – Afrikaans. They were obstinate and individualistic and their only requirement of any government was that it should leave them alone (Louw & Louw, 1986:23).

The beginning of the 20th century was characterised by this mood. The following list of facts adapted from Louw and Louw (1986) outlines English versus mother tongue education

- (1) **1903:** Lord Milner wanted to Anglicise South Africa by force through education. In his Education Ordinance of 1903, he made English the sole medium in state schools. In contrast, the Dutch Reformed Church set up 'Chriselike Nasionale Onderwys' which gave primacy to the Dutch language and over 200 of these schools were established with no state aid;
- (2) **1905:** The Selborne Minute of 1905 considered that early instruction should be in the medium of the mother tongue;
- (3) **1907:** The Smuts Act of 1907 recognised Dutch, but knowledge of English remained a condition of promotion;
- (4) **1908:** The Hertzog Act introduced parallel medium of instruction at school: The Act laid down that up to standard 4 instruction was to be given through the medium of the mother tongue, whether English or Dutch.

The Smuts Act of 1907 first recognised Native education as an integral part of the system. The language clause (section 137) of Act 53 of 1909, laid down the principle of equality in languages (English and Dutch) by stating that:

Both the English and Dutch languages shall be official languages of the Union, and shall be treated on a footing of equality and enjoy equal freedom, rights and privileges (McKerron, 1934:127).

The purpose of this clause was to protect languages and cultures of the white man. Heyns et al., (1988:30) confirm:

Behind the case for federalism, especially as presented by the Natal delegates, was the fear that English, and English culture, would suffer in a single political system. Similar concern for Dutch ... was expressed by the delegation from Orange River Colony. There was general agreement, however, on the use of English and Dutch in Parliament and the courts, and the recognition of Dutch alongside English as an official language was never seriously challenged, but ...Hertzog and Steyn of the Orange River Colony felt that the position of their language should be secured beyond doubt.

After intense negotiation the resolution of making English and Dutch official languages of the Union, as quoted above, was adopted and incorporated in the South African Act, 1909 (Act 53 of 1909). It was the beginning of bilingualism in the country. This is an open challenge to the 23 universities' councils to acknowledge that giving a language official status secures its position beyond doubt. For instance, they should note that the use and status of English was guaranteed and secured when "in 1822, English became the sole official language of the Cape" (Louw & Louw, 1986:23). The changes of the Acts after every two years (four times from 1903 to 1908) was a way of making Dutch an official language of education before the establishment of the Union Government. Finally, the recognition of Dutch as an official language of the Union together with English confirms the importance of the official status. Nkuna (2010) identifies two categories of the official status of a language, namely:

- (1) Official language in terms of rights, privileges, prestige, power, etc, relative to others in the social hierarchy;
- (2) Official language in terms of the pattern of socially accepted and expected behaviours or the roles of language.

The two approaches are inseparable. Once a language is given a right, privilege, power and so on, as in the case of Dutch and English, automatically, its roles should be seen in practice, including in a higher education situation.

The recognition of the Dutch language by the Union Government "saw the rise of conscious language movement to win recognition of Afrikaans as a literary and official communication medium as well" (Heyns et al., 1988:78). Afrikaans is "the only Germanic language to have

originated outside Europe” (Ibid., 1988:75). In 1914, five years after the adoption of the South African Act, 1909 (Act 53 of 1909):

Nationalists broke away and formed the National Party (NP) to protect their interests in the face of what was perceived as an inordinate control of the civil service and business by English-speaking whites. Afrikaners, especially poor Afrikaners, felt marginalised in the Union, and this sense of alienation contributed enormously to the growth of a distinct Afrikaner national consciousness, which forged an Afrikaner identity based on a distinctive spoken language, a common religious faith (O’Malley, 2007 cited in Nkuna, 2010:48).

The break-away of the Nationalists helped the fast development of the use and status of Afrikaans for higher education, for example according to Du Plessis (2000) and McKerron (1934):

- (1) **1914:** Three Provincial Councils (Cape, Transvaal and Orange Free State) accepted the principle that the term ‘Dutch’ should include Afrikaans;
- (2) **1916:** Afrikaans was accepted, together with High Dutch, as the official language of the Dutch Reformed Church. And the three Provincial Councils made provisions for the use of Afrikaans as medium in school work;
- (3) **1925:** Act 8 of 1925 provided that the word ‘Dutch’ of section 137 of Act 53 of 1909 would also include Afrikaans, technically granting official language status to Afrikaans. For this legal reason, there was no way in which Dutch (Afrikaans) could be excluded from being an essential part of university education;
- (4) **1949:** There were two Afrikaans independent universities (Stellenbosch and Pretoria) and two Afrikaans constituent colleges (Potchefstroom and Orange Free State) of the University of South Africa. The establishment of those universities and constituent colleges of the University of South Africa was based on the University Act of 1916.

The fast development of the use and status of Afrikaans for higher education serves as a challenge to the councils of the 23 universities that once a language gains official status, anything is possible.

Conversely, this is not the only challenge when it comes to the development of the use and status of indigenous languages for higher education. By the 1930s the education curriculum of the Union government did not yet seem to have been adequately adapted to the needs of all

South Africans. There were also more factors affecting the language question for the education of indigenous people that became clear during the Union Government. For instance, the following four factors are identified when reading McKerron (1934):

- (1) Controversy raged around the question of the medium of instruction;
- (2) The Native himself often desired instruction through the English medium because he considered it to his material advantage to acquire a knowledge of English;
- (3) The European may advocate instruction through the Native language, hoping thereby to raise a barrier between European and non-European; and
- (4) The educator advocates early instructions through the mother tongue, but is faced by a bewildering number of dialects. He has to admit the lack of literature, and the inadequacy of the Native languages for even simple mathematical operations.

The factors listed above informed the primary language or language of tuition for indigenous people during the period until 1958. More English-speaking universities were established (Cape Town, Witwatersrand and Natal). These universities gave black students access to higher education at the time. An English constituent college (Rhodes) of the University of South Africa was established and admitted blacks, coloureds and Indians to advanced courses of post-graduate study and English remained the primary language or language of tuition in those three universities and Rhodes College. This brings back Ashcroft's (2001) aspects of language and race, and four main colonial powers controlling Africa. The former illustrated that 'the language of race always pushes the goal of integration to assimilation, where a black man could only become integrated when he started to behave like a white one'; and the latter pointed out that the policy of the British colonies gave power to the English-educated African élites. That was the work of English-speaking universities during the Union Government. Their colonial duty was recalled by Mandela (1994:103) when he wrote:

At the beginning of 1943 I enrolled at the University of the Witwatersrand ... the University of the Witwatersrand known to all as 'Wits,'... and is considered by many to be the premier English-speaking University in South Africa...The English-speaking universities of South Africa were great incubators of liberal values. It was a tribute to these institutions that they allowed black students. For the Afrikaans universities, such a thing was unthinkable. Despite the university's liberal values, I never felt entirely comfortable there. Always to be the only African, except for menial workers, to be regarded at best as a curiosity and at worst as an interloper, is not a congenial experience. My manner was always guarded, and I met both generosity and animosity. Although I was to discover a core of sympathetic

whites who became friends and later colleagues, most of the whites at Wits were not liberal or colour-blind. I recall getting to a lecture a few minutes late one day and taking a seat next to Sarel Tighy, a classmate who later became a Member of Parliament for the United Party... he ostentatiously collected his things and moved to a seat away from me. This type of behaviour was the rule rather than the exception. No one uttered the word 'kaffir'; their hostility was more muted, but I felt it just the same.

The use and status of English also dominated at the South African Native College at Fort Hare – the first higher education institution established for blacks in 1916 by the Scottish missionaries (Mandela, 1994). This College was:

Aided and controlled by the Union Department of Education, Arts and Science under the provisions of the Higher Education Act of 1923 and not under the legislation affecting other university institutions (The Union of South Africa, 1951:68).

Fort Hare was started as a pure racial university for blacks, but it also admitted both Coloureds and Indian students. IsiXhosa became an essential part of Fort Hare. Professor Jabavu who had a Doctorate in English taught isiXhosa at Fort Hare (Mandela, 1994). However, English rather than isiXhosa was the primary language or language of tuition in this College – the result of colonisation.

The English-speaking, Afrikaans-speaking and black universities, as well as the dominance of English still pose challenges to the councils of the 23 universities. Developing the use and status of indigenous languages is not about double standards, as was observed in an historically white-speaking university like Wits. Developing the use and status of indigenous languages requires integrity on the part of management and all the parties involved.

Note that there were understandings among three provinces (Cape, Orange Free State and Transvaal) in the advancement of Afrikaans to attain official status and it became part of school and university education. Such understandings were invisible in the case of the advancement of indigenous languages. For instance, the *Report of the Commission on Native Education 1949-1951* outlines the different approaches by different provinces on the choice of language media for the schools of indigenous people. The media of instruction for the schools of indigenous people were different in the four provinces (Cape, Natal, Orange Free State and Transvaal). Furthermore, as in the case of Afrikaans, the four provinces did not push for the

indigenous languages to become official languages. These two factors alone hampered the development of the use and status of indigenous languages for higher education.

Reaction by the black population against English domination and colonisation is revealed by Gevisser, when referring to the time of the birth of the second democratically elected president of South Africa, Mr Thabo Mbeki. Gevisser (2007:32) writes:

It was also the time when black South Africans ...began to reject, forcefully, the colonial aspirations of their own parents; when they declared the identity of the 'black English-man' – which, ironically, gave them the personal autonomy to do so – and replaced with that of the 'New African', a phrase coined by HIE Dhlomo, the preeminent black dramatist and essayist of the time. The New African, Dhlomo wrote, 'knows where he belongs and what belongs to him; where he is going and how; what he wants and the methods to obtain it'; he is proud, patriotic, sensitive, alive, and sure of himself and his ideas and ideals.

More concepts were developed by the black politicians to replace concepts relating to the black-English man, during and after the period of Union Government. These include, African Nationalism, Nationalism, Africanism, Pan Africanism and Black Consciousness. Moreover, Mandela (1994:202) writes:

The Congress of the People took place at Kliptown... on two clear sunny days, 25 and 26 June 1995 ...There were dozens of songs and speeches ...On the afternoon of the first day, the charter was read aloud, section by section, to the people in English, Sesotho and Xhosa. After each section, the crowd shouted its approval with cries of 'Afrika!' and 'Mayibuye!'

The writings of Gevisser and Mandela quoted above are reminders to the 23 universities' councils that the rejection of English and colonial domination did not start today. It was there in principle more than 68 years ago and the final demand of the rights of the people was signed 55 years ago when the Freedom Charter was adopted in 1955. It is important to note that the presentation of the Freedom Charter in three languages (English, Sesotho and isiXhosa) was a sign of multilingualism, because the Nguni group and the Sotho group could all understand the information in the Charter. The white people (including Afrikaners) could understand the Freedom Charter from the English version. The Tshivenda-speaking people and Xitsonga-speaking people were not catered for by the Freedom Charter. However, the content of the Freedom Charter did not discriminate. For instance, the second clause of the Freedom Charter states:

ALL NATIONAL GROUPS SHALL HAVE EQUAL RIGHTS ...All people shall have equal rights to use their own language and to develop their own folk culture and customs” (Ibid., 1994:204)

What matters is that, the call for equality on language use and status was recorded in that specific document – a serious challenge to the 23 universities’ councils or those of any other public higher education institutions operating in South Africa. They will have to refer or adapt to that clause of the Freedom Charter when developing the use and status of indigenous languages for higher education.

(c) Apartheid

“In South Africa and internationally the concept of apartheid is firmly linked with Afrikaner nationalism” (Louw & Louw, 1986:31). Referring to apartheid, Heyns et al., (1988:177) say: “This was the position in 1948 when the National Party (NP) won the election on the platform of ‘apartheid’ (an Afrikaans word meaning ‘the state of being apart’)”. Mandela (1994:127) maintains:

Apartheid was a new term but an old idea. It literally means ‘apartness’ and it represented the codification in one oppressive system of all the laws and regulations that had kept Africans in an inferior position to whites for centuries.

Essentially, apartheid started within eight years after the arrival of the Dutch in 1652. Louw and Louw (1986:31) write:

Most people believe that the Afrikaner both invented and implemented apartheid, and is entirely to blame for it. This is completely untrue. The first apartheid law was passed in 1660, only a few years after whites arrived in the Cape, when Van Riebeeck planted his hedge of bitter almonds to keep the Hottentots and free burgers apart. The first separate school for blacks was established in 1663 and in 1678.

This supports the view of Mandela as quoted above, that the term apartheid was new but it was an old idea. Apartheid was called Colonialism of a Special Type (CST) by the South African Communist Party (SACP), arguing that black South Africa was a colony of white South Africa (O’Malley, 2007). This challenges the 23 universities’ councils to acknowledge this fact. This will help them to understand that the development of the use and status of indigenous languages does not mean diminishing the use and status of Afrikaans (the

language of the Nationalists). Four ideas were at the heart of apartheid according to Vietor (2007). They are:

- (1) The population was composed of four racial groups – white, coloured, Indian, and African – each with its own culture;
- (2) Whites, the most civilised, were entitled to absolute control over the state;
- (3) White interest should prevail over black interest; and
- (4) Whites composed a single nation (of British and Afrikaners), while blacks belonged to ten geographically distinct groups, eventually organised in reserves.

These four ideas were brought forward by former Prime Ministers Malan and Verwoerd when they decided:

The only way to prevent whites, and particularly Afrikaners, from being submerged by blacks and losing their cultural identity was to separate the two races completely. Legislation was therefore, aimed at consolidating social, residential, cultural, economic and political apartheid, with the ultimate goal of ending all interaction between racial groups except on a superficial level in the work place (Louw & Louw, 1986:40).

The legislation that diminished the use and status of indigenous languages was part of cultural apartheid. Councils of the 23 universities should contemplate the significance of the statement of the Kenyan novelist Ngugi (1986:13) that “any language has dual character: it is a means of communication and a carrier of culture.” Management should develop the use and status of indigenous languages for higher education bearing in mind the integration of both communication and culture. However, the aim in apartheid politics was not the development of the use and status of indigenous languages, but to develop the use and status of Afrikaans, while diminishing the use and status of indigenous languages. Along these lines, Louw and Louw (1986:41) confirm:

In order to keep black and white cultures separate, the Bantu Education Act (No 47 of 1953) and the Extension of University Education Act (No 45 of 1959) both allowed for segregated education. Prior to this, there was virtually no government education for blacks but a very effective system of mission schools.

The 23 universities’ councils need to understand how the Extension of University Education Act (No 45 of 1959) affected the use and status of indigenous languages. This will help them

to adhere to the necessary changes that need to be made towards developing the use and status of indigenous languages for higher education. Referring to the damage caused by this Act, Asmal (2002:160) says:

Universities were established within the Bantustans in order to impose separate identities on the people who were forced to attend these dismal places. Afrikaans institutions were expected to defend Afrikaans nationalism and exclusivity. The majority of academics at higher education institutions quietly worked within the apartheid system without questioning its premise, turning a blind eye to its injustices.

Asmal was an Education Minister of the democratic government when he wrote those words. Hence, the 23 universities' councils, and the academics of those universities or institutions should assess how they are touched by Asmal's comments and act appropriately.

The Bantustan universities created through the 1959 Proclamations on higher education were implemented mainly from the 1960s. For instance, Horrell (1968:115) maintains:

A proclamation issued in December 1960 stated that no further Africans would be allowed to register for the first time at an Open University (other than at the University of South Africa, which provides correspondence classes only).

The above quotation from Horrell refers to proclamation No. 434 of 1960. The University of South Africa had four language departments at the time according to Horrell (1968). They were:

- (1) Department of Afrikaans;
- (2) Department of English;
- (3) Department of Bantu Languages; and
- (4) Department of Classical Languages.

This is the first clear and negative impact of the Extension of University Education Act (No 45 of 1959) that needs to be addressed when developing the use and status of indigenous languages. The 23 universities' councils should note that the Act resulted on Afrikaans and English gaining special use and status at the University of South Africa in the 1960s. Indigenous languages which were called Bantu languages by the University were given equal status with Classical Languages. Like Classical languages which were grouped together to

form the Department of Classical Languages, the indigenous languages were grouped together to form the Department of Bantu Languages. Most of the university colleges, including the North and Zululand started as branches of the University of South Africa – they practised what was practised by their master when it came to teaching, learning and research.

The establishment of two university colleges – the University College of the North and the University College of Zululand by the Extension of University Education Act (No 45 of 1959) intensified the ethnicity that further built up the race and language card started during the colonial period. The three Bantustan universities were:

- (1) University College of Fort Hare that was restricted to admit isiXhosa speakers or people of Fingo origin;
- (2) University College of the North at Turfloop that was established to serve speakers of Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, Northern Ndebele, Tshivenda and Xitsonga; and
- (3) University College of Zululand at Ngoye that was established to serve isiZulu and siSwati speakers.

Seven of the indigenous languages (isiXhosa, isiZulu, Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, Tshivenda and Xitsonga) were studied and researched at the Bantustan University Colleges. At Fort Hare, only isiXhosa was studied and researched; isiZulu at the University College of Zululand; and Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, Tshivenda and Xitsonga at the University College of the North. These indigenous languages were also studied and researched in the Department of Bantu Languages at the University of South Africa. The style of teaching and research originated from the University of South Africa and was also used by those colleges. Afrikaans and English were the media of instruction so as to impart habits of investigation and of discussion and composition in English or Afrikaans and an acquaintance with the history and moral behaviour of the indigenous people of South Africa – the same style was used to teach Ancient languages at the South African College in 1829.

South Africa gained independence from the United Kingdom in 1961. An apartheid Constitution legislated a Language Clause (section 119) of Act 32 of 1961 that provided for Afrikaans and English as official languages at national level and for the indigenous languages as official languages at regional level in the so called Bantustans (Du Plessis, 2000). This did not change the status of indigenous languages at the country's universities. Afrikaans and English remained dominant. However, it was only in 1975 when Setswana began to be

studied and researched in Setswana at the University College of the North. Xitsonga and Tshivenda followed, and then Sepedi also followed (Nkuna, 2006). In 1983, the White Referendum approved government tri-cameral proposals. The language clause (section 89) of Act 110 of 1983 provided for Afrikaans and English as official languages at national level and for the indigenous languages as official languages at regional level, in the so called Bantustans. The co-official status of Afrikaans and Dutch was repealed (Du Plessis, 2000). This clause gave more power to Afrikaans, both in the government and at the universities.

The 23 universities' councils will have to compare the apartheid language clauses and their impact on those Bantustan universities. This should help them to come up with a new strategy which will help them to develop the use and status of indigenous languages for the university concerned without any form of discrimination. Those university councils will have to avoid the cut and paste strategy initially used by the Bantustan universities (copying from what was practised by the University of South Africa) at the Department of Bantu Languages.

Language supremacy became a major challenge that emerged during apartheid. In line with this challenge, Mandela (1994:128) states:

The Nationalists' victory was the beginning of the end of the domination of the Afrikaners by the Englishman. English would now take second place to Afrikaans as an official language. The Nationalists' slogan encapsulated their mission: '*Eie volk, eie taal, eie land*' – Our own people, our own language, our own land.' In the distorted cosmology of the Afrikaner, the Nationalist victory was like the Israelites' journey to the Promised Land.

In the context of this study, the competition between Afrikaans and English is clearly seen when it comes to the primary language of an institution or language of tuition (see Table 2.13 below).

primary education produced a strong educated class that has in turn given us a sophisticated class of political leaders and a sophisticated following – a real threat to white supremacy (Mphahlele, 1963 cited in Ngugi, 1997:54).

The 23 universities' councils must consider this challenge. They must not stand back and blame the democratic government when experiencing problems in their development of the use and status of indigenous languages for higher education.

Ngugi (1997) has commented much on Mphahlele's view. His comments include the following:

- (1) Mphahlele could not see that the South African government did not want English, not because of any mystical political qualities inherent in the language, but because of an uncensored and uncensorable wide range of material available in the language;
- (2) Japanese and Chinese languages have produced a degree of sophistication among their leaders and followers without English being the medium of instruction. Why this assumption that African languages would necessarily arrest the mental development of Africans? Ancient Egypt, Ethiopia, Ghana, Songhai, Zimbabwe, Mali used African languages and there is no evidence of mental underdevelopment.
- (3) What Ezekiel Mphahlele genuinely feared was that with the government in control of the publishing houses of African languages and with its control of the education system including the curricula, the government hoped to control the content of what people would read. This was easy because there was relatively little written in African languages as opposed to what was available in European languages.
- (4) English was also the language of power, and exclusion from it meant being weakened when it came to articulation of desires. If Zulu was the language of power those who did not know it would be equally disadvantaged. The apartheid regime's sinister policies had nothing to do with the inherent superiority of English and European languages over African languages.

Mphahlele understood the country's politics, however, he lacked strategy to use that may encounter apartheid as happened in other countries, including, African countries. The 23 universities' councils must take Mphahlele's experience as a point of departure.

English and Afrikaans are seen to be competing for supremacy in higher education institutions. Indigenous languages were left in the dark. Cluver (1996:15) maintains:

The tensions between the forces that promoted these two languages have helped to distort our vision of the language situation in the country. For instance, in the battle of supremacy between Afrikaans and English, African languages tended to be ignored by successive central governments. The Soweto uprising of 1976 showed clearly how wrong this policy was. This battle of supremacy must also be seen as one of the factors why neither of the two languages has been spread very efficiently amongst black South Africans. After the National Party took over the government in 1948, the Afrikaans language was developed so that it now occupies an advantaged position in comparison with the African languages and competes with English in most undergraduate courses. After 1976 English became the main language of teaching and learning in most schools of African children.

Councils of the 23 universities should begin to put the battle of language supremacy between Afrikaans and English at rest. This will also help them to avoid the promotion of supremacy among the indigenous languages.

(d) Democracy

Subsections (a) to (c) of the political environment show that racism, colonisation and apartheid are undemocratic practices. Luthuli (1958:1) says:

Those of us who are in the struggle in this country have really only one gospel ... it is a gospel of freedom and democracy. If we are true to South Africa, that must be our vision, a vision of South Africa as a fully democratic country. It cannot be honestly the majority – are still subjected to apartheid rule. I emphasise the words are still, because I do believe firmly that it is not a state that can be perpetuated. Apartheid rule is the antithesis of democracy. Apartheid – in theory and practice – is an effort, to make Africans march back to tribalism.

Councils of the 23 universities must consider this challenge. Maintaining the use and status of indigenous languages for education on a regional basis, is a way of maintaining section 119 of Act 32 of 1961. This is an apartheid law, and not a democratic law. Sections 6 and 29 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (Act 108 of 1996) contain democratic information on languages. The Government Language Policies are about democracy and actions by liberation movements including the adoption of the Freedom Charter in 1955. Democracy negates colonisation and apartheid policies, while promoting multilingualism, freedom and equality. Thus, the 23 universities' councils should adhere to Mandela's views that:

What is important is not only to attain victory for democracy, it is to retain democracy. Democracy and human rights are inseparable. A democratic political order must be based on the majority principle, especially in a country where the vast majority have been systematically denied their rights (Crwys-Williams, 2004:30).

The majority means the whole population of the country or the Rainbow Nation. The term Rainbow Nation is a description of the:

...Euphoric aftermath of the transition from (white) minority to majority rule. The term captures the extraordinary diversity of races, tribes, creeds, languages and landscape that characterises modern South Africa. It is redolent of hope and promise. Yet the after effects of the country's divisive past are still with us and the goal of racial harmony remains elusive. Nevertheless, South Africa's tribes and peoples have learned to live with one another and even to celebrate their differences (Editors Inc, 2009:33).

Multilingualism is a resource. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (Act 108 of 1996) and the Government language policies show how the country and its government are committed to multilingualism. Thus, the 23 universities' councils should encourage the development of institutional language policy that promotes multilingualism. There are twelve attributes of multilingualism that can be identified according to Nkuna (2010). The attributes are:

- (1) Heterogeneity;
- (2) Many tongues/ languages in usage, action, practice, condition, principle, characteristics or doctrine;
- (3) Democracy;
- (4) None-discriminatory to other languages, especially official languages;
- (5) Respect for all languages spoken and used, not only by first language speakers, but also spoken by many as a second language;
- (6) Enabling everyone to participate in the life of a multicultural nation by ensuring continued respect for all common languages and the many other languages that contribute to the rich national cultural heritage;
- (7) Excels at delivering the benefits a nation truly desires;
- (8) Stays relevant to the nation, region and the globe;
- (9) Properly positioned;
- (10) Consistent;
- (11) Given proper support, and that support is sustained over the long run; and

- (12) Managers at the institutional level understand what ‘multilingualism’ means to the institution or organisation/ community/ students.

Freedom and rights are in the heart of democracy. To succeed in developing the use and status of indigenous languages for higher education, the 23 universities’ councils will have to understand the freedom and rights of people who speak the languages. They should also understand the freedom and rights of the students, academics and any other individuals relating to the university or institution concerned. Mandela maintains:

There is no easy walk to freedom...Too many have suffered for the love of freedom... There is no such thing as part freedom...No South African should rest and wallow in the joy of freedom. To men, freedom in their own land is the pinnacle of their ambitions, from which nothing can turn men of conviction aside...To overthrow oppression is the highest aspiration of every free man...A man who takes away another man’s freedom is a prisoner of hatred...To be free is not merely to cast off one’s chains, but to live in a way that respects and enhances the lives of others. For as long as legitimate bodies of opinion feel stifled, vile minds will take advantage of justifiable grievances to destroy, to kill and to maim (Crwys-Williams, 2004:37).

The emotional climate and culture discussed previously under the subsection on demographic factors is also observed when it comes to freedom. Some members of the population still practice oppressive tendencies of racism, colonisation and apartheid. For instance, a shallow proposal was made by the English Language Body (ENLB) that decisions on language policy formulation should be taken on the basis of the extent of its use. What they know is the fact that English gained its dominance, while the other ten official languages (especially the nine indigenous languages) were marginalised. ENLB “ignores that as far as languages are concerned, the indigenous African languages in the longer term, should become the most important means of communication in everyday life” (Nkuna, 2010:63). This is a move towards sustaining racism, colonial and apartheid practices and an attempt to continue with a diminished use and status of indigenous languages – a challenge even to councils of the 23 universities. Debates involving the choice between African languages or English and Afrikaans have dominated the universities since 1996. Some of those views as adapted from Swanepoel, Kilfoil, Swanepoel and Moeketsi (1996) are given below:

- (1) In practice and policy UNISA has always, albeit in a limited way, promoted multilingualism. It has recognised the official status of English and Afrikaans and this is now enjoined by our Constitution not to diminish their status;

- (2) I came to the conclusion that it is highly unlikely that African languages would, in the short term be developed as medium of instruction at tertiary level. English will remain the medium of instruction at tertiary level for some time to come. In terms of the language-as-a-resource approach, I suggest that African languages should be used where possible as assistant languages in the learning process;
- (3) It would benefit the Africans to coin a million terms in chemistry;
- (4) My home language is Setswana, but I prefer my medium of instruction at UNISA to be English;
- (5) At home we speak Sotho, but if you ask me which Sotho I couldn't answer you because we speak everything: Sesotho mixed with Sepedi mixed with Setswana with all the things, but at school I did Shangaan (Xitsonga). And somebody expects me to be fluent in English. How am I supposed to do that? I'm fluent with all these other languages, but not English and when I came to UNISA they asked me "Do you speak two languages – just only two languages – either English or Afrikaans. Which one am I good at? None;
- (6) I am using English as my language of instruction and learning. My home language is isiZulu. Well, I can express myself and am fluent in isiZulu...the reason I am competent in English, it is because all of the university academic developments in apartheid South Africa were in English and Afrikaans and again it is because of the international status that English is particularly enjoying. We should remember that colonialism was aimed at destroying all aspects that distinguished Africans as people. This is how our African languages development was restarted;
- (7) Only in the case of Arts and maybe Education, could a case be made for further languages namely Zulu (isiZulu), Northern Sotho (Sepedi) and Xhosa (isiXhosa).

It is clear from the first three statements that all three the academics were perpetuating the prevailing situation – racism, colonisation and apartheid. For them a thing such as 'part freedom', disputed by Mandela in the above quotation, seemed to exist. Their statements were challenged by students, especially in comments (5) and (6). The two students were seeking freedom that they did not seem to have, as the university was still practicing the old language policy informed by racism, colonisation and apartheid. Comment (4) by the Motswana student cannot be disputed, as she opted for English out of her own volition. Statements (2) and (7) reflect rather half-hearted attempts at change, but they still represent the academic preparedness to keep indigenous languages in a diminished state. Academics also have

academic freedom. The responsibility lies with the council and the senate of the university concerned (University of South Africa in this case) to take a responsible decision, while bearing in mind the best and the worst ideas that come from universities or higher education institutions, and that “universities are the intellectual life-blood of our society” (Asmal, 2002:159). The 23 universities’ councils should be advised:

The germ of freedom is in every individual, in anyone who is a human being. In fact, the history of mankind is the history of ... striving for freedom. Indeed the very apex of human achievement is FREEDOM...Every human being struggles to reach that apex (Luthuli, 1958:1).

The three academics in comments (1), (2) and (3) may be happy because of section 16(2) (d) of the Constitution, 1996 (Act 108 of 1996) that covers them. However, their argument was based on the Interim constitution of 1993. Asmal (2002) gives some advice on academic freedom, including:

- (1) Academic freedom means freedom from external interference in who is to teach, what is to be taught, how teaching is to take place and who is to be taught;
- (2) Academic freedom serves the interests of the people and the whole community;
- (3) The freedom of a university is the freedom to serve the people;
- (4) Our exercise of academic freedom demands that we break with the past in order to plan for a better future;
- (5) Academic freedom was certainly expressed in the Freedom Charter and its demand that the doors of learning and culture should be open to all, to which many subscribed;
- (6) Academic freedom must become freedom to fully develop the potential of our land and above all of its people;
- (7) Academic freedom is about building a-new and contributing in profound and far-reaching ways to social development; and
- (8) The battle of academic freedom should be the battle about preventing the reification of knowledge;

Developing the use and status of indigenous languages for higher education requires the understanding of those facts of academic freedom as listed above. Understanding academic freedom can lead to the understanding of linguistic rights of the community of the university concerned.

2.4 LITERATURE ON THE INTERNAL ENVIRONMENT

The literature review for the external environment in section 2.3 reveals useful information that councils can watch out for when they engage in developing the use and status of indigenous languages for higher education. The focus in this literature review of the internal environment is on the three factors which were identified in chapter 1, namely vision, governance, and access to factors of production.

2.4.1 Vision

The leading literature regarding this factor is found in *Harvard Business Review* articles. In one of those articles, Kouzes and Posner (2009:21) maintain:

The only visions that take hold are shared visions – and you will create them only when you listen very, very closely to others, appreciate their hopes, and attend to their needs. The best leaders are able to bring their people into the future because they engage in the oldest form of research: They observe the human condition.

Freedom and democracy are the hopes and needs of South Africans. Councils of the 23 universities can only achieve shared visions if they listen very, very closely to the needs and hopes of freedom and democracy. Multilingualism, linguistic rights and equality are the cornerstones of freedom and democracy required by people within the 23 universities of the country. To this end, Stone (1996:14) asserts:

Building a vision is not about writing formal statements or establishing stretch goals – although those activities will sometimes be useful. Rather it is about people discovering who they truly are as an organisation so that they can go on with the work of initiating growth and change.

Self-determination introduced in the review of the external environment begins inside the university. The comments by the three UNISA students are what self-determination is searching. The question that should be asked by councils and senate of the various universities is: Do their institutions have shared vision? Do their visions have value to the community of people within those universities? Thus, councils of the 23 universities should adapt to the fact that:

Building a visionary company requires 1% vision and 99% alignment. When you have superb alignment, a visitor could drop from outer space and infer

your vision from the operations and activities of the company without ever reading it on paper or meeting a single senior executive. Creating alignment may be your most important work. But the first step will always be to recast your vision or mission into an effective context... If you do it right, you shouldn't have to do it again for at least a decade (Collins & Porras, 1996:77)

Building a South African university requires the same 1% vision and 99% alignment. In contrast to 1% vision and 99% alignment, the literature concludes:

The vision of South African universities serving particular function, and one that is peculiarly not a social function – they shelter the search for truths that benefit nobody, or at least nobody in particular, and nobody predictably...is an ideal rather than a reality. It is the romantic mirror image of the ritualistic invocation of Gramsci's 'organic intellectual' as one who struggles to 'change minds, mould progressive systems of thought, and' – in interesting domestication – one who also works to 'expand markets' (Moran, 2002:174).

The 23 universities are lagging behind in addressing the requirements of an equitable education system. They are also lagging behind in discovering who they truly are as institutions so that they can go on with the work of initiating growth and change the use and status of indigenous languages. Thus, the alignment is wrong.

Creating alignment is the most important work of the councils of the 23 universities. But the first step (especially for the five universities that include the University of Stellenbosch) will always be to redefine their vision statements into an effective national and democratic context. All these should be given a longer period (at least 10 years) for execution.

2.4.2 Governance

The way in which the university "is organised and departments are created according to functions, is determined by the size and extent of the activities" (Marx et al., 1998:44). On the other hand university councils pay more attention to improving their institutional behaviour, group dynamics, balances of power, and decision-making processes than transforming those institutions. Taking concepts from the corporate perspective Neff and Daum (2008:62) maintain:

But too little attention has been paid to the process of getting the right people into the boardroom in the first place. There's been scant commentary on the potential larger crisis in corporate governance: the dearth of willing and able CEO-level directors.

So, the 23 universities' councils should take note of the major challenges of the governance factor when fitting their institutional language policies into government language policies with the objective of developing the use and status of indigenous languages to become part of their universities' education. Those major challenges include:

(a) Making decisions

This challenge was introduced in section 2.2 (Literature on 'when does a language become an essential part of university education?'). The emphasis was on the decision to trust as one of the two leads towards designation of a language becoming an essential part of university education. The Value-Based Decision Making Model was identified. The question here is: How do well-run university councils make decisions? The councils in the 23 universities have to make decisions on institutional language policy based on their agreement with the senate. In some universities the senate is still dominated by professors who are racially, colonially and apartheid minded. You still find professors who are controlled by emotional climate and culture and who belong to a group culture against the national culture and a group culture that is in conflict with the university's culture. Thus, it is obvious that a poorly run university council may make wrong decisions on institutional language policies.

Useem (2006:138) maintains: "Decision-making norms take shape in a common-law fashion, incorporating lessons learned from previous applications." Good decisions about institutional language policy and equally recognition of indigenous languages can move a university to the next transformation level. Thus, a university council together with the senate will have to create a customised set of guidelines that will promote effective council decision making – the essence of good governance.

(b) Policy formulation

Garratt (2003) identifies a three-level hierarchy in organisations: Policy, strategy and tactics/operations. He says:

Policy and strategy are the words of the board and directors. The remaining 99 percent of the people in the organisation will spend their lives in the operations loops of learning, dealing tactically with the immediate problems, crises and deviations from plans. This is both necessary and sufficient for work groups, but it should not preclude them from having an input on policy and strategy (Garratt, 2003:27).

In the context of the 23 universities, ‘board’ and ‘directors’ mean councils and members. The discussions on membership of both the university council and senate indicated that the remaining 99% of the people are represented in two structures: council and senate (section 1.2.2 (b) of chapter 1). It was also confirmed in section 27(2) of the Higher Education Act, 1997 (Act 101 of 1997) that the council in concurrence with the senate must determine the institutional language policy of the university concerned.

The question is: What is the function of the council or the senate? To answer the question one has to note how the concepts are mainly used in the corporate world. Hence, it is necessary to clarify the following point:

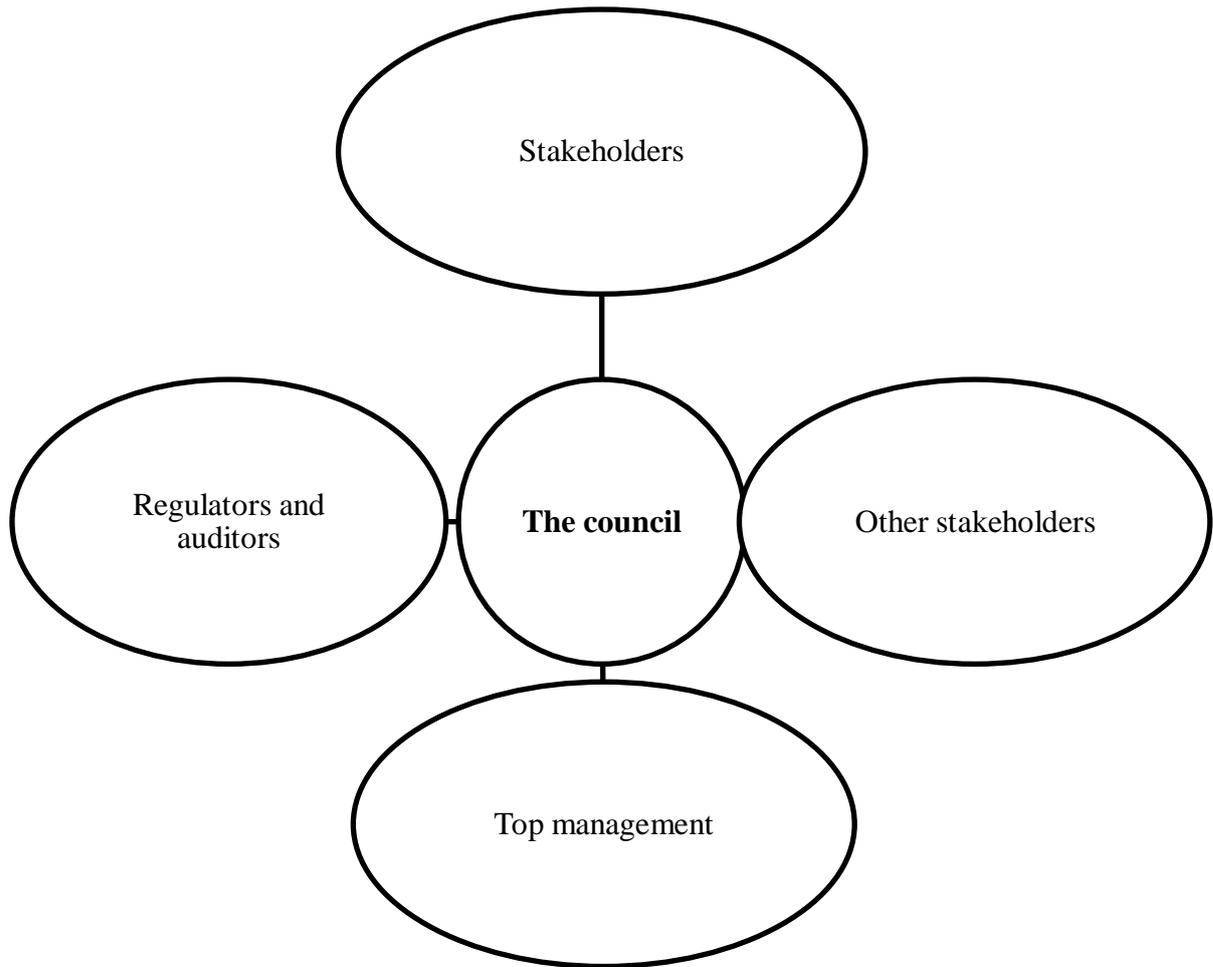
The governing body of the profit-oriented companies is typically called the board, but in non-for-profit entities it might be called the council, the committee, the senate or some other name – but essential governance issues remain similar (Tricker, 2003:14).

In the context of this study it was indicated in section 1.2.2 (b) that the governing body of a university is the council and the senate is accountable to the council. Both council and the senate can appoint committees. Along these lines, one can adapt the function of the council from the following quotation:

On the one hand in formulating strategy, the board is looking ahead in time, and externally in direction, at the firm in its strategic environment. Strategies then need to be translated into policies to guide the executive management within the firm. On the other hand, the board needs to monitor and supervise the activities of the executive management, looking inwards at recent past performance and current management situations. Finally, accountability involves reflecting corporate activities and performance to the shareholders with legitimate claims to accountability (Ibid., 2003:14).

From the quotations the following concepts need to be translated into the context of the study: board, firm, corporate and shareholders. In this context board is a council, firm is a university, corporate can be retained but it means the entire business of the university and shareholders refers to stakeholders. Two structures can be used to explain the above process (see Figure 2.4 below).

Figure 2.4: The relationship and boundaries of university governance

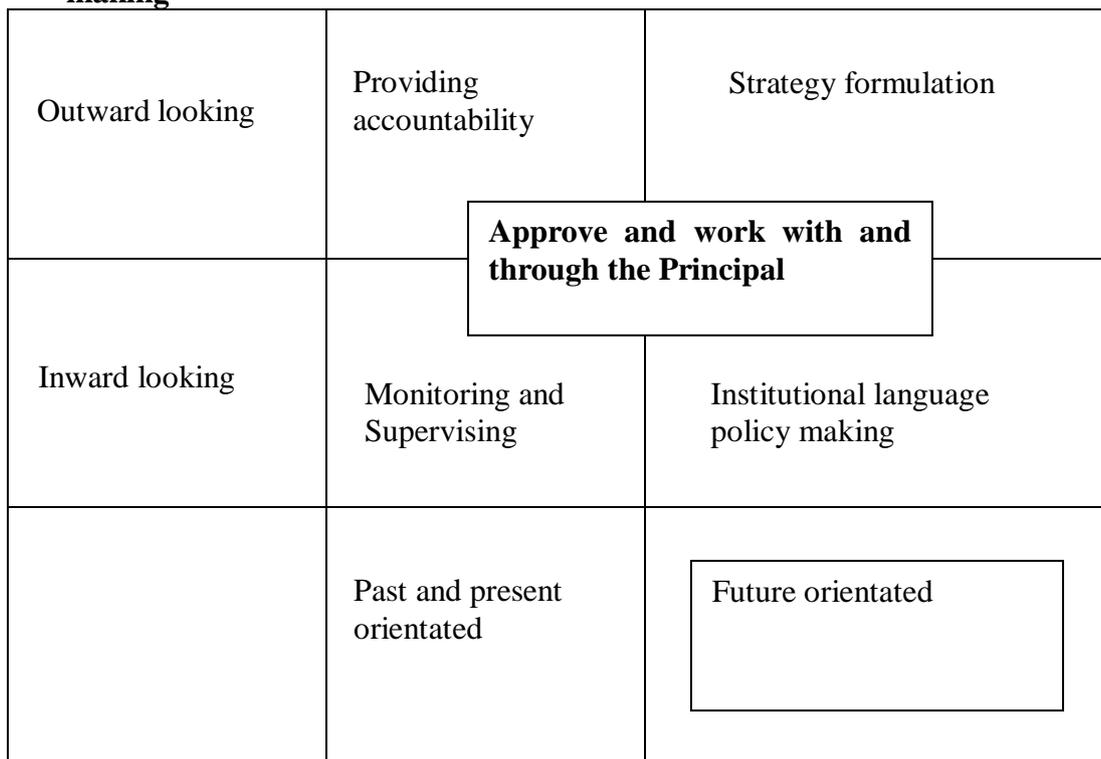


Source: Adapted from Tricker (2003)

The stakeholders include the government that has policies (Education and language policies), the university employees, students and their parents and National Language Bodies (NLBs). Regulators and auditors might be the Department of Education represented by the Council of Higher Education. The Pan South African Language Board can form part of the regulators. Other stakeholders can be donors and institutions interested in language development.

The activities of the council can be analysed in a particular way (see Figure 2.5 below).

Figure 2.5: The framework for analysing council activities on institutional policy making



Source: Adapted from Hilmer and Tricker (1991) cited in Tricker (2003)

The members of the council must look internally (inside the university) and externally (outside the university), in the past, present and future. They have to position the university in all the macro-environment factors (demographic, institutional, international and political) including other factors such as economic, physical and technological. They have to answer the questions: What is happening with indigenous languages in the external environment? What is our vision? What was the use and status of indigenous languages in the past? What is their use and status now? Where do we want to put their use and status in the future? Garratt (2003:57) says “policy formulation is the least understood, and so least visited, aspect of directing.”

If one looks at the top right-hand quadrant in Figure 2.5, ‘strategy formulation’ is used instead of ‘policy formulation’. In this case Tricker (2003:16) asserts:

Some people ... prefer to reserve the term ‘policy making’ for the activities in the top right-hand quadrant, arguing that this term more nearly reflects the popular use of the word ‘policy’, particularly in government circles – for example, in reference to the policy studies which then can lead to the strategies needed to carry them out.

Councils will have to think carefully whether it is policy first or strategy. The council has to define a purpose to which all members of the university “can commit, and create an emotional climate within which all stakeholders want to commit” Garratt (2003:60). So, a council also has conformance and performance roles (see Figure 2.6 below).

Figure 2.6: Further insights into council-level activities

Outward looking	Conformance roles	Performance roles
	Past and present orientated	Future orientated
Inward looking		

Source: Adapted from Tricker (2003)

Figure 2.5 can be redrawn to provide a further insight into the exploration of the council level activities relevant to the institutional language policy project of a university. The left- and right-hand sides of the matrix contain essentially different types of activities (see Figure 2.5). On the right, strategy formulation and institutional language policy making are activities that contribute to the performance (see Figure 2.6) of the university; they emphasise the setting of direction whereas those activities on the left – supervision and accountability – are about ensuring conformance to the policies and plans.

(c) Execution and control.

“No sports team can score if the players don’t know what play is called... companies that out-execute their competitors have communicated crystal-clear messages to all their employees” (Gerstner, 2002:233). See examples of messages according to Gerstner namely:

- (1) “This is our mission.”
- (2) “This is our strategy.”
- (3) “This is how you carry out your job.”

But high-quality execution cannot simply be a matter of catchphrase and message; it should flow openly and unconsciously, not from procedures and rule books. “Manuals may play a role in early training activities, but they have limited value in the heat of battle” (Ibid., 2002:233). Therefore, execution is the critical component of the institutional language policy

success. Councils of the 23 universities should understand the meaning of execution. Bossidy, Charan & Burck (2002) define execution as follows:

- (1) Execution is a discipline, the major job of the business leader and it must be a core element of an organisation's culture; and
- (2) The heart of execution lies in the three core processes: the people process, the strategy process and the operations process.

Thus, the execution of the institutional language policy of the university concerned is a discipline, the major job of the university principal and it must be a core element of the university's culture. There are three crucial aspects for the execution of an institutional language policy. The three aspects are:

- (1) As a discipline the heart of execution in this case lies with people, institutional language policy and operations;
- (2) As a major job of the principal of the university concerned, the principal has to engage personally and deeply in the execution of the institutional language policy; and
- (3) As a core element of the university's culture, the execution of an institutional language policy of the university concerned should be embedded in the reward systems and in the norms of behaviour that everyone practices.

Everybody involved in the university concerned should take up their responsibility in getting the institutional language policy executed. The processes are also tightly linked with one another, not compartmentalized among staff members. The institutional language policy should take account of people and operational realities. People should be chosen and promoted in the light of the institutional language policy and operational plans. Operations should be linked to the goals of the institutional language policy and human capabilities. The principal must be in charge of facilitating the execution of the institutional language policy by running the three core processes – picking other leaders, setting direction of the university's institutional language policy and conducting operations. Only the principal can set the tone of the dialogue in relation to the execution of his or her university's institutional language policy.

The institutional language policy of a university has to be part of the institutional culture, driving the behaviour of all leaders at all levels. Execution of an institutional language policy should begin with the senior leaders, but the people who are not senior leaders can still use an institutional language policy in their institutions. They build and demonstrate their skills. The results will be a democratic and multilingual university that practices language rights, freedom and equality – and may just persuade others in the institution to do the same.

So, execution of the institutional language policy, should raise the use and status of the indigenous languages (isiNdebele, isiXhosa, isiZulu, Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda, Khoi, Nama, San, SA sign language) and promote other languages spoken by South African communities and those that are used for religious purposes should be the most appreciated skills of South African university leaders.

2.4.3 Access to factors of production

The leading challenge of this factor is found in *The Wealth of Nations* by Adam Smith. In his work Adam Smith commented:

The parts of education which are commonly taught in universities, it may, perhaps be said are not very well taught. But had it not been for those institutions they would not have been commonly taught at all, and both the individual and the public would have suffered a good deal from the want of those important parts of education (Krueger & Cannan, 2003:969)

For many years the teaching and learning, as well as research of indigenous languages were diminished. This is on line with Adam Smith's view quoted above. However, the individual and the public in South Africa ended with sidestepping those diminished curricula of indigenous languages in higher education. Thus, "South African universities are being called upon to become more representative" (Moran, 2002:172). This greater representation should include the development of the use and status of indigenous languages for university education. So, the 23 universities' councils should take note of the major challenges with regard to access to factors of production when developing the use and status of indigenous languages to become part of their universities' education. Those major challenges include:

(a) Labour

These are people, especially the academics. Butler and Waldroop (2004:79) say that people are “the team players, the ones who know what’s going on in their colleagues’ personal lives, the ones who can smooth over interpersonal conflict.” Hence, Gratton (2000:3) stresses:

The new sources of sustainable competitive advantage available to organisations have people at the centre – their creativity and talent, their inspirations and hopes, their dreams and excitement.

In the context of this study people are academics. Referring to the content of the Education White Paper 3 (July 1997) and National Plan on Higher Education, Moran (2002) identified two important issues, which have a direct impact on academics. They are:

- (1) The purpose of higher education in South Africa is to contribute to the socialisation of enlightened, responsible and constructive citizens processed of reflective capacity, and willingness to review and renew prevailing ideas;
- (2) Call for the production of black intellectuals able to actualise enlightenment as self-liberation.

But, academics of the indigenous languages’ departments, units, centres or sections are aging. Moran (2002:172) puts it as follows: “South African academics and learners function in the shadow of ‘Bantu Education’, acute problems of student funding, university ‘rationalisation’ and staff retrenchments, institutional-power politics...” Thus, most of the 23 universities’ priorities are all about cutting costs, and their first target is to reduce staff from indigenous language departments, units, centres or sections. The older academics are not given time to adjust their teaching and research of indigenous languages. This brings fear to most of the old academics and they adapt to whatever they are told to do – whether their work adds value to the development of the use and status of indigenous languages or not.

Geissler (2005) compiled advice on dealing with an aging workforce. It includes:

- (1) **Norbert Herrmann:** Managers should pay attention to the needs of older workers and send them to appropriate training courses to help them remain productive until they retire;
- (2) **Barbara D. Bovbjerg:** Encourage and enable older workers to stay on the job longer. An obvious first step is to dismantle barriers to older workers; and

- (3) **Dietmar Martina:** A part-time provision for older employees, smooth their transition into retirement.

To succeed in developing the use and status of indigenous languages, the 23 universities should address the issue of aging academics by applying the advice listed above. This should form part of their institutional language policies.

While keeping the aging academics, the 23 universities should seek a way of attracting new talent. The 23 universities must be good at attracting, motivating, and retaining competent and committed academics of indigenous languages. “People are the only asset that innovates, and that innovation is the only path to sustained breakthrough performance,”(Aguirre, Post & Hewlett, 2009:39). Having the right talent in the right roles is critical for the 23 universities’ success on delivering the institutional language policies project that fits the government language policies. The 23 universities’ failure to prioritise the attraction of young talent to develop the use and status of indigenous languages “ends up with either experiencing a steady attrition in talent or retaining people with outdated skills” (Cohn, Khurana & Reeves, 2005:64). This results in unchanged diminished teaching and research of indigenous languages in higher education. Thus, labour as one of the factors of producing students with skills and scientific knowledge on indigenous languages, is rooted in four intentions, namely:

- (1) There are fundamental differences between people (academics) as an asset and the traditional assets of finance and technology;
- (2) An understanding of these fundamental differences creates a whole new way of thinking and working in universities, a shift in mind set;
- (3) Institutional language policies can only be realised through people (academics);
- (4) Creating a language policy approach to people (academics) necessitates a strong dialogue across the university.

Thus, the fate of fit between government language policies and institutional language policies that encourages the development of the use and status of indigenous languages for higher education system “depends less on people who know finance or technology than on people who know people” (Kleiner, 2008:1). So, the people or academics’ development plans should form part of the 23 universities’ institutional language policies.

(b) Entrepreneurial ability

To succeed in establishing a fit between government language policies and institutional language policies, that encourages the development of the use and status of indigenous languages for higher education system requires

Building a substantial and accessible source of insight by and for people who know people – and people who know finance, technology, management, and strategy as well (Ibid., 2009:1).

This is what the research calls entrepreneurial ability. Fit between government language policies and institutional language policies, that encourages the development of the use and status of indigenous languages for higher education system is also a challenge to the 23 universities' managements and their entrepreneurial abilities. Hence, this study makes one thing clear:

The human brain is a social organ. Its physiological and neurological reactions are directly and profoundly shaped by social interaction ... the brain experiences the workplace first and foremost as a social system...leaders who understand this dynamic can more effectively engage their employees' best talents, support collaborative teams, and create an environment that fosters productive change (Rock, 2009:60).

Academics cannot do it alone without managers or leaders; it requires managers or leaders who can interact with the academics on fitting government language policies and the 23 universities' institutional language policies. While involved on the three important management issues: Management practices, talent and task, and capabilities listed in Table 1.1, chapter 1, management and leaders of the 23 universities should not forget to motivate people because “getting people to do their best work, even in trying circumstances, is one of the managers' most enduring and slippery challenges” (Nohria, Groysberg & Lee, 2008:78). In this context a motivated academic means better performance in improving the use and status of indigenous languages in the university concerned. Thus, to define overall motivation in the context of fit between government language policies and institutional language policies that encourages development, use and status of indigenous languages, leaders and managers of the 23 universities should focus on four common workplace indicators, including:

- (1) **Engagement:** represents the energy, effort, and initiative employees bring to their jobs;

- (2) **Satisfaction:** reflects the extent to which they feel that the institution meets their expectations at work and satisfies its implicit and explicit contract with them;
- (3) **Commitment:** captures the extent to which employees engage in corporate citizenship; and
- (4) **Intention to quit:** the best proxy for employee turnover.

Rock (2009) coined the acronym SCARF (outlined below), which, if applied by the 23 universities, can enhance the entrepreneurial abilities of managers or leaders to motivate the employees to fit institutional language policies with government language policies and to develop the use and status of indigenous languages for their education. SCARF, according to Rock (2009) stands for:

- (1) **Status and its discontents:** As humans, we are constantly assessing how social encounters either enhance or diminish our status. Understanding the role of status as a core concern can help leaders avoid organisational practices that stir counterproductive threat responses among employees. Organisations often assume that the only way to raise an employee's status is to award promotion. The perception of status also increases when people master a new skill; paying employees more for the skills they have acquired, rather than their seniority, is a status booster in itself;
- (2) **A craving for certainty:** People crave certainty – not knowing what will happen next can be profoundly debilitating because it requires extra neural energy. This diminishes memory, undermines performance, and disengages people from the present” (Ibid, Leaders and managers must thus work to create a perception of certainty to build confident and dedicated teams. Sharing business plans, rationales for change, and accurate maps of an organisational restructuring helps people feel more confident about a plan, and articulating how decisions are made increases trust;
- (3) **The autonomy factor:** The perception of greater autonomy increases the feeling of certainty and reduces stress. Leaders who want to support their people's need for autonomy must give them latitude to make choices, especially when they are part of a team or working with a supervisor. Presenting people with options, or allowing them to organise their own work and set their own hours, provokes a much less stressed response than forcing them to follow rigid instructions and schedules;
- (4) **Relating to the relatedness:** The ability to feel trust and empathy about others is shaped by the perception of being part of the same social group or not. Leaders who

strive for inclusion and minimize situations in which people feel rejected create an environment that supports maximum performance; and

- (5) **Playing for fairness:** In organisations, the perception of unfairness creates an environment in which trust and collaboration cannot flourish. Leaders who play favourites or who appear to reserve privileges for their peers arouse a threat response in employees who are outside the circle.

Along the SCARF model:

Five particular qualities enable employees and executives alike to minimize the threat response and instead enable the reward response. These five social qualities are status, certainty, autonomy, relatedness, and fairness: Because they can be expressed with the acronym SCARF, I sometimes think of them as a kind of headgear that an organisation can wear to prevent exposure to dysfunction (Rock, 2009:62).

The question is: Do leaders or managers of the 23 universities put on the SCARF? The following quotation provides an answer to questions like this:

The challenge is to reticulate education to developmental and democratic ends, and eventually replace personnel with credentialised representatives from the groups identified as previously disadvantaged. But what happens when access is severely curtailed because of financial constraints, and the management of the university intensifies its autocratic style in the name of community of interest and reciprocal participation? Add to these uncritical strata of those claiming to represent the interests of previously marginalised conflating institutional transformation with delivery to the masses, imagining their own indemnified ascendancy within the old structures as equivalent to general democratic empowerment (Moran, 2002:173).

In his article, published by *The Sunday Independent*, titled “The Mind is not Yet Liberated” Tsedu (2010:15) contests:

That is why institutions under black management are invariably in trouble, that is why, that is why...if universities are engulfed in the same mess, where is the intellectual prowess, the intellectual prowess, the intellectual capital and integrity that must produce the new blue print to lead us to the still Promised land...When in 1972 Tiro stood at the then University of the North and took on the might of the apartheid machinery, the black situation was quite bleak. Many leaders were in jail or in exile. The prevailing mood was one of defeat or survival, not to mess up with the regime. Tiro could easily have gone with the tide and glided along, get his degree, get government job and help his mother. He did not. He chose to believe in the possibility of

change, of a better tomorrow and better society. He believed in the possibility of giving South Africa a more humane face.

The two quotations from Moran and Tsedu show that the central challenge to the fit between government language policies and institutional languages that can influence developing the use and status of indigenous languages is changing people's behaviour. In the words of Kotter and Cohen (2002:2):

The central challenge is not strategy, not systems, not culture. These elements and many others can be very important, but the core problem without question is behaviour – what people do, and the need for significant shifts in what people do.

Racism, colonisation and apartheid influence people's behaviour and can lead to ignorance. If they have entrepreneurial abilities, managers of the 23 universities can help people to change their behaviour - and fit government language policies and institutional language policies to enhance the use and status of indigenous languages.

(c) Capital

In their article published by *Harvard Business Review*, Martin and Moldoveanu (2003:1) maintain:

For a century, capital fought labour for the biggest share of profits. Now knowledge workers have gone to war with investors – and it isn't clear which side will win.

The issue here is labour versus money. In the context of this study, the 23 universities need capital (money) to fit their institutional language policies into government language policies, and to improve the use and status of indigenous languages. This relates to Adam Smith's division of labour. Adam Smith asserts:

When the division of labour has been once thoroughly established, it is but a very small part of man's wants which the produce of his own labour can supply. He supplies the far greater part of them by exchanging that surplus part of the produce of his own labour, which is over and above his own consumption, for such of the produce of other men's labour as has occasion for. Every man thus lives by exchanging, or becomes in some measure a merchant, and the society itself grows to what is properly commercial society (Krueger & Cannan, 2003:33).

In subsection (a), where labour as part of access of factors of production was discussed, Moran (2002) was quoted as saying that South African academics and learners function in the shadow of ‘Bantu Education’, acute problems of student funding, university ‘rationalisation’ and staff retrenchments and institutional-power politics. These also affect the fit between government language policies and institutional language policies and the development of the use and status of indigenous languages for university education. Thus:

The subjection of academic work to the monolithic business model of the university is commensurate with political transformation along the lines of liberal capitalist democracy with its mixture of considerable political freedom and entrenched socio-economic inequality (Moran, 2002:172).

“Historically, the finance functions in large U.S. and European firms have focused on cost control, operating budgets, and internal auditing” (Desai, 2008:108). The South African university system is said to be a poor cousin of the British (European country) system at great cost to itself and the blithe punting of the American model of institutional governance (Moran, 2002). The 23 universities find themselves battling for cost cutting and making some moves to cut their cost by cutting indigenous language offerings.

In a country that requires universities to transform from racial, colonisation and apartheid systems to a democratic system we must reshape the equality on language of university education to be both practical and aspirational. Thus to succeed in the fit between government language policies and institutional language policies that incorporates the development of the use and status of indigenous languages, the 23 universities should seriously attend to the matter of capital. It should not be taken as a scapegoat. Taking it from a corporate perspective, Kleiner (2008:1) says:

There are also well-managed companies quietly thriving. They develop their people, target their customers with sensitivity, deploy their capital effectively and continually improve their processes.

Thus, the 23 universities can learn from those companies and get funding from different funders identified by the Higher Education Act, 1997 (Act 101 of 1997).

2.5 SUMMARY

This, being the longest chapter of the study, provided a literature review on the fit between government language policies and institutional language policies: the case of indigenous languages in the South African higher education system. It addressed the first objective of this study: To explore environmental issues affecting institutional language policies in higher education. The second section (section 2.2) answered one important question: When does a language become an essential part of university education? It was found that legal status (official language status and domain status) makes a language an essential part of university education throughout the history of the South African higher education system. Official language status makes a language to be a primary language of the institution or language of tuition. Both official languages and languages that are not official languages in terms of the Constitution are taught by the institutions. Moreover, official languages have remained academic disciplines and languages of professions throughout the history of the higher education system of South Africa.

The third section (section 2.3) focussed on the external environment (macro-environment). The impact of four of the macro-environment factors was considered: demographic, institutional, international and political factors. All these factors were found to pose challenges to the 23 universities in their endeavours to fit their institutional language policies into the government language policies. Racism, colonisation, apartheid and democracy were found to be the most crucial challenges.

The fourth section (section 2.4) focussed on the internal environment. The emphasis was on the impact of three internal environment factors: vision, governance and access to factors of production.

All councils of the 23 universities in the South African higher education system should be aware that:

Running universities in a way that suits a competitive environment may mean some uncomfortable changes. But it does not mean necessarily adopting a corporate model, with a board of directors and a chief executive. A non-profit university exists, ultimately, so that its members can teach, think and learn. Making them into “staff”–mere shop-floor workers on an academic production line – risks losing the ethos which has given universities their character and value (The Economist, 2005:65).

With this in mind, the 23 universities' councils will have to boldly formulate and develop their institutional language policies that promote and develop multilingualism for the benefit of their universities and the country.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

An important part of this study is the collection of accurate and relevant data from which to draw conclusions. This chapter presents the research methodology, i.e. the way the research was undertaken. The concept 'methodology' is defined as:

an explanation of why data is collected, what data is collected, from where it is collected, when it is collected, how it is collected and how it is analyzed (Hussey & Hussey, 1997:17).

The chapter is divided into seven sections, namely:

- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 Problem statement
- 3.3 Research strategy
- 3.4 Research design
- 3.5 Data collection and analysis
- 3.6 Report writing and
- 3.7 Summary

Parts of these sections are the steps of the research process in this study, namely sections 3.2 to 3.6.

3.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

South African universities face the challenge of implementing the Government language policies to develop the use and status of indigenous languages for the higher education system. The fit between government language policies and the institutional language policies is being questioned. Hence, the research question of this study is:

'What is the fit between government language policies and institutional language policies?'

This research problem brings us to four major objectives, namely:

- (1) To explore environmental issues affecting institutional language policies in higher education;
- (2) To investigate the universities' activities to improve the use and status of indigenous languages
- (3) To evaluate the universities' progress on the recognition of the indigenous languages; and
- (4) To develop explanatory theory that can promote best practice in institutional language policies.

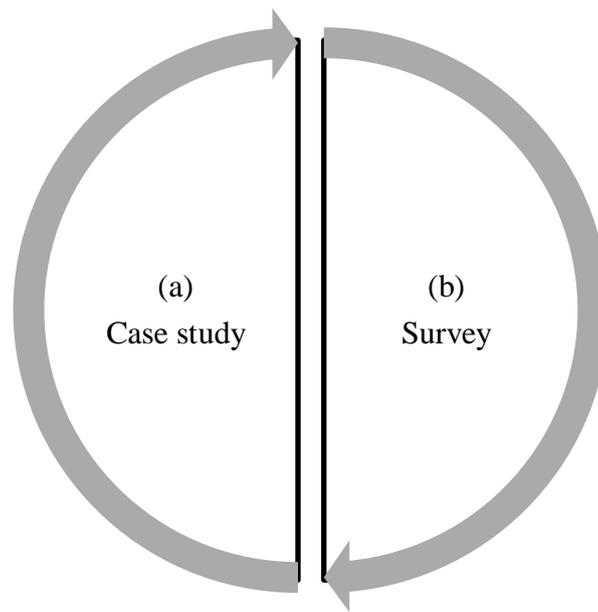
3.3 RESEARCH STRATEGY

This refers to a plan on how to go about answering the research question set in section 3.2 above. In essence, "your research strategy will be a general plan of how you will go about answering the question(s) you have set" (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2000:98). The question(s) referred to here is sometimes called a research hypothesis. Welman and Kruger (1999:26) say: "A hypothesis is a positive statement about the relationship between operationalised variables." Saunders et al., (2000) identified eight types of research strategies, including:

- (1) Experiment;
- (2) Surveys;
- (3) Case study;
- (4) Ground theory;
- (5) Ethnography;
- (6) Action research;
- (7) Cross-sectional and longitudinal studies; and
- (8) Exploratory, descriptive and explanatory studies.

The researcher in this study is aware of these eight research strategies. In this study not all of the above strategies will be used. However, multi-method approaches and strategies are adopted (see Figure 3.1 below).

Figure 3.1: Multi-method approaches and strategies



A segmented Cycle is used here to represent the progression of two research strategies in one study. This is what is called multi-method approaches and strategies. It emphasises the interconnectedness of the two research strategies: case study and survey in the same study.

It is important to note that multi-method approaches and strategies:

Do not exist in isolation and therefore can be ‘mixed and matched’. Not only can they, but it is often beneficial to do so. It is quite usual for a single study to combine quantitative and qualitative methods and to use primary and secondary data (Saunders et al., 2000:98).

The two strategies, combined to form the multi-method approach and strategy, are described in subsections (a) and (b).

(a) Case study

The term ‘case study’ pertains to the fact that a limited number of units of analysis, such as an individual, a group or an institution, are studied intensively (Welman & Kruger, 1999). Saunders et al., (2000:94) define case study as “the development of detailed, intensive knowledge about a single ‘case’, or a small number of related cases.” It is directed at understanding the uniqueness and idiosyncrasy of a particular case in all its complexity. Usually its objective is to investigate the dynamics of some single bounded system, typically of a social nature; in this case an institution. Therefore, the case study provides a systematic

way of looking at events, collecting data, analysing information, and reporting the results. This strategy means single or multiple case studies; it can include qualitative evidence; it relies on multiple sources of evidence and benefits from the prior development of theoretical propositions. It has a considerable ability to generate answers to the questions ‘why?’ as well as the ‘what?’ and ‘how?’ questions. It helps the researcher to gain a sharpened understanding of why the instance happened as it did, and what might become important to look at more extensively in future research.

In this study the researcher takes note of the Flyvbejerg (2006) effect in this approach. He sees it necessary to also briefly discuss the Flyvbejerg effect and how it came into being. In the years before Flyvbejerg, a case study research specialist was repeatedly confident about a mission to end case study misunderstandings. The following are Common misunderstandings about a case study as pointed out by Flyvbejerg (2006):

- (1) Theoretical knowledge is more valuable than practical knowledge;
- (2) One cannot generalise from a single case, therefore, the single case study cannot contribute to scientific development;
- (3) The case study is most useful for generating hypotheses, whereas other methods are more suitable for hypothesis testing and theory building;
- (4) The case study contains a bias toward verification; and
- (5) It is often difficult to summarise specific case studies.

Flyvbejerg (2006) published an article that corrects those common misunderstandings and identifies five true facts about case study research, namely:

- (1) Predictive theories and universals cannot be found in the study of human affairs. Concrete, context-dependent knowledge is, therefore, more valuable than the vain search for predictive theories and universals;
- (2) One can often generalise on the basis of one case and the case study may be central to scientific development via generalisation as supplement or alternative to other methods. But formal generalisation is overvalued as a source of scientific development, whereas ‘the force of example’ is underestimated;
- (3) The case study is useful for both generating and testing of hypotheses but is not limited to these research activities alone;

- (4) The case study contains no greater bias toward verification of the researcher's preconceived notions than other methods of enquiry. On the contrary, experience indicates that the case study contains a greater bias toward falsification of preconceived notions than toward verification; and
- (5) It is correct that summarising case studies is often difficult, especially as concerns case process. It is less correct as regards case outcomes. The problems in summarising case studies, however, are due more often to the properties of the reality studied than to the case study as a research method. Often it is not desirable to summarise the case studies. Good studies should be read as narratives in their entirety.

The researcher in this study wishes to explore the context of the fit between the government language policies and institutional language policy in relation to the development of the use and status of indigenous languages for higher education. Inspired by Flyvbjerg's five facts of case study that correct the five common misunderstandings about this strategy, that is the Flyvbjerg effect, the researcher of this study adopts a case study to form part of his research studies. The purpose of any research is mainly threefold: to describe, to explain and to predict (Welman & Kruger, 1999). The threefold purpose also applies to case study selection. Thus Flyvbjerg outlines strategies for the selection of samples and cases (see Table 3.1 below)

Table 3.1 Strategies for the selection of samples and cases

Type of Selection	Purpose
A. Random selection (1) Random sample (2) Stratified	(1) To avoid systematic biases in the sample. The sample's size is decisive for generalisation; (2) To achieve a representative sample that allows for generalisation of the entire population; (3) To generalise for specially selected subgroups within the population.
B. Informed-orientated selection (1) Extreme/deviant cases (2) Maximum variation cases (3) Critical cases (4) Practical cases	(1) To avoid systematic biases in the sample. The sample's size is decisive for generalisation; (2) To obtain information on unusual cases that can be especially problematic or especially good in a more closely defined sense; (3) To obtain information about the significance of various circumstances for case process and outcome; (4) To achieve information that permits logical deductions of the type; and (5) To develop a metaphor or establish a school for the domain of the case concerned.

Source: Flyvbjerg (2006)

Information-oriented selection is the approach adopted in this study. The critical cases are used to develop a theoretical or conceptual framework which will be tested using data.

(b) Survey

“The survey method is usually associated with the deductive approach” (Saunders et al., 2000:93). It involves the overall research design (including areas such as sampling, analysis of responses and reporting of results) of which a questionnaire is one part (Fraser & Lawley, 2000:4). Saunders et al., (2000) identify four common features of a survey, namely:

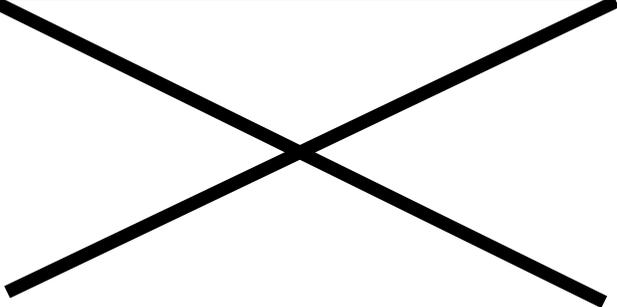
- (1) It allows the collection of a large amount of data from a sizeable population in a highly economical way;
- (2) It is based mostly in a questionnaire, these data are standardised allowing easy comparison;
- (3) It is perceived as authoritative by people in general, because it is easily understood; and
- (4) It gives more control over the research process.

A workplace survey researcher as indicated by Morrel-Samuels (2002) when pointed out that managers and HR professionals have fallen behind advances in survey design. Many managers still apply design principles formulated 40 or 50 years ago. Morrel-Samuels (2002), identifies sixteen guidelines for survey design and problems they address (see Table 3.2).

Besides the separate advantages of the case study and survey strategies, the multi-method approaches and strategies have their own advantages. For instance, Saunders et al., (2000) identified two advantages of multi-methods, namely:

- (1) Different methods can be used for different purposes in a study; and
- (2) It allows triangulation to take place.

Table 3.2: The guidelines for superior survey design

Content	Format
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Ask questions about observable behaviour rather than thoughts or motives. 2. Include some items that can be independently verified. 3. Measure only behaviours that have a recognised link to your organisation's performance. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 4. Keep sections of the survey unlabeled and uninterrupted by page breaks. 5. Design sections to contain a similar number of items, and questions to contain a similar number of words. 6. Pose questions about respondent demographics.
Language	Measurement
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 7. Avoid terms that have strong associations. 8. Change the wording in about one-third of questions so that the desired answers are negative. 9. Avoid merging two disconnected topics in one question. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 10. Create a response scale with numbers at regularly spaced intervals and words only at each end. 11. If possible, use a response scale that asks respondents to estimate a frequency. 12. Use only one response scale that offers an odd number of options. 13. Avoid questions that require rankings.
Administration	
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 14. Make workplace surveys individually anonymous and demonstrate that they remain so. 15. In large organisations, make the department the primary unit of analysis for organisation surveys. 16. Make sure that employees can complete the survey in about 20 minutes. 	

The researcher wished to employ case study to start with in order to get a feel for the key issues before embarking on a survey, and this was to give the researcher confidence that the most important issue is addressed (developing the use and status of indigenous languages for higher education). On the other hand:

Triangulation refers to the use of different data collection methods within one study in order to ensure that the data are telling you what you think they are telling you (Saunders et al., 2000:99).

3.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design is a crucial element of the research process. According to Welman and Kruger (1999:46):

A research design is a plan according to which we obtain research participants (subjects) and collect information from them. In it we describe what we are going to do with the participants with a view to reaching conclusions about the research problem.

The most important aspect of a research design is sampling. Saunders et al., (2000:150) say:

Sampling techniques provide a range of methods that enable you to reduce the amount of data you need to collect by considering only data from a sub-group rather than all possible cases or elements.

The sample techniques available can be divided into two types according to Saunders et al., (2000). The types are:

- (1) Probability or representative sampling; and
- (2) Non-probability or judgemental sampling.

Probability or representative sampling is further subdivided into simple random, systematic, stratified, and cluster samplings. Together, simple random, systematic, stratified, and cluster samplings can result in a multi-stage sampling. Thus:

Probability sampling is most commonly associated with survey-based research where you need to make inferences from your sample about a population to answer your research questions or to meet your objectives (Ibid., 2000:153).

So, probability sampling is the correct sampling for this study, and its process can be divided into four stages identified by Saunders et al (2000). They are:

- (1) Identifying your simple research sampling frame based on research question(s) or objectives;
- (2) Deciding on a suitable sample size;
- (3) Selecting the most appropriate sampling technique and selecting the sample; and
- (4) Checking that the sample is representative of the population.

These four stages are followed under subsections 3.4.1 to 3.4.4 in this study.

3.4.1 The sampling frame

The research question is: *'What is the fit between government language policies and institutional language policies?'* Chapter 2 of the study (Literature review) provided complete information on Government language policies. The second part of the research question or 'institutional language policies,' is what the sampling frame is all about in this study. By definition:

A sampling frame is a complete list on which each unit of analysis is listed only once. Unless such a sampling frame is borne in mind, it is, in fact, impossible to judge the representativeness of the obtained sample properly. The sample should be representative of the sample frame, which is ideally the same with the population, but which often differs due to practical problems relating to the availability of information (Welman & Kruger, 1999:49).

The institutional language policies are found at the 23 universities and information about the indigenous language use and status can be elicited from management, employees (academic and support staff) and students. The departments, centres or units dealing specifically with languages potentially have full information. Thus, chairs of departments and academic and research staff in the departments, centres or units of languages, especially indigenous languages where available, formed the sub-population from which the research sample was chosen. This sample frame helps in making sampling an easy exercise.

3.4.2 Sample size

“Generalisations about populations from data collected using any probability sample are based on probability” (Saunders et al., 2000:155). The choice of sample size is governed by confidence, margin of error, types of analysis and the size of total population. The population here is the 23 universities. So the sample size was limited to 23 respondents, one per university. It might be a chair of department or academic and research staff (junior-lecturer, lecturer, senior lecturer, associate professor or full professor). This minimized costs, saved time, and addressed possible difficulties related to the analysis of large samples. The system was adequate because this was an in-depth study, and was able to give the required results.

3.4.3 Cluster sampling technique

The purpose in this study was to survey the use and status of indigenous languages at the 23

universities operating in South Africa. This is a large scale survey and it is impossible to obtain the list of all the members of all the departments of all the universities. In order to draw a sample of the population of all the 23 universities in South Africa, a cluster sampling technique was used, and four steps were followed:

- (1) Firstly, 23 universities were chosen from among other learning and teaching institutions in of South Africa;
- (2) Subsequently a number of departments, units or centres dealing with languages within each university were identified;
- (3) Next, departments, units or centres dealing directly with indigenous languages were targeted; and
- (4) Finally, individuals within these departments, units or centres dealing directly with indigenous languages were randomly chosen.

3.4.4 Population

This refers to “the total number of people or within a defined group” (Bowden, 2002:161). Hence, “we refer to the members or elements of the population as the units of analysis” (Welman & Kruger, 1999:49). In the context of this study, the population encompasses the total collection of all units of analysis about which the researcher wishes to draw conclusions. The research question deals with the relationship between the exposure of a population of the country’s 23 universities to the language policies published by the democratic government that meant to remove the former racial, colonial and apartheid linguistic discrimination. Conceptually each member of the population (each of the 23 universities) has a score in each of these two variables for the entire population (that is, all 23 universities). Due to the fact that multi-methods were used, the population was subdivided into two: population on case study and population on survey. The two types of population are explained in subsections (a) and (b), respectively.

(a) Population on the case study

The objective of the case study was to investigate the dynamics of linguistic practice (strategic direction and governance) of the 23 universities. ‘Descriptive statistics’ was used here. “An example of where descriptive statistics may be appropriate is a university’s principal’s annual report”(Ibid., 1999:191). In this context the vision statements which describe the strategic directions and the institutional language policies which provide

guidelines on linguistic governance in the 23 universities were appropriate. Thus, the population for the case study was strictly the 23 South African universities.

(b) Population on the survey

The objective of the survey was to evaluate the progress made by the 23 universities in linguistic transformation. The evaluation was based on the 23 universities' move or resistance to move from the racial, colonial and apartheid linguistic practices to democratic Government language policies. The questions were directed at the use and status of indigenous languages by the 23 universities. Therefore, the population for the survey was strictly the departments, units, centres or sections dealing directly with the indigenous languages at the 23 universities. Only one person was expected to respond to the survey questions per department, unit, centre or section dealing directly with the indigenous languages per university. Thus, 23 responses representing the 23 universities were targeted.

3.5 DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

The word 'data' refers to "known facts or things used as a basis for inference or reckoning" (Metcalf & Thompson, 2003:209). This section is further divided into three subsections, including:

3.5.1 Types of data

There are two types of data known in the research literature: Secondary and primary data. For instance, Welman and Kruger (1999:147) say:

We can distinguish between secondary and primary data sources...Secondary data are information collected by individuals or agencies and institutions other than the researcher him or herself. Primary data are collected by the researcher for the purpose of his or her own study at hand.

The two types of data: are discussed in subsections (a) and (b) respectively.

(a) Secondary data

According to Welman and Kruger (1999) secondary data are existing information. Saunders et al., (2000) divided secondary data further into three types: documentary, multiple-source and survey. Documentary secondary data was crucial in this research, because:

Documentary secondary data includes written documents ... These can be important raw data sources in their own right, as well as a storage medium for compiled data. You could use written documents to provide qualitative data such as the managers' espoused reasons for decisions...those research projects that make use of documentary secondary data often do so as ... or a case study for a particular organisation (Saunders et al., 2000: 268)

Thus, since case study is one of the research approaches and strategies for this study, secondary data, especially documentary secondary data were used. These include available institutional language policies, articles, reports and books accessible within the 23 universities.

(b) Primary data

According to Welman and Kruger (1999) primary data are information that needs to be collected for the first time. Saunders et al., (2000) have three chapters discussing the collection of primary data: collecting primary data through observation; collecting primary data using semi-structured and in-depth interviews; and collecting primary data using questionnaires. Survey is one of the research strategies used in this study and it is said to be based most in a questionnaire. Thus, since a survey uses questionnaires and questionnaires can be used to collect primary data, primary data are collected in this study.

3.5.2 Data collection

The collection of both secondary and primary data needed for this study, is discussed in the following two steps in subsections (a) and (b), respectively.

(a) Collecting secondary data

The first part of the study was on a case study. The intention was to analyse institutional language policies of the 23 universities. The Government language policies and other policies presented in the literature review indicated that it is possible that all the 23 universities have institutional language policies. Furthermore section 27(2) of the Higher Education Act, 1997 (Act 101 of 1997) requires the councils of public higher education institutions to determine the institutional language policy of their institutions and to publish and make it available on request. This was legislated 13 years ago (more than a decade ago). The fact that the Act also includes 'subject to the policy determined by the Minister,' in its statement, still gave the researcher an opportunity to obtain the institutional language policies that were required from

the 23 universities. Thus, there was a clue that the secondary data required for this study were available. The policies were searched on the websites of the 23 universities (see Table 3.3 below).

Table 3.3: Websites of the 23 universities

Traditional universities		Universities of technology	
University	Website	University	Website
UCT	www.uct.ac.a	CPUT	www.cput.ac.za
UFH	www.ufh.ac.za	CUT	www.cut.ac.za
UFS	www.ufs.ac.za	DUT	www.dut.ac.za
UKZN	www.ukzn.ac.za	MUT	www.mut.ac.za
UL	www.ul.ac.za	TUT	www.tut.ac.za
NWU	www.nwu.ac.za	VUT	www.vut.ac.za
UP	www.up.ac.za		
RU	www.ru.ac.za	Comprehensive universities	
Maties	www.sun.ac.za	University	Website
UWC	www.uwc.ac.za	UJ	www.uj.ac.za
Wits	www.wits.ac.za	NMMU	www.nmmu.ac.za
		UNISA	www.unisa.ac.za
		Univen	www.univen.ac.za
		WSU	www.wsu.ac.za
		Unizul	www.unizul.ac.za

Information and data managers in various universities where data were not found on the website were requested to provide the data.

(b) Collecting primary data

The second part of the research was on a survey strategy. “The greatest use of questionnaire is made by survey strategy” (Saunders et al., 2000:278). Hence, in this study a questionnaire was used to collect primary data.

Law (2009:461) defined a questionnaire as “a structured set of questions designed to generate the information required for a specific purpose.” Thus, the questionnaire presented in Appendix B was designed to generate the information required to analyse and evaluate whether the 23 universities’ institutional language policies fit the Government language

policies. Thus, eight steps of collecting primary data were employed before and after sending the questionnaire to the sample. The eight steps are:

- (1) All possible primary data collection methods: observation; semi-structured and in-depth interviews; and a questionnaire were evaluated. A questionnaire was chosen because it was appropriate to the research question;
- (2) A self-administered postal-questionnaire was chosen to be used in collecting the required primary data;
- (3) It was decided what data needed to be collected (research design requirements, types of variables, and ensuring essential data were collected);
- (4) The questionnaire was designed;
- (5) The designed questionnaire with a covering letter and a reply-paid envelope was sent to the whole sample;
- (6) Exactly one week after the above step, a combined thank you reminder letter was sent to the whole sample (i.e. the respondents) to impress the importance of the survey upon them;
- (7) After two weeks the non-respondents were sent reminder letters and replacement questionnaires; and
- (8) Again, two weeks later, telephone requests were made to the non-respondents. After the reminder, the responses increased.

3.5.3 Data analysis

Data analysis is the detailed examination of the elements or results of the case study and survey. In this study, the researcher considered:

Virtually all research will involve some numerical data or contain data that could usefully be quantified to help you answer your research question(s) and to meet your objectives. Quantitative data refers to all such data and can be a product of all research strategies ...It can range from simple counts such as the frequency of occurrences to more complex data such as test scores...To be useful these data need to be analysed and interpreted. Quantitative analysis techniques assist this process. These range from creating simple tables or diagrams which show the frequency of occurrence through establishing statistical relationships between variables to complex statistical modelling (Saunders et al., 2000:326).

The researcher also identified the difference between quantitative data and qualitative data. Saunders et al., provided the differences (see Table 3.4 below).

Table 3.4: Distinctions between quantitative and qualitative data

Quantitative data	Qualitative data
(1) Based on meanings derived from numbers;	(1) Based on meanings expressed on words;
(2) Collection results in numerical and standardised data; and	(2) Collection results in non-standardised data requiring classification into categories; and
(3) Analysis conducted through the use of diagrams and statistics.	(3) Analysis conducted through the use of conceptualisation.

Source: Saunders et al., (2000)

The researcher in this study did not discriminate between the two data in his approach. Quantitative data was used in both the case study and the survey. However, only quantitative data was used for the survey. The data analysis in the case study was based on participants (units of analysis), the intervention (independent variable), dependent variable of the units of analysis and the research question. The 23 universities are the units of analysis. Two variables are important here, namely: Government language policies and institutional language policies. They are independent and dependent variables, respectively. Welman and Kruger (1999:13) maintain:

The independent variable (x) is that factor which the researcher selects and manipulates in order to determine its effect on the observed phenomenon (the problem that is being investigated). This variable is considered to be independent because the researcher is interested in how it affects the other variable(s) being studied. In other words, the researcher seeks to find a cause and a resultant effect relationship, if it is present...The independent variable (y) is that factor which the researcher observes and measures to determine what effect the independent variable has on it, that is, that factor which appears, disappears, or varies as the researcher introduces, removes, or varies the levels of the independent variables. It is the dependent variables that will change as a result of variations in the independent variable. This variable is considered to be dependent because its value is assumed to depend upon the values of the levels of independent variables.

The research question predicts the fit between the independent (government policies) and dependent (institutional language policies) variables. The purpose of the research in this study is to test whether a prediction such as this holds true. Vision statements and institutional policies are expressed in words, and their collection results in non-standardised data requiring

classification into categories. In this part, qualitative data were used. The collection was then interpreted and changed into numerical and standardised data, simultaneously. Thus analysis was conducted through the use of diagrams and statistics, as well as conceptualisation.

In contrast, the survey part of the research used quantitative data from the beginning to the end. It was based on meanings derived from numbers; collection results in numerical and standardised data; and analysis was conducted through the use of diagrams and statistics.

3.6 REPORT WRITING

The report of this study is this thesis for doctoral qualification. This involves preparing a final report. It includes seven chapters, namely: Introduction; literature review; research methodology (this chapter); case study and survey results; case study and survey findings; analysis and interpretation of the findings; and conclusion and recommendations.

3.7 SUMMARY

The focus in this chapter was on methodology used in this study. It described the research processes and steps taken on the whole study: the research strategies (case study and survey strategies); research design; data collection and analysis and report writing.

CHAPTER 4

CASE STUDY AND SURVEY RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter outlines the findings of the research data gathered from the documentary analysis of the language policies of South African universities and postal questionnaire conducted with academics drawn from the faculties (colleges) of Human Science at 23 South African universities. This chapter is subdivided into four subsections, as listed below:

- 4.1 Overview
- 4.2 Case study strategy
- 4.3 Data on the survey
- 4.4 Summary

4.2 CASE STUDY STRATEGY

4.2.1 Introduction

The researcher prepared a case study drawn from the findings on the literature review to be used as a guide on collecting and analysing documentary secondary data (read APPENDIX A).

4.2.2 Problem statement

The problem according to the aim of this study is whether the 23 universities fit their internal contexts into the new demand of the external contexts (freedom and democracy) by developing equitable use and status of all indigenous languages to that of Afrikaans and English.

4.2.3 Population

To keep the variables of the fit between government language policies and institutional language policies constant, only the 23 universities of South Africa were considered.

4.2.4 Procedure

The case study in APPENDIX A and the institutional language policies of the units of analysis were used. Any other documents from any of the 23 universities and relevant to the case study, for instance, articles, books, prospectus and so on were used. Aspects covered were macro-environment factors (demographic, institutional, international and political), and internal environment factors (vision, governance and access of production). The vision statements of most of the universities are quoted in the case study. However, the researcher was aware of the fact that a vision should include core ideology (core values and core purpose) and envisioned future (BHAG and vivid description) (Collins & Porras, 1996). Most universities included missions and core values. The following comment is important on mission statements for the purpose of this case study:

Purpose is the fundamental reason for organisation existence...A well stated purpose is timeless. A mission is quite different. A mission is by definition achievable – or to reach a certain target by a certain time with specific resources. Purposes are directoral in nature. Missions are executive. Both are important in their place. Our frequent confusion is caused by consultants and academics being too lax in their use of words (Garratt, 2003:58).

The missions of the 23 universities also form part of this case study, since all of them seem to have no clear purposes, but clear missions. Results will be presented in subsection 4.2.5 using tables.

4.2.5 Data on the case study

The data on the case study is secondary data and presented within seven environmental factors of both the macro-environment and internal environment. The secondary data of the macro-environment is covered in subsection (a) to (d), and called data on the demographic, institutional, international and political factors, respectively. The secondary data on the internal environment is covered in subsection (e) to (g) and it is called data on the vision, governance, and access to factors of production, respectively.

When presenting the data, nicknames, abbreviations or acronyms will be used for the universities (see APPENDIX A), the nine provinces and 11 languages (see Tables 4.1 and 4.2).

Table 4.1: Provinces

Province	Abbreviation/Acronym
Eastern Cape	EC
Free State	FS
Gauteng	GP
Kwazulu-Natal	KZN
Limpopo	L
Mpumalanga	MP
Northern Cape	NC
North-West	NW
Western Cape	WC

Table 4.2: Languages

Afrikaans	AF
English	ENG
IsiNdebele	NDL
isiXhosa	XHO
isiZulu	ZUL
Sepedi	SOL
Sesotho	SO
Setswana	TSW
siSwati	SSW
Tshivenda	VEN
Xitsonga	XTG
Other	OT

Khoi, Nama and San languages are not included in the abbreviation/ acronym list. Sepedi uses SOL, because sometimes it is referred to as Sesotho sa Leboa.

(a) Data on the demographic factor

The location of the 23 universities was the main focus. The results are divided into three elements (see Table 4.3 to 4.4).

Table 4.3: Provincial distribution of the 23 universities

Universities	EC	FS	GP	KZN	L	MP	NC	NW	WC
UCT	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
CPUT	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
CUT	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
DUT	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
UFH	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
UFS	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
UJ	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
UKZN	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
UL	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
Maties	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
MUT	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
NMMU	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NWU	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
RU	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Tukkies/UP	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
TUT	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Univen	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
VUT	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Unisa	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
UWC	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Wits	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
WSU	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
UniZulu	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Total per province	4	2	6	4	2	0	0	1	4

Table 4.4 Different categories in the 23 universities

University	Traditional	Technology	Comprehensive
UCT	1	0	0
CPUT	0	1	0
CUT	0	1	0
DUT	0	1	0
UFH	1	0	0
UFS	1	0	0
UJ	0	0	1
UKZN	1	0	0
UL	1	0	0
Maties	1	0	0
MUT	0	1	0
NMMU	0	0	1
NWU	1	0	0
RU	1	0	0
Tukkies/UP	1	0	0
TUT	0	1	0
Univen	0		1
VUT	0	1	0
Unisa	0	0	1
UWC	1	0	0
Wits	1	0	0
WSU	0	0	1
UniZulu	0	0	1
Total per category	11	6	6

(b) Data on the institutional factor

Legislations, policies and reports were the main focus under this factor and the results were divided into seven elements (see Table 4.5 to 4.12 below).

Table 4.5: Universities with accessible institutional language policy

Institution	Institutional language policy accessible	Institutional language policy not accessible
UCT	1	0
CPUT	0	1
CUT	1	0
DUT	0	1
UFH	0	1
UFS	1	0
UJ	1	0
UKZN	1	0
UL	0	1
Maties	1	0
MUT	0	1
NMMU	0	1
NWU	1	0
RU	1	0
Tukkies/UP	1	0
TUT	0	1
Univen	0	1
VUT	0	1
Unisa	1	0
UWC	0	1
Wits	1	0
WSU	0	1
UniZulu	0	1
Total	11	12

Table 4.6: Primary language(s) or languages of tuition recognised by the institutional language policy

University	AF	ENG	NDL	XHO	ZUL	SO	SOL	TSW	SSW	VEN	XTG	Don't Know
UCT	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
CPUT	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
CUT	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
DUT	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
UFH	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
UFS	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
UJ	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
UKZN	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
UL	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Maties	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
MUT	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
NMMU	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
NWU	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
RU	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Tukkies/UP	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
TUT	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Univen	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
VUT	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Unisa	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
UWC	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Wits	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
WSU	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
UniZulu	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Total	6	10	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	12

Table 4.7: South African languages developed in the medium and long term as medium of instruction in higher education, alongside English and Afrikaans

University	NDL	XHO	ZUL	SO	SOL	TSW	SSW	VEN	XTG	Ignored	Unclear	Don't know
UCT	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
CPUT	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
CUT	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
DUT	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
UFH	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
UFS	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
UJ	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
UKZN	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
UL	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Maties	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
MUT	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
NMMU	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
NWU	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
RU	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
Tukkies/UP	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
TUT	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Univen	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
VUT	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Unisa	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
UWC	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Wits	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
WSU	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
UniZulu	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Total	0	0	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	4	4	12

Table 4.8: The retention and strengthening of Afrikaans as a language of scholarship and science

University	Yes	No	Ignored	Unclear	Don't know
UCT	0	0	1	0	0
CPUT	0	0	0	0	1
CUT	0	0	0	1	0
DUT	0	0	0	0	1
UFH	0	0	0	0	1
UFS	1	0	0	0	0
UJ	1	0	0	0	0
UKZN	0	0	1	0	0
UL	0	0	0	0	1
Maties	1	0	0	0	0
MUT	0	0	0	0	1
NMMU	0	0	0	0	1
NWU	1	0	0	0	0
RU	0	0	0	1	0
Tukkies/UP	1	0	0	0	0
TUT	0	0	0	0	1
Univen	0	0	0	0	1
VUT	0	0	0	0	1
Unisa	1	0	0	0	0
UWC	0	0	0	0	1
Wits	0	0	1	0	0
WSU	0	0	0	0	1
UniZulu	0	0	0	0	1
Total	6	0	3	2	12

Table 4.9: The promotion of the study of South African languages and literature through planning and funding incentives

University	Yes	No	Ignored	Unclear	Don't know
UCT	1	0	0	0	0
CPUT	0	0	0	0	1
CUT	0	0	0	1	0
DUT	0	0	0	0	1
UFH	0	0	0	0	1
UFS	0	0	1	0	0
UJ	0	0	1	0	0
UKZN	0	0	1	0	0
UL	0	0	0	0	1
Maties	0	0	1	0	0
MUT	0	0	0	0	1
NMMU	0	0	0	0	1
NWU	0	0	1	0	0
RU	0	0	1	0	0
Tukkies/UP	0	0	0	1	0
TUT	0	0	0	0	1
Univen	0	0	0	0	1
VUT	0	0	0	0	1
Unisa	0	0	1	0	0
UWC	0	0	0	0	1
Wits	0	0	1	0	0
WSU	0	0	0	0	1
UniZulu	0	0	0	0	1
Total	1	0	8	2	12

Table 4.10: Teaching indigenous language(s) for specific professions

University	Yes	No	Ignored	Unclear	Don't know
UCT	1	0	0	0	0
CPUT	1	0	0	0	0
CUT	1	0	0	0	0
DUT	1	0	0	0	0
UFH	0	1	0	0	0
UFS	0	1	0	0	0
UJ	0	1	0	0	0
UKZN	0	1	0	0	0
UL	0	1	0	0	0
Maties	0	1	0	0	0
MUT	0	0	0	0	1
NMMU	1	0	0	0	0
NWU	0	0	0	1	0
RU	1	0	0	0	0
Tukkies/UP	0	1	0	0	0
TUT	1	0	0	0	0
Univen	0	1	0	0	0
VUT	0	0	0	0	1
Unisa	0	1	0	0	0
UWC	0	1	0	0	0
Wits	0	0	0	1	0
WSU	1	0	0	0	0
UniZulu	0	0	0	0	1
Total	8	10	0	2	3

Table 4.11: Responding to Gerwel’s report and parallel language of instruction

University	Yes	No	Unclear	Don’t know
UCT	0	1	0	0
CPUT	0	0	0	1
CUT	0	0	1	0
DUT	0	0	0	1
UFH	0	0	0	1
UFS	1	0	0	0
UJ	0	1	0	0
UKZN	0	0	1	0
UL	0	0	0	1
Maties	1	0	0	0
MUT	0	0	0	1
NMMU	0	0	0	1
NWU	1	0	0	0
RU	0	1	0	0
Tukkies/UP	1	0	0	0
TUT	0	0	0	1
Univen	0	0	0	1
VUT	0	0	0	1
Unisa	0	0	1	0
UWC	0	0	0	1
Wits	0	0	1	0
WSU	0	0	0	1
UniZulu	0	0	0	1
Total	4	3	4	12

Table 4.12: Responding to Ministerial Committee guidelines on the choice of indigenous languages for tuition

University	Yes	No	Ignored	Unclear	Don't know
UCT	0	0	1	0	0
CPUT	0	0	0	0	1
CUT	0	0	0	0	1
DUT	0	0	0	0	1
UFH	0	0	0	0	1
UFS	1	0	0	0	0
UJ	1	0	0	0	0
UKZN	1	0	0	0	0
UL	0	0	0	0	1
Maties	0	1	0	0	0
MUT	0	0	0	0	1
NMMU	0	0	0	0	1
NWU	0	1	0	0	0
RU	0	0	1	0	0
Tukkies/UP	0	1	0	0	0
TUT	0	0	0	0	1
Univen	0	0	0	0	1
VUT	0	0	0	0	1
Unisa	0	0	0	1	0
UWC	0	0	0	0	1
Wits	1	0	0	0	0
WSU	0	0	0	0	1
UniZulu	0	0	0	0	1
Total	4	3	2	1	13

(c) Results on the international factor

Policies and languages offered were critical issues under this factor, and the results were divided into two elements (see Table 4.13 to 4.14 below).

Table 4.13: The promotion of the study of foreign languages

University	Yes	No	Ignored	Unclear	Don't know
UCT	0	0	1	0	0
CPUT	0	0	0	0	1
CUT	0	0	1	0	0
DUT	0	0	0	0	1
UFH	0	0	0	0	1
UFS	0	0	1	0	0
UJ	0	0	1	0	0
UKZN	0	0	1	0	0
UL	0	0	0	0	1
Maties	0	0	0	1	0
MUT	0	0	0	0	1
NMMU	0	0	0	0	1
NWU	0	0	1	0	0
RU	1	0	0	0	0
Tukkies/UP	0	0	1	0	0
TUT	0	0	0	0	1
Univen	0	0	0	0	1
VUT	0	0	0	0	1
Unisa	0	0	1	0	0
UWC	0	0	0	0	1
Wits	1	0	0	0	0
WSU	0	0	0	0	1
UniZulu	0	0	0	0	1
Total	2	0	8	1	12

Table 4.14: Choice of languages to teach from foreign countries

University	Regional language(s) (Excluding those found in the country)	Continental language(s)	International languages	None
UCT	0	1	1	0
CPUT	0	0	1	0
CUT	0	0	1	0
DUT	0	0	0	1
UFH	0	0	0	1
UFS	0	0	1	0
UJ	0	0	1	0
UKZN	0	0	0	1
UL	0	0	1	0
Maties	0	0	1	0
MUT	0	0	0	1
NMMU	0	0	1	0
NWU	0	0	0	1
RU	0	0	1	0
Tukkies/UP	0	0	1	0
TUT	0	0	1	0
Univen	0	0	0	1
VUT	0	0	0	0
Unisa	1	0	1	0
UWC	0	0	1	0
Wits	0	0	1	0
WSU	0	0	0	1
UniZulu	0	0	1	0
Total	1	1	15	7

(d) Data under the political factor

Constitution, legislation and policies were critical issues under this factor and the results were divided into nine elements (see Table 4.15 to 4.23 below).

Table 4.15: Encouraging multilingualism in institutional policies and practices

University	Yes	No	Ignored	Unclear	Don't know
UCT	0	0	0	1	0
CPUT	0	0	0	0	1
CUT	0	0	1	0	0
DUT	0	0	0	0	1
UFH	0	0	0	0	1
UFS	0	0	1	0	0
UJ	0	0	0	1	0
UKZN	0	0	1	0	0
UL	0	0	0	0	1
Maties	0	0	1	0	0
MUT	0	0	0	0	1
NMMU	0	0	0	0	1
NWU	0	0	1	0	0
RU	1	0	0	0	0
Tukkies/UP	1	0	0	0	0
TUT	0	0	0	0	1
Univen	0	0	0	0	1
VUT	0	0	0	0	1
Unisa	0	0	1	0	0
UWC	0	0	0	0	1
Wits	1	0	0	0	0
WSU	0	0	0	0	1
UniZulu	0	0	0	0	1
Total	3	0	6	2	12

Table 4.16: Recognising the official status of all 11 languages

University	Yes	No	Ignored	Unclear	Don't know
UCT	0	0	0	1	0
CPUT	0	0	0	0	1
CUT	0	0	0	0	0
DUT	0	1	0	0	1
UFH	0	0	0	0	1
UFS	0	1	0	0	0
UJ	0	1	0	0	0
UKZN	0	1	0	0	0
UL	0	0	0	0	1
Maties	0	1	0	0	0
MUT	0	0	0	0	1
NMMU	0	0	0	0	1
NWU	0	0	0	1	0
RU	0	0	0	1	0
Tukkies/UP	1	0	0	0	0
TUT	0	0	0	0	1
Univen	0	0	0	0	1
VUT	0	0	0	0	1
Unisa	1	0	0	0	0
UWC	0	0	0	0	1
Wits	1	0	0	0	0
WSU	0	0	0	0	1
UniZulu	0	0	0	0	1
Total	3	5	0	3	12

Table 4.17: Existence of racism element

University	Yes	No	Ignored	Unclear	Don't know
UCT	0	0	0	1	0
CPUT	0	0	0	0	1
CUT	0	0	0	1	0
DUT	0	1	0	0	0
UFH	0	1	0	0	0
UFS	1	0	0	0	0
UJ	0	1	0	0	0
UKZN	0	0	0	1	0
UL	1	0	0	0	0
Maties	1	0	0	0	0
MUT	0	0	0	0	1
NMMU	0	1	0	0	0
NWU	0	0	0	1	0
RU	0	1	0	0	0
Tukkies/UP	1	0	0	0	0
TUT	0	1	0	0	0
Univen	1	0	0	0	0
VUT	1	0	0	0	0
Unisa	0	0	0	1	0
UWC	1	0	0	0	0
Wits	0	0	0	1	0
WSU	0	1	0	0	0
UniZulu	0	1	0	0	0
Total	7	8	0	6	2

Table 4.18: Existence of colonial element

University	Yes	No	Ignored	Unclear	Don't know
UCT	1	0	0	0	0
CPUT	1	0	0	0	0
CUT	1	0	0	0	0
DUT	0	0	0	1	0
UFH	0	0	1	0	0
UFS	0	0	0	1	0
UJ	0	1	0	0	0
UKZN	1	0	0	0	0
UL	0	0	1	0	0
Maties	0	0	0	1	0
MUT	0	0	1	0	0
NMMU	0	0	1	0	0
NWU	0	0	0	1	0
RU	1	0	0	0	0
Tukkies/UP	0	0	0	1	0
TUT	0	0	1	0	0
Univen	0	0	1	0	0
VUT	1	0	0	0	0
Unisa	0	0	0	1	0
UWC	0	0	1	0	0
Wits	1	0	0	0	0
WSU	0	0	1	0	0
UniZulu	0	0	1	0	0
Total	7	1	9	6	0

Table 4.19: Existence of apartheid element

University	Yes	No	Ignored	Unclear	Don't know
UCT	1	0	0	0	0
CPUT	1	0	0	0	0
CUT	1	0	0	0	0
DUT	1	0	0	0	0
UFH	1	0	0	0	0
UFS	1	0	0	0	0
UJ	1	0	0	0	0
UKZN	1	0	0	0	0
UL	1	0	0	0	0
Maties	1	0	0	0	0
MUT	1	0	0	0	0
NMMU	1	0	0	0	0
NWU	1	0	0	0	0
RU	1	0	0	0	0
Tukkies/UP	1	0	0	0	0
TUT	0	0	1	0	0
Univen	0	0	0	1	0
VUT	0	0	0	0	1
Unisa	0	0	0	1	0
UWC	1	0	0	0	0
Wits	1	0	0	0	0
WSU	1	0	0	0	0
UniZulu	1	0	0	0	0
Total	19	0	1	2	1

Table 4.20: Diminished teaching of indigenous languages

University	Yes	No	Ignored	Unclear	Don't know
UCT	1	0	0	0	0
CPUT	0	1	0	0	0
CUT	0	1	0	0	0
DUT	0	1	0	0	0
UFH	1	0	0	0	0
UFS	1	0	0	0	0
UJ	0	0	0	1	0
UKZN	0	0	1	0	0
UL	0	1	0	0	0
Maties	0	0	1	0	0
MUT	0	0	0	0	1
NMMU	1	0	0	0	0
NWU	1	0	0	0	0
RU	0	0	0	0	0
Tukkies/UP	0	0	0	1	0
TUT	0	1	0	0	0
Univen	0	1	0	0	0
VUT	0	0	0	0	1
Unisa	1	0	0	0	0
UWC	0	0	0	1	0
Wits	0	0	0	1	0
WSU	0	0	0	0	1
UniZulu	0	0	0	1	0
Total	6	6	2	5	3

Table 4.21: Medium of instruction in language and literature departments is the language taught

University	Yes	No	Ignored	Unclear	Don't know
UCT	0	0	0	1	0
CPUT	0	0	0	0	1
CUT	0	0	0	1	0
DUT	0	0	0	0	1
UFH	0	0	0	0	1
UFS	0	0	0	1	0
UJ	0	0	1	0	0
UKZN	0	0	0	1	0
UL	0	0	0	0	1
Maties	0	0	0	1	0
MUT	0	0	0	0	1
NMMU	0	0	0	0	1
NWU	0	0	1	0	0
RU	0	0	1	0	0
Tukkies/UP	0	0	1	0	0
TUT	0	0	0	0	1
Univen	0	0	0	0	1
VUT	0	0	0	0	1
Unisa	0	0	0	1	0
UWC	0	0	0	0	1
Wits	0	0	0	1	0
WSU	0	0	0	0	1
UniZulu	0	0	0	0	1
Total	0	0	4	7	12

Table 4.22: Restrictions on the language use for university purposes

University	Yes	No	Ignored	Unclear	Don't know
UCT	1	0	0	0	0
CPUT	0	0	0	0	1
CUT	1	0	0	0	0
DUT	0	0	0	0	1
UFH	0	0	0	0	1
UFS	1	0	0	0	0
UJ	1	0	0	0	0
UKZN	1	0	0	0	0
UL	0	0	0	0	1
Maties	1	0	0	0	0
MUT	0	0	0	0	1
NMMU	0	0	0	0	1
NWU	1	0	0	0	0
RU	1	0	0	0	0
Tukkies/UP	0	0	0	1	0
TUT	0	0	0	0	1
Univen	0	0	0	0	1
VUT	0	0	0	0	1
Unisa	0	0	0	1	0
UWC	0	0	0	0	1
Wits	0	1	0	0	0
WSU	0	0	0	0	1
UniZulu	0	0	0	0	1
Total	8	1	0	2	12

Table 4.23: Teaching other South African languages but not officially recognised by the constitution

Universities	Khoi, Nama and San	SA Sign language	Other languages	None
UCT	0	0	0	0
CPUT	0	0	1	0
CUT	0	0	1	0
DUT	0	0	0	1
UFH	0	0	0	1
UFS	0	1	1	0
UJ	0	0	1	0
UKZN	0	0	0	1
UL	0	0	1	0
Maties	0	0	1	0
MUT	0	0	0	1
NMMU	0	0	0	1
NWU	0	0	0	1
RU	0	0	1	0
Tukkies/UP	0	0	1	0
TUT	0	0	1	0
Univen	0	0	0	1
VUT	0	0	0	1
Unisa	0	0	1	0
UWC	0	0	1	0
Wits	0	1	1	0
WSU	0	0	0	1
UniZulu	0	0	1	0
Total	0	2	13	9

(e) Data on the vision factor

University visions and sometimes missions are critical issues under this factor and the results are presented by Table 4.24 below.

Table 4.24: Which institution has local, regional, continental and (or) international dreams

University	Local	Regional	Continental	International	Not included
UCT	0	0	1	0	0
CPUT	1	0	0	0	0
CUT	0	0	0	0	1
DUT	1	0	0	0	0
UFH	1	1	1	0	0
UFS	0	0	0	0	1
UJ	0	0	0	0	1
UKZN	0	0	1	0	0
UL	1	0	0	1	0
Maties	1	0	1	1	0
MUT	1	1	1	1	0
NMMU	0	0	1	0	0
NWU	0	0	1	0	0
RU	0	1	0	1	0
Tukkies/UP	1	0	1	1	0
TUT	0	0	0	0	1
Univen	1	1	0	0	0
VUT	1	0	0	0	0
Unisa	0	0	1	0	0
UWC	1	0	0	0	0
Wits	1	0	1	1	0
WSU	1	1	1	1	0
UniZulu	1	0	0	0	0
Total	13	5	11	7	4

(f) Data on governance

Institutional language policies were critical issues under this factor and were subdivided into four elements (see Tables 4.25 to 4.28 below).

Table 4.25: Who had approved the institutional language policy?

University	Council	Senate	Others	Don't know
UCT	1	1	0	0
CPUT	0	0	0	1
CUT	1	0	0	0
DUT	0	0	0	1
UFH	0	0	0	1
UFS	1	0	0	0
UJ	0	1	0	0
UKZN	1	0	0	0
UL	0	0	0	1
Maties	0	0	0	1
MUT	0	0	0	1
NMMU	0	0	0	1
NWU	0	0	0	1
RU	1	1	1	0
Tukkies/UP	0	0	0	1
TUT	0	0	0	1
Univen	0	0	0	1
VUT	0	0	0	1
Unisa	1	0	0	0
UWC	0	0	0	1
Wits	0	0	0	1
WSU	0	0	0	1
UniZulu	0	0	0	1
Total	6	3	1	16

Table 4.26: How old is the institutional language policy?

University	No information	1yr	2yrs	3yrs	4yrs	5yrs	6yrs	7yrs
UCT	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
CPUT	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
CUT	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
DUT	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
UFH	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
UFS	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
UJ	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
UKZN	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
UL	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Maties	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
MUT	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NMMU	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NWU	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
RU	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Tukkies/UP	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
TUT	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Univen	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
VUT	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Unisa	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
UWC	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Wits	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
WSU	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
UniZulu	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	13	0	1	1	3	1	0	4

Table 4.27: Time-frame for institutional language policy revision

University	No information	Less than 3yrs	3yrs	More than 3yrs
UCT	0	0	0	1
CPUT	1	0	0	0
CUT	0	0	1	0
DUT	1	0	0	0
UFH	1	0	0	0
UFS	1	0	0	0
UJ	0	0	0	1
UKZN	0	0	0	1
UL	1	0	0	0
Maties	1	0	0	0
MUT	1	0	0	0
NMMU	1	0	0	0
NWU	1	0	0	0
RU	0	1	0	0
Tukkies/UP	1	0	0	0
TUT	1	0	0	0
Univen	1	0	0	0
VUT	1	0	0	0
Unisa	1	0	0	0
UWC	1	0	0	0
Wits	0	0	0	1
WSU	1	0	0	0
UniZulu	1	0	0	0
Total	17	1	1	4

Table 4.28: The development of strategies for promoting student proficiency in designated language(s) of tuition

University	Yes	No	Ignored	Unclear	Don't know
UCT	1		0	0	0
CPUT	0		0	0	1
CUT	0		0	1	0
DUT	0		0	0	1
UFH	0		0	0	1
UFS	1		0	0	0
UJ	0		1	0	0
UKZN	1		0	0	0
UL	0		0	0	1
Maties	0		0	1	0
MUT	0		0	0	1
NMMU	0		0	0	1
NWU	0		1	0	0
RU	1		0	0	0
Tukkies/UP	1		0	0	0
TUT	0		0	0	1
Univen	0		0	0	1
VUT	0		0	0	1
Unisa	1		0	0	0
UWC	0		0	0	1
Wits	1		0	0	0
WSU	0		0	0	1
UniZulu	0		0	0	1
Total	7		2	2	12

(g) Data on accessing the factors of production

Institutional language policies were critical issues under this factor and the results were subdivided into three elements (see Tables 4.29 to 4.31 below).

Table 4.29: Are academics, especially for indigenous languages, integrated in the institutional language policy?

University	Yes	No	Ignored	Don't know
UCT	0	0	1	0
CPUT	0	0	0	1
CUT	0	0	1	0
DUT	0	0	0	1
UFH	0	0	0	1
UFS	0	0	1	0
UJ	1	0	0	0
UKZN	0	1	0	0
UL	0	0	0	1
Maties	0	0	1	0
MUT	0	0	0	1
NMMU	0	0	0	1
NWU	0	0	1	0
RU	1	0	0	0
Tukkies/UP	0	0	1	0
TUT	0	0	0	1
Univen	0	0	0	1
VUT	0	0	0	1
Unisa	1	0	0	0
UWC	0	0	0	1
Wits	1	0	0	0
WSU	0	0	0	1
UniZulu	0	0	0	1
Total	4	1	6	12

Table 4.30: Is there a statement on leadership or management involvement in institutional language policy?

University	Yes	No	Don't know
UCT	0	1	0
CPUT	0	0	1
CUT	0	1	0
DUT	0	0	1
UFH	0	0	1
UFS	1	0	0
UJ	1	0	0
UKZN	1	0	0
UL	0	0	1
Maties	0	1	0
MUT	0	0	1
NMMU	0	0	1
NWU	1	0	0
RU	0	1	0
Tukkies/UP	0	1	0
TUT	0	0	1
Univen	0	0	1
VUT	0	0	1
Unisa	0	1	0
UWC	0	0	1
Wits	0	1	0
WSU	0	0	1
UniZulu	0	0	1
Total	4	7	12

Table 4.31: Does the language policy have a statement on resources?

University	Yes	No	Don't know
UCT	0	1	0
CPUT	0	0	1
CUT	0	1	0
DUT	0	0	1
UFH	0	0	1
UFS	1	0	0
UJ	1	0	0
UKZN	1	0	0
UL	0	0	1
Maties	0	1	0
MUT	0	0	1
NMMU	0	0	1
NWU	1	0	0
RU	0	1	0
Tukkies/UP	0	1	0
TUT	0	0	1
Univen	0	0	1
VUT	0	0	1
Unisa	1	0	0
UWC	0	0	1
Wits	1	0	0
WSU	0	0	1
UniZulu	0	0	1
Total	6	5	12

4.3 DATA ON THE SURVEY

4.3.1 Introduction

The researcher prepared a survey questionnaire focussed on the 23 universities (read APPENDIX B).

4.3.2 Research questions

This survey evaluated the universities' progress on the recognition of indigenous languages through 14 specific questions. The questions were subdivided into two groups: the first four questions were focused on the respondents' profile; and the last 11 questions were about practical implementation of language policies.

4.3.3 Population

The population in this study were 23 universities. The focus was on the departments, units, centres or sections dealing with the teaching and learning as well as research involving indigenous languages. Only one response was requested per university. Thus 23 questionnaires were randomly sent to academic and research staff of indigenous languages or offices dealing with languages where such a department, unit, centre or section does not exist at the university concerned.

4.3.4 Responses

Responses to the questions are outlined in subsections (a) to (n) below.

(a) Number of respondents

There were 17 out of a possible total of 23 universities that responded, constituting a response rate of 74%. Each respondent represented a university.

(b) Naming of the language section

This answers question 1 in APPENDIX B. The question required an individual respondent to provide the name of the section he or she is working in. The reason was to ascertain how the indigenous languages are classified in South African universities in this post-apartheid dispensation (see Table 4.32 below).

Table 4.32: Naming of the indigenous language sections

AFL	NBL	XHO	ZUL	SOL	SO	TSW	SSW	VEN	XTG	OT
10	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	4

(c) Academic ranks of respondents

This answers question 2 in APPENDIX B. The question required a respondent to identify his or her academic rank. Academic ranks were sub-divided into six discrete groups of Professor (P), Associate Professor (AP), Senior Lecturer (SL), Lecturer (L) and Junior Lecturer (JL) (see Table 4.33 below).

Table 4.33: Academic ranks of respondents

P	AP	SL	L	JL
6	3	3	5	0

(d) Respondents who were managers

This answers question 3 in APPENDIX B. It required a respondent to tick “Yes” if he or she is a manager in the discipline or “No”, if he or she is not a manager in the discipline (see Table 4.34 below).

Table 4.34: Respondents who were managers

Yes	No
6	11

(e) University category

This answers question 4 in APPENDIX B. The question required a respondent to indicate the type of his or her university, whether it is a Traditional University (TU); Comprehensive university (CU) or University of Technology (UT) (see Table 4.35 below).

Table 4.35: Type of university

Traditional Universities	Comprehensive Universities	Universities of Technology
9	5	3

(f) Student language rights

This answers question 5 in APPENDIX B. The question required a respondent to tick “Yes”, if he or she is aware of the Constitutional language rights for students or “No” if he or she is not aware (see Table 4.36).

Table 4.36: Awareness of language rights

Yes	No
17	0

(g) University language policy

This answers question 6 in APPENDIX B. The question aimed to establish the existence of a language policy at the respondent’s university. A respondent was required to tick “Yes” for if it is available, “No” if it is not, and “Don’t know” if he or she is not aware (see Table 4.37 below).

Table 4.37: Availability of language policy at the respondents’ university

Yes	No	Don’t know
5	7	5

(h) University’s official language (s)

This answers question 7 of APPENDIX B. The question required the respondent to indicate the official language (s) of his or her university (see Table 4.38 below). The acronyms used are AF for Afrikaans, ENG for English, NDL for isiNdebele, XHO for isiXhosa, ZUL for isiZulu, SO for Sesotho, SOL for Sesotho sa Leboa (Sepedi), TSW for Setswana, SSW for siSwati, VEN for Tshivenda, XTG for Xitsonga and OT for others.

Table 4.38: University official language(s)

AF	ENG	NDL	XHO	ZUL	SO	SOL	TSW	SSW	VEN	XTG	OT
10	17	0	1	2	1	2	1	0	1	1	0

(i) Language policy implementation

This answers question 8 in APPENDIX B. It required a respondent to indicate if the language policy of his or her university is implemented or not by ticking “Yes” if he or she knows it is implemented, “No”, if he or she knows whether the language policy is not implemented, or “Don’t know” if he or she does not know whether the language policy is implemented or not (see Table 4.39 below).

Table 4.39: Language policy implementation

Yes	No	Don’t know
3	10	4

(i) Official languages taught as subjects

This answers question 9 in APPENDIX B. A respondent was required to indicate the official language(s) taught in his or her university (see Table 4.40). The acronyms used are AF for Afrikaans, ENG for English, NDL for isiNdebele, XHO for isiXhosa, ZUL for isiZulu, SO for Sesotho, SOL for Sesotho sa Leboa (Sepedi), TSW for Setswana, SSW for siSwati, VEN for Tshivenda and XTG for Xitsonga.

Table 4.40: Official languages taught as subjects

AF	ENG	NDL	XHO	ZUL	SO	SOL	TSW	SSW	VEN	XTG
12	16	1	6	10	5	7	7	2	4	3

(j) Non-South African official languages taught as subjects

This answers question 10 in APPENDIX B. The question required the respondents to indicate none-official languages taught in their university (see Table 4.41 below). The acronyms used are AFL for African languages, ASS for Asian languages, EUL for European Languages, SAGL for South African Sign Languages and AL for Ancient Languages.

Table 4.41: Non-official languages and foreign languages taught

AFL	ASS	EUL	SAGL	AL
2	1	13	2	1

(k) Lecturers qualified to teach in more than two languages

This answers question 12 in APPENDIX B. The question required the respondents to indicate if lecturers in their discipline qualify to teach more than two languages. A respondent was expected to tick ‘Yes’, ‘No’, or, ‘Don’t know,’ (see Table 4.42 below).

Table 4.42: Lecturers qualified to teach in more than two languages

Yes	No	Don’t know
0	12	5

(l) Language(s) used for teaching and learning indigenous (official) Languages

This answers question 13 of APPENDIX B. The question required a respondent to indicate the language for teaching and learning in his or her discipline (see Table 4.43 below). The acronyms used are the same as those for Table 4.40.

Table 4.43: Language(s) used for teaching and learning indigenous (official) languages

AF	ENG	NDL	XHO	ZUL	SO	SOL	TSW	SSW	VEN	XTG
0	12	1	6	10	5	7	7	2	4	3

(m) Allowing to answer examinations/assignments in any of the 11 official languages

This answers question 14 in APPENDIX B. A respondent was required to tick “Yes”, if students are allowed to use any of the 11 official languages for examination/ assignments, “No” or “Don’t know” (see Table 4.44).

Table 4.44: Answering their examinations/ assignments in any of the 11 official languages

Yes	No	Don’t know
0	9	8

(n) Language a respondent needs to learn as an academic and research staff

This answers question 15 in APPENDIX B. The question required a respondent to indicate an official language he or she still needs to learn (see Table 4.45 below). The acronyms used are

those used in 4.40 and 4.3.43.

Table 4.45 Language a respondent still needs to learn as an academic and research staff

AF	ENG	NDL	XHO	ZUL	SO	SOL	TSW	SSW	VEN	XTG
0	12	0	5	10	5	4	2	0	2	2

4.4 SUMMARY

This chapter outlined the data on the case study and surveys that were collected from the 23 South African universities. Both the case study and survey data give a clue on the situation. The case study outlined the secondary data collected on language policies and prospectus. The survey outlined the primary data collected from the language departments, sections, centres or units operating within the 23 universities. The findings on both the case study and survey are outlined in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 5

FINDINGS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter the case study results and the survey results on the fit between government language policies and institutional language policies: the case of indigenous languages in the South African higher education system were presented. This chapter presents the findings to determine the degree of support the results offer for the four objectives of the study outlined in Chapters 1 and 3. These objectives are to explore the fit between government language policies and institutional language policies: and the implementation of the policies, especially on the disciplines dealing with the historically marginalised languages: isiNdebele, isiXhosa, isiZulu, Sepedi (Sesotho sa Leboa), Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda and Xitsonga. The findings are presented using the framework designed to determine literature review, case study and survey on the fit between government language policies and institutional language policies. The framework divides the findings into two sections: findings on the case study and findings on the survey. Thus, this chapter is subdivided into four sections, namely:

- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2 Findings on the case study
- 5.3 Findings on the survey, and
- 5.4 Summary

5.2 FINDINGS ON THE CASE STUDY

The research focus here was on the cases in relation to the fit between government language policies and institutional language policies. This is further divided into two subsections: Findings in relation to institutional language policies' fit into the universities' external and internal environment.

5.2.1 Findings in relation to institutional language policies' fit into the universities' external environment

The search on the fit between Government language policies and institutional language policies on the basis of the universities' external environment covers four factors: demographic, institutional, international and political factors. The presentation of the case study's results followed the same approach and the findings are described accordingly in subsections (a) to (d) here.

(a) There are two big challenges posed by the demographic factor

(1) *The first big challenge under the demographic factor is the distribution of the 23 universities among the nine provinces (see Table 5.1 below).*

Table 5.1: Universities' distribution among the nine provinces

Province	Number of universities
EC	4
FS	2
GP	6
KZN	4
L	2
MP	0
NC	0
NW	1
WC	4

(2) *The second challenge under the demographic factor is that of different categories among the 23 universities (see Table 5.2 below).*

Table 5.2: Categories of universities and their numbers

Category	Number of universities
Traditional	11
Technology	6
Comprehensive	6

Traditional universities focus on theory and scientific research, universities of technology focus on skills and professions. A comprehensive university is a combination of traditional and technology offerings. This means that the traditional and universities of technology get representation in a comprehensive university. Thus, the total number of traditional university components (those in comprehensive universities included) is 17; and the components of universities of technology including those in comprehensive universities are twelve. The categories show their distribution in different provinces (see Table 5.3 to 5.5 below).

Table 5.3: Number of traditional universities per province

Province	Number of universities
EC	2
FS	1
GP	2
KZN	1
L	1
MP	0
NC	0
NW	1
WC	3

Table 5.4: Number of universities of technology per province

Province	Number of universities
EC	0
FS	1
GP	2
KZN	2
L	0
MP	0
NC	0
NW	0
WC	1

Table 5.5: Number of comprehensive universities per province

Province	Number of universities
EC	2
FS	0
GP	2
KZN	1
L	1
MP	0
NC	0
NW	0
WC	0

(b) There are eight big challenges facing universities posed by the institutional factor

- (1) *The first big challenge presented by the institutional factor is the formulation of an institutional language policy and making it accessible. This is a legal requirement. Not all the 23 universities have an accessible institutional language policy (see Table 5.6 below).*

Table 5.6: Accessible/ not accessible institutional language policies

Status	Number of universities
Accessible	11
Non-accessible	12

- (2) *The second big challenge presented by the institutional factor is the choice of primary language(s) or language(s) of tuition (see Table 5.7 below).*

Table 5.7: The choice of primary language(s) or language(s) of tuition

Language(s)	Number of universities
Afrikaans	6
English	10
Indigenous Languages	0

- (3) *The third big challenge presented by the institutional factor is the choice of South African languages (indigenous languages which are official languages) developed in the medium and long term as medium of instruction in higher education, alongside English and Afrikaans (see Table 5.8 below).*

Table 5.8: South African languages developed in the medium and long term as medium of instruction in higher education, alongside English and Afrikaans

Language	Number of universities
NDL	0
XHO	0
ZUL	2
SO	1
SOL	1
TSW	0
SSW	0
VEN	0
XTG	0
IGNORED	4
UNCLEAR	4
UNKNOWN	12

- (4) *The fourth big challenge presented by the institutional factor is the retention and strengthening of Afrikaans as a language of scholarship and science (see Table 5.9 below).*

Table 5.9: Retention and strengthening of Afrikaans as a language of scholarship and science

Description	Number of universities
Retention and strengthening	6
Ignored	3
Unclear	2
Unknown	12

- (5) *The fifth big challenge presented by the institutional factor is the promotion of the study of South African languages and literature through planning and funding incentives (see Table 5.10 below).*

Table 5.10: Promotion of the study of South African languages and literature

Description	Number of universities
Promotion	1
Ignored	8
Unclear	2
Unknown	12

- (6) *The sixth big challenge brought by the institutional factor is the teaching of indigenous language(s) for specific professions (see Table 5.11 below).*

Table 5.11: Teaching indigenous language(s) for specific professions

Description	Number of universities
Yes	8
No	10
Unclear	2
Unknown	1

- (7) *The seventh big challenge presented by the institutional factor is the universities' response to Gerwel's report and parallel language of instruction (see Table 5.12 below).*

Table 5.12: Response to Gerwel Report and parallel language of instruction

Description	Number of universities
Match up	4
Non-compliant	3
Unclear	4
Unknown	12

- (8) *Lastly, the eighth big challenge presented by the institutional factor is the responses to Ministerial Committee guidelines on the choice of indigenous language for tuition (see Table 5.13 below).*

Table 5.13: Response to Ministerial Committee guidelines on the choice of indigenous language for tuition

Description	Number of universities
Match up	4
Non-compliant	3
Ignored	2
Unclear	1
Unknown	13

(c) Two big challenges facing universities under the international factor

- (1) *The first big challenge under the international factor is the promotion of the study of foreign languages (see Table 5.14 below).*

Table 5.14: The promotion of the study of foreign languages

Description	Number of universities
Yes	2
No	0
Ignored	8
Unclear	1
Unknown	12

- (2) *The second big challenge under the international factor is the choice of languages to teach from foreign countries (see Table 5.15 below).*

Table 5.15: Choice of languages to teach from foreign countries

Arena	Number of universities
Regional	1
Continental	1
International	15
None	7

(d) There are nine big challenges facing universities under the political factor

- (1) *The first big challenge under the political factor is the encouragement of multilingualism in institutional policies and practices (see Table 5.16 below).*

Table 5.16: Encouragement of multilingualism

Description	Number of universities
Encouraging	3
Not encouraging	0
Ignored	6
Unclear	2
Unknown	12

(2) *The second big challenge under the political factor is presented by the recognition of the official status of all 11 languages (see Table 5.17 below).*

Table 5.17: Recognising the official status of all 11 languages

Description	Number of universities
Recognise	3
Not recognise	5
Ignore	0
Unclear	3
Unknown	12

(3) *The third big challenge under the political factor is presented by racism (see Table 5.18 below).*

Table 5.18: Racist element

Description	Number of universities
Found	7
Not found	8
Ignored	0
Unclear	6
Unknown	2

(4) *The fourth big challenge under the political factor is presented by colonisation (see Table 5.19 below).*

Table 5.19: Colonial element

Description	Number of universities
Found	7
Not found	1
Ignored	9
Unclear	6
Unknown	0

- (5) *The fifth big challenge under the political factor is presented by apartheid (see Table 5.20 below).*

Table 5.20: Apartheid element

Description	Number of universities
Found	19
Not found	0
Ignored	1
Unclear	2
Unknown	1

- (6) *The sixth big challenge under the political factor is presented by diminished teaching of indigenous languages during apartheid (see Table 5.21 below).*

Table 5.21: Diminished teaching of indigenous languages

Description	Number of universities
Found	6
Not found	6
Ignored	2
Unclear	5
Unknown	3

- (7) *The seventh big challenge under the political factor is presented by the language used to teach an indigenous language (see Table 5.22 below).*

Table 5.22: The language used to teach an indigenous language

Description	Number of universities
Found	0
Not found	0
Ignored	4
Unclear	7
Unknown	12

- (8) *The eighth big challenge under the political factor is presented by restrictions on the language use for university purposes (see Table 5.23 below).*

Table 5.23: Restrictions on the language use for university purposes

Description	Number of universities
Found	8
Not found	1
Ignored	0
Unclear	2
Unknown	12

- (9) *The ninth big challenge under the political factor is presented by teaching other South African languages that have no official status (see Table 5.24 below).*

Table 5.24: Teaching other South African languages that have no official status

Description	Number of universities
Khoi, Nama and San	0
SA Sign language	2
Other languages	13
None	9

- (e) **There is one big challenge facing universities under the vision factor**

- (1) *The challenge is whether the university's dream is local, regional, continental and (or) international (see Table 5.25 below).*

Table 5.25: Universities' dreams

Dream	Number of universities
Local	13
Regional	5
Continental	13
International	7
Not included	4

- (f) **There are four big challenges facing universities under the governance factor**

- (1) *The first big challenge under the governance factor is a decision on the institutional language policy, especially the approval (see Table 5.26 below).*

Table 5.26: Office responsible to approve the institutional language policy

Approved by	Number of universities
Council only	4
Senate Only	1
Council & senate	1
Council, senate and others	1
Others only	0
Unknown	16

- (2) *The second big challenge under the governance factor is the time taken by universities to respond to legislation and policies relating to linguistic transformation (see Table 5.27 below).*

Table 5.27: Age of an institutional language policy

Age	Number of universities
1 yr	0
2yrs	1
3yrs	1
4yrs	3
5yrs	1
6yrs	0
7 yrs	4
Unknown	13

- (3) *The third big challenge under the governance factor is the time-frame for institutional language policy revision (see Table 5.28 below).*

Table 5.28: Time-frame for institutional language policy revision

Period	Number of universities
<3yrs	1
3yrs	1
>3 yrs	4
Unknown	17

- (4) *Lastly, the fourth big challenge under the governance factor is the development of strategies for promoting student proficiency in designated language(s) of tuition (see Table 5.29 below).*

Table 5.29: Strategies for promoting student proficiency in designated language(s) of tuition

Description	Number of universities
Found	7
Not found	0
Ignored	2
Unclear	2
Unknown	12

(g) Three big challenges under access of the factors of production

- (1) *The first challenge presented by access on factors of production is indigenous language academics (see Table 5.30 below).*

Table 5.30: Statement on indigenous language academics

Description	Number of universities
Found	4
Not found	1
Ignored	6
Unknown	12

- (2) *The second big challenge presented by access on factors of production is a statement on leadership or management involved (see Table 5.31 below).*

Table 5.31: Statement on leadership or management

Description	Number of universities
Found	4
Not found	7
Unknown	12

- (3) *Lastly, the third big challenge presented by access on factors of production, being the last big challenge found through the case study, is a statement on resources (see Table 5.32 below).*

Table 5.32: Statement on resources on the institutional language policies

Description	Number of universities
Found	6
Not found	5
Unknown	12

5.3 FINDINGS ON THE SURVEY

5.3.1 Response rate

Seventeen (73.9%) of the 23 universities responded to the questionnaires compared to six (26.1%) that did not respond. Thus, the response rate is very high.

5.3.2 Language clustering

The old colonial and apartheid style of clustering indigenous languages into one group called the Department African Languages becomes a norm (see Table 5.33).

Table 5.33: Naming of the indigenous language departments

Name	Number of universities
AFL	10
NDL	0
XHO	1
ZUL	2
SO	0
SOL	0
TSW	0
SSW	0
VEN	0
XTG	0
OT	4

5.3.3 Representation of academic ranks

Only the lowest academic rank was not represented: Junior lectureship (JL). The other four were represented (see Table 5.34 below).

Table 5.34: Academic ranks of respondents

Rank	Number of respondents
P	6
AP	3
SL	3
L	5
JL	0

5.3.4 Response rate by managers/ chairs of departments

Most responses came from academic employees compared to line managers or chairs of departments (see Table 5.35 below).

Table 5.35: Respondents are line managers

Responses	Number of respondents
Yes	6
No	11

5.3.5 Responses from the three university categories

Traditional, technology and comprehensive universities are all represented (see Table 5.36 below).

Table 5.36: Number of respondents per university category

Category	Number of respondents
Traditional Universities	9
Comprehensive Universities	5
Universities of Technology	3

5.3.6 Knowledge of student language rights by academic and research staff

Respondents are aware of the student language rights as stipulated by the Constitution (see Table 5.37 below).

Table 5.37: Awareness of language rights

Response	Number of respondents
Yes	17
No	0

5.3.7 Knowledge of the existence of institutional language policies

Few respondents knew about the existence of institutional language policies in their specific institutions (see Table 5.38 below).

Table 5.38: Availability of language policy at the respondents' university

Responses	Number of respondents
Yes	5
No	7
Don't know	5

5.3.8 Status of the 11 official languages in the 23 universities

The 11 official languages do not have equal official status in the different 23 universities (see Table 5.39 below)

Table 5.39: The 23 universities' official language(s)

Language	Number of universities
AF	10
ENG	17
NDL	0
XHO	1
ZUL	2
SO	1
SOL	2
TSW	1
SSW	0
VEN	1
XTG	1
OT	0

5.3.9 The rate of implementation of institutional language policies

Few respondents confirm that their institutional language policies are implemented (see Table 5.40 below)

Table 5.40: Is the institutional language policy implemented?

Responses	Number of respondents
Yes	3
No	10
Don't know	4

5.3.10 Inclusion of official languages in the 23 universities' curricula

The 23 universities do not have the same number of official languages in their academic curricula. Some languages have greater representation than others (see Table 5.41 below)

Table 5.41: Official languages taught as subjects

Language	Number of universities
AF	12
ENG	16
NDL	1
XHO	6
ZUL	10
SO	5
SOL	7
TSW	7
SSW	2
VEN	4
XTG	3

5.3.11 Space accorded to the languages of the colonial masters of Africa in the 23 universities' curricula

Very few languages of African countries are included in the 23 universities' curricula compared to European languages (see Table 5.42 below).

Table 5.42: Non-official languages and foreign languages taught

Language groups	Number of respondents
AFL	2
ASS	1
EUL	13
SAGL	2
AL	1

5.3.12 Lecturer(s) qualified to teach in more than two languages in the 23 universities

Respondents indicated that there are either no qualified lecturers or not any known lecturer who is qualified to teach in more than two languages in the 23 universities (see Table 5.43 below).

Table 5.43 Lecturers qualified to teach in more than two languages

Responses	Number of respondents
Yes	0
No	12
Don't know	5

5.3.13 Medium of instruction for teaching and learning an indigenous language in the 23 universities

Some languages are used to teach and learn an indigenous language, especially the English language (see Table 5.44 below).

Table 5.44: Language(s) used for teaching and learning indigenous (official) languages

Language	Number of universities
AF	0
ENG	12
NDL	1
XHO	6
ZUL	10
SO	5
SOL	7
TSW	7
SSW	2
VEN	4
XTG	3

5.3.14 Linguistic freedom on answering examinations/ assignments

The respondents only gave one of two answers: No or don't know on linguistic freedom (see Table 5.45 below).

Table 5.45: Examinations/ assignment answers are not in a language of choice

Response	Number of respondents
Yes	0
No	9
Don't know	8

5.3.15 Use of English and Afrikaans compared to indigenous languages for academic and research work among the 23 universities

English is in the first position and Afrikaans joined two of the indigenous languages in the zero position (Table 5.46 below).

Table 5.46: Language needed to be learned by academic and research staff

Language	Number of universities
AF	0
ENG	12
NDL	0
XHO	5
ZUL	10
SO	5
SOL	4
TSW	2
SSW	0
VEN	2
XTG	2

5.4 SUMMARY

This chapter outlined the findings on the case study and survey based on the data outlined in chapter 4. The activities and performance of the 23 universities to improve the use and status of indigenous languages were found in the case study. The basis of these findings was the second objective of the study: to investigate the universities' activities to improve the use and status of indigenous languages. Their initiations or failure to initiate the recognition of indigenous languages as an essential part of the South African higher education system were found in the survey. The basis of these findings was the third objective of the study: To evaluate the universities' progress on the recognition of the indigenous languages. Both the findings on the case study and survey are analysed and interpreted in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 6

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In chapter 5 the findings on the literature review, case study and survey were presented. This chapter analyses and interprets the findings to determine the degree of support they offer for the second and third objectives of the study: To investigate the universities' activities to improve the use and status of indigenous languages and to evaluate the universities' progress on the recognition of the indigenous languages. It also answers two questions linked to the second and the third objectives: What are the 23 universities' activities and their performance to promote the use and status of indigenous languages; and has the recognition of indigenous languages been initiated? This chapter is divided into four sections, as listed below:

- 6.1 Introduction
- 6.2 Analysis and interpretation of findings on the case study
- 6.3 Analysis and interpretation of findings on survey
- 6.4 Summary

The findings are presented using the framework designed to determine the literature review, case study and survey on the fit between government language policies and institutional language policies: the case of indigenous languages in the South African higher education system. The framework divides the findings into two sections: Analysis and interpretation of findings on case study and findings on the survey. The two sections are described in sections 6.2 and 6.3. Graphical representations are used in both sections.

6.2 ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS ON THE CASE STUDY

The findings on the case study are analysed in this section. There are two major findings under this section: Analysis and interpretation of the findings on the external environment (macro-environment); and analysis and interpretation of the findings on the internal environment. They are presented in subsections 6.2.1 and 6.2.2, respectively.

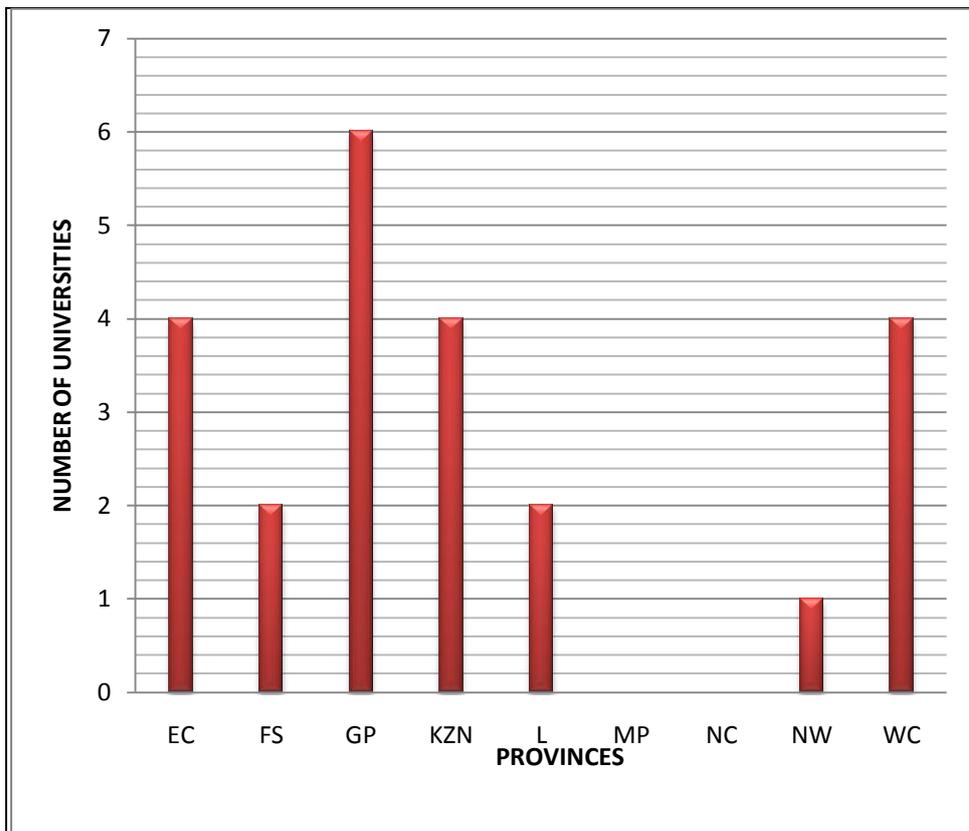
6.2.1 Analysis and interpretation of the findings on the external environment (macro-environment)

This is further subdivided into four subsections: demographic factor; institutional factor, international factor and political factor, presented in (a) to (d), respectively.

(a) Two big challenges posed by the demographic factor

The distribution of the 23 universities among the nine provinces has been identified as the first challenge (see Chart 1 below).

Chart 1: Distribution of the 23 universities among the nine provinces



Interpreting Chart 1 within the framework of fit between government language policies and institutional language policies, indigenous languages do not receive equal use and status in the country's higher education system. There are four explanations supporting this finding:

Firstly, there are inequalities in the distribution of universities in the nine provinces. The Gauteng Province has the highest number of universities, namely six (26.1%) out of the 23 universities. It is followed by three provinces, with four (17.4%) of the 23 universities each, namely: Eastern Cape Province, KwaZulu-Natal Province and Western Cape Province. Two

provinces come after the three provinces, with two (8.7%) of the 23 universities each. They are Free State Province and Limpopo Province. The two provinces are followed by North-West Province with one (4.3%) of the 23 universities. There are two provinces that have no columns in the chart: Mpumalanga Province and Northern Cape Province. They each have zero (0.0%) of the universities.

Secondly, the populations in the nine provinces were not used as determinants of the establishment of the 23 universities. For instance, Gauteng Province has two (8.7%) more universities than Kwazulu-Natal, but the population gap between the two provinces is too narrow to justify the extra two universities in Gauteng Province. Gauteng Province had 10 451 713 or 21.5% and Kwazulu-Natal had 10 259 230 or 21.2% of the country's total population in the 2007 census. Kwazulu-Natal Province had 192483 (0.3%) less than the population of Gauteng Province and to claim that the 0.3% margin resulted in two more universities in Gauteng Province compared to Kwazulu-Natal Province would be totally amiss. Moreover, when comparing the population between KwaZulu-Natal Province and the other two provinces that share an equal number of universities with it, there is a wider gap. The population of Eastern Cape Province was 6278651 or 13.5% of the total population of the country declared by the 2007 census. Compared to the population of Kwazulu-Natal in the same census the Eastern Cape Province had 3980579 (7.7%) less than Kwazulu-Natal – a wider population gap than was observed between Gauteng Province and KwaZulu-Natal Province. Moreover, the population of Western Cape Province was 5278585 or 10.9% of the total population of the country; 4980645 (10.3%) less than that of KwaZulu-Natal Province; or 1000066 (2.6%) population less than Eastern Cape Province. Similarly, when comparing the populations between Free State Province and Limpopo Province that also have an equal number of universities, there is a wider population gap. Similarly, the total population of Free State Province was 2773059 or 5.6%, and the total population of Limpopo Province was 5238286 (10.8%) of the country's total population in the 2007 census. Hence, Free State Province had 2465227 (5.2%) population less than Limpopo Province, but they had an equal number of universities. Furthermore, Limpopo Province had only 40299 (0.1) population and two universities less than Western Cape Province. Lastly, the remaining three provinces: Mpumalanga Province, Northern Cape Province and North-West Province had 3643435 (7.5%); 1058060 (2.2%); and 3271948 (6.7%) of the total population of the country declared by the 2007 census, respectively. Note that North-West Province has one (4.3%) of the 23 universities and Mpumalanga does not have a university, whereas the population is greater in

Mpumalanga Province than in North-West Province which trailed Mpumalanga Province by 371487 (0.8%). Surprisingly, both the populations of Mpumalanga Province and the North-West Province were more than that of Free State Province. The population of Free State Province was 1178208 (1.9%) and 807721 (1.1%) less than Mpumalanga and North-West, respectively, but Free State Province has two universities, North-West Province has one, and Mpumalanga Province has none. Almost all the populations of the nine provinces had increased in the census declared for 1996/2001 and 2001/2007. The only population decrease in these two censuses was the 2.0% decrease in Northern Cape as declared by the 1996/2001 census (see Table 2.6 in chapter 2 of this study). The increase of those populations is not only based on the birth rate, but also based on the movement of the population from one province to another. They move with their languages and study at universities of their new provinces.

Thirdly, the language and the distribution of universities is also not a reliable determinant of the establishment of the democratic universities in various provinces. This explanation could be easily understood if Chart 1 could be read side by side with Table 2.5 of this thesis (see Table 6.1 below).

Table 6.1: Summary of Table 2.5 (Number of languages per province)

Province	Number of indigenous languages
EC	2 [isiXhosa and Sesotho]
FS	4 [Sesotho, Setswana; isiZulu and isiXhosa]
GP	3 [isiZulu, Sepedi and Sesotho]
KZN	2 [isiXhosa and isiZulu]
L	4 [Sepedi, Setswana, Tshivenda and Xitsonga]
MP	5 [isiNdebele, isiZulu, Sepedi, siSwati and Xitsonga]
NC	3 [Setswana, isiXhosa and Sesotho]
NW	4 [Setswana, isiXhosa, Sesotho and Xitsonga]
WC	1 [isiXhosa]

IsiNdebele is found in one (11.1%); isiXhosa in six (66.7%); isiZulu in four (44.4%); Sepedi in three (33.3%); Sesotho in five (55.5%); Setswana in four (44.4%); siSwati in one (11.1%);

Tshivenda in one (11.1%) and Xitsonga in three (33.3%) of the nine provinces in South Africa.

The provincial approach could favour isiXhosa more than any other indigenous languages. Five of the provinces in which isiXhosa is said to be present have universities (see Chart 1). There are 15 (65.2%) of the 23 universities in those provinces in which isiXhosa is acknowledged according to the data in Table 2.5. This means that 15 of the 23 universities can develop the use and status of isiXhosa for the South African higher education system if the data provided by Table 2.5 or its summary in Table 6.1 is pursued.

Sesotho could be the language in the second place after isiXhosa. In five (55.5%) of the nine provinces Sesotho is acknowledged as one of predominantly spoken languages according to the data in Table 2.5. Four (80%) of the five provinces in which Sesotho is acknowledged have universities (see Chart 1). There are 13 (56.5%) of the 23 universities in four of the five provinces that acknowledge the presence of Sesotho language speakers. This means that 13 (56.5%) of the 23 universities can develop the use and status of Sesotho for the South African higher education system if the data provided by Table 2.5 or its summary in Table 6.1 is pursued.

Two of the nine indigenous languages could be in the third place after the Sesotho language: IsiZulu and Setswana. The populations speaking isiZulu and Setswana are acknowledged in four provinces according to the data in Table 2.5 or its summary in Table 6.1. Three (75%) of the four provinces in which the presence of isiZulu and Setswana speaking populations are acknowledged have universities (see Chart 1). There are 12 (52.2%) of the 23 universities in three provinces in which the presence of an isiZulu speaking population is acknowledged. In contrast there are five (21.7%) of the 23 universities in three provinces in which the presence of Setswana speaking population is acknowledged. It means that 12 (52.2%) of the 23 universities can develop the use and status of isiZulu for higher education system and five (21.7%) can develop the use and status of Setswana if the data provided by Table 2.5 or its summary in Table 6.1 is pursued.

Two of the nine indigenous languages could be in the fourth place after isiZulu and Setswana: Sepedi and Xitsonga. The populations that speak these two languages are acknowledged in three provinces according to the data in Table 2.5 or its summary in Table 6.1. Two (80%) of

the three provinces in which the presence of the two languages speaking populations are acknowledged have universities (see Chart 1). There are eight (34.8%) of the 23 universities in three provinces in which the presence of a Sepedi speaking population is acknowledged. In contrast, there are only three (13.0%) of the 23 universities in three provinces in which the presence of a Xitsonga speaking population is acknowledged. It means that eight universities (34.8%) can develop the use and status of Sepedi for higher education system and three (13.0%) can develop the use and status of Xitsonga if the data provided by Table 2.5 or its summary in Table 6.1 is pursued.

Three of the nine indigenous languages could be in the last or fifth place after those four languages discussed above. The three languages include: isiNdebele, siSwati and Tshivenda. The presence of the populations of these three languages is acknowledged in one province each. The Tshivenda speaking populations are acknowledged in a province where there are universities (see Chart 1). There are only two (8.7%) of the 23 universities in the province in which the Tshivenda speaking population is acknowledged according to the data in Table 2.5 or its summary in Table 6.1. In contrast, there are no universities in the province in which the presence of isiNdebele and siSwati speaking population is acknowledged. This means that two (8.7%) of the 23 universities can develop the use and status of Tshivenda for the South African higher education system if the data provided by Table 2.5 or its summary in Table 6.1 is pursued.

The fourth and last explanation confirms discrepancies among the universities on developing the use and status of indigenous languages for the South African higher education system (see Table 6.2 below).

Table 6.2: Summary of indigenous language offerings for the 23 universities as outlined in APPENDIX A

Language	Number of universities offered
IsiNdebele	1
IsiXhosa	10
IsiZulu	8
Sepedi	5
Sesotho	7
Setswana	5
SiSwati	2
Tshivenda	4
Xitsonga	3

Note that the data in Table 6.2 represent indigenous languages offered or taught. It does not cover primary languages or languages of tuition. The third explanation provided some assumptions on the development of the use and status of indigenous languages for the South African higher education system. Such development of the use and status of indigenous languages is spear headed by making those indigenous languages primary languages of the institutions or languages of tuition. Languages can be offered without making them primary languages of the institutions or languages of tuition in other fields except their own fields; but they cannot be made primary languages of the institutions or languages of tuition while they are not offered. Thus, the data in Table 6.2 is the test of seriousness of the 23 universities in developing the use and status of indigenous languages for the country's higher education system. It is analysed here side by side with Chart 1; Table 2.5 or its summary in Table 6.1; and the section on language offered by the 23 universities in APPENDIX A.

There is no indigenous language offered according to the ideal projection made in the third explanation above. The use and status of IsiXhosa are expected to be developed by 15 (65.2%) of the 23 universities. In Table 6.2 above, isiXhosa is offered by 10 (66.7%) of the 15 universities in which the presence of an isiXhosa population is acknowledged and this means that it is offered by 10 (43.5%) of the 23 universities. There are 13 (56.5%) of the 23 universities and five (33.3%) of the 23 universities found in the provinces where the presence of an isiXhosa population is acknowledged according to the data in Table 2.5 or its summary in Table 6.1 above, that ignore the offering of isiXhosa. The only reason for this state is that universities are glued to the Extension of University Education Act (No 45 of 1959) that allowed for segregated education; and section 119 of Act 32 of 1961 recognised the indigenous languages as official on the basis of regions or Bantustans. For instance, isiXhosa is not offered by North-West University (NWU), but the presence of 7.6% of an isiXhosa speaking population is acknowledged by the data in Table 2.5 or the data summarised in Table 6.1. NWU does not acknowledge this, instead it focuses on the promotion of Afrikaans, English and Setswana in that region according to the former dispensation of Apartheid. Eight (80%) of the 10 universities offering isiXhosa are found in the Eastern and Western Cape. The ninth and tenth universities were boosts from Central University of Technology (CUT) in Free State Province and UNISA. UNISA was offering isiXhosa even during Apartheid and is not one of the 15 universities expected to start developing the use and status of isiXhosa as it was already offering the language all along. The only improvement here is that also HWUs (Historically White Universities) are teaching isiXhosa in their own ways, but the status is

still that of apartheid or separate development. In KwaZulu-Natal Province and North-West Province the presence of an isiXhosa speaking population is acknowledged according to Table 2.5 and summary in Table 6.1 above, but the five universities in these two provinces fail to offer isiXhosa. In Free State Province the presence of an isiXhosa speaking population is also acknowledged according to Table 2.5 and its summary in Table 6.1 above, but only one university of the Free State Province's two universities offers isiXhosa. This makes the total of universities, excluding UNISA, that offer isiXhosa, nine (60%) of the 15 universities found in the six provinces in which the presence of isiXhosa speakers is acknowledged. Thus, there are a total of six (40%) of the 15 universities that do not offer isiXhosa, but are found in three of the six provinces in which the presence of isiXhosa speakers is acknowledged.

The use and status of Sesotho are expected to be developed by 13 (56.5%) of the 23 universities if data provided by Table 2.5 or its summary in Table 6.1 is pursued as a determining fact of indigenous language development by various universities. However, if one considers the universities' offerings of indigenous languages summarised in Table 6.2, Sesotho is offered by seven (30.4%) of the 23 universities or six (46.2%) of the 13 universities found in provinces in which the presence of a Sesotho speaking population is acknowledged in the data provided in Table 2.5 and summarised in Table 6.1 above. It got a boost from the University of Cape Town (UCT) which does not share the same province with it to reach the maximum of seven (30.4%) of the 23 universities that make Sesotho one of their offerings. Thus there are a total of 10 (43.5%) of the 23 universities and seven (53.8%) of the 13 universities sharing provinces with Sesotho (according to the data in Table 4.3 converted to Chart 1; and Table 2.5 or its summary in Table 6.1 above), that do not offer Sesotho as an academic discipline or language for specific professions. The same reason of universities being glued to the Extension of University Education Act (No 45 of 1959) that allowed for segregated education and section 119 of Act 32 of 1961 recognised the indigenous languages as official on the basis of regions or Bantustans. For instance, Sesotho is not offered by North-West University (NWU), but the presence of 6.8% of a Sesotho speaking population is acknowledged by the data in Table 2.5 or the data summarised in Table 6.1. NWU does not acknowledge this, instead it remains with the former apartheid dispensation. Sesotho is also overlooked by four universities in Gauteng Province: University of Johannesburg (UJ); University of Pretoria (UP); Tshwane University of Technology (TUT) and Vaal University of Technology (VUT). It is also ignored by two universities in the

Eastern Cape: Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (NMMU) and Rhodes University (RU).

The use and status of IsiZulu or Setswana are expected to be developed by 12 (52.2%) or five (21.7%) of the 23 universities, respectively, if the data provided by Table 2.5 or its summary in Table 6.1 is pursued. However, isiZulu is offered by eight (34.8%) and Setswana by five (21.7%) of the 23 universities. Furthermore isiZulu is offered by eight (66.7%) of the 12 universities found where the presence of an isiZulu speaking population is acknowledged, as in Table 2.5 or its summary in Table 6.1. Setswana is offered by two (40%) of the five universities found where the presence of the Setswana speaking population is acknowledged as in Table 2.5 or its summary in Table 6.1. There are still 15 (65.2%) of the 23 universities and four (33.3%) of the 12 universities found in provinces in which the presence of the isiZulu speaking population is acknowledged as in Table 2.5 or its summary in Table 6.1, which do not offer isiZulu as an academic discipline or language for a specific profession. There are two reasons for this action. Two (50%) of the four universities are in Free State Province: Central University of Technology (CUT) and University of Free State (UFS). Two (50%) of those four universities are in Gauteng Province and KwaZulu-Natal Province, respectively: Vaal University of Technology (VUT) and Mangosuthu University of technology (MUT), respectively. The presence of 5.1% of the isiZulu speaking population in Free State Province is ignored by CUT and UFS. Thus, the two universities seemed to be glued to the apartheid legislations: the Extension of University Education Act (No 45 of 1959) that allowed for segregated education; and section 119 of Act 32 of 1961 that recognised the official status of indigenous languages in regions or Bantustans. This is the first reason. The second reason is that the two universities of technology (VUT and MUT) seem not to have started to offer any indigenous language yet. (see the Case Study in APPENDIX A).

With Setswana it is slightly different because three (60.0%) of the five universities offering Setswana are from Gauteng Province. However, the presence of the Setswana speaking population is not acknowledged in this Province by the data in Table 2.5 and its Summary in Table 6.1. The other two (40%) of the five universities are found in two of the provinces in which the presence of Setswana speakers is acknowledged by the data in Table 2.5 and its summary in Table 6.1. These two universities are CUT and North-West University (NWU). Thus, three (60%) of the universities found in provinces in which the presence of a Setswana speaking population is acknowledged by the data in Table 2.5 and its summary in Table 6.1

ignore to include Setswana in their offerings. The three universities are Free State University (UFS); University of Limpopo (UL) and University of Venda (Univen.). UFS ignored the presence of 6.8% of the Setswana population in the Free State Province as acknowledged by the data in Table 2.5 and its summary in Table 6.1. Similarly, UL and Univen also ignored the presence of 2.1% of the Setswana population in the Limpopo Province as acknowledged by the data in Table 2.5 and its summary in Table 6.1. Thus, the three universities seemed to be glued to the apartheid legislations: the Extension of University Education Act (No 45 of 1959) that allowed for segregated education; and section 119 of Act 32 of 1961 that recognised the official status of indigenous languages in regions or Bantustans. However, a question can still be posed in the case of UL. Its establishment as University College of the North by the Extension of University Education Act (No 45 of 1959) included the Setswana speaking population, and Setswana was taught at UL since then. It might be possible that the UL is trying to eradicate the Extension of University Education Act (No 45 of 1959) or it has misunderstood the Ministerial Committee (2005) 's suggestion, which focussed on indigenous languages as primary languages or not. Another challenging practice is that of CUT: it ignored isiZulu, but welcomes the Setswana language. This calls for dropping the suggestion that CUT is influenced by apartheid creations.

The use and status of Sepedi are expected to be developed by eight (34.8%) of the 23 universities if the data provided by Table 2.5 or its summary in Table 6.1 is pursued. However, it is offered by six (26.1%) of the 23 universities or 6 (75%) of the eight universities found in provinces where the presence of the Sepedi speaking population is acknowledged as in Table 2.5 and its summary in Table 6.1. But there are still 17 (79.3%) of the 23 universities and two (25%) of the eight universities found in provinces in which the presence of the Sepedi speaking population is acknowledged as in Table 2.5 and summarised in Table 6.1 above, which do not have offerings for Sepedi. The two universities are found in Gauteng: University of Witwatersrand and Vaal University of Technology. Sepedi did not get any boost from other universities outside its jurisdictions as prescribed by the data in Table 2.5 or its summary in Table 6.1. Since the University of South Africa is categorised as the university of the Gauteng Province because of its head office being in Gauteng, it is counted as one of the eight universities and increases the percentage of the universities concerned.

The use and status of Xitsonga are expected to be developed by three (13.0%) of the 23 universities, if the data provided by Table 2.5 or its summary in Table 6.1 is pursued.

Xitsonga is indeed offered by three (3.0%) of the 23 universities. Only two (66.7%) of the three universities found in provinces where the presence of the Xitsonga speaking population is acknowledged as in Table 2.5 or its summary in Table 6.1 are offering Xitsonga. The presence of 3.4% of the Xitsonga speaking population in the North-West Province is acknowledged in the data presented in Table 2.5 or its summary in Table 6.1. North West University (NWU) ignores this information and it is glued to the apartheid legislations: the Extension of University Education Act (No 45 of 1959) that allowed for segregated education; and section 119 of Act 32 of 1961. The 13.0% in the national level is a boost from the University of South Africa (UNISA), which does not contribute to transformation because this language was offered by UNISA even as part of the Extension of University Education Act (No 45 of 1959) that allowed for segregated education; and section 119 of Act 32 of 1961.

The use and status of Tshivenda are expected to be developed by two (8.7%) of the 23 universities if the data provided by Table 2.5 or its summary in Table 6.1 is pursued. However, the offering of Tshivenda in the country's universities went beyond the provincial limitations. Four (17.4%) of the 23 universities teach Tshivenda and two (100%) of the universities sharing the same province with the Tshivenda language teach Tshivenda. The 17.4% on the national level is a boost from UNISA and Tshwane University of Technology (TUT). Both are found in Gauteng Province, where the data provided in Table 2.5 or its summary in Table 6.1 excluded the presence of the Tshivenda speaking population in this province. The case of UNISA is similar to that of the other languages, but TUT brings a new element of the recognition of Tshivenda, which is similar to that of UCT when it recognises isiZulu and Sesotho. The UCT approach might be based on the isiZulu speaking majority in and on the collaboration with another historically speaking university such as Wits which is committed to Sesotho. TUT can suggest that the allocation of languages in Gauteng Province in the data presented by Table 2.5 and its summary in Table 6.1 is incorrect. Gauteng has all indigenous languages. A simple example of this is SOSHANGUVE, an acronym for Sotho (SO), Shangana (SH), Nguni (NGU) and Venda (VE). All nine indigenous languages are represented in the acronym SOSHANGUVE, and SHOSHANGUVE is one of the Gauteng townships. Thus, the data in Table 2.5 that assumes that there are only isiZulu, Sepedi and Sesotho speaking populations in Gauteng Province is totally mistaken. All the 11 official languages are found in Gauteng townships. You even find them in schools.

The use and status of isiNdebele and siSwati are expected to be left in the dark by the 23 universities, since neither of the two languages shares a province with any of the 23 universities. However, siSwati is offered by two (8.7%) of the 23 universities. One is from Gauteng Province and the other one is from Limpopo Province. The university from Gauteng is UNISA, and its reason for offering teaching for siSwati is similar to the other seven languages: part of the Extension of University Education Act (No 45 of 1959) that allowed for segregated education; and section 119 of Act 32 of 1961. The University of Venda (Univen) in Limpopo Province initiated a new element of indigenous languages' offerings comparable to that of UCT, but outdoes that of UCT because it made a move to offer teaching in a language that is one of the languages thought to have a lesser population in the country, and a language that also has an official status in other country found in the SADC region. Besides being an official language in South Africa, siSwati is an official language of Swaziland. But, Sesotho is also an official language in Lesotho (Nkuna, 2010). This also gives a boost to the initiative of UCT to offer Sesotho. IsiNdebele's presence was felt when the University of Pretoria (UP/Tukkies) took a decision to offer isiNdebele. Hence, one (4.3%) of the 23 universities offers isiNdebele. The decision of offering isiNdebele is based on location, where isiNdebele is located in Mpulanga Province – the part of Mpumalanga Province which is closer to Pretoria. This also touches on the fact that the 23 universities should consider the development of languages that are identified to be in provinces closer to their province. This was already done by Univen, in the case of siSwati which is in Mpumalanga Province which is closer to Limpopo.

The analysis and interpretation of the findings and the four explanations of Chart 1 provide the 23 universities with various cautionary measures, including:

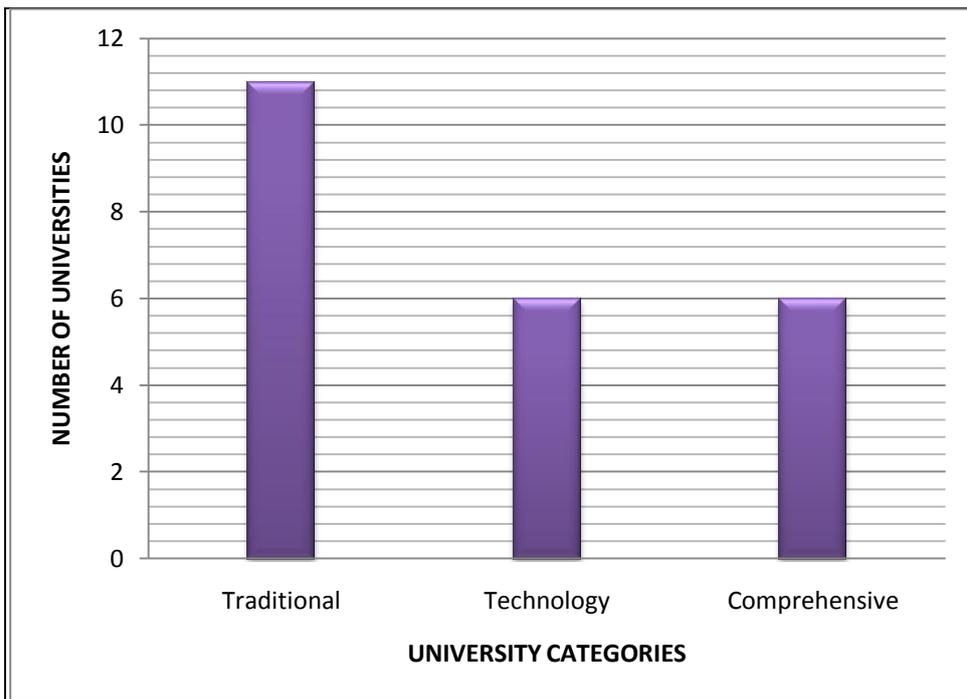
- (1) Universities are not provincial assets, but national assets;
- (2) The official status of the 11 languages is not provincial, but national;
- (3) Some provinces do not have universities; and some have more universities than others; but they have languages to be developed for the country's higher education system;
- (4) Racism, colonisation and apartheid are past legacies in South Africa; and they have to be buried through their total removal in the country's universities to open a full space for the country's democracy in the higher education system;
- (5) The features of the Bantustans of apartheid should be totally eradicated;

- (6) Location matters, but it is not a limitation for the universities to offer other languages which do not share the same provinces with them as Tables 4.14; 2.5 and 6.1 dictate. The fact that some languages dominate in a specific province, should be made the starting point, but not an end point;
- (7) Universities of technology should start to make a serious move towards the development of indigenous languages, for instance, there are two of these type of universities that fail to offer a single indigenous language;
- (8) Comprehensive universities should also make a move towards developing offerings in the technology component of those universities. Although, almost all of these universities do offer teaching on languages, it is still a question whether these universities offer indigenous languages for their technology courses or degrees; and
- (9) There is a difference between language offerings and primary language of the institution or language of tuition.

The cautionary measures should always be considered when making decisions on fitting institutional language policies into government language policies, an action that could develop the use and status of indigenous languages for the South African higher education system.

One could extend the nine cautionary measures listed above, but these are the basic factors to be considered when fitting the institutional language policy into government language policies that incorporate the development of the use and status of indigenous languages for the country's higher education system. Democracy and developing the use and status of indigenous languages are things that matter most. "Things which matter most must never be at the mercy of things which matter least" (Goethe, cited in Covey, 2004:146). Thus, the nine cautionary measures matter more than any form of racism, colonisation and apartheid in the country's universities' fitting their institutional language policies into government language policies that incorporate the development of the use and status of indigenous languages for the country's higher education system. In the next four charts more analysis and interpretation follows on distributions of universities per province and their impact on the fit between government language policies and institutional language policies, while considering the development of the use and status of indigenous languages for the South African higher education system. The first of four charts presents the second challenge under the demographic factor: Different categories among the 23 universities (see Chart 2 below).

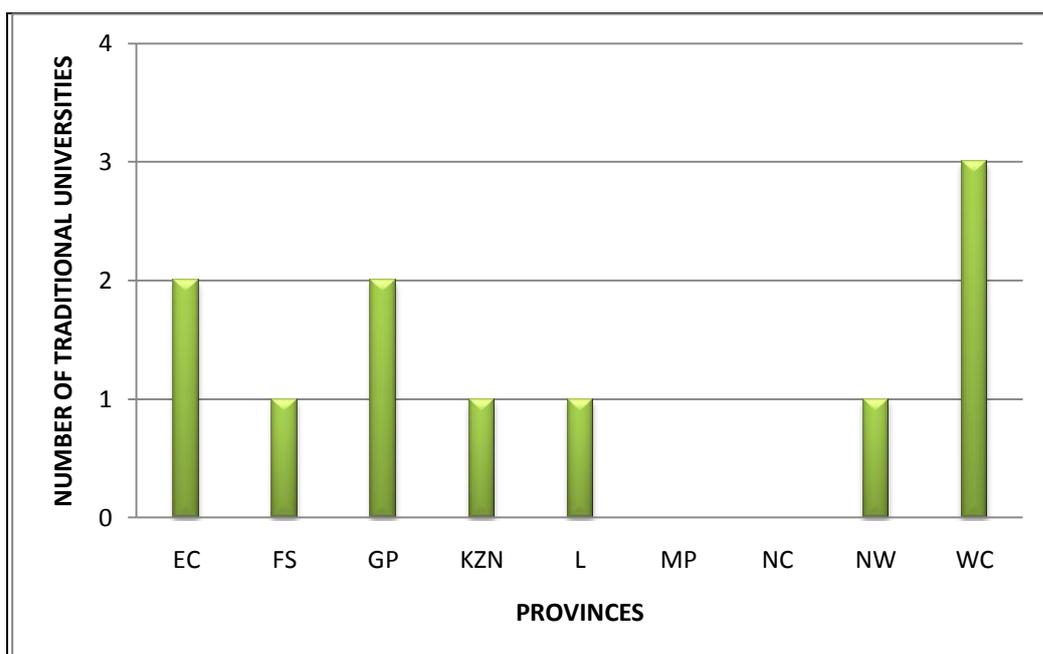
Chart 2: Categories of South African universities



Reading this chart, it is found that 11 (47.8%) of the 23 universities are traditional universities and 12 (52.2%) of the 23 universities are shared equally between universities of technology and comprehensive universities. Combining the 11 traditional universities with six of the traditional components from the comprehensive universities, and the six universities of technology the country will have 29 universities: 17 (58.6%) traditional universities and 12 (41.4%) universities of technology. The 17 (58.6%) traditional universities have already started with the offering of the indigenous languages and some of the separate universities of technology (four of the six) have started. It is not clear if the technology components in comprehensive universities have started. Cautionary measures (7) and (8) above are directed to universities of technology and comprehensive universities, respectively.

There are specific numbers of traditional universities per province (see Chart 3 on page 204).

Chart 3: Traditional universities in each province



Western Cape Province has three (27.3%) of the total number of traditional universities of South Africa. Eastern Cape Province and Gauteng Province have two (18.2%) of the traditional universities each. Free State Province, KwaZulu-Natal Province, Limpopo Province and North-West Province have one (9.1%) of traditional universities each. Mpumalanga Province and Northern Cape Province always have zero (0%) of any university category. Languages offered by traditional universities in different provinces varied (see Table 6.3 below).

Table 6.3: Indigenous languages offered by traditional universities in different provinces

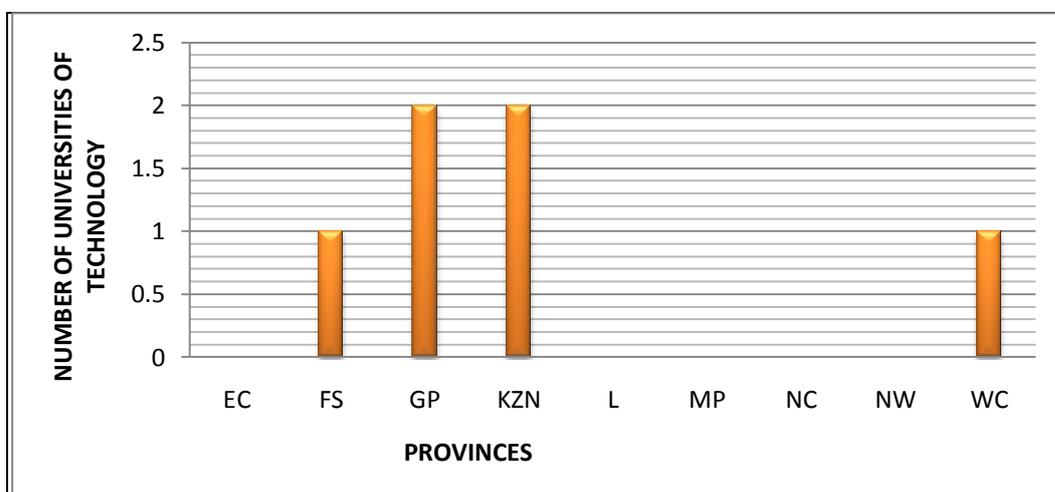
Province	Languages offered by different traditional universities
EC	isiXhosa; Sesotho
FS	Sesotho; Sign language
GP	isiNdebele; isiZulu; Sepedi, Sesotho; Setswana; SA sign language
KZN	IsiZulu
L	Sepedi; Tshivenda; Xitsonga
MP	N/A
NC	N/A
NW	Setswana
WC	isiXhosa; isiZulu; Sesotho

All indigenous languages with official status in terms of section 6(1) of the Constitution, 1996 (Act 108 of 1996) are offered by the traditional universities, including sign language, which is

only offered in two universities from two different provinces. None of the traditional universities offers the Khoi, Nama and San languages. Moreover, cautionary measures (1) to (6) under the analysis and interpretation of Chart 1 were ignored by most of the traditional universities. For instance, none of the traditional universities in EC, FS, KZN, L and NW has included a language that seemed to be predominantly spoken in other provinces. Thus, all the traditional universities in Eastern Cape Province, Free State Province, KwaZulu-Natal Province, Limpopo Province and North-West Province's operation tend towards segregation like the Bantustans of apartheid. Only one traditional university (University of Pretoria) in Gauteng Province considered a language acknowledged to be predominantly spoken in another province: isiNdebele. The other traditional university, the University of Witwatersrand joined the universities in Eastern Cape Province, Free State Province, KwaZulu-Natal Province, Limpopo Province and North-West Province by not offering indigenous languages from other provinces.

There are also specific numbers of universities of technology per province (see Chart 4 below).

Chart 4: Number of universities of technology per province



Gauteng Province and KwaZulu-Natal Province have two (33.3%) universities of technology, each. Free State Province and Western Cape Province have one (16.7%) of the total universities of technology in South Africa, each. Indigenous languages offered by universities of technology in different provinces also varied (see Table 6.4 below).

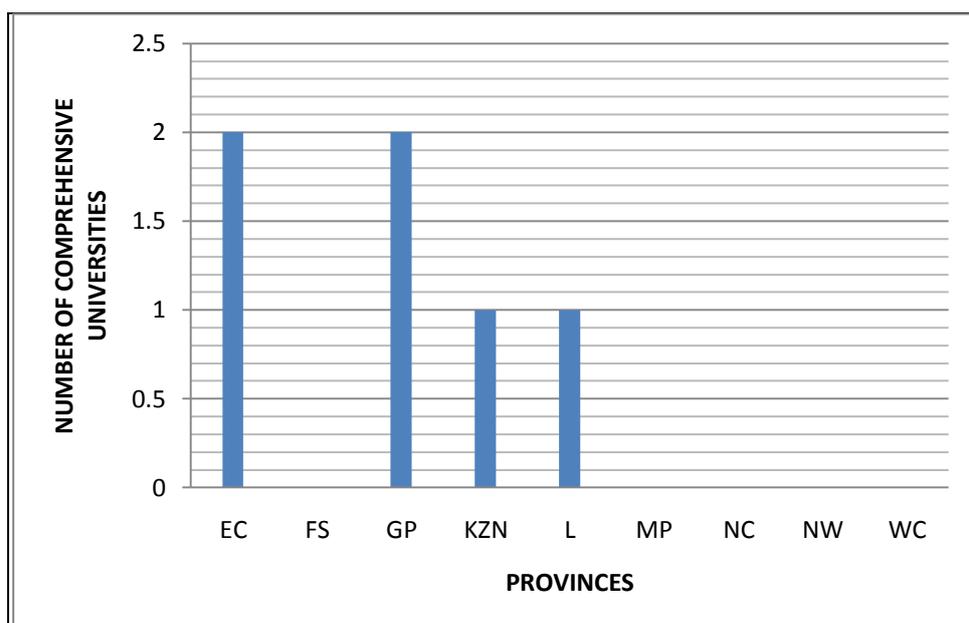
Table 6.4: Indigenous languages offered by universities of technology in different provinces

Province	Languages
EC	N/A
FS	Sesotho; Setswana
GP	isiZulu; Sepedi; Setswana; Tshivenda
KZN	isiZulu
L	N/A
MP	N/A
NC	N/A
NW	N/A
WC	isiXhosa

Not all indigenous languages with official status are offered by universities of technology. Only six (66.7%) of the nine languages are offered by some of the six universities of technology: isiXhosa, isiZulu, Sepedi, Setswana, Sesotho and Tshivenda. The remaining three official languages which are not offered at all by universities of technology are isiNdebele, siSwati and Xitsonga. Sign language, and Khoi, Nama and San languages are also not offered by all universities of technology. Moreover, cautionary measures (1) to (6) identified under the analysis and interpretation of Chart 1 were ignored by most of the universities. From the four provinces only one (25%) university offers languages that are not acknowledged by Table 2.5 or its summary in Table 6.1: Tshwane University of Technology offers Tshivenda and Setswana. Thus, cautionary measure (7) under the same analysis and interpretation should be taken seriously by all universities of technology in the country.

There are also specific numbers of comprehensive universities per province (see Chart 5).

Chart 5: Number of comprehensive universities per province



Two (22.2%) of the nine provinces have two (33.3%) of the six comprehensive universities South Africa, each: Eastern Cape Province and Gauteng Province. Another two (22.2%) of the nine provinces have one (16.7%) of the six comprehensive universities, each: KwaZulu-Natal Province and Limpopo Province. Indigenous languages offered by comprehensive universities in different provinces also varied (see Table 6.5 below).

Table 6.5: Indigenous languages offered by comprehensive universities in different provinces

Province	Language
EC	isiXhosa; Sesotho
FS	N/A
GP	isiXhosa, isiZulu, Sepedi, Sesotho; Setswana; siSwati; Tshivenda; Xitsonga
KZN	IsiZulu
L	Sepedi; siSwati; Tshivenda; Xitsonga
MP	N/A
NC	N/A
NW	N/A
WC	N/A

Not all indigenous languages with official status are offered by comprehensive universities: isiNdebele is not offered by any of the comprehensive universities. This means that the isiNdebele speaking population can only access their language in a traditional university. Furthermore, most of the indigenous languages acquired the status of being in a

comprehensive university by virtue of being offered at the University of South Africa (UNISA). UNISA does offer programmes or degrees in technology, but it is not clear whether it offers indigenous languages in those programmes or degrees. Similarly, comprehensive universities in Limpopo and Kwazulu-Natal did not have a component on technology in the past, and it seems that offerings such as programmes or degrees in technology in these universities are yet to be launched. Thus, cautionary measure (8) should be taken seriously by the six comprehensive universities.

The three categories of the country's universities have an impact in linguistic transformation. Therefore six additional cautionary measures can be added to the linguistic decisions by the 23 universities, namely:

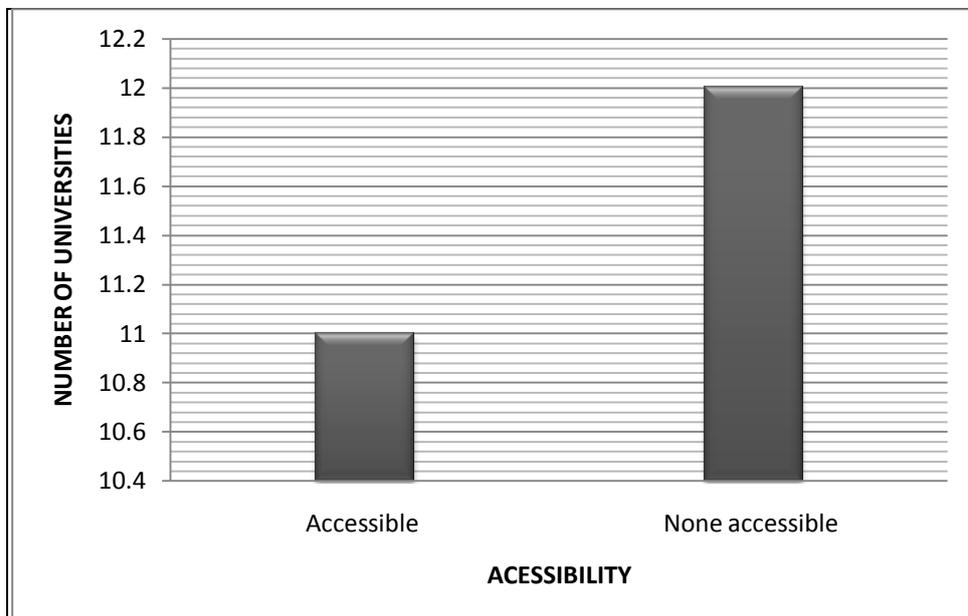
- (1) Five (55.5%) of the nine provinces in the country do not have comprehensive universities: Free State Province, Mpumalanga Province, Northern Cape Province, North-West Province and Western Cape Province;
- (2) Five (55.5%) of the nine provinces in the country do not have universities of technology: Eastern Cape Province, Limpopo Province, Mpumalanga Province, Northern Cape Province and North-West Province; and
- (3) The establishment of comprehensive universities was based on the merger between existing traditional universities and existing Technikons;
- (4) Some universities were given the status of a comprehensive university without merging with any Technikon and they never had a component of technology;
- (5) There are still universities of technology that are not offering an indigenous language; and
- (6) There are comprehensive universities that are not offering indigenous languages in their technology components, including those universities merged with former Technikons. for example, University of Venda.

A student from Limpopo, for example, wanting to follow a career that requires a qualification from a university of technology will find himself or herself being discriminated against, if the universities of technology choose to determine their primary language or language of tuition based on the so called predominant language of a province. Thus, the university categories confirm that the 23 universities have more challenges on the choice of university languages in their specific categories.

(b) Eight big challenges posed by the institutional factor

(1) The failure of most universities to formulate their institutional language policies and make them accessible is the first big challenge (see Chart 6 below).

Chart 6: Accessible and non-accessible institutional language policies



Only 11 (47.8%) of the 23 universities of the country have published their institutional language policies and make them accessible. In contrast, 12 (52.2%) of the 23 universities seem not to have institutional language policies at all.

“In democracy you cannot suspend the laws of economics for many months” (Garratt, 2003:xviii). Similarly, in democracy you cannot suspend the laws of educational equality for many months. The fact that after 16 years of democracy, 14 years of the Language clause of Act 108 of 1996; 13 years of the Higher Education Act, 1997 (Act 101 of 1997) and eight years of the Language Policy of Higher Education (2002), 12 of the 23 South African universities do not have an accessible institutional language policy; the laws of educational equality are suspended not only for many months, but for many years. Thus, 52.2% of the 23 universities are contravening subsection 27 (2) of Higher Education Act, 1997 (Act 101 of 1997) which states that subject to the policy determined by the Minister, the council, with the concurrence of the senate, must determine the institutional language policy of a public higher education institution and must publish and make it available on request. The Ministry of

Education published the Higher Education language policy in 2002. This action seems to be just ignored by the councils of those 12 universities.

Reading Chart 6 and Table 4.5 (see chapter 4) it is found that eight (72.7%) of the 11 universities with accessible institutional policies are traditional universities; two (8.7%) are comprehensive universities; and one (4.3%) is a university of technology.

If quantified on their own categories, only eight (72.7%) of the 11 traditional universities have accessible language policies, and three (27.3%) do not have an accessible institutional language policy. There are only two (33.3%) of the six comprehensive universities, and four (66.7%) of the comprehensive universities that do not have accessible language policies. Lastly, only one (16.7%) of the six universities of technology has an accessible language policy and five (83.3%) of the universities of technology do not have accessible language policies. Thus, the traditional university category is in the lead on establishing the institutional language policies and making them accessible. It surpasses the comprehensive university category by 39.4%, and universities of technology by 56%.

Besides the gap between categories, further reading of Chart 6 and Table 4.5 also reveals that there is a historical element characterising the type of universities that have an accessible institutional language policy and those universities without accessible institutional language policies. In this aspect, the 23 universities are subdivided into four categories. The four categories include: Historically Black Universities (HBUs), Historically White Universities (HWUs), Historically Technikons (HTs) and Merger Universities (MU), (see Table 6.6 below)

Table 6.6: Further categorisation of the 23 universities

Category	Number of universities
HBUs	4
HWUs	7
HTs	5
MUs	7

Note that this categorisation is not made officially like the three categories already discussed: Traditional, Technology and Comprehensive universities. The four categories evolve from the past and have impact on the present. Hence, seven (63.6%) of the 11 universities with

accessible language policies are HWUs: University of Cape Town (UCT), University of Free State (UFS), University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN), University of Pretoria (UP), Rhodes University (RU), University of Stellenbosch (Maties) and University of Witwatersrand (Wits). Three (27.2%) of the 11 universities with accessible language policies are MUs: University of Johannesburg (UJ), North-West University (NWU) and University of South Africa (UNISA). One (16.7%) of the 11 universities with accessible language policies is from HTs: Central University of Technology (CUT). None of the four HBUs have an accessible institutional language policy. The four HBUs include: University of Fort Hare (UFH), University of Venda (Univen), University of Western Cape (UWC) and University of Zululand (UniZulu).

If quantified in their categories seven (100%) of the HWUs have accessible language policies compared to, three (42.9%) of the seven MUs; one (16.7%) of the five HTs and zero (0%) of the four HBUs. Thus, the gap between the HWUs and MUs' accessibility of institutional language policies is 57.1%, favours HWUs. The gap between HWUs and HTs amounts to 83.3%, favours HWUs; and the gap between HWUs and HBUs is 100%, favours HWUs.

The HWUs are further subdivided in terms of primary language or language of tuition types. This has also an impact in linguistic transformation. They are categorised into two types: Historically English-speaking universities and Historically Afrikaans-speaking universities (see Table 6.7 below).

Table 6.7: Number of HWUs according to primary language or language of tuition

Categories	Number of universities
Historically English-speaking universities	4
Historically Afrikaans-speaking universities	3

All the Historically English-speaking and Historically Afrikaans-speaking universities have accessible institutional language policies.

The MUs have further divisions different from those of the HWUs (see Table 6.8 below).

Table 6.8: Sub-categories of MUs

Sub-category	Number of MUs per category
HBU +HBU	1
HIHU + HWU	1
HBU +HT	1
HIHU +HT	1
HT +HT	1
HBU +HT +HWU	1
HCI + HCI	1

Two new acronyms are used in Table 6.8: HIHU refers to Historically Independent Homeland University and HCI refers to Historically Correspondence Institution. From the MUs only three (42.9%) of the seven MUs have an accessible institutional language policies. One (33.3%) of the three institutional policies in the MUs is found in HIHU +HWU: North-West University (NWU); one (33.3%) in HIHU +HT +HWU: University of Johannesburg (UJ); and one (33.3%) in HCI +HCI: University of South Africa. There is zero (0%) from the other four categories: HBU +HBU or University of Limpopo (UL); HBU +HT or Walter Sisulu University (WSU); HWU +HT or Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (NMMU).

The HBUs are further subdivided into three sub-categories (see Table 6.9 below).

Table 6.9: Sub-categories of the HBUs

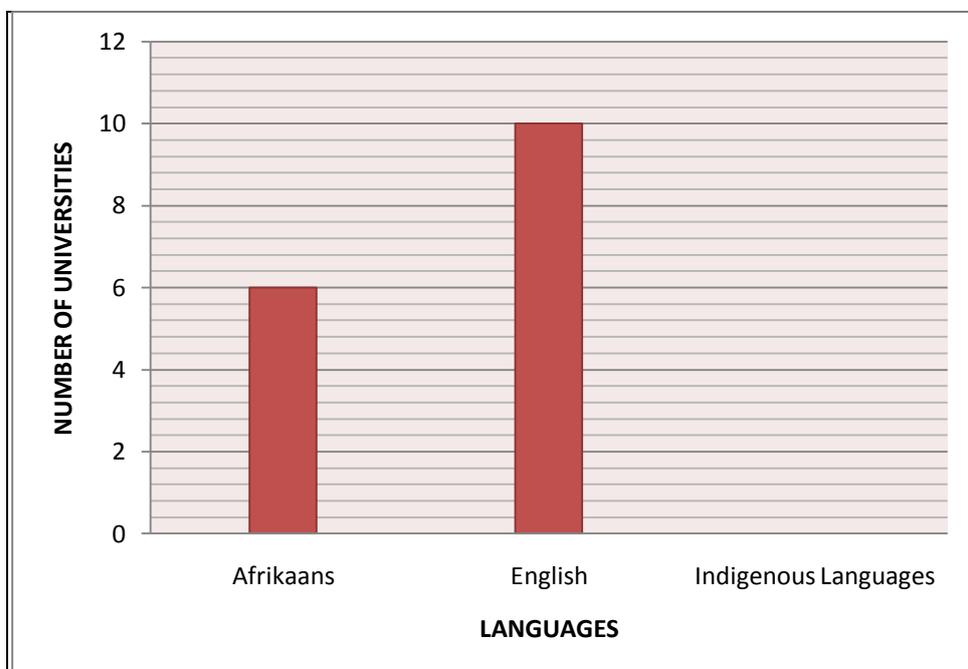
Sub-categories	Number of HBUs per category
Xhosa and Fingo group	1
Zulu and Swati group	1
Coloured group	1
HIHU	1

None of the four HBUs have an accessible institutional language policies. In a nutshell, the central challenge in all categories of the 23 universities is changing people’s behaviour. The central challenge is no longer the Constitution, Higher Education Legislations and government language policies. These elements and many others can be very important, but the core problem without question is “behaviour – what people do, and the need of significant shift in what people do” (Kotter & Cohen, 2002:2). Referring this conclusion back to the analysis, the HWUs were created based on language competition: Afrikaans and English. People participating in those universities behaved according to the linguistic and cultural situations of those universities. When it comes to the language issue, they become emotional and attend to it immediately. In contrast, the HBUs were created based on separate development and groupings. Hence, Afrikaans and English were imposed to those

universities; the HBUs of the apartheid universities shifted to English. People involved in those universities became comfortable, and through imposition it became the behaviour of most people involved in the HBUs. When a linguistic issue emerges, emotional climate and the culture of being colonised take a lead, and establishment of institutional language policies that will incorporate the development of the use and status of indigenous languages becomes ambivalent. Thus, those different behaviours of people involved in the HWUs and those involved in the HBUs also have an influence on the MUs' decisions. HBU + HBU merger does not have an accessible institutional language policy: the University of Limpopo. Similarly, HIHU+HT merger does not have an accessible institutional language policy, and HT +HT + HT (one was a Historically White Technikon and the other two were Historically Black Technikons) does not have an institutional language policy: Tshwane University of Technology (TUT). But HIHU + HWU merger has an accessible institutional language policy; and HCI + HCI merger has an accessible institutional language policy: the University of South Africa.

- (2) *The choice of Afrikaans and English as primary languages have never changed – the second big challenge presented by the institutional factor. The analysis and interpretation for this is outlined here (see Chart 7 below).*

Chart 7: Afrikaans and English are primary languages



Six (26.1%) of the 23 universities chose Afrikaans as their primary language or language of tuition. In contrast 10 (43.5%) of the 23 universities chose English as the primary language or

language of tuition. None of the 23 universities chose an indigenous language as primary language or language of tuition.

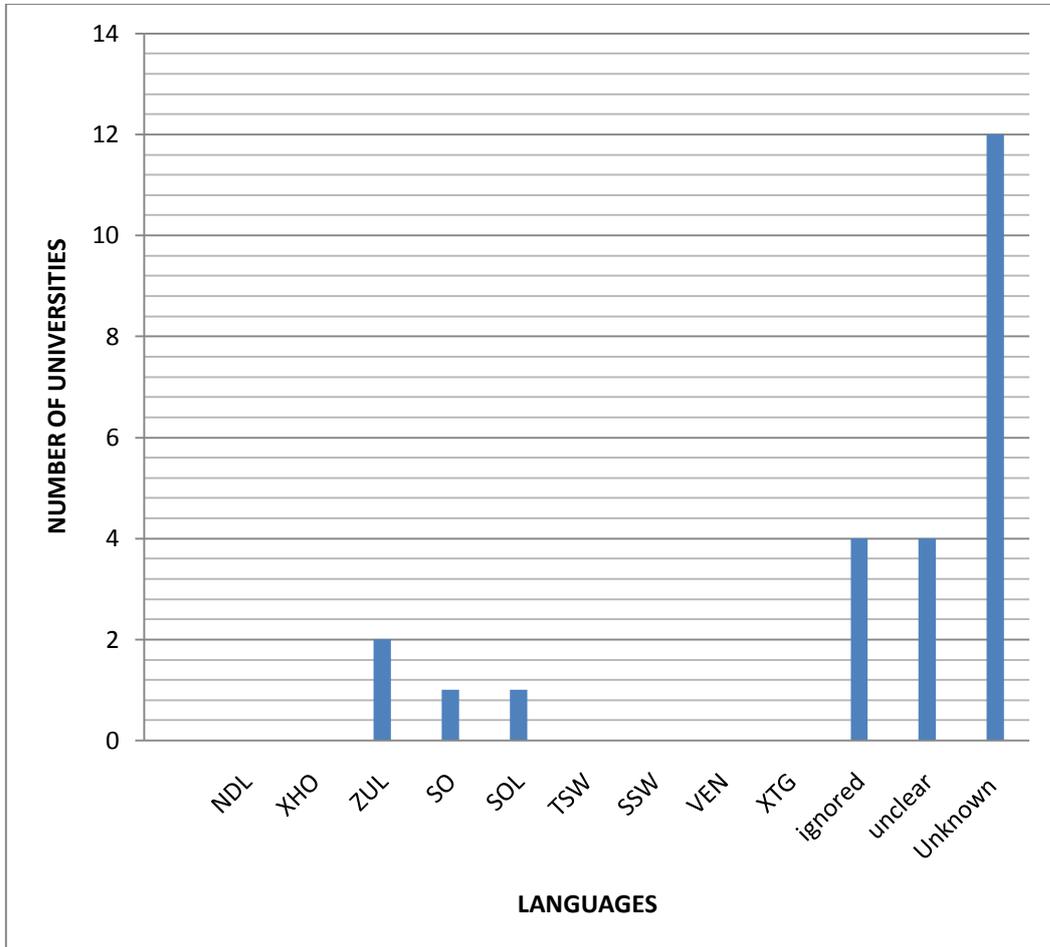
Reading Chart 7 and Table 4.7 (see chapter 4) side by side, it is found that only 11 (47.8%) of the 23 universities with accessible institutional language policies have reliable information on the primary languages or languages of tuition. That English is chosen by 10 (43.5%) of the 23 universities compared to six (26.1%) of those 23 universities that chose Afrikaans is found in 11 accessible institutional language policies. Thus, the choice of primary languages or languages of tuition for 12 (52.2%) of the 23 universities is not known, because those universities do not have accessible language policies. Thus, eight (72.7%) of the 23 universities that are traditional have information compared to two (18.8%) comprehensive universities and one (9.1%) from the universities of technology.

Four (50%) of the eight traditional universities chose only English as their primary language or language of tuition compared to one (12.5%) of those eight traditional universities that chose Afrikaans only. The remaining three (37.5%) of the eight traditional universities chose parallel –languages (both Afrikaans and English) to be their primary languages or languages of tuition. They are all HWUs, four (50%) of those universities are historically English-speaking and the other four (50%) are historically Afrikaans speaking. Those four (50%) of the historically-English speaking universities resisted change, they remain English-speaking universities. In contrast, three (75%) of the historically Afrikaans-speaking universities retain their Afrikaans and accommodate English – they now have parallel language instruction. Only one of those historically Afrikaans-speaking universities is resisting change. The HWUs' character is still intact in all the eight universities. Hence, the people's behaviour among those eight traditional universities has not changed drastically. The legacy of the past still determines the choice of primary languages or languages of tuition in all eight (100%) of the traditional HWUs in the South African higher education system.

Both (100%) of the two comprehensive universities with accessible institutional language policies chose a parallel language (Afrikaans and English) medium of instruction compared to the one (100%) of the only university of technology that chose English as a primary language of tuition. The two comprehensive universities are HBU +HWU + HT merger and HCI +HCI merger.

(3) *That South African languages developed in the medium and long term as medium of instruction in higher education alongside English and Afrikaans, is the third big challenge presented by the institutional factor (see Chart 8 below)*

Chart 8: South African languages developed in the medium and long term as medium of instruction in higher education, alongside English and Afrikaans



Only three (33.3%) of the nine indigenous languages that are also official languages are being developed in the medium and long term as medium of instruction in higher education, alongside English and Afrikaans: isiZulu, Sesotho and Sepedi. Six (66.7%) of those nine languages are not yet being prepared to be developed in the medium and long term as medium of instruction: isiNdebele, isiXhosa, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda and Xitsonga.

Reading Chart 8 side by side with Table 4.7 it is found that four (36.4%) of the 11 universities with institutional language policies ignore the inclusion of indigenous languages to be developed for use as primary languages or languages of tuition, an of these, three (75%) are traditional universities compared to one (25%) university of technology. Two (66.7%) of

those three traditional universities are historically Afrikaans-speaking universities compared to one (33.3%) that is historically-English-speaking.

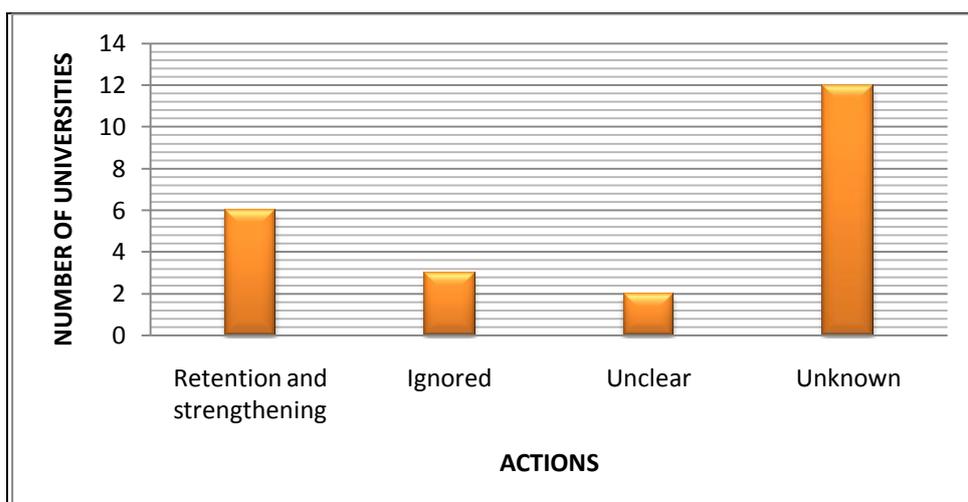
Similarly, four (36.4%) of the 11 universities have unclear statements on developing the indigenous languages to be used as primary languages or languages of tuition. Three (75%) of the four universities that have unclear statements are traditional universities compared to one (25%) comprehensive university. One (33.3%) of the three traditional universities is HHU + HWU merger; one (33.3%) is a historically Afrikaans-speaking university; and one (33.3%) is a historically English-speaking university. The last one (25%) of the four universities is a comprehensive university or HCI +HCI merger.

Three (27.3%) of the 11 universities with accessible institutional policies have set to develop indigenous languages, two (66.7%) are traditional universities and one (33.3%) is a comprehensive university. Both (100%) of the traditional universities are HWUs and historically English-speaking universities. The comprehensive university is an MU or HBU+HWU+ HT merger.

In short, only two historically English-speaking universities and one comprehensive university or an HBU+HWU+HT merger started with the development of indigenous languages to become primary languages or languages of tuition. The HBU+HWU+HT merger surpassed the two historically English-speaking universities, because of the three indigenous languages: isiZulu; Sepedi and Sesotho of which it is developing two (66.7%) compared to one (33.3%) developed by each of the two historically English-speaking universities. The Percentage of Provincial Population by Home language (see Table 2.5) and guidelines by the Ministerial Committee Report (2005) played a role.

- (4) *The fourth big challenge under the institutional factor clarifies the status of Afrikaans as a language of scholarship and scientific research. The information on this aspect was expected to be contained in the institutional language policies (see Chart 9).*

Chart 9: The status of Afrikaans as a language of scholarship and science



Twelve (52.2%) of the 23 universities that indicated ignorance about the status of Afrikaans as a language of scholarship and science are those universities without institutional language policies. There are six (26.1%) of the 23 universities that retain and strengthen of Afrikaans as a language of scholarship and science. There are three (13.0%) of the 23 universities that totally ignore the retention and strengthening of Afrikaans as a language of scholarship and science. Lastly, there are two (8.7%) of the 23 universities that indicated that their involvement on retaining or strengthening Afrikaans as a language of scholarship and science is unclear.

Reading Chart 9 and Table 4.8 (see chapter 4), all three (100%) of the universities that totally ignore the retention and strengthening of Afrikaans as a language of scholarship and science are traditional, HWUs and historically English-speaking universities.

One (50%) of the two universities that indicated that their involvement on retaining or strengthening Afrikaans as a language of scholarship and science is unclear is a university of technology; and the other one (50%) is a traditional, HWU and historically English-speaking university.

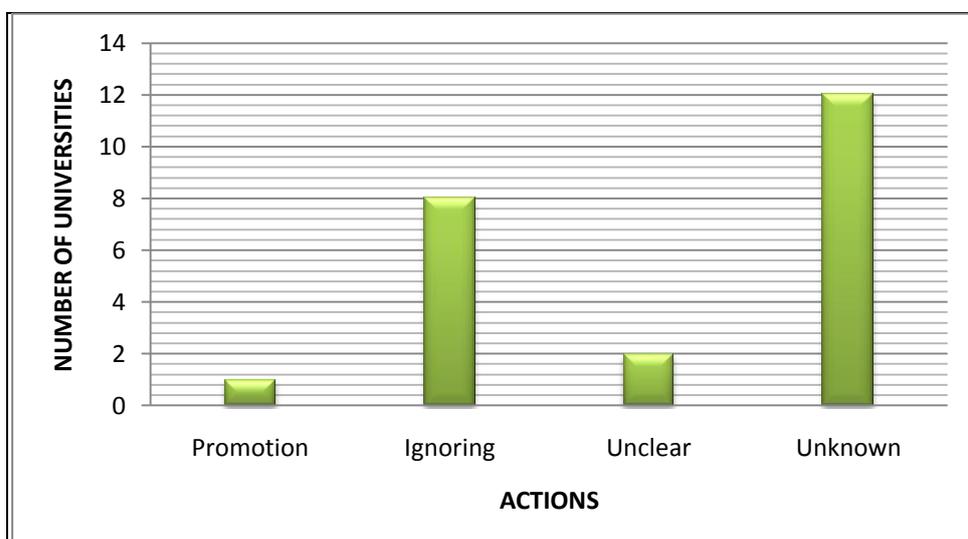
Lastly, six (26%) of the 23 universities that retain and strengthen Afrikaans as a language of scholarship and science are found in both traditional and comprehensive universities. There are four (66.7%) traditional universities: three (75%) of the four traditional universities in this aspect are HWUs and historically Afrikaans-speaking universities; and one (25%) is HIHU + HWU merger university. The HWU part of the merger was of a historically Afrikaans-

speaking university. The remaining two (33.3%) of the six universities in this aspect are comprehensive universities. Both are MUs, and in their merger they both have components of historically Afrikaans-speaking universities. For instance, in its history, UNISA was a parallel-medium university (Afrikaans and English-speaking) and for UJ, Rand Afrikaanse University was an Afrikaans-speaking university.

In short, historically Afrikaans-speaking universities including comprehensive universities that merged with a historically Afrikaans-speaking university, retained and strengthened Afrikaans as a language of scholarship and science. Historically English-speaking universities ignore or have unclear statements on the aspect. The university of technology has an unclear statement too. The battle of linguistic supremacy is still in action in the country's higher education system.

- (5) *The fifth big challenge for the institutional factor to be analysed and interpreted is the promotion of the study of South African languages and literature through planning and funding incentives (see Chart 10 below)*

Chart 10: Promotion of the study of South African languages and literature



The information of twelve (52.2%) of the 23 universities on promoting the study of South African languages and literature is unknown, because those universities do not have accessible language policies. Eight (34.8%) of the 23 universities totally ignore the study of South African languages and literature in their institutional language policies. Two (8.7%) of the 23 universities do not have clear statements on promoting the study of South African languages and literature in their institutional language policies. Lastly, only one (4.3%) of the

23 universities promotes the study of South African languages and literature as confirmed by its statement in its institutional language policy.

Reading Chart 10 and Table 4.9 (see chapter 4) it is found that eight (72.7%) of the 11 universities ignoring the inclusion of a statement on promotion of the study of South African languages and literature are traditional and comprehensive universities. Six (75%) of the eight universities are traditional universities compared to two (25%) which constitute comprehensive universities. Three (37.5%) of the six traditional universities are historically English-speaking universities compared to two (33.3%) historically Afrikaans-speaking universities and one HIHU + HWU merger university with a component of a historically Afrikaans-speaking university. The remaining two (33.3%) of the six universities in this aspect are comprehensive universities. Both are MUs, and in their merger they both have components of historically Afrikaans-speaking universities. For instance, in its history, UNISA was formerly a parallel-medium university (formerly Afrikaans and English-speaking) and UJ (Rand Afrikaans-speaking University) was an Afrikaans-speaking university.

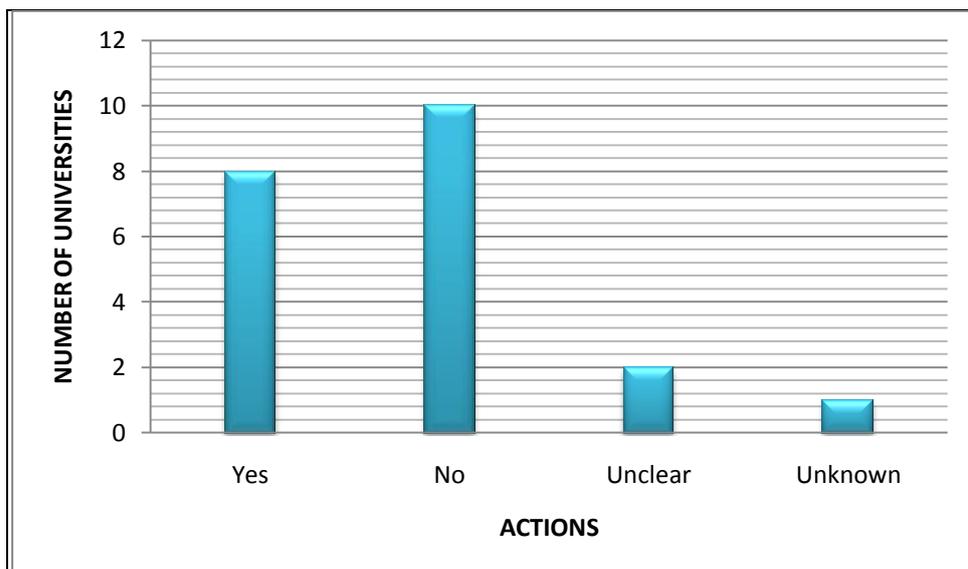
One (100%) of one university with an unclear statement in its accessible institutional language policy is a traditional HWU and historically Afrikaans-speaking university.

One (100%) of one university that has a statement on the study of South African languages and literature in its institutional language policy is a traditional HWU and historically English-speaking university.

In short, 22 (95.7%) of the 23 universities are not committed to the study of South African languages and literature. The HBUs remained silent, while the majority of HWUs published institutional language policies that ignore or hide behind unclear statements. The majority of universities of technology joined the HBUs and only one of those universities joined the HWUs.

(6) *The sixth challenge under the institutional factor to be analysed and interpreted is that of teaching indigenous language(s) for specific professions (see Chart 11 below).*

Chart 11: Teaching indigenous language(s) for specific professions



Ten (43.5%) of the 23 universities are not teaching indigenous language(s) for specific professions. Eight (34.8%) of the 23 universities are teaching indigenous language(s) for specific professions. It is not clear whether two (8.7%) of the 23 universities are teaching indigenous language(s) for specific professions or not. The information is not accessible in one (4.3%) of the 23 universities.

The data was collected from institutional language policies or prospectus. Hence, all the 23 universities participated in full and with relevant information.

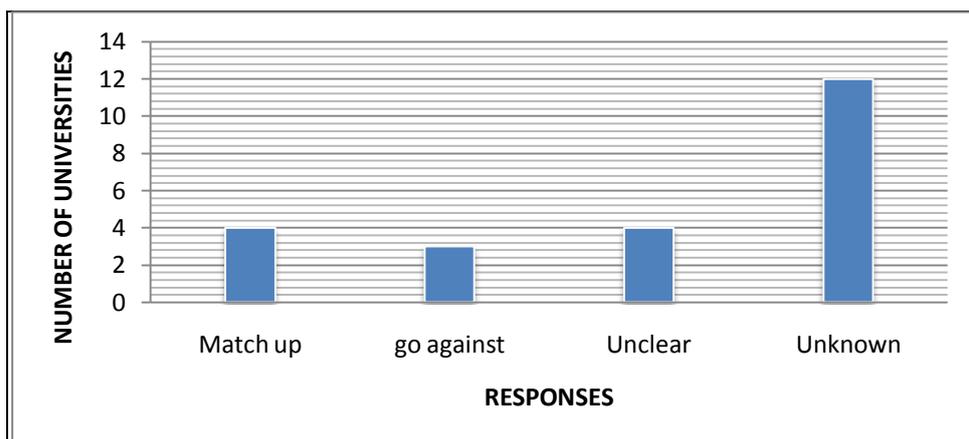
Reading Chart 11 and Table 4.10 (see chapter 4) it is found that the universities of technology play a superior role in teaching indigenous language(s) for specific professions. Four (50%) of the eight universities offering indigenous languages for specific professions are universities of technology. The other four (50%) are shared among the traditional universities and comprehensive universities. However, the shares of this percentage are not equal. There are three (37.5%) comprehensive universities compared to one (12.5%) traditional university.

In short, four (17.4%) of the 23 universities teaching indigenous languages for specific professions are universities of technology; three (13.0%) are comprehensive universities; and one (4.3%) presents a traditional university. It is in the nature of academics of the traditional universities to teach indigenous languages for the sake of teaching without thinking about the

end results. In the past most graduates, especially in the teaching profession specialised in the study of indigenous languages, but the knowledge they gained later became redundant.

- (7) *Response to Gerwel’s report and parallel language of instruction is the seventh challenge under the institutional factor. The information on this aspect was expected to be contained in the institutional language policies (see Chart 12 below).*

Chart 12: Response to Gerwel’s report and parallel language of instruction



Twelve 12 (52.2%) of the 23 universities do not have information on this aspect since they don’t have an accessible institutional language policy. There are only four (17.4%) of the 23 universities match up to Gerwel’s report and parallel language of instruction. Another four (17.4%) of the 23 universities have unclear information on this aspect; and three (13.0%) of the 23 universities did not conform to Gerwel’s report and parallel language of instruction in their institutional language policies.

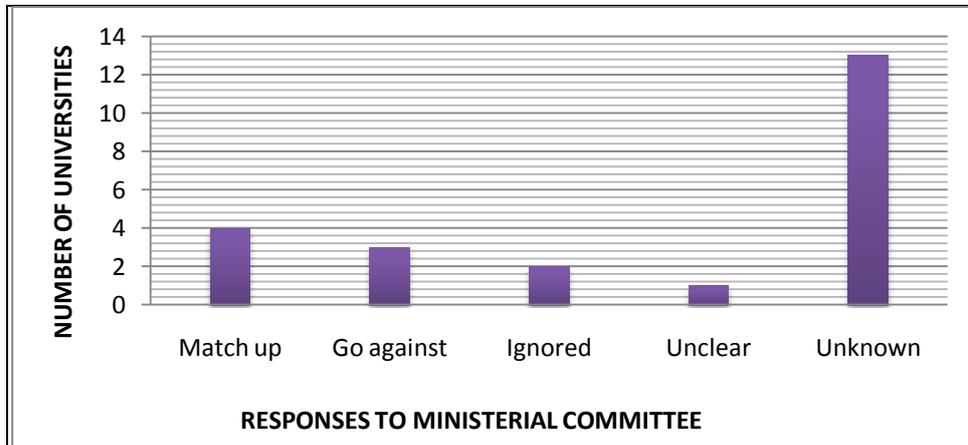
Reading Chart 12 and Table 4.11 (see chapter 4), it is found that four (17.4%) of the 23 universities that responded well to Gerwel’s report and parallel language of instruction are traditional, HWUs and historically or partly historically Afrikaans-speaking universities.

By the time the Gerwel task team went for investigation, those four universities were already practicing parallel language of instruction, especially in post-graduate courses.

In short, there is no practical change that emanated from Gerwel’s recommendation, except the approval of what the four universities were already practising.

(8) *Response to Ministerial Committee guidelines on the choice of indigenous language for tuition or instruction is the eighth big challenge under the institutional factor. The information on this aspect was expected to be contained in the institutional language policies (see Chart 13 below)*

Chart 13: Response to Ministerial Committee guidelines on the choice of indigenous language for tuition



Thirteen (56.5%) of the 23 universities have no accessible information on their response to the Ministerial Committee guidelines on the choice of indigenous languages for tuition. There are three (13.0%) of the 23 universities that match up with the Ministerial Committee guidelines compared to three (13.0%) that are non-compliant; two (8.7%) that ignore; and two (8.7%) that have unclear statements.

The Central University of Technology was not part of the Ministerial Committee guidelines, but it has an institutional language policy. Hence, because of this, the unknown increased to 13 (56.5%) of the 23 universities from the common 12 (52.2%) that do not have an accessible institutional language policy.

Reading Chart 13 with the Ministerial Committee guidelines in Table 2.8 and Table 4.12 (see chapters 2 and 4), most universities misread the Ministerial Committee guidelines. The guidelines are on choosing a primary language or language of tuition by different universities, but not choosing a language as academic discipline or language taught for a specific profession. There are three (13.0%) of the 23 universities match up to the Ministerial Committee guidelines. Two (66.7%) of the three universities are traditional HWUs and historically English-speaking universities compared to one (33.3%) comprehensive HBU +HWU + HT merger university with historically English and Afrikaans-speaking institutions.

The three (13.0%) among the 23 universities that do not have a statement in relation to the Ministerial Committee guidelines are traditional, HWUs and historically or partly historically Afrikaans-speaking universities.

Two (8.7%) of the 23 universities that ignore this aspect are traditional HWUs and historically English-speaking universities.

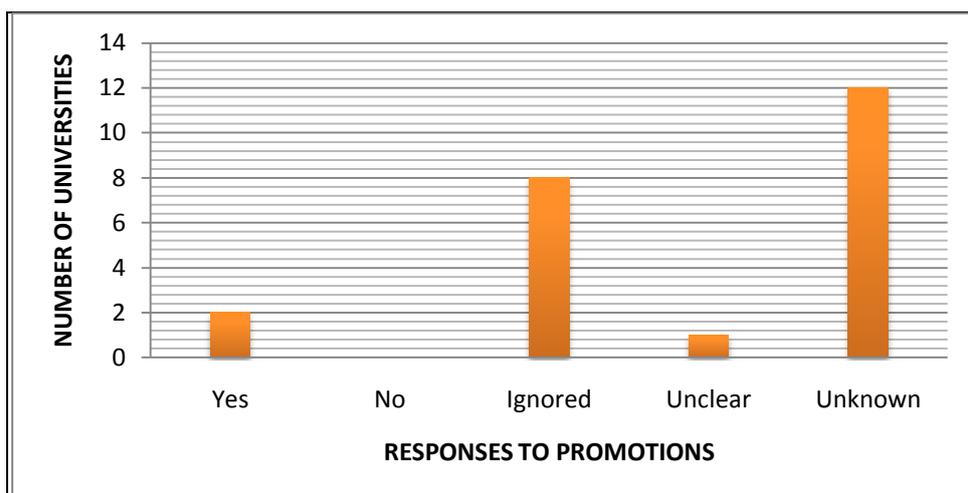
Two (8.7%) of the 23 universities with unclear statements on this aspect are traditional and comprehensive universities. The traditional university is an HWU and historically Afrikaans-speaking university, while the comprehensive university is an HCI +HCI +HCI merger university and formed by historically parallel language of instruction (Afrikaans and English) institutions.

In short, more historically English-speaking universities responded to the Ministerial Committee guidelines compared to comprehensive universities resulting from HBU+HWU+HT with historically English and Afrikaans-speaking elements. Only specific traditional HWUs and historically Afrikaans-speaking universities did not respond at all, compared to only specific traditional HWUs and historically English-speaking universities that are interested but ignored to respond positively. Lastly, only one specific traditional, that is an HWU and historically Afrikaans-speaking university, and only one comprehensive university which is an HCI +HCI +HCI merger university and formed by historically parallel language of instruction (Afrikaans and English) institutions had unclear statements on this aspect.

(c) Two big challenges posed by the international factor

(1) *The promotion of the study of foreign languages is the first big challenge under the international factor. The information on this aspect was expected to be contained in the institutional language policies (see Chart 14 below).*

Chart 14: The promotion of the study of foreign languages



Twelve (52.2%) of the 23 universities have no accessible information on the promotion of the study of foreign languages because they do not have accessible language policies. Eight (34.8%) of the 23 universities ignore the promotion of the study of foreign languages in their institutional language policies compared to two (8.7%) that promote; and one (4.3%) that has an unclear statement.

Reading Chart 14 and Table 4.13 (see chapter 4), it is found that two (8.7%) of the 23 universities that promote the study of foreign languages in their institutional language policies are traditional, HWUs and historically English-speaking universities.

Eight (34.8%) of the 23 universities ignoring the promotion of the study of foreign languages in their institutional language policies are identified as teaching foreign languages. The ignorance might be the result of formulating their institutional language policies without considering various recommendations from the government language policies. Moreover, some of the foreign languages taught at different universities were already taught when the issues of higher education language policies came into the spotlight.

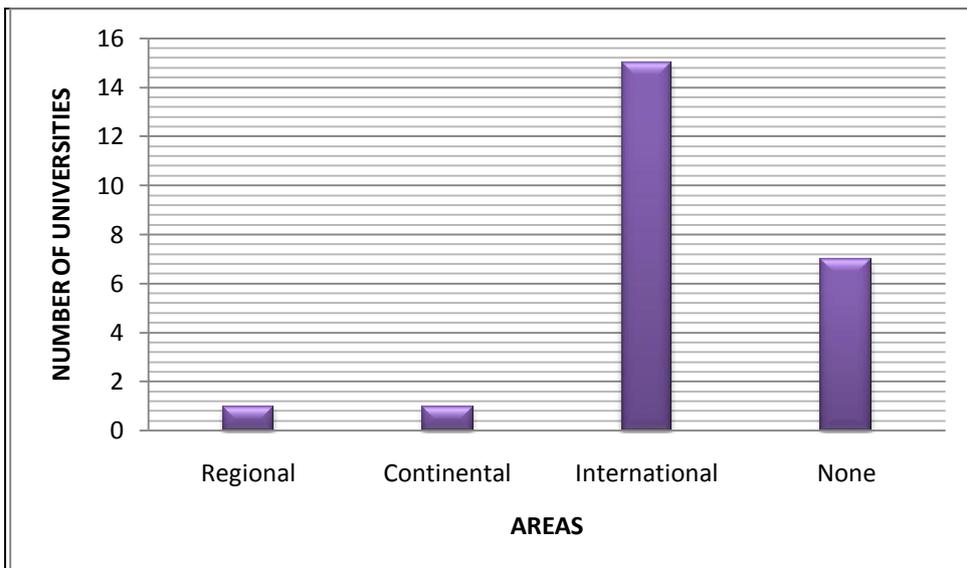
Furthermore, the eight universities include the three categories of universities. Among them, five (62.5%) of those eight universities are traditional and HWUs. Two (40%) of those five traditional universities are historically English-speaking universities compared to two (40%) historically Afrikaans-speaking universities; and one (20%) HIHU + HWU, MU with both elements of historically English and Afrikaans-speaking institutions.

One (4.3%) of the 23 universities that has an unclear statement on this aspect is a traditional, HWU and historically Afrikaans-speaking university.

In short, only specific historically English-speaking universities that stated their plan to promote the study of foreign languages in their institutional language policies are traditional, but more than these universities do offer foreign languages, while neglecting to state it categorically in their institutional language policies. The double-standard or unclear statements are also represented in this aspect. HBUs are silent, but they do offer foreign languages.

(2) *Choice of languages to teach from foreign countries is the second big challenge found under the international factor. The information on this aspect was expected to be contained in the prospectus (see Chart 15 below)*

Chart 15: Choice of languages to teach from foreign countries



An international language in this study refers to an indigenous language of a continent beyond Africa. Only two universities offer a regional or continental language. A regional language is an indigenous language of a country in SADC and a continental language is an indigenous language of a country in Africa beyond the SADC region. Fifteen (65.2%) of the 23 universities included international languages in their curricula compared to one (4.3%) that included a continental language; and one (4.3%) that included a regional language. Eight (34.8%) of the 23 universities have not chosen to teach any regional, continental or international language.

Reading Chart 15 and Case Study (see APPENDIX A), it is found that seven (50%) of those 14 universities that included international languages are traditional universities compared to four (28.6%) comprehensive universities; and three (21.4%) universities of technology. Hence, five (71.4%) of the seven traditional universities are HWUs compared to two (28.6%) that are HBUs. Furthermore, three (60%) of the five HWUs are historically Afrikaans-speaking universities compared to two (40%) that are English-speaking universities.

The four (28.6%) comprehensive universities are shared equally among HBU, HBU+HWU+HT, HCI +HCI and HWU + HT, with one (25%) of the four universities each or one (7.1%) of the 14 universities each.

Moreover, 13 (92.9%) of those 14 universities that included international languages in their curricula are teaching more than one international language, compared to one (7.1%) among them that included only one international language.

The only one (4.3%) that included a continental language in its curriculum is a traditional, HWU, and historically English-speaking university; compared to the only one (4.3%) that included a regional language, which is a comprehensive university or HCI +HCI, merger university.

In short, the majority of the 23 universities prefer to include international languages compared to continental or regional languages. They ignore that:

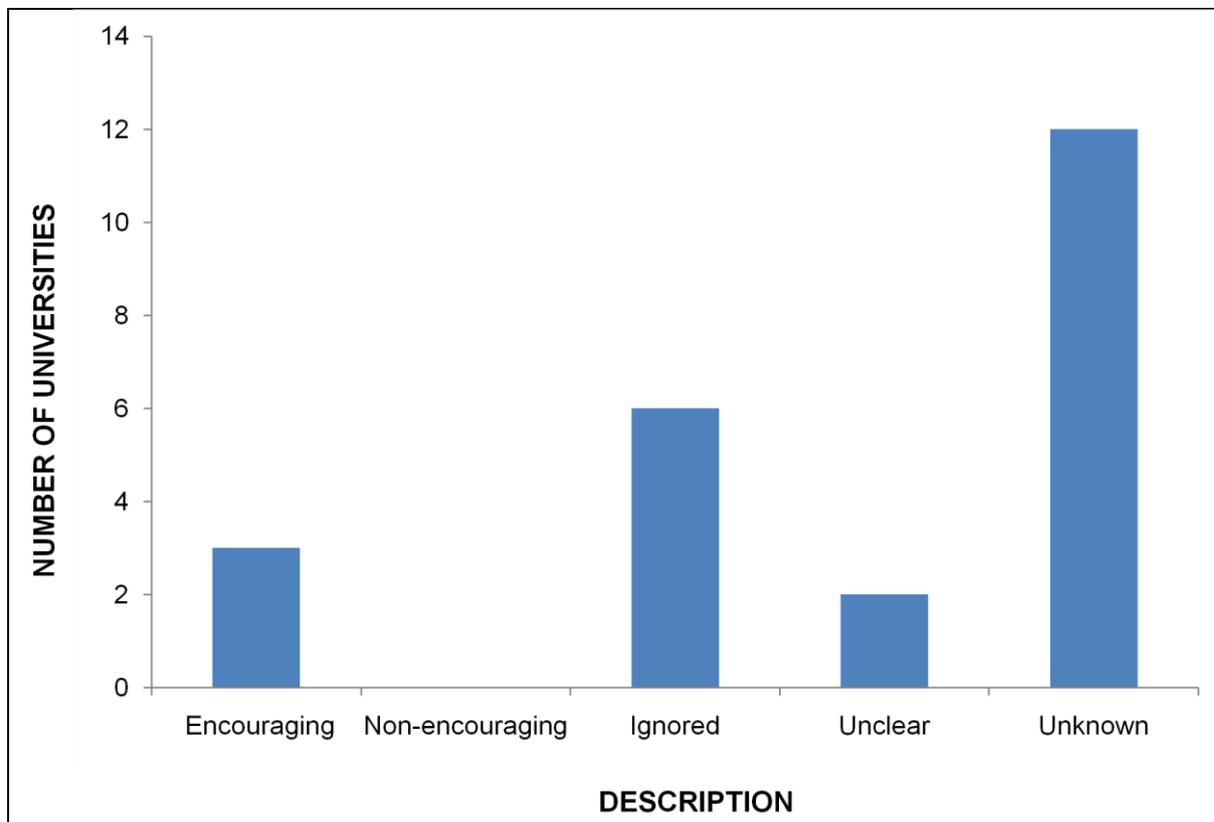
Africa is in such a point in its progress towards competitive participation in the global economy. From the hopeless continent of Afro-pessimism to a confident continent, there is a hope for Africa (Roodt, 2008:21).

The gap between international, continental and regional languages included in the country's university curricula is the gap between linguistic transformation from colonisation to apartheid to democracy. It is a sign of accepting that Africa is a hopeless continent. This is ignorance that might also have influenced the ignorance of the indigenous languages of the country.

(d) Nine big challenges posed by the political factor

(1) *The encouragement of multilingualism in institutional policies and practices is the first big challenge under the political factor. The information on this aspect was expected to be contained in the institutional language policies (see Chart 16 below).*

Chart 16: Encouraging multilingualism in institutional policies and practices



Twelve (52.2%) of the 23 universities do not have accessible information on multilingualism, because they do not have an accessible institutional language policy and they remain silent on multilingualism. Six (26.1%) of the 23 universities ignore to include a statement on multilingualism in their institutional language policies. Three (13.0%) of the 23 universities encourage multilingualism in their institutional language policies. Two (8.7%) of the 23 universities have unclear statements on multilingualism.

Reading Chart 16 in conjunction with Table 4.15 (see chapter 4), it is found that in all three university categories there is ignorance when it comes to multilingualism. Four (66.7%) of the six universities with accessible institutional language policies but that ignore to engage in multilingualism are traditional universities, compared to one (16.7%) that is a comprehensive university; and one (16.7%) university of technology. If quantified into their categories, four (36.4%) of the 11 traditional universities ignore multilingualism compared to one (16.7%) of the six comprehensive universities and one (16.7%) of the six universities of technology.

Three (75%) of the four traditional universities identified are HWUs compared to one (25%) that is an HIHU + HWU merger university. Furthermore two (66.7%) of the three HWUs in this aspect are historically Afrikaans-speaking universities compared to one (33.3%) that is historically English-speaking. The HIHU + HWU merger university has both elements of HBU and the historically Afrikaans-speaking universities.

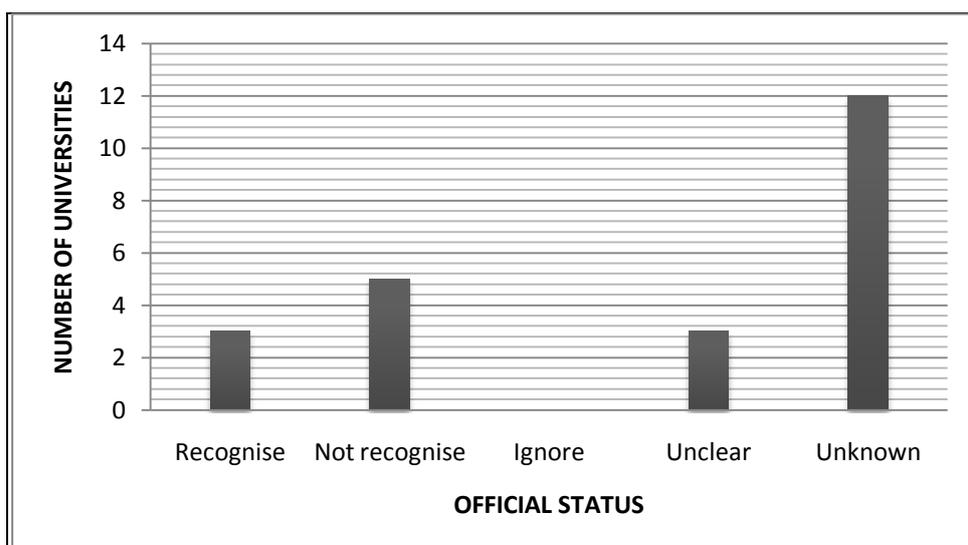
Those three (13.0%) of the 23 universities encouraging multilingualism are traditional and HWUs compared to zero (0%) that are comprehensive; and zero (0%) that are universities of technology. Two (66.7%) of the three traditional universities are historically English-speaking universities compared to one (33.3%) that is historically Afrikaans-speaking.

Two (8.9%) of the 23 universities with an unclear statement on multilingualism is a comprehensive university compared to zero (0%) for traditional and zero (0%) for universities of technology. The comprehensive university in this aspect is one that resulted from a HBU+HWU+HT merger university, and it has elements of HBU, HWU and HT.

In short, the majority of the 23 universities remain silent, especially HBUs and universities of technology. Ignorance characterises some HWUs and one university of technology and one comprehensive university join the silent by not stating multilingualism in their accessible institutional language policies. Historically Afrikaans-speaking universities control the ignorant group of universities on multilingualism. At least some HWUs saw the light and encouraged multilingualism. They are all traditional from both historically English-speaking and historically Afrikaans-speaking universities, but historically English-speaking universities took the lead in this aspect. A vague move is that of putting forth an unclear statement – a double standard used throughout the accessible institutional language policy only to satisfy the requirement. It has been done by a comprehensive university.

(2) *Recognition of the official status of all 11 languages is the second challenge analysed and interpreted under the political factor (see Chart 17 below)*

Chart 17: Recognition of the official status of all 11 languages



The information of 12 (52, 2%) of the 23 universities in recognition of the official status of all 11 languages is unknown, because the 12 universities do not have institutional language policies and they remain silent on the recognition of the official status of all 11 languages. Five (21.7%) of the 23 universities do not recognise the official status of all 11 languages in their institutional language policies. Three (13.0%) of the 23 universities recognise the official status of all 11 languages in their institutional language policies. Lastly, there are also three (13.0%) of the 23 universities that have unclear statements in relation to the recognition of the official status of all 11 languages in their institutional language policies.

Reading Chart 17 in conjunction with Table 4.16 (see chapter 4), five (21.7%) of the 23 universities that do not recognise the official status of all 11 languages in their institutional language policies are from all three university categories. Three (60%) of the five universities with accessible institutional language policies, but that do not recognise the official status of all 11 languages in those policies, are traditional universities compared to one (20%) that is a comprehensive university; and one (20%) that is a university of technology. If quantified in their categories, three (27.3%) of the 11 traditional universities do not recognise the official status of all 11 languages at all compared to one (16.7%) of the six comprehensive universities; and one (16.7%) of the six universities of technology. All three of the traditional universities in this aspect are HWUs, but two (66.7%) of those three universities are historically Afrikaans-speaking universities compared to one (33.3%) historically English-speaking university. The comprehensive university is one that resulted from the HBU+HWU+HT merger institutions.

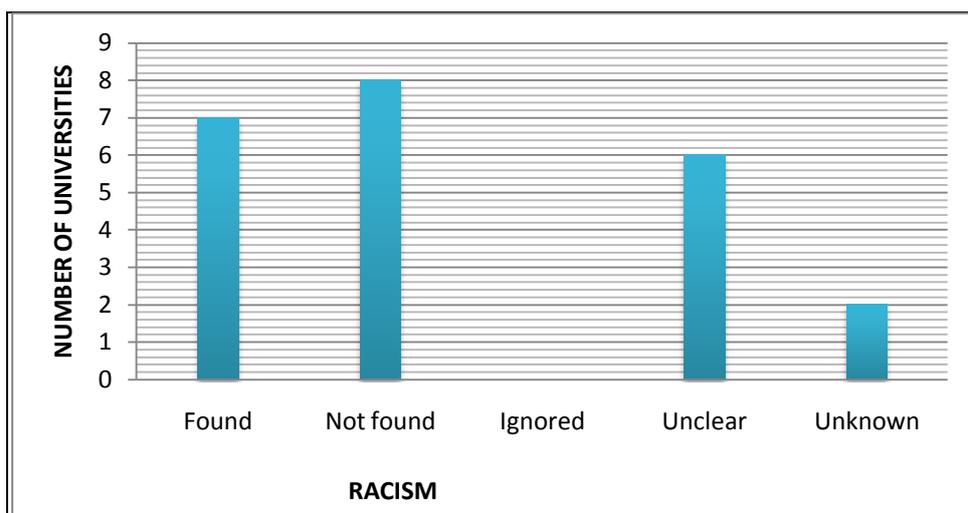
Three (13.0%) of the 23 universities that recognise the official status of all 11 languages in their institutional language policies are traditional and comprehensive universities. Two (66.7%) of those three universities are traditional universities compared to one (33.3%) comprehensive university. One (50%) of the two traditional universities is a historically Afrikaans-speaking university, which is equally compared to one (50%) which is a historically English-speaking university. The comprehensive university in this aspect is the HCI +HCI merger or a historically parallel language of instruction called bilingualism (Afrikaans and English).

Three (13.0%) of the 23 universities that have unclear statements in relation to the recognition of the official status of all 11 languages in their institutional language policies are traditional universities. Two (66.7%) of those universities are historically English-speaking universities; and one (33.3%) is a HIHU + HWU merger university with both a HBU and historically Afrikaans-speaking element.

In short, all the HBUs and most of the universities of technology are silent on the recognition of the official status of all 11 languages. Ignorance characterises some HWUs and one university of technology and one comprehensive university join the silent by not stating their views on the recognition of the official status of all 11 languages in their accessible institutional language policies. At least some traditional HWUs and one of the comprehensive universities saw the light and encouraged multilingualism. They are all traditionally from both historically English-speaking and historically Afrikaans-speaking universities with equal strengths. A vague ploy is that of putting forth an unclear statement – a double standard used throughout the accessible institutional language policy only to satisfy the requirement. It has been done more by the universities with regard to the recognition of the 11 languages than in the case of multilingualism, and the practice has been followed by traditional universities in this case.

(3) *Racist element in institutional language policies and language offerings is the third challenge to be analysed under the political factor (see Chart 18 below).*

Chart 18: Racist element in institutional language policies and language offerings



Seven (28%) of the 23 universities have racist elements in their institutional language policies and their language offerings. Racist elements are not found in the institutional language policies and the language offerings of eight (34.8%) of the 23 universities. It is unclear whether or not a racist element exists in the institutional language policies and the language offerings of six (21.8%) of the 23 universities. Lastly, there is no information about the existence of a racist element in two (8.7%) of the 23 universities, because the two universities do not have institutional language policies and their language offerings are not clear or convincing.

Reading Chart 18 in conjunction with Table 4.17 (see chapter 4), it is found that two (8.7%) of the 23 universities are silent on racism. Both of the silent universities are universities of technology.

Seven (28%) of the 23 universities with racist elements are from all three university categories. Five (71.4%) of those seven universities are traditional universities compared to one (14.3%) from a comprehensive university; and one (14.3%) from a university of technology. If quantified in their categories, five (45.5%) of the 11 traditional universities are racists on their institutional language policies and their language offerings compared to one (16.7%) of the six comprehensive universities and one (16.7%) of the six universities of technology. Thus, traditional universities lead on racism in this aspect, and the comprehensive and universities of technology are competing equally in the second place.

Of the five traditional universities with racist elements in their institutional language policies and their language offerings, three (60%) are HWUs and historically Afrikaans-speaking universities compared to two (40%) that are HBUs. One (50%) of the HBUs is an HBU + HBU merger; and the other one (50%) of those two HBUs is a historically Afrikaans-speaking university. The comprehensive university in this aspect is an HIHU with HBU character.

Eight (34.8%) of the 23 universities do not have a racist element both in their accessible institutional language policies and their offerings. The eight universities include all three of the university categories. Four (50%) of those universities are comprehensive universities compared to two (25%) that are universities of technology; and one (12.5%) that is a traditional university. If quantified in their categories, four (66.7%) of the six comprehensive universities are not racist on institutional language policies and offerings compared to two (33.3%) of the six universities of technology; and one (9.1%) of the 11 traditional universities. Thus, comprehensive universities are non-racist compared to the other universities. The reason behind it might be because they are MUs.

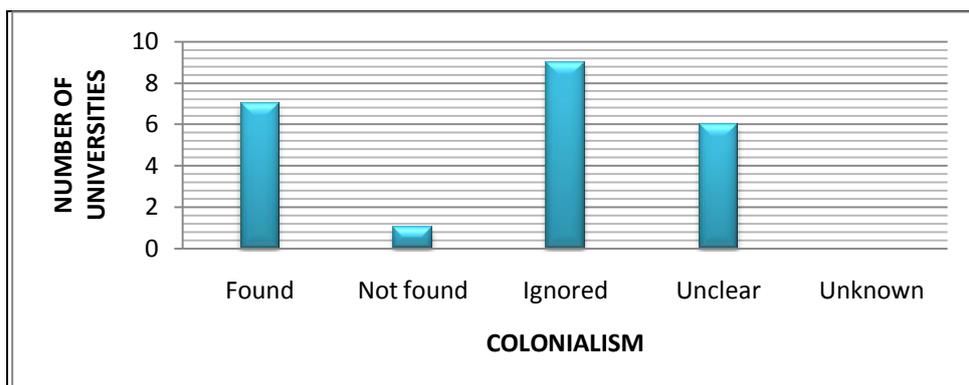
Six (26.1%) of the 23 universities in which it is unclear whether or not a racist element exists in their institutional language policies and their language offerings are found in all three university categories. Four (66.7%) of the six universities are traditional compared to one (16.7%) that is comprehensive and one (16.7%) that is a university of technology. If quantified in their categories, four (36.4%) of the 11 traditional universities have double standards on racism in their institutional language policies and offerings compared to one (16.7%) of the six comprehensive universities and one (16.7%) of the six universities of technology. Thus, traditional universities lead on double standard in this aspect. This might have been fuelled by the fact that three (75%) of those four traditional universities are HWUs and historically English-speaking universities. Most people in these universities are influenced by colonisation from both sides of being a coloniser and being colonised. The last and only one (25%) of those four traditional universities is an HIHU + HWU merger university, a combination of a historically Afrikaans-speaking university and HBU.

In short, most of the traditional universities are racist in their institutional language policies and offerings. This is mainly practised by HWUs, and a few HBUs reacted instead of being proactive. They omitted Afrikaans in their offerings. The double-standard statements increased racist acts: universities hide behind unclear statements and remain racist.

Comprehensive universities remain leaders in the eradication of racism, but they are fewer in number than the racist traditional universities. With the effort of those comprehensive universities the non-racist universities surpass the racist ones with some few percentages: by a difference of one (4.3%) of the 23 universities.

(4) *Colonial element in institutional language policies and language offerings is the fourth challenge to be analysed under the political factor (see Chart 19 below)*

Chart 19: Colonial element in institutional language policies and language offerings



Seven (28%) of the 23 universities have a colonial element in their institutional language policies and their language offerings. One (4.3%) of the 23 universities does not have a colonial element in its institutional language policy and its offerings. Nine (39.1%) of the 23 universities ignored the colonial element in their institutional language policies and their language offerings. It is unclear whether six (26.1%) of the 23 universities have colonial elements in their institutional language policies and their language offerings, or not.

Reading Chart 19 in conjunction with Table 4.18 (see Chapter 4), it is found that there are no silent universities in this aspect.

Four (57.1%) of those seven universities that have a colonial element in their institutional language policies are traditional universities compared to three (42.9%) that are universities of technology. All four (100%) of the traditional universities are HWUs and historically English-speaking universities. This is not surprising, since colonisation occurred under English rule since the first higher education institution was established in 1829. This explains why the four universities are struggling to change what started 181 years ago. And all three (100%) of the universities of technology in this aspect are HTs.

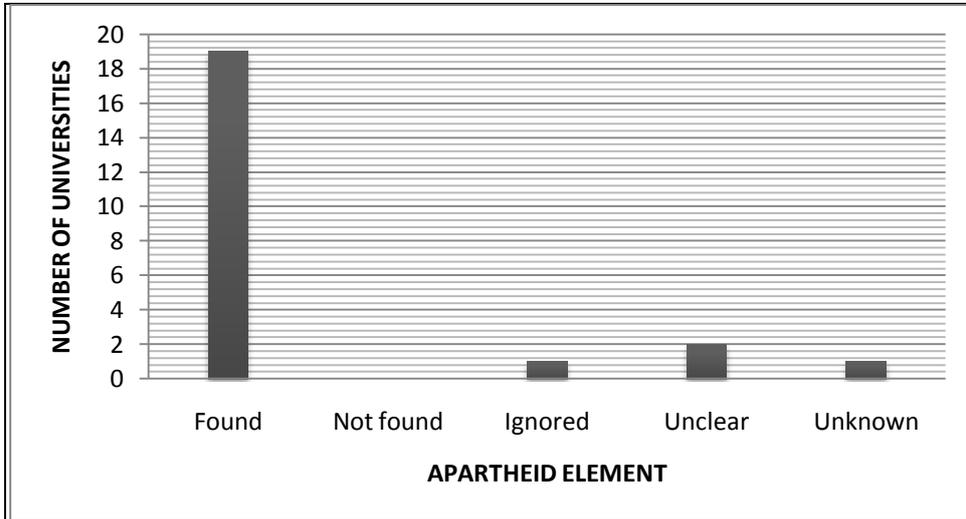
Nine (39.1%) of the 23 universities that ignored the colonial element in their institutional language policies and their language offerings are from all three university categories. Four (44.4%) of those nine universities are comprehensive universities compared to three (33.3%) that are traditional universities and two (22.2%) that are universities of technology. The four comprehensive universities are further subdivided into four: HBU; HIHU; HIHU +HT and HWU+ HT. Three (75%) of those four comprehensive universities have HBU elements because they were serving blacks in the past. Only one (25%) of those universities has an HWU element and a historically parallel language of instruction (Afrikaans and English). All three of the traditional universities in this aspect are HBUs. Thus, the HBUs try to ignore the colonial element, but people's behaviour fails them because most of the academics found themselves being colonised. Those two (22.2%) of the nine universities representing universities of technology are HT +HT +HT and HT. All have an HBU element and only one also has an HWU element, but outdone by HBU.

Six (26.1%) of the 23 universities with double-standard or unclear statements on colonisation are from the three university categories. Four (66.7%) of those six universities are traditional universities compared to one (16.7%) comprehensive university and one (16.7%) university of technology. Three (75%) of those four traditional universities are HWUs compared to one (25%) that is HIHU + HWU merger university. All three (100%) of the HWUs in this aspect are historically Afrikaans-speaking universities. The HIHU + HWU merger university has both elements of HBU and historically Afrikaans-speaking universities. The only one (4.3%) of the 23 universities that does not have a colonial element in its institutional language policy and its offerings, is a comprehensive university or HBU +HWU +HT merger university, with all crucial elements such as HBU, HWU, HT, historically Afrikaans-speaking and historically English-speaking universities.

In short, most of the 23 universities ignore colonisation in their institutional language policies and offerings. However, they compete with tough colonialist universities and those universities playing double standards. Only one university of the 23 universities can be said to be clean from linguistic colonisation. In this aspect historically English-speaking universities excel on linguistic colonisation; HBUs excel on linguistic and colonial ignorance; and historically Afrikaans-speaking universities excel on linguistic and colonial double standards.

(5) *Apartheid element in institutional language policies and language offerings is the fifth challenge to be analysed and interpreted under the political factor (see Chart 20 below).*

Chart 20: Apartheid element in institutional language policies and language offerings



Nineteen (82.6%) of the 23 universities have an apartheid element in their institutional language policies and language offerings. One (4.3%) of the 23 universities ignored this element; two (8.7%) have unclear statements on this aspect; and the information of one (4.3%) is unknown.

Reading Chart 20 in conjunction with Table 4.19 (see chapter 4) it is found that an apartheid element exists in the institutional language policies of all university categories. From the 19 (82.6%) of the 23 universities that have an apartheid element in their institutional language policies and language offerings 11 (57.9%) are traditional compared to four (21.1%) that are comprehensive universities and four (21.1%) that are universities of technology. If quantified in their categories, 11 (100%) of the 11 traditional universities have an apartheid element in their institutional language policies and offerings compared to four (66.7%) of comprehensive universities and four (66.7%) of universities of technology.

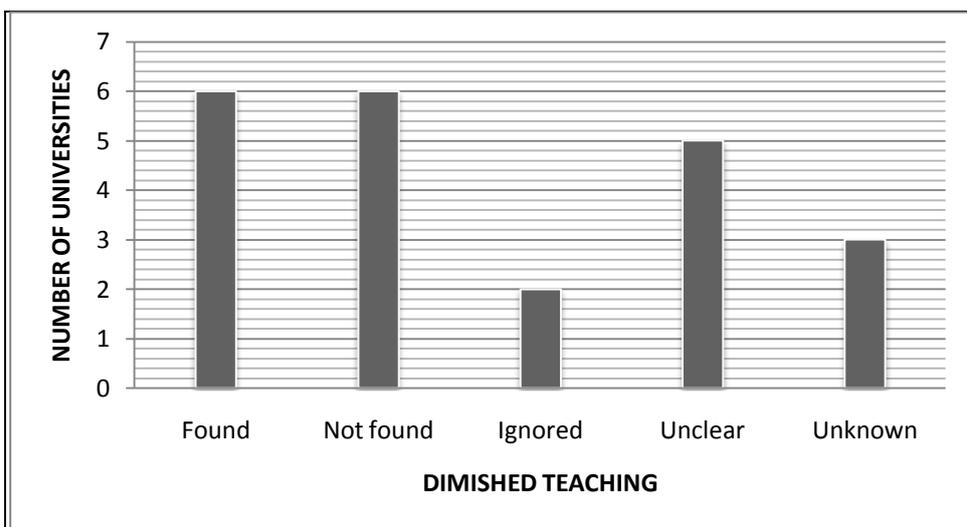
The two (8.7%) of the 23 universities with double standards or unclear statements on apartheid in their institutional language policies and offerings are comprehensive universities.

The one (4.3%) of the 23 universities that ignores the apartheid practices in its offerings is a university of technology compared to one (4.3%) of a university of technology which is silent on apartheid in its offerings.

In short, most of the 23 universities practice linguistic apartheid. The traditional universities excel on this aspect with 100% linguistic apartheid. Comprehensive universities and universities of technology also excel because their linguistic apartheid practices are above 50% each. Thus, the 23 universities are failing to crack down linguistic apartheid.

(6) *The diminished teaching of indigenous languages in institutional language policies and language offerings is the sixth challenge analysed and interpreted under the political factor (see Chart 21 below).*

Chart 21: Diminished teaching of indigenous languages in institutional language policies and language offerings



Six (27.3%) of the 22 universities have the element of diminished teaching of indigenous languages. This element is not found in six (26.1%) others of the 23 universities. Two (8.7%) of the 23 universities ignored this aspect. Five (21.7%) of the 23 universities have unclear statements on this aspect. Finally, there are three (13.0%) of the 23 universities whose information is unknown.

Reading Chart 21 in conjunction with Table 4.20 (see chapter 4), the six (26.1%) of the 23 universities that have the element of diminished curricula of indigenous languages are traditional and comprehensive universities. Four (66.7%) of those six universities are traditional universities compared to two (33.3%) comprehensive universities. If quantified in

their categories, four (36.4%) of the 11 traditional universities have diminished curricula of indigenous languages in their offerings compared to two (33.3%) of the six comprehensive universities and zero (0%) of the six universities of technology.

The other six (26.1%) of the 23 universities in which the diminished curricula in their offerings are not found, occur in all three university categories. Four (66.7%) of those six universities are universities of technology compared to one (16.7%) comprehensive university and one (16.7%) traditional university.

It means that the diminished teaching of indigenous languages is observed in both traditional and comprehensive universities; HBUs and HWUs, where the HWUs dominate; and not in HTs unless that unclear and unknown information is hiding the facts.

Five (21.7%) of the 23 universities that have unclear statements on this aspect are traditional and comprehensive universities. Three (60%) of those five universities are traditional universities compared to two (40%) that are comprehensive universities. Two (66.7%) of the three traditional universities are HWUs: one (50%) of the two HWUs is a historically English-speaking university compared to one (50%) that is a historically Afrikaans-speaking university. The other one (33.3%) of the three traditional universities is an HIHU +HWU merger university with an HBU and historically Afrikaans-speaking university element. The two comprehensive universities are from different backgrounds: one (50%) is an HBU while the other (50%) is an HBU+HWU+HT merger university both constituting all the challenging elements.

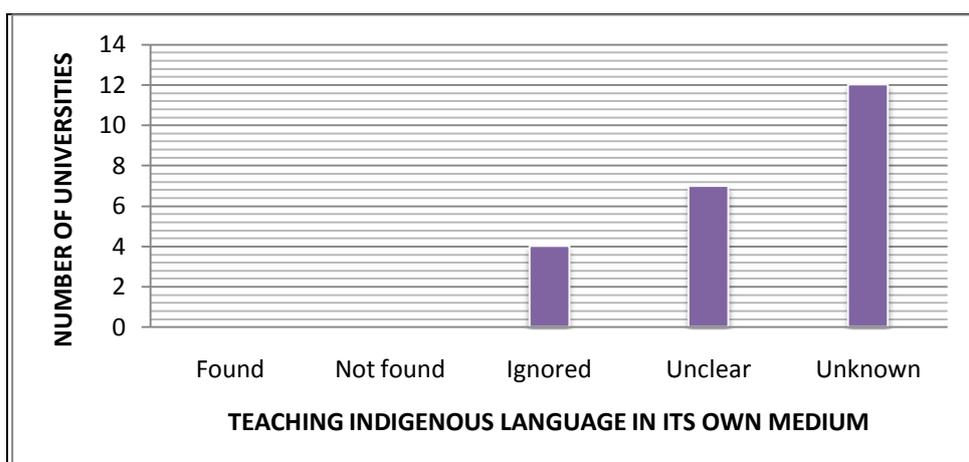
Three (13.0%) of the 23 universities are silent. They are from universities of technology and comprehensive universities. Two (66.7%) of those three universities are universities of technology compared to one (33.3%) comprehensive university or HIHU +HT merger university.

In short, most of the 23 universities are moving into diminished curricula of indigenous language curricula. This was started by HWUs and it is moving into HBUs. Traditional universities excel in this aspect. In fact in the history of teaching and research of indigenous languages the process was that of a diminished curriculum, and what the 23 universities are doing is the restoration or strengthening of the diminished use and status of indigenous

languages. This action proved false by the Constitution of the Republic, 1996 (Act 108 of 1996) in section 6(2). However, there are universities resisting the diminished indigenous language curricula – most of those universities are universities of technology. The double standards or unclear statements also play their part in this aspect.

- (7) *Teaching an indigenous language in its own medium is the seventh challenge that is analysed and interpreted under the political factor (see Chart 22 below).*

Chart 22: Teaching an indigenous language in its own medium



Twelve (52.2%) of the 23 universities that indicated that their information on this aspect is unknown are those universities without accessible institutional language policies. For 11 (47.8%), this aspect is either ignored or comes as unclear statements. Four (17.4%) of the 23 universities ignored the statement on teaching indigenous languages in their own medium in their institutional language policies. Lastly, seven (30.4%) of the 23 universities have unclear statements on teaching indigenous languages in their own medium in their institutional language policies.

Reading Chart 22 together with Table 4.21, it is found that the four (17.4%) of the 23 universities that ignored the statement on teaching an indigenous language in its own medium in their institutional language policies are traditional and comprehensive universities. Three (75%) of those universities are traditional universities compared to one (25%) comprehensive university. Two (66.7%) of the three traditional universities are HWUs compared to one (33.3%) that is an HIHU +HWU merger university. One (50%) of the two HWUs is a historically Afrikaans-speaking university equally compared to one (50%) historically

English-speaking university. The comprehensive university resulted from HBU + HWU + HT merger.

Seven (30.4%) of the 23 universities that have unclear statements on this aspect are found in all three university categories. Five (71.4%) are traditional universities compared to one (14.3%) comprehensive university and one (14.3%) university of technology. All the traditional universities in this aspect are HWUs. However, three (60%) of the five traditional universities are historically English-speaking universities compared to two (40%) historically Afrikaans-speaking universities. The comprehensive university is that of HCI +HCI merger or historically parallel language of instruction (Afrikaans and English).

In short, the majority of the 23 universities are silent on teaching an indigenous language in its own medium. Those silent universities do not have an accessible institutional language policy. Most traditional universities, especially HWUs ignored this aspect, and both historically Afrikaans-speaking and English-speaking universities are engaged in the process of ignorance in this aspect. The double standard or the unclear statements are common in this aspect. All three categories are hiding and the dominating universities are also traditional universities that are HWUs, and historically English-speaking surpassed historically Afrikaans-speaking universities.

- (8) *Restrictions on the language use for university purposes is the eighth challenge to be analysed and interpreted under the political factor (see Chart 23 below).*

Chart 23: Restrictions on the language use for university purposes



Twelve (52.2%) of the 23 universities that indicated that their information on this aspect is unknown are those universities without accessible institutional language policies. Eight (34.8%) of the 23 universities have restrictions on the language use for university purposes in their institutional language policies. Restrictions of the language use for university purposes are unclear in two (8.7%) of the 23 universities. Lastly, in one (4.3%) of the 23 universities no restrictions on the language use for university purposes are found.

Reading Chart 23 together with Table 4.22 (see chapter 4), it is found that 12 (52.2%) of the 23 universities remain silent. These are HBUs and universities of technology without accessible institutional language policies.

Eight (34.8%) of the 23 universities that have restrictions on the language use for university purposes are in all three university categories. Six (75%) of the eight universities are traditional universities compared to one (25%) comprehensive university and one (25%) university of technology.

Five (83.3%) of the six traditional universities in this aspect are HWUs compared to one (16.7%) of HIHU + HWU merger university. Three (60%) of the five HWUs in this aspect are historically English-speaking universities compared to two (40%) of historically Afrikaans-speaking universities. The HIHU + HWU merger university has both elements of HBU and historically Afrikaans-speaking universities. This increases the historically Afrikaans-speaking universities from 40% to 50% on restrictions and decreases the historically English-speaking universities from 60% to 50%. Hence, they become equal on restrictions. The HIHU + HWU merger university also introduces an HBU on linguistic restrictions. The comprehensive university is one that resulted from HBU +HWU+HT, merger institutions.

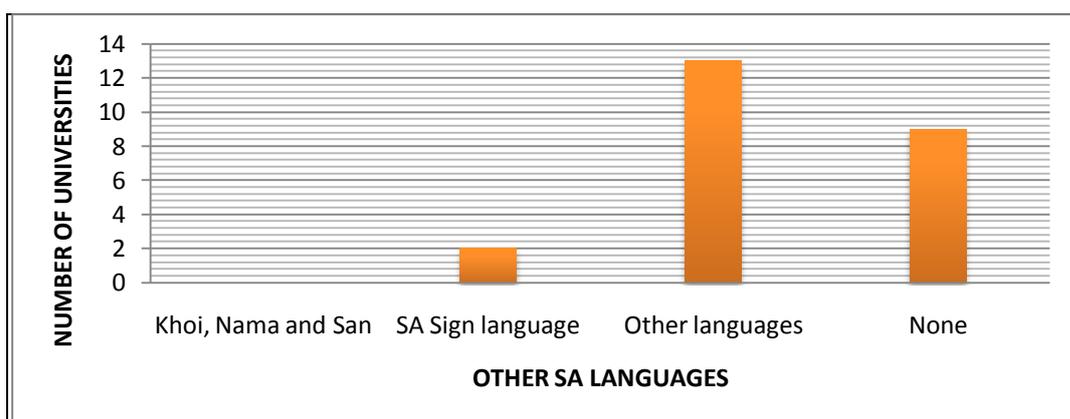
The two (8.7%) of the 23 universities that have unclear statements on restrictions on the language use for university purposes in their institutional language policies are from traditional and comprehensive universities. One (50%) of the two universities in this aspect is a traditional, HWU and historically Afrikaans-speaking university compared to one (50%) that is a comprehensive university that resulted from HCI +HCI +HCI or historically parallel language of instruction (Afrikaans + English) university that incorporated both HBU and HWU in the past.

The one (4.3%) of the 23 universities without linguistic restrictions is a traditional, HWU and historically English-speaking university.

In short, most of the universities, especially all HBUs and the majority of universities of technology are silent on linguistic restriction. Traditional HWUs, both historically Afrikaans-speaking and historically English-speaking universities maintained their racial, colonial and apartheid linguistic restrictions in their administration processes. Some moved with those restrictions into the MUs. The one and only university of technology with accessible institutional language policy automatically joined them. The double standards or unclear statements are also practised by HWU and a comprehensive university. The only difference with those with restrictions, the HWU found practising double standards in this aspect, is a historically Afrikaans-speaking university and there is no historically English-speaking university that brought unclear statements for its part. However, the comprehensive university automatically brought in that part of historically English-speaking universities including an HBU element on the double standard. The only HWU and historically English-speaking university that does not have linguistic restrictions is a sign of colonial change, but not change itself.

- (9) *Teaching other South African languages that have no official status is the last or 9th challenge that is analysed and interpreted under the political factor (see Chart 24 below).*

Chart 24: Teaching other South African languages that have no official status



None (0%) of the 23 South African universities teach Khoi, Nama or San languages. Only two (8.7%) of the 23 universities teach a Sign Language. Thirteen (56.5%) of the 23 universities

teach other non-official languages. Nine (39.1%) of the 23 universities do not teach any of the other South African languages that have no official status.

Reading Chart 24 together with Table 4.23 (see chapter 4), it is found that the two (8.7%) of the 23 universities teaching sign language are traditional universities and HWUs. One (50%) of the two universities is a historically Afrikaans-speaking university compared equally to one (50%) that is a historically English-speaking university. All the other 21 (91.3%) of the 23 universities are silent on including the Sign language in their curricula.

All 23 (100%) of the 23 universities are silent on the inclusion of Khoi, Nama and San languages in their curricula.

Surprisingly, 13 (56.5%) included other languages in their curriculum. They are found in all three university categories. Seven (53.8%) of those 13 universities are traditional universities compared to three (23.1%) universities of technology and three (23.1%) comprehensive universities. If quantified in their categories, seven (63.6%) of the 11 traditional universities include other languages in their curricula compared to three (50%) of the six universities of technology and three (50%) comprehensive universities. Five (71.4%) of the traditional universities are HWUs compared to two (28.6%) HBUs. Three (60%) of the five HWUs are historically Afrikaans-speaking universities compared to two (40%) historically English-speaking universities. One (50%) of the HBUs is a result of HBU +HBU mergers, equally compared to the historically Afrikaans-speaking HBU. Two (66.7%) of the three comprehensive universities are MUs compared to one (33.3%) HBU.

The nine (39.1%) of the 23 universities that have not included other South African languages that have no official status in their curricula include all three university categories. Each has three (33.3%) of those nine universities.

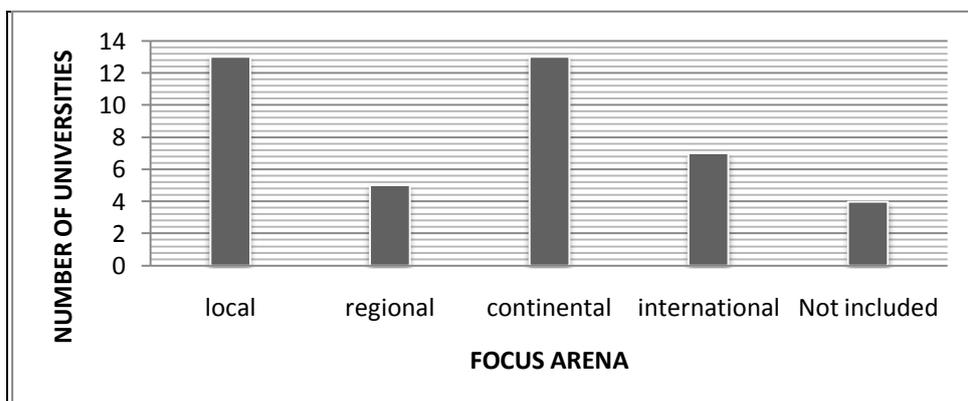
In short, the 23 universities fail to adhere to the Pan South African Language Board's mandate in subsections 6(5)(a) (ii) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (Act 108 of 1996) of promoting, and creating conditions for the development and use of the Khoi, Nama and San languages. It is also the responsibility of the universities to fit them in. Very few of the 23 universities decided to include Sign languages (subsection 6(5) (a) (iii) refers to SA Sign languages) and one wonders why those few universities did not also start

promoting and developing the use of Khoi, Nama and San languages. It seems engagement in other languages which are recognised by the subsection 6(5)(b)(i) by most of the 23 universities is not a transformation issue. This is also the reason why only Greek, German or Portuguese are included in the curricula of those universities. Other languages in subsection 6(5)(b)(i) and all those in the adjacent subsection 6(5)(b)(ii) are not included, namely: in (i) Gujarati, Hindi, Tamil, Telegu, and Urdu; and in (ii) Arabic, Hebrew, Sanskrit and other languages used for religious purposes in South Africa are not included in the curricula of all the 23 universities.

(e) There is one big challenge facing universities under the vision factor

(1) *The vision statements' focus is the first and last challenge under the vision factor (see Chart 25 below).*

Chart 25: The vision statements' focus



Thirteen (56.5%) of the 23 universities have their focus locally in their vision; 13 (56.5%) on continental; seven (30.4%) on international; five (21.7%) on regional; and four (17.4%) do not involve geographical arena in their visions or do not have a clear stated vision.

Reading Chart 25 together with Table 4.24 (see chapter 4), it is found that the thirteen (56.5%) of the 23 universities focusing locally in their vision are from all three university categories. Six (46.2%) of those 13 universities are traditional universities compared to four (30.8%) universities of technology and three (23.1%) comprehensive universities. If quantified in their categories, six (54.5%) of the 11 traditional universities focus locally in their visions compared to four (66.7%) of the six universities of technology and three (50%) of the six comprehensive universities. The HWUs and HBUs contribute equally, with 50% each when quantified in the 23 universities. However, three (100%) of the three traditional HBUs have a local element in their vision compared to three (42.9%) of the seven traditional

HWUs. Thus, HBUs excel among the traditional universities. The HWUs are represented by two (66.7%) historically Afrikaans-speaking universities compared to one (33.3%) historically English-speaking university.

The five (21.7%) of the 23 universities that have a regional focus in their vision are found in the three university categories. Two (40%) are traditional universities equally compared to two (40%) of the comprehensive universities; and compared to one (20%) university of technology. If quantified in their categories, two (18.2%) of the 11 traditional universities have a regional element in their visions compared to two (33.3%) comprehensive universities and one (16.7%) university of technology. The two traditional universities are HBU and HWU, and the HWU is a historically English-speaking university.

The 11 (47.8%) of the 23 universities that have a continental focus are found in the three university categories. Seven (63.6%) of those universities are traditional universities compared to three (27.3%) comprehensive universities and one (9.1%) university of technology. If quantified in their categories, seven (63.6%) of the 11 traditional universities have a continental focus in their visions compared to three (50%) of the six comprehensive universities and one (16.7%) of the six universities of technology. Thus, the traditional universities excel in this aspect over the other categories. Of the seven traditional universities that have a continental focus, six (85.7%) are HWUs compared to one (14.3%) of HBUs. If quantified in HWUs and HBUs, seven (100%) of the seven HWUs have their focus on the continent compared to one (33.3%) of the three HBUs.

Seven (30.4%) of the 23 universities that go internationally in their visions are found in the three university categories. Five (71.4%) are traditional universities compared to one (14.3%) comprehensive university and one (14.3%) university of technology. If quantified in their categories, five (45.5%) of the 11 traditional universities have international focus compared to one (16.7%) of the six comprehensive universities and one (16.7%) of the six universities of technology.

Of the five traditional universities, four (80%) are HWUs compared to one (20%) that is HBU. If quantified in their categories four (57.1%) of the seven HWUs go internationally compared to one (33.3%) of the three HBUs. The historically Afrikaans-speaking universities

and historically English-speaking universities go equally in this aspect, with two (50%) of the four HWUs each.

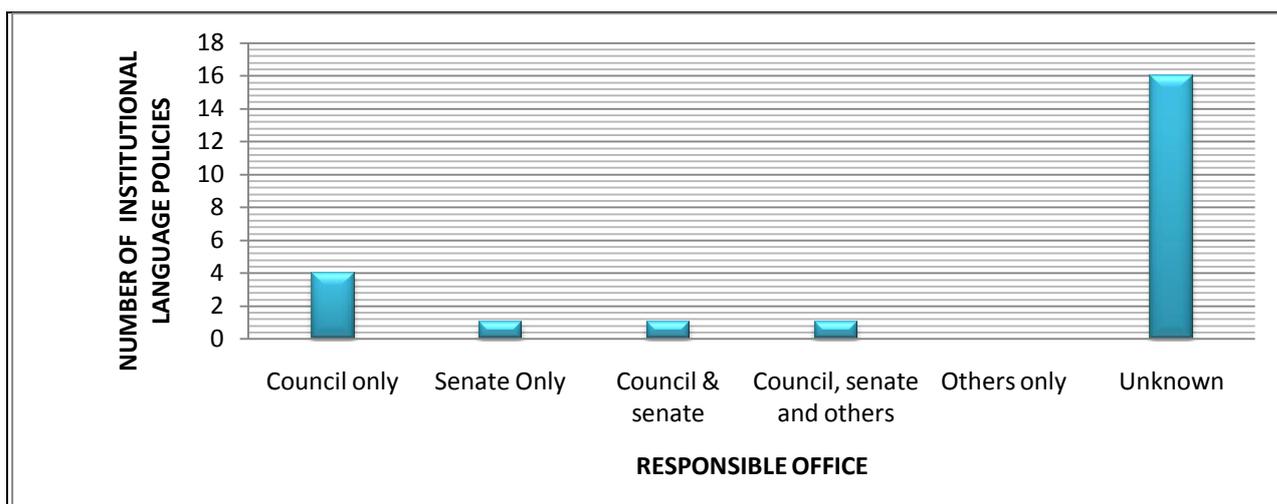
Four (17.4%) of the 23 universities that do not focus either locally, regionally, continentally or internationally in their vision (the visions are not accessible in some of these universities) are found in the three university categories. Two (50%) of those four universities are universities of technology compared to one (25%) traditional university and one (25%) comprehensive university. If quantified in their categories, two (33.3%) of the six universities of technology do not have a local, regional, continental or international element in their visions compared to one (9.1%) of the 11 traditional universities and one (16.7%) of the six comprehensive universities.

In short, most of the 23 universities are focusing locally, but not all. There are still ten (43.5%) of those universities that do not care about being South African universities. Universities of technology excel on being South African universities. The traditional universities follow, but they got a boost from HBUs that are 100% South African. Historically Afrikaans-speaking universities are more South African than historically English-speaking universities. The regional category is the lowest area found in the visions of the 23 universities. Traditional universities excel in the regional category but with very low percentage. There is no historically Afrikaans-speaking university that posits the region as part of its vision, but there is a historically English-speaking university that does so. The continental arena has been considered by many universities more than the regional and international arena. It is surpassed by the local consideration in two (8.7%) of the 23 universities. Traditional universities excel in this aspect. This is the area in which all the HWUs have their focus. The other categories also contribute, but not that much. Similarly, traditional universities excel in the inclusion of international focus in their visions. HWUs still exceed HBUs, and historically Afrikaans-speaking universities and English-speaking universities' competition on internationalisation is high in their visions.

(f) The four big challenges facing universities under the governance factor

- (1) *The office responsible for the approval of the institutional language policy is the first big challenge that is analysed and interpreted under the governance factor (see Chart 26 below).*

Chart 26: Who was responsible to approve the institutional language policy?



Sixteen (69.6%) of the 23 universities that indicated that their information on this aspect is unknown are those universities without accessible institutional language policies and some that omitted this crucial aspect of a policy in their accessible institutional language policies. Four (36.4%) of the 11 (47.8%) accessible institutional language policies are only approved by the Council. Only one (9.1%) of the 11 (47.8%) accessible institutional language policies is only approved by the Senate. Only one (9.1%) of the 11 (47.8%) accessible institutional language policies is only approved by the Council and Senate. Lastly, only one (9.1%) of the 11 (47.8%) accessible institutional language policies is approved by the Council, Senate and others.

Reading Chart 26 together with Table 4.25 (see chapter 4), it is found that 16 (69.6%) of the 23 universities that are silent on the approval of their institutional language policies are from the three university categories. Seven (43.8%) of those 16 universities are traditional universities compared to five (31.3) universities of technology and four (25%) comprehensive universities. If quantified in their categories, seven (63.6%) of the 11 traditional universities are silent on the approval of their institutional language policies compared to five (83.3%) of the six universities of technology and four (66.7%) of the six comprehensive universities. The policies of all five (100%) of the universities of technology that are silent on the approval of their institutional language policies, are inaccessible. Similarly, the policies of all four (100%) of the comprehensive universities that are silent on the approval of their institutional language policies, are inaccessible. In contrast to the silence on the approval of their institutional language policies in both universities of technology and comprehensive universities, there is a significant difference in the case of the traditional universities. Four (57.1%) of the seven

silent traditional universities on the approval of their institutional language policies have an accessible institutional language policy compared to three (42.9%) that are silent because they do not have an accessible institutional language policy. Three (75%) of those four silent traditional universities on the approval of their institutional language policies, where those policies are accessible, are HWUs compared to one (25%) that is an HIHU+HWU merger university. Two (66.7%) of the three HWUs are historically Afrikaans-speaking universities compared to one (33.3%) historically English-speaking university.

The four institutional language policies only approved by the councils are from all three university categories. Two (50%) of those four institutional language policies that were only approved by the council, belong to traditional universities compared to one (25%) belonging to a university of technology and one (25%) belonging to a comprehensive university. If quantified in university categories, there are two (18.1%) of the 11 traditional universities, whose accessible institutional language policies are only approved by their councils compared to one (16.7%) of the six universities of technology and one (16.7%) of the six comprehensive universities. Evidently, the two traditional universities referred to here are HWUs, but one (50%) of those two HWUs is a historically Afrikaans-speaking university compared to one (50%) which is a historically English-speaking university.

A further reading of Chart 26 together with Table 4.25 reveals that the only accessible institutional language policy that was only approved by the senate belongs to a comprehensive university. Secondly, the only accessible institutional language policy that was only approved by both the council and senate belongs to a traditional university. Lastly, the only accessible institutional language policy that was approved by the council, senate and others belongs to a traditional university.

In short, most of the 23 universities' councils neglect the institutional language policies of their universities. "It is the board's role to ensure that the dynamic balance is kept between organisational effectiveness and organisational efficiency" (Garratt, 2003:30). Taking this quotation into university environment, it is the council's role to ensure that the dynamic balance is kept between institutional effectiveness and institutional efficiency. An institutional language policy is a policy of effectiveness, because:

Effectiveness – often even survival – does not depend solely on how much effort we expend, but on whether or not the effort we expend is in the right jungle (Covey, 2004:101).

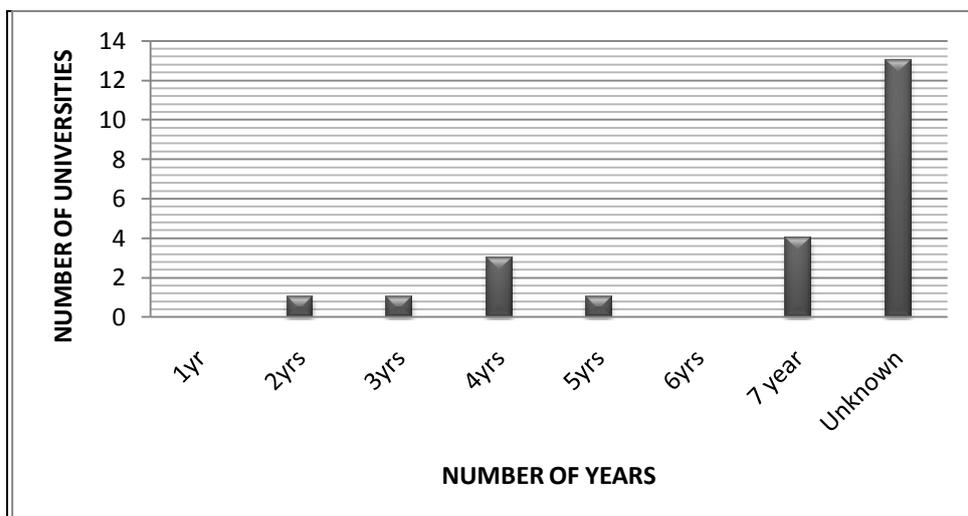
For effectiveness of the institutional language policies, the councils of the 23 universities will have to be responsible for these policies. The following are important issues to remember on policy approval as adapted from the Ministry of Education (1997a):

- (1) The council is the only governing body of a higher education institution;
- (2) The Senate is accountable to the council for the academic and research functions of a higher education institution and must perform such other functions as may be delegated or assigned to it by the council;
- (3) The council may establish a committee to perform any of its functions, but the council is not divested to responsibility for the performance of any function (including their function on institutional language policy) delegated or assigned to a committee.

Thus, only the council should approve the institutional language policy. The function of senate or other committees that the council may delegate may be the preparation of the institutional language policy to be approved by the council.

- (2) *The number of years of each institutional language policy from its approval is the second challenge to be analysed and interpreted under the governance factor (see Chart below).*

Chart 27: Number of years of each institutional language policy from its approval



Thirteen (56.5%) of the 23 universities' information is unknown. Four (36.4%) of the 11 (47.8%) accessible institutional language policies are seven years old. There is zero (0%) of the 11 (47.8%) accessible institutional language policies in the six years column. One (9.1%) of the 11 (47.8%) accessible institutional language policies is five years old. Three (27.3%) of the 11 (47.8%) accessible institutional language policies are four years old. One (9.1%) of the 11 (47.8%) accessible institutional language policies is three years old. One (9.1%) of the 11 (47.8%) accessible institutional language policies is two years old. Lastly, there is zero (0%) of the 11 (47.8%) accessible institutional language policies in the one year column.

Reading Chart 27 together with Table 4.26 (see chapter 4), it is found that the 13 (56.5%) of the 23 universities are silent on the years of their institutional language policies. The silence is found in all university categories. Five (38.5%) of those 13 silent universities are universities of technology compared to four (30.8%) comprehensive universities and four (30.8%) traditional universities. If quantified in their categories, five (83.3%) of the six universities of technology are silent on the years of their institutional language policies compared to four (66.7%) of the six comprehensive universities and four (36.4%) of the 11 traditional universities. The silence of the five universities of technology is a result of their inaccessible institutional language policies. Similarly, the four comprehensive universities' silence in this aspect is the result of their inaccessible institutional language policies. Only three (75%) of the four traditional universities are silent in this aspect because of their inaccessible institutional language policies. Those three traditional universities are HBUs. One (25%) of the four traditional universities is silent, but it has an accessible institutional language policy. This university is an HWU and a historically Afrikaans-speaking university.

Four (17.4%) of the 23 universities have institutional language policies that are already seven years old, and those universities belong to traditional and technology categories. Three (75%) of those four universities are traditional universities compared to one (25%) that is a university of technology. If quantified in their categories, three (27.3%) of the 11 traditional universities' institutional language policies reached the age of seven compared to one (16.7%) of the six universities of technology and zero (0%) of the six comprehensive universities.

Only one (4.3%) of the 23 universities has an institutional language policy of five years old. This university is traditional, an HWU and historically English-speaking.

Only three (13.0%) of the 23 universities have institutional language policies of four years old. They are from traditional and comprehensive universities. Two (66.7%) comprehensive universities have institutional language policies of four years old compared to one (33.3%) of a traditional university. The two comprehensive universities are those MUs that resulted from HBU +HWU +HT and HCI +HCI +HCI that were also historically parallel language of instruction, HBU and HWU. The traditional university is an HWU and historically English-speaking university.

Only one (4.3%) of the 23 universities has an institutional language policy of three years old. It is a traditional, an HWU and an HIHU +HWU merger with historically Afrikaans-speaking and HBUs elements.

Only one (4.3%) of the 23 universities has an institutional language policy of two years old. It is traditional, an HWU and historically Afrikaans-speaking university.

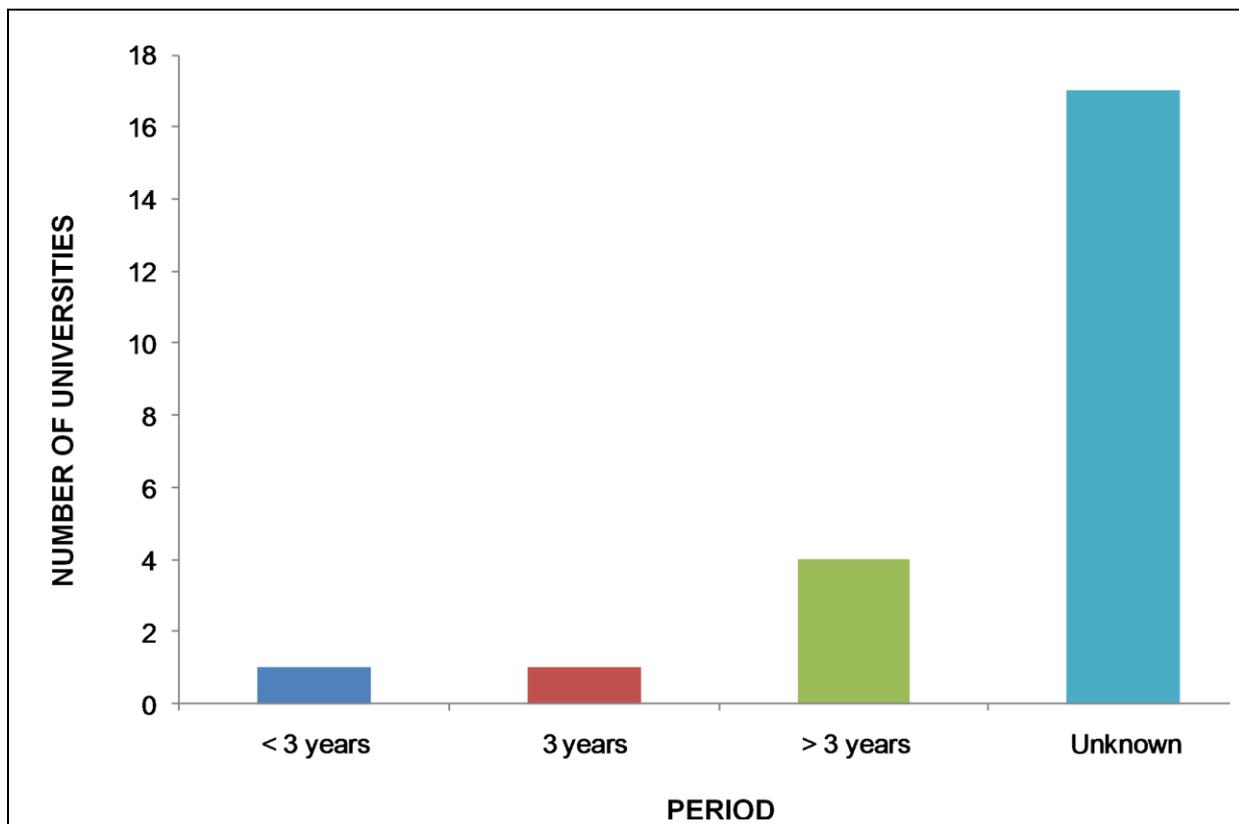
There are zero (0%) of the 23 universities that have institutional language policies of one year old.

In short, there is a slow pace on the side of the 23 universities' councils to publish their universities' institutional language policies and make them accessible. Only few were published and made accessible within one year after the publication of the Language Policy of Higher Education by the Ministry of Education (2002). There were four (17.4%) delivered in that first year and 19 (82.6%) of the 23 expected institutional language policies of the 23 universities were still outstanding. There was no institutional language policy published and made accessible in 2004. The gap increased. Only one was published in 2005 adding up to five in three years after the Ministry's publication in 2002. The slow pace changed slightly in the fourth year (2006). In this fourth year, three institutional language policies were published and approved. These amounted to eight (34.8%) of the 23 universities having a published, approved and accessible institutional language policy in four years. One institutional language policy was published and approved in the fifth year (2007). This brought to nine (39.1%) the number of universities having published and approved an accessible institutional language policy in five years. Lastly, one institutional language policy was published and approved in the sixth year (2008). This brings to 10 (43.5%) the number of universities who have published, and approved an accessible institutional language policy in six years. There are no

institutional language policies published during 2009 and 2010. Thus, the commitment to linguistic transformation among the 23 universities in South Africa remains weak.

(3) *Time-frame for institutional language policy revision is the third challenge to be analysed and interpreted under the governance factor (see Chart 28 below).*

Chart 28: Time-frame for institutional language policy revision



The time-frame of institutional language policy revision for 17 (73.9%) of the 23 universities is unknown. The time-frame of institutional language policy revision for four (17.4%) of the 23 universities is more than three years. The time-frame of institutional language policy revision for one (4.3%) of the 23 universities is three years. Lastly, the time-frame of institutional language policy revision for one (4.3%) of the 23 universities is less than three years.

Reading Chart 28 together with Table 4.27 (see chapter 4), it is found that the 17 (73.9%) of the 23 universities that are silent on the time-frame for institutional language policy revision are from all three categories. Seven (41.2%) of the 17 silent universities on the time-frame for institutional language policy revision are traditional universities compared to five (29.4%)

comprehensive universities and five (29.4%) universities of technology. If quantified in their categories, seven (63.3%) of the 11 traditional universities are silent on the time-frame for institutional language policies and their revisions compared to five (83.3%) of the six comprehensive universities and five (83.3%) of the six universities of technology. The reason for the silence of the five universities of technology on the time-frame for institutional language policies and their revisions is their inaccessible language policies. In contrast, one (20%) of the five silent comprehensive universities has an accessible institutional language policy that does not have a time-frame and revision date. Only four of those universities are silent because of their inaccessible language policies. Lastly, four (57.1%) of the seven silent traditional universities have an accessible institutional language policy that does not have time-frames and revision dates. Three (42.9%) of those seven traditional universities are silent because of their inaccessible language policies. From the traditional universities those three universities with inaccessible language policies are all HBUs. Three (75%) of the silent traditional universities with accessible institutional language policies that do not have time-frames and revision dates are HWUs, and historically Afrikaans-speaking universities compared to one (25%) of the HIHU + HWU merger university that has HBU and historically Afrikaans-speaking element.

The four (17.4%) of the 23 universities with a revision cycle of more than three years of their accessible institutional language policies are from traditional and comprehensive universities. Three (75%) of the four universities with a revision cycle of more than three years of their accessible institutional language policies are from traditional, HWUs and historically English-speaking universities compared to one (25%) comprehensive university formed from the merger of HBU+HWU + HT that has all the elements of the other universities, except correspondence.

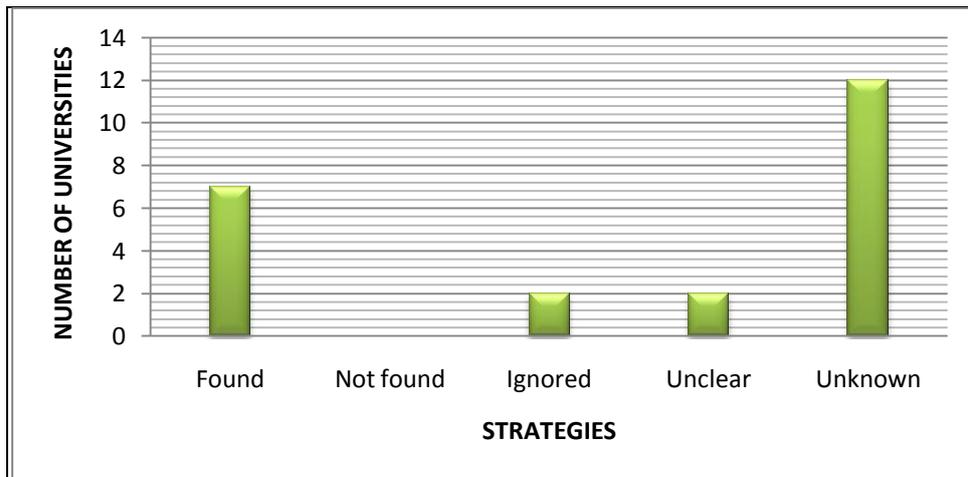
The one university with a three year revision cycle of its accessible institutional language policy is a university of technology. Thus, only one (16.7%) of the six universities of technology planned to revise its institutional language policy within three years.

Lastly, the one with a revision cycle of less than three years of its accessible institutional language policy is a traditional university. Thus, only one (9.1%) of the 11 traditional universities planned to revise its institutional language policy in less than three years.

In short, an institutional language policy is a project. One of the characteristics of a project is a start and a finish. The institutional language policy must have a short-term; medium-term and long-term plan. Most of the 23 universities do not have this structure. Very few of those universities have time frames and directions in their institutional language policies.

- (4) *Strategies for promoting student proficiency in designated language(s) of tuition is the fourth challenge under the governance factor (see Chart 29 below).*

Chart 29: Strategies for promoting student proficiency in designated language(s) of tuition



The availability of strategies for 12 (52.2%) of the 23 universities is unknown. Strategies are found in seven (30.4%) of the 23 universities. The inclusion of strategy is ignored by two (8.7%) of the 23 universities. The presence of strategies in two (8.7%) of the 23 universities is unclear. Lastly, there are zero (0%) of the 23 universities in which one can easily indicate that strategies are not found.

Reading Chart 29 together with Table 4.28 (see chapter 4), it is found that the reasons for the silence of the 12 (52.2%) of the 23 universities on strategies for promoting student proficiency in designated language(s) of tuition are their inaccessible institutional language policies. They are found in all three university categories. Five (41.7%) of the 12 silent universities on strategies for promoting student proficiency in designated language(s) of tuition are universities of technology compared to four (33.3%) comprehensive universities and three (25%) traditional universities. If quantified in their categories, five (83.3%) of the six universities of technology are silent on strategies for promoting student proficiency in

designated language(s) of tuition compared to four (66.7%) comprehensive universities and three (27.3%) traditional universities.

Seven (30.4%) of the 23 universities that have strategies for promoting student proficiency in designated language(s) of tuition are traditional and comprehensive universities. Six (85.7%) of the seven universities that have strategies for promoting student proficiency in designated language(s) of tuition are traditional compared to one (14.3%) comprehensive university. If quantified in their categories, six (54.5%) of the 11 traditional universities have strategies for promoting student proficiency in designated language(s) of tuition compared to one (16.7%) comprehensive university and zero (0%) universities of technology. All of those six traditional universities are HWUs. However, 66.7% of those traditional and HWUs are historically English-speaking compared to 33.3% that is historically Afrikaans-speaking.

Two (8.7%) of the 23 universities that have an accessible institutional language policy but ignored to mention strategies for promoting student proficiency in designated language(s) of tuition are traditional and comprehensive universities. Both are MUs: the traditional university is a merger of HIHU + HWU that automatically has an HBU element and an influential historically Afrikaans-speaking aspect. On the other hand, the comprehensive university is a merger of an HBU +HWU+ HT with all historical elements except the correspondence element.

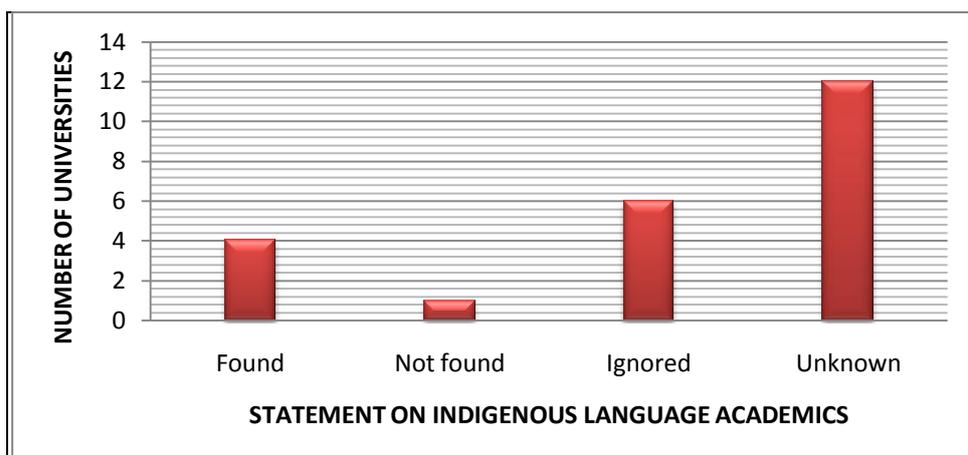
Two (8.7%) of the 23 universities that have an accessible institutional language policy but unclear strategies for promoting student proficiency in designated language(s) of tuition are a traditional university and a university of technology. The traditional university is an HWU and is historically Afrikaans-speaking.

In short, most of the 23 universities do not have strategies for promoting student proficiency in designated language(s) of tuition. Few from all three universities have these strategies. This shows that the readiness of those universities to have institutional language policies that fit government language policies is still remote.

(g) Three big challenges under access of the factors of production

(1) Statement with reference to indigenous language academics on the institutional language policies is the first challenge to be analysed and interpreted under access of the factors of production (see Chart 30 below).

Chart 30: Statement with reference to indigenous language academics on the institutional language policies



The availability of a statement with reference to indigenous language academics on the institutional language policies in 12 (52.2%) of the 23 universities is unknown. It is found in four (17.4%) of the 23 universities; not found in one (4.3%) of the 23 universities; and ignored in six (26.1%) of the 23 universities.

Reading Chart 30 together with Table 4.29 (see chapter 4), it is found that 12 (52.2%) of the 23 universities that are silent on a statement with reference to indigenous language academics on the institutional language policies are those universities without institutional language policies. They include all university categories. Five (41.7%) of the 12 silent universities on statement with reference to indigenous language academics on the institutional language policies are universities of technology compared to four (33.3%) comprehensive universities and three (25%) traditional universities. If quantified in their categories, five (83.3%) of the six universities of technology are silent on a statement with reference to indigenous language academics on the institutional language policies compared to four (66.7%) comprehensive universities and three (27.3%) traditional universities.

The four (17.4%) of the 23 universities with a statement with reference to indigenous language academics on their institutional language policies are traditional and comprehensive. Two (50%) of the four universities that have a statement with reference to indigenous language academics on the institutional language policies are traditional universities equally compared to two (50%) of comprehensive universities. If quantified in their categories, two (18.2%) of traditional universities have a statement with reference to indigenous language academics on their institutional language policies compared to two (33.3%) of the six

comprehensive universities. Thus, the comprehensive universities surpassed the traditional universities in this aspect.

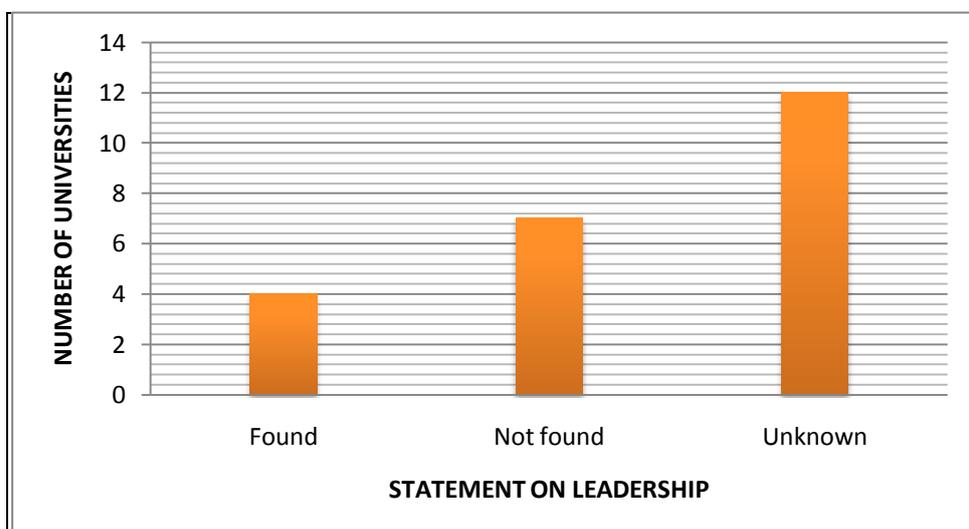
Six (26.1%) of the 23 universities that have an accessible institutional language policy, but ignore to include a statement with reference to indigenous language academics in those policies are traditional universities and a university of technology. Five (83.3%) of those six are traditional universities compared to one (16.7%) university of technology. If quantified in their categories, five (45.5%) of the 11 traditional universities ignore to include a statement with reference to indigenous language academics in their institutional language policies compared to one (16.7%) of the six universities of technology.

The one (4.3%) of the 23 universities in which the statement with reference to indigenous language academics on the institutional language policies is not found at all is a traditional, HWU and historically English-speaking university.

In short, most of the 23 universities do not have statement with reference to indigenous language academics on the institutional language policies; and the ignoring universities also surpassed those few universities that have a statement with reference to indigenous language academics on their institutional language policies.

(2) *Statement with reference to leadership or management in institutional language policies is the second challenge to be analysed and interpreted under access of the factors of production (see Chart 31 below).*

Chart 31: Statement with reference to leadership or management in institutional language policies



The availability of statement with reference to leadership or management in institutional language policies in 12 (52.2%) of the 23 universities is unknown. It is not found in seven (30.4%) of the 23 universities. It is found in four (17.4%) of the 23 universities.

Reading Chart 31 together with Table 4.30 (see chapter 4), it is found that the 12 (52.2%) of the 23 universities in which a statement with reference to leadership or management in institutional language policies is unknown are those universities without institutional language policies. They are found in all three university categories and they were called silent universities in many aspects: there are five (83.3) of the six universities of technology compared to four (66.7%) comprehensive universities and three (27.3%) traditional universities.

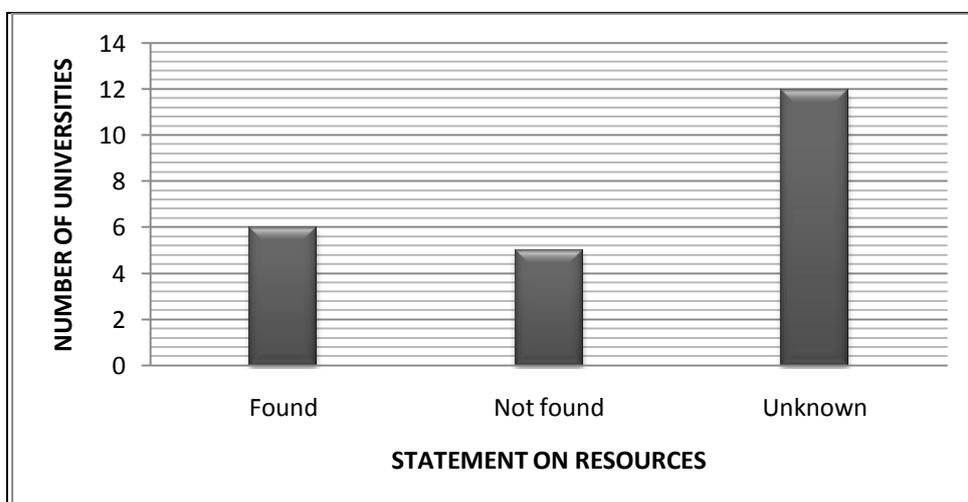
The seven (30.4%) of the 23 universities in which a statement with reference to leadership or management in institutional language policies is not found are represented in all three university categories. Five (71.4%) of the seven (30.4%) are traditional universities; one (14.3%) is a university of technology; and one (14.3%) is a comprehensive university. If quantified according to three different categories, five (45.5%) of the 11 traditional universities do not have a statement referring to leadership or management in their institutional language policies; one (16.7%) of the six universities of technology; and one (16.7%) of the six comprehensive universities do not have such a statement. Thus, traditional universities still lag behind.

The four (17.4%) of the 23 universities in which a statement with reference to leadership or management in institutional language policies is found, are found among traditional and comprehensive universities: Three (75%) that have a statement referring to leadership or management in their institutional language policies are traditional universities compared to one (25%) that is a comprehensive university. If this is quantified according to the categories of universities, three (27.3%) of the 11 traditional universities have a statement referring to leadership or management in institutional language policies compared to one (16.7%) of the six comprehensive universities. Here, the traditional university turned to lead. Two (66.7%) of the three traditional universities are HWUs compared to one (33.3%) which is a merger of an HIHU + HWU. One (50%) of the two HWUs is a historically Afrikaans-speaking university, equally compared to one (50%) historically English-speaking university. The HIHU +HWU merger university has both HBU and historically Afrikaans-speaking university elements.

In short, most of the 23 universities do not care about leadership in fitting their institutional language policies to government language policies and in their development of the use and status of indigenous languages for their education programmes. Most of the universities with accessible institutional language policies even ignore to include a statement with reference to leadership or management in those policies. Only a few universities had considered the importance of leadership in their institutional language policies.

(3) *Statement on resources and the institutional language policies is the third challenge to be analysed and interpreted under access of the factors of production (see Chart 32 below).*

Chart 32: Statement on resources and the institutional language policies



The availability of a statement with reference to resources and the institutional language policies in 12 (52.2%) of the 23 universities is unknown. It is not found in five (21.7%) of the 23 universities. It is found in six (26.1%) of the 23 universities.

Reading Chart 32 together with Table 4.31 (see chapter 4), it is found that the 12 (52.2%) of the 23 universities in which a statement referring to resources is unknown are those universities without institutional language policies. They include all three categories.

The five (21.7%) of the 23 universities in which a statement referring to resources in institutional language policies is not found are traditional and universities of technology. Four (80%) of those five universities are traditional universities compared to one (20%) that is a university of technology. If quantified in their categories, four (36.4%) of the 11 traditional universities do not have such a statement compared to one (16.7%) of six universities of

technology. All the four traditional universities are HWUs: two (50%) are historically Afrikaans-speaking universities, equally compared to two (50%) historically English-speaking universities.

The six (26.1%) of the 23 universities with a statement referring to resources are traditional and comprehensive universities. Four (66.7%) of those universities are traditional universities compared to two (33.3%) that are comprehensive universities. If quantified according to their categories, four (36.4%) of the 11 traditional universities compared to two (33.3%) of the six comprehensive universities have a statement referring to resources in their institutional language policies. Three (75%) of those four traditional universities are HWUs compared to one (25%) merger of HIHU + HWU. Two of the HWUs are historically English-speaking universities compared to one (25%) of a historically Afrikaans-speaking university. The HIHU + HWU merger has both HBU and historically Afrikaans-speaking elements.

In short, most of the 23 universities do not care about resources for fitting their institutional language policies to government language policies and for their development of the use and status of indigenous languages for their education programmes. Some universities that have accessible institutional language policies have not included a statement regarding resources in those policies. Only a few universities had considered the importance of resources in their institutional language policies; and the historically English-speaking universities excel the historically Afrikaans-speaking universities.

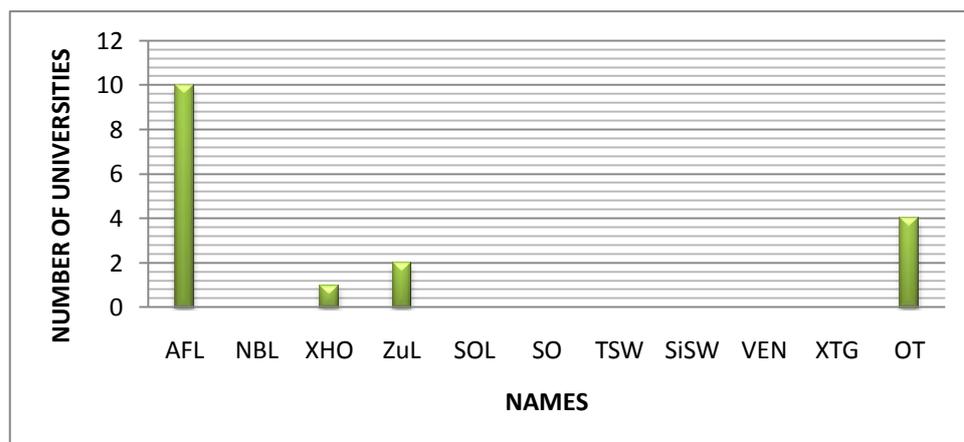
6.3 ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS ON SURVEY

The findings on the survey are analysed in this section. There are 14 findings under this section. They are presented in subsections 6.3.1 to 6.3.14.

6.3.1 Naming of the indigenous language sections

Chart 33 identifies the names given to indigenous language sections, departments or units.

Chart 33: Naming of the indigenous language sections



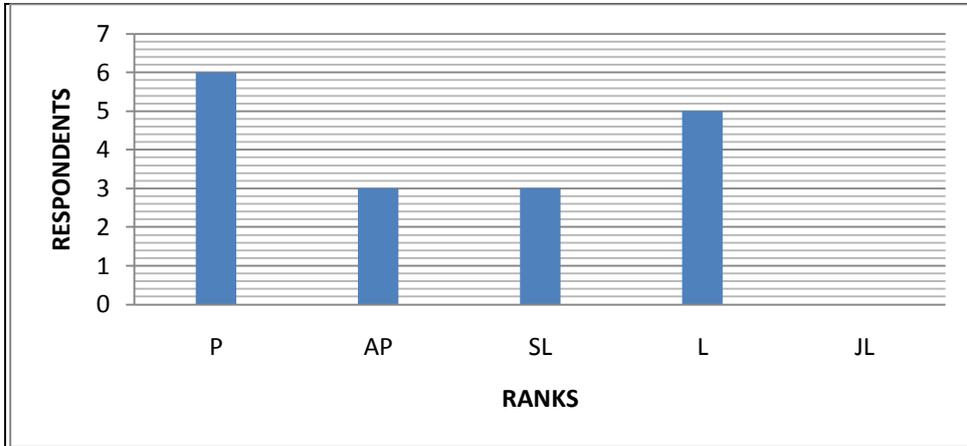
The acronyms in the x-axis of Chart 33 were described in chapter 5, and it is not necessary to repeat them here. Of the 17 universities that responded 10 (58.8%) called their sections African Languages, for example Department of African Languages or the Centre of African Languages. Only two (22.2%) of the nine indigenous languages that are official gained a name status as department: isiZulu and isiXhosa. Two (11.8%) of the 17 universities that responded named their sections the Department of isiZulu, and one (5.9%) of those 17 universities called it the Department of isiXhosa. Seven (77.8%) of the nine languages do not have their own names in 17 of the universities that responded to the questionnaire: isiNdebele; Sepedi; Sesotho; Setswana; siSwati; Tshivenda and Xitsonga. Besides using African languages to name those departments, sections and centres, there are four (23.5%) of the 17 universities that use other names (see OT) in Chart 33.

During the colonial and apartheid system English and Afrikaans had their own names in different universities: Department of English and Department of Afrikaans. They still have their own names and they developed well under those departments. Clustering indigenous languages under one department results in undermining their official status and promotes the diminished use, teaching and status of those languages. They are not taught as languages, the only teaching that takes place is about them.

6.3.2 Academic ranks of respondents

The question required a respondent to identify his or her academic rank (see Chart 34 below)

Chart 34: Academic ranks of respondents



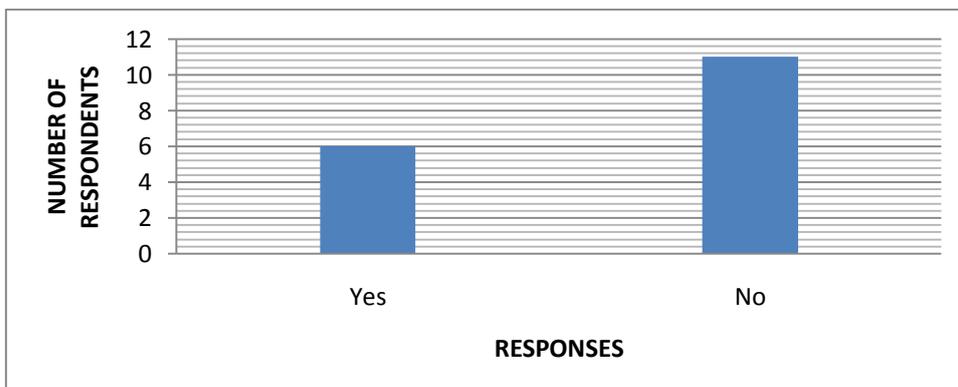
Six (35.3%) of the 17 respondents are Professors; five (29.4%) are Lecturers; three (17.6%) are Associate Professors; and another three (17.6%) are Senior Lecturers. There is no Junior Lecturer. However, with these respondents the respondents were well represented.

Those ranks represent academic employees as individual contributors. Their skill requirements are primarily professional. They contribute to developing the use and status of indigenous languages “by doing the assigned work within the given time frames and ways that meet objectives” (Charan, Drotter & Noel, 2001:16).

6.3.3 Respondents who were managers

Managers here are mainly chairs of departments. They are line managers (see Chart 35).

Chart 35: Responses from both managers and academic employees



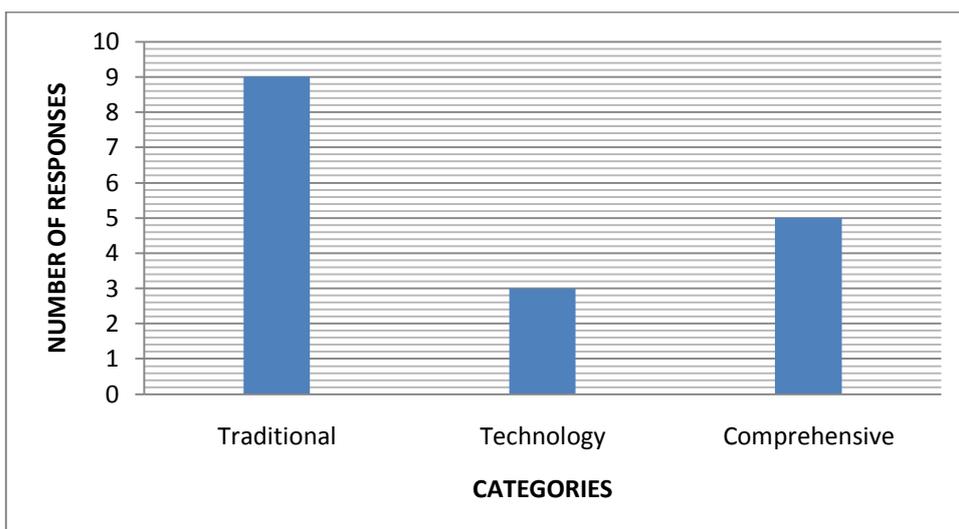
The responses of six (35.3%) of the 17 universities are from managers compared to 11 (64.7%) academic employees of the 17 universities.

The difference is only five (45.5%), which is reasonable. This means that responses were received from both line-managers and academic employees. The line managers contribute to the development of the use and status of indigenous languages for higher education system by “planning work, filling jobs, assigning work, motivating, coaching, and measuring the work of others” (Ibid., 2001:17).

6.3.4 University category

This question identified responses from different university categories (see Chart 36)

Chart 36: University categories



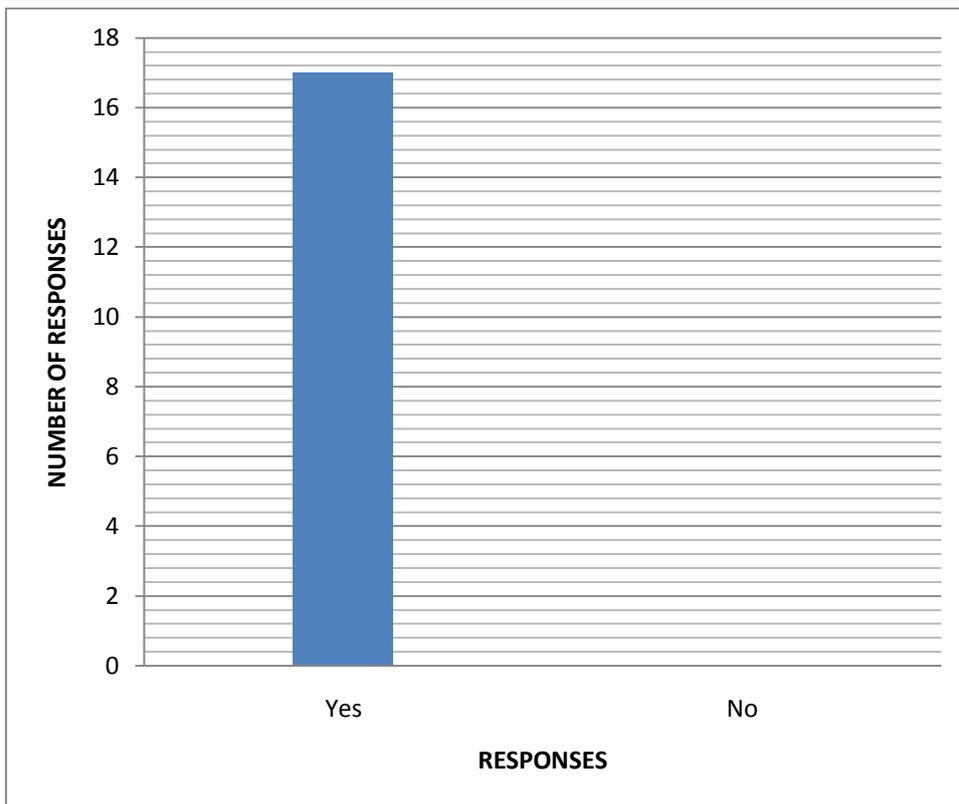
Nine (52.9%) of the 17 universities that responded are traditional universities; five (29.4%) are comprehensive universities; and three (17.6%) are universities of technology.

If the responses are quantified according to their own categories, comprehensive universities had more responses than the other two categories: Five (83.3%) responses. Traditional universities are in the second place, with nine (81.1%) responses. Hence, universities of technology are in the last position, however, half of this category – three (50%) of the six universities of technology – responded. From the six (26.1%) of the 23 universities, half or three (13.0%) are universities of technology; two (8.7%) are traditional universities; and one (4.3%) of the 23 universities is a comprehensive university.

6.3.5 Student language rights

Knowledge of linguistic rights by respondents from the 17 universities was questioned (see Chart 37).

Chart 37: Awareness of language rights



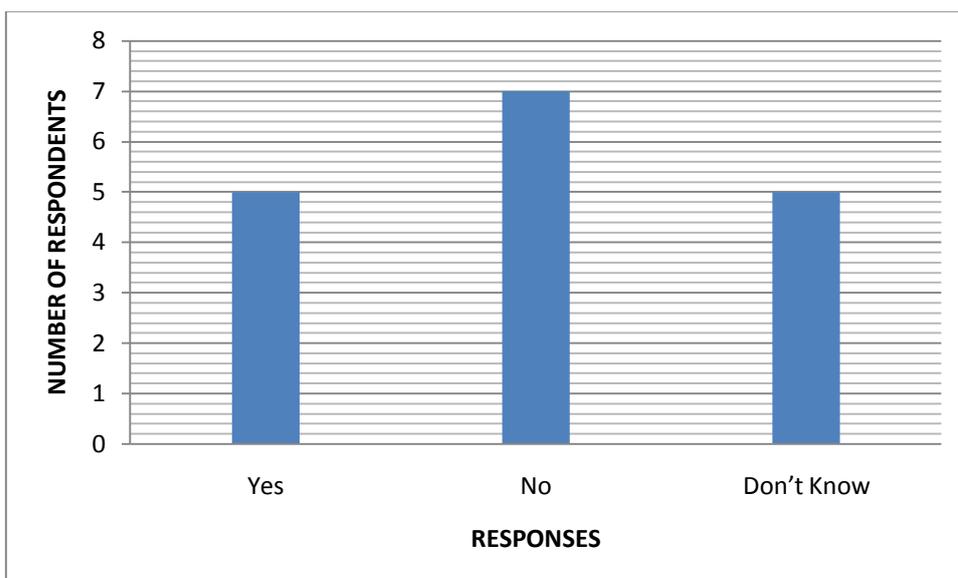
Seventeen (100%) of the 17 respondents are aware of constitutional language rights for students.

The knowledge of the rights by all academics that responded shows that universities know about these rights and that they have to open up for the implementation of those rights without delay.

6.3.6 Institutional language policy

Knowledge of the existence of institutional language policy by respondent per university is negative (see Chart 38).

Chart 38: Availability of language policy at the respondents' university



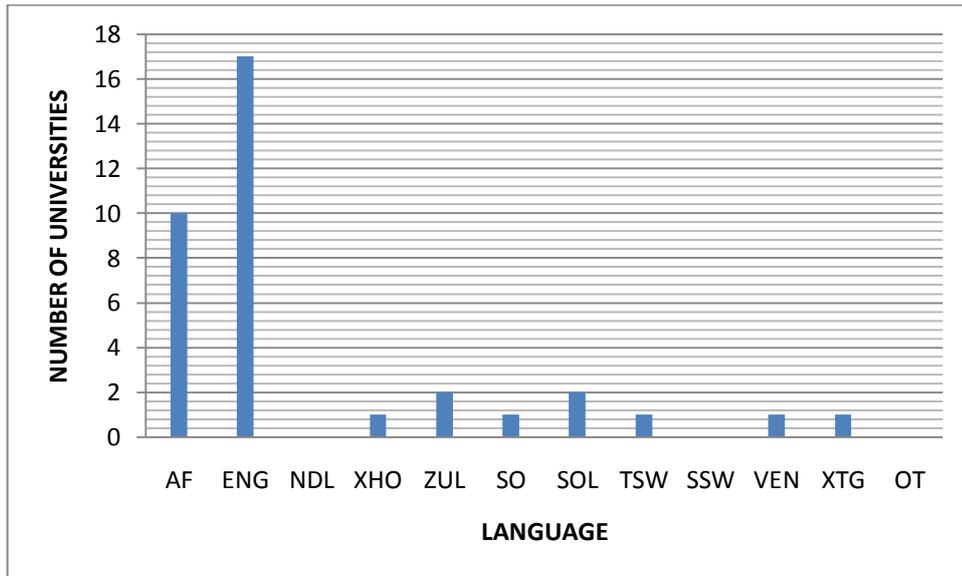
Seven (41.2%) of the 17 universities confirm that there are no institutional language policies in their universities; five (29.4%) confirm that their universities do have; and five (29.4%) say that they don't know.

There are 11 universities with institutional language policies in the Case Study's findings; there are five universities' respondents with knowledge of the existence of their institutional language policies – six (54.5%) or more than half and less than the total 11 accessible institutional language policies; only six of the 23 universities did not respond to the questionnaire. It is obvious that the six universities that did not send their response are not all the universities with accessible institutional language policies. Thus, it is possible that some of the respondents from those 11 universities with accessible language policies are part of **no** and **don't know** responses. This confirms that some of the accessible institutional language policies are not working in their respective institutions. Furthermore, the **no** and **don't know** answers also confirm that 12 (52.2%) of the 23 universities do not have institutional language policies.

6.3.7 University's official language(s)

This information was required to give evidence of the information on designated primary languages or language of tuition in different universities. A different picture from that of the institutional language policies is found (see Chart 39 below).

Chart 39: University's official language(s)

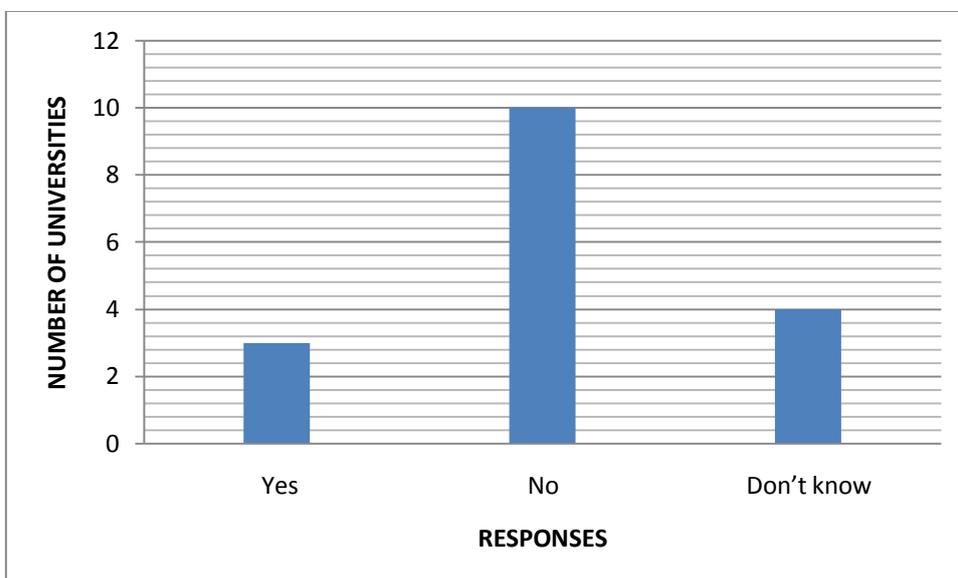


Only two (22.2%) of the nine languages do not have an official status from the 17 responses or universities: IsiNdebele and siSwati. Three (33.3%) of the nine indigenous languages gained official status in one (5.9%) of the 17 universities, each: Setswana; Tshivenda and Xitsonga. They are said to be designated official languages by one (4.3%) of the 23 universities each. The official status of isiZulu and Sesotho is similar to that promised in the findings of the case study. The official status of Sepedi increased to two from that promised in the case study.

It is speculation that the other four languages are designated official languages: isiXhosa, Setswana, Tshivenda and Xitsonga. There is no language policy among the 11 accessible language policies identified that designates those four languages primary languages or languages of tuition in the respective 11 universities. The other 12 universities do not have policies that put on record that a specific language is officially designated a primary language or language of tuition. Similarly, the increase in Sepedi is also a speculation – a policy to confirm is needed.

6.3.8 Institutional language policy and implementation

Chart 40: Implementing the institutional language policies



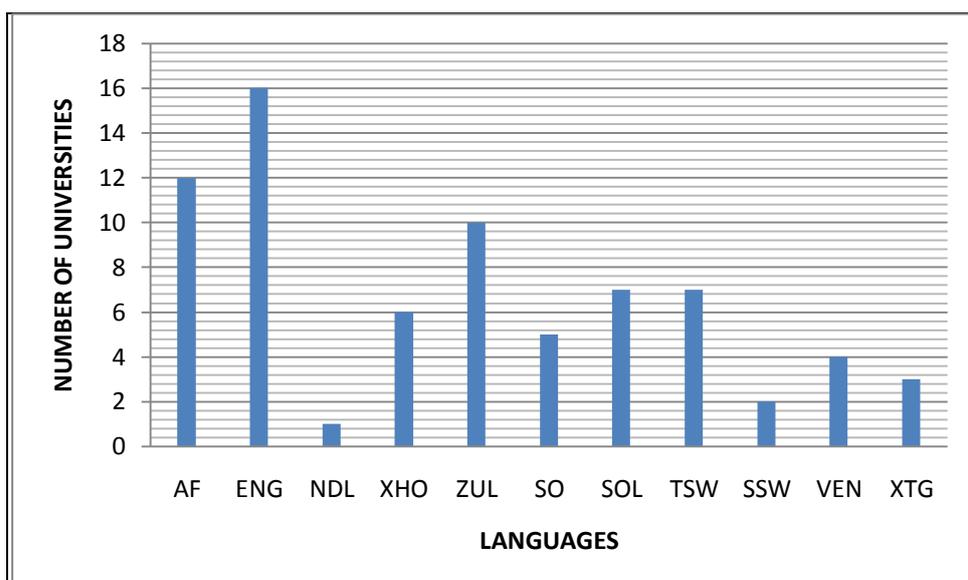
Only three (13.0%) institutional language policies of the 23 universities are implemented as expected. No implementation is done in 10 (43.5%) of the 23 universities. It is unknown in four (17.4%) whether the institutional language policies are implemented or not.

If the three (13.0%) of the institutional language policies that are implemented are quantified in terms of the 11 accessible institutional language policies, three (27.3%) of the 11 accessible institutional language policies are implemented. Eight (72.7%) of those policies are not implemented.

6.3.9 Official languages taught as subjects

The status of indigenous languages that are recognised official languages by the Constitution by all universities is crucial, but the 23 universities failed to acknowledge that (see Chart 41 below).

Chart 41: Languages taught as subjects



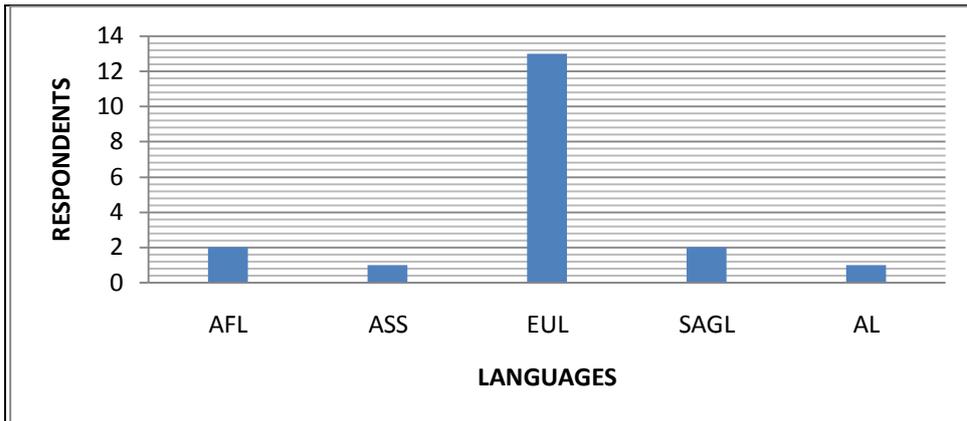
All the 11 official languages are taught, but some are taught more than others. English is being taught in 16 (94.11%) of the 17 universities that responded; Afrikaans by 12 (70.6%); isiNdebele by one (5.9%); isiXhosa by six (35.3%); isiZulu by 10 (58.8%); Sesotho by five (29.4%); Sepedi by seven (41.2%); Setswana by seven (41.2%); siSwati by two (11.8%); Tshivenda by four (23.5%) and Xitsonga by three (17.6%).

The gap observed between teaching English and the other official languages shows that in practice, linguistic transformation in South African higher education is moving in a wrong direction. The gap between English and Afrikaans is five (29.4%) in the 17 universities. This means universities are dropping Afrikaans and adopting English. The gaps among the indigenous languages show that some indigenous languages that are official are favoured more than others in most of the universities. For instance, isiZulu with 10 (58.8%) of the 17 universities offering it, surpassed the next two languages by three (17.6%): the two languages are Sepedi and Setswana, and these are the only languages that are equally offered. Moreover, isiZulu lags behind by two (11.6%) compared to Afrikaans offered by the 17 universities – isiZulu is possibly encroaching on Afrikaans.

6.3.10 Non-South African official languages taught as subjects

The domination of European languages is the major feature seen in this response (see Chart 42).

Chart 42: Non-official languages and foreign languages taught



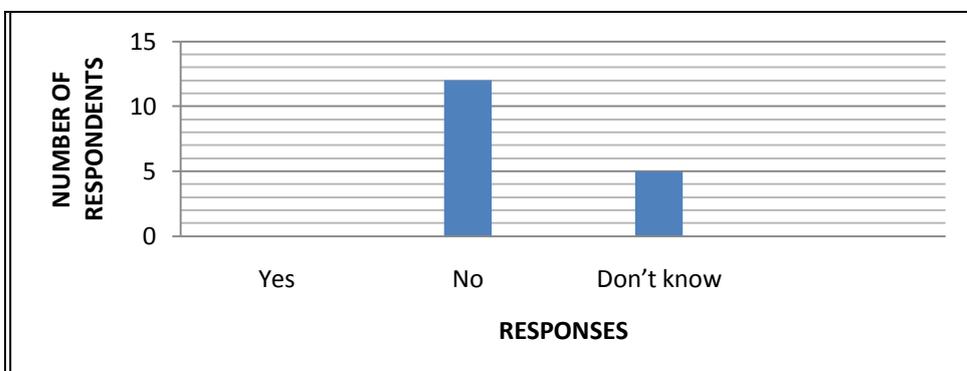
Thirteen (76.5%) of the 17 universities teach European languages; only two (11.8%) teach African languages; two (11.8%) teach SA sign language; one (5.9%) teaches Asian languages; and one (5.9%) teaches Ancient languages.

European languages are in the forefront. Most African countries were colonised by Europeans – their official languages are those of their colonial masters. South Africa is able to accommodate the languages of those countries by teaching the colonial languages. This has an impact on the use and status of indigenous languages.

6.3.11 Lecturers qualified to teach in more than two languages

The academic employees are not ready to develop the use and status of indigenous languages for higher education system (see Chart 43 below).

Chart 43: Lecturers qualified to teach in more than two languages



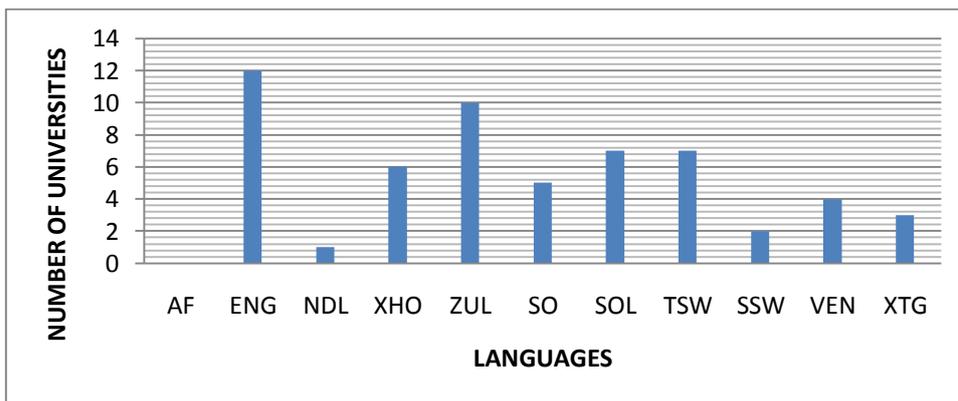
According to the findings of the research there are no lecturers at any of the 17 universities who are qualified to teach in more than two languages. In twelve (70.6%) of the 17 universities it is affirmed that such lecturers are not found in the indigenous language sections; and in five (29.4%) of the 17 universities there was no knowledge as to whether such lecturers exist or not.

This paints a negative image of uncommitted universities on delivering on the status and use of indigenous languages for the higher education system.

6.3.12 Language(s) used for teaching and learning indigenous (official) languages

English is still leading on teaching an indigenous language (see Chart 44 below)

Chart 44: Language(s) used for teaching and learning indigenous (official) languages



Twelve (70.6%) of the 17 universities that responded indicated that they use English to teach an indigenous language; 10 (58.8%) isiZulu; seven (41.2%) Sepedi and the same number Setswana; six (35.3%) isiXhosa; five (29.4%) Sesotho; four (23.5%) Tshivenda; three (17.6%) use Xitsonga; two (11.8%) siSwati; and one (5.9%) isiNdebele.

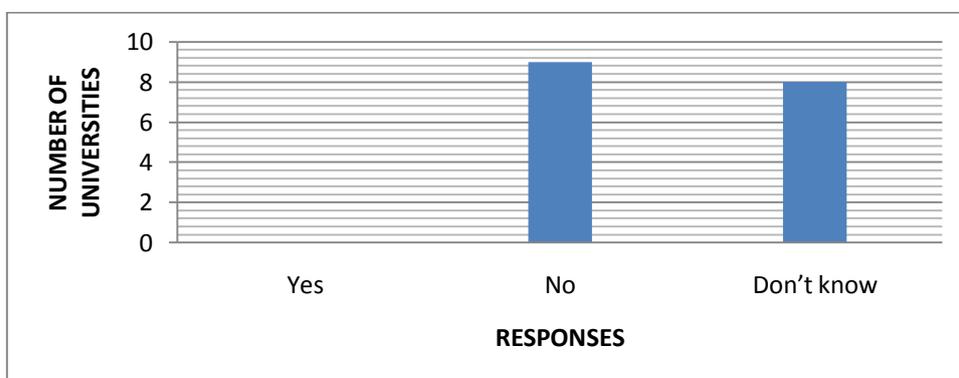
Using English to teach an indigenous language is a weakness and a threat to that language. Reading Chart 44 and three major reasons for the colonisers to learn an indigenous language (see chapter 2), it is clear that the acquisition of indigenous languages by colonisers was not for the Africans' benefit, but their colonial benefit. That is the reason why 358 and 204 years after the arrival of the Dutch and English people, respectively, indigenous languages are still not developed. Afrikaans started and developed during the colonial period and apartheid era,

and is not taught in Dutch or English, but in Afrikaans. Thus, universities are destroying indigenous languages by using English to teach them.

6.3.13 Allowing the use of any of the 11 official languages to answer examinations/ assignments

None of the respondents indicated that their universities allow the use of all the 11 official languages to answer examinations or assignments (see Chart 45 below).

Chart 45: Answers of examinations or assignments in any of the 11 official languages students want to use.



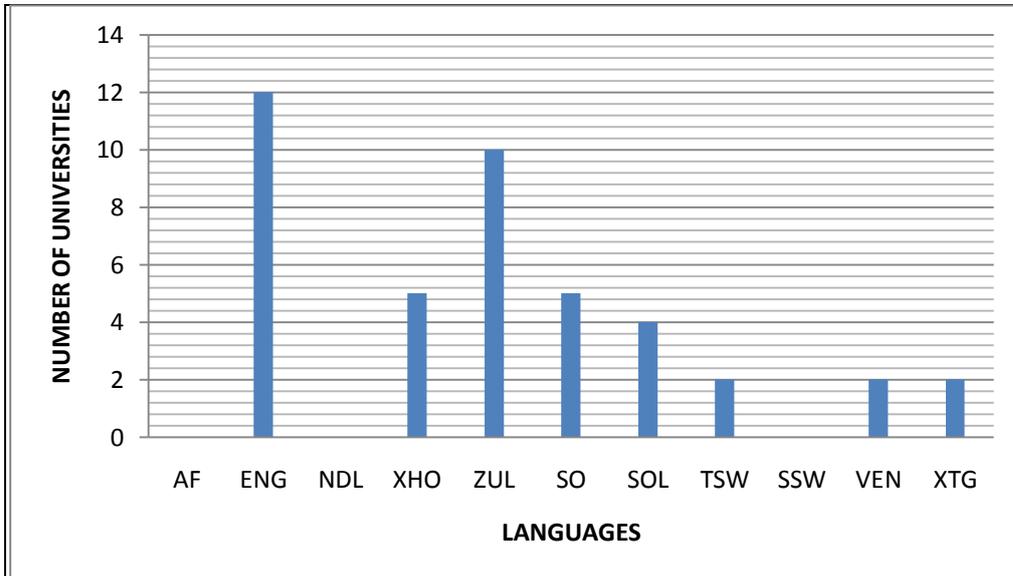
Nine (52.9%) of the 17 responses say that their universities do not allow candidates to have a free choice from among the 11 official languages in providing examinations or assignment answers. Eight (47.1%) say they don't know whether their universities allow candidates to provide examinations or assignment answers in the language of their choice from among the 11 official languages.

The 11 official languages have official status in terms of rights, privileges, prestige, power, etc., relative to others in the social hierarchy and the patterns of socially accepted and expected behaviours or the roles of language (Nkuna, 2010). Thus, any restriction on the choice of official languages is discriminatory, hence those nine (52.9%) of the 17 universities discriminate against other official languages.

6.3.14 Language respondents need to learn as academic and research staff

Academic and research staff have joined the call to life-long learning and choose languages they still want to learn (see Chart 46 below).

Chart 46: Language respondents need to learn as academic and research staff



Twelve (70.6%) of the 17 respondents want to learn English; ten (58.8%) isiZulu; five (29.4%) isiXhosa as well as Sesotho; four (23.5%) Sepedi; two (11.8%) Setswana; two (11.8%) Tshivenda and two (11.8%) Xitsonga; and zero (0%) for Afrikaans, isiNdebele and siSwati.

Academics in indigenous languages are more interested in learning English than learning indigenous languages. However, the fact that English was preferred by a mere margin of two (11.8%) of the 17 respondents, compared to isiZulu, shows that some indigenous languages are coming up. But, there is a need to raise the use and status of all indigenous languages.

6.4 SUMMARY

This chapter analysed and interpreted the findings on the case study and survey presented in chapter 5. The findings on the activities and performance of the 23 universities to improve the use and status of indigenous languages from the case study were analysed and interpreted by comparing the work done by traditional universities, comprehensive universities and universities of technology. The activities and performance of HBUs and HWUs were also compared as well as those of the historically Afrikaans-speaking and English-speaking universities. The second objective of the study: to investigate the universities' activities to

improve the use and status of indigenous languages remained the basis of analysis and interpretation of the findings on the case study. The 23 universities' findings on the initiations or failure to initiate the recognition of indigenous languages as an essential part of the South African higher education system from the survey were analysed and interpreted. The same approach used in the analysis and interpretation on the case study was applied. The basis of analysis and interpretation was the third objective of the study: to evaluate the universities' progress on the recognition of the indigenous languages. The general conclusion for the entire study and recommendations that include the fourth objective are outlined in the next and final chapter.

CHAPTER 7

GENERAL CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is divided into two sections: General conclusion and recommendations.

7.2 GENERAL CONCLUSION

There is a gap between government language policies and institutional language policies. The 23 universities are struggling to establish institutional language policies and to make them accessible as required by section 27(2) of the Higher Education Act, 1997 (Act 101 of 1997). These universities have tried to conform to this Act to various degrees, but in most cases this was only window dressing. Their institutional language policies fail to fit the government language policies and to develop the use and status of indigenous languages for the South African higher education system. Their failures have been expounded in the three studies done in this research: Literature Review, Case Study and Survey (read subsections 7.2.1 to 7.2.3).

7.2.1 Universities failed to adhere to the official status and domain status of South African languages

This answered the first objective of the study: To explore environmental issues affecting institutional language policies in higher education. The literature review addressed one and the most important question of the study: When does a language become an essential part of university education? The review provided the answer in a responsible way: When a language has official status or a domain status. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa recognises 11 official languages: Afrikaans, English, isiNdebele, isiXhosa, isiZulu, Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda and Xitsonga. Democracy, multilingualism, freedom and equality are the present domain status in the country. The 23 universities failed this test and they:

- (1) Resist transformation from the regional and Bantustan language clause of 1961, (section 119 of Act 32 of 1961) to the national language clause of 1996 (section 6 of Act 108 of 1996);
- (2) Resist transformation from the silent racial and colonial laws and the vocal apartheid laws on diminished use and status of indigenous languages that promoted racism, colonisation and apartheid domains to democratic laws that promote a freedom domain through multilingualism and equality.

7.2.2 The 23 universities are still occupied by linguistic discriminations

This answered the second objective of the study: To investigate the universities' activities to improve the use and status of indigenous languages. These are revealed by their activities in relation to four factors of the external environment (see subsections (a) to (d)) and internal factors (see subsections (e) to (g)).

(a) Most of the 23 universities ignored the country's demography

The 23 universities overlooked the importance of demography and pushed a negative agenda. There are two demographic pitfalls that the 23 universities find themselves in, namely:

- (1) Universities are not equally distributed in nine provinces of the country and they were not established based on population per province; but the 23 universities took different directions and designated their primary language(s) or languages of tuition based on the assumed number of speakers in a specific province where they are located; and
- (2) They determined academic disciplines and language taught for professions based on regional and old Bantustan prescriptions.

(b) Most of the 23 universities failed to adhere to the institutional factor

They fail in all eight big challenges to an institutional factor namely:

- (1) Most failed to formulate and publish their institutional language policies and to make them accessible;
- (2) Ignore to elevate and advance the use and status of indigenous languages to be their primary languages or languages of tuition;

- (3) Failed to develop indigenous languages in the medium and long term as medium of instruction in higher education, alongside English and Afrikaans;
 - (4) Most failed to maintain the status of Afrikaans as a language of scholarship and scientific research;
 - (5) Neglect the promotion of the study of South African languages and literature through planning and funding incentives;
 - (6) Most, especially traditional universities, fail to teach indigenous language(s) for specific professions;
 - (7) There was no effective response to Gerwel's report and parallel language of instruction. This report only increased linguistic and racial discrimination among the universities; and
 - (8) Most universities misunderstood the Ministerial Committee guidelines on the choice of indigenous language for tuition or instruction.
- (c) **Most of the 23 universities are silent on promoting the study of foreign languages, but exaggerate international offerings**

They are confusing the two big challenges under the international factor, including the following:

- (1) Most of the 23 universities are silent on the promotion of the study of foreign languages followed by ignorance, very few adherences and a double standard; and
 - (2) They cling to the colonial international language offerings and ignore regional and continental languages.
- (d) **The 23 universities adhere to racial, colonial and apartheid political factors**

They fail to transform the nine challenges to political factors that are created through racism, colonisation and apartheid. The challenges are:

- (1) The 23 universities' rate of response to multilingualism is very weak;
- (2) They ignore to recognise the official status of indigenous languages;
- (3) Language and race is one and the same thing in those 23 universities. There are both direct and indirect practices of language and race;
- (4) Linguistic colonisation is unshaken and the behaviour of the colonised strengthened;

- (5) Apartheid is unmoved and its discriminatory linguistic laws are used by the 23 universities;
 - (6) The diminished teaching of indigenous languages took a new shape and is on the increase;
 - (7) Silence on teaching an indigenous language in its own medium is the norm, while the use of English to teach those languages has strengthened;
 - (8) Restrictions on the language use for university purposes are applied without transparency;
 - (9) There is very little teaching of other South African languages that have no official status; while international languages that were brought in by colonisers have a space in the 23 universities' curricula.
- (e) The visions of most of those 23 universities are difficult to be aligned to indigenous languages**

This vision factor challenges the alignment with indigenous languages, including:

- (1) Vision statements with local focus to align the indigenous languages are in demand; but there are a number of those 23 universities whose vision statements fail to include local focus; and
- (2) There is much less focus on regional context, although most of those languages are spoken in the SADC region.

(f) The governance factor troubles most of the 23 universities, linguistically

The governance factor challenges councils of the 23 universities' commitment on institutional language policies. For instance:

- (1) There are very few university councils that approved the institutional language policy;
- (2) The pace of establishing the institutional language policies and making them accessible is very slow;
- (3) Most of the 23 universities are silent on the time-frame for revising their institutional language policies; and
- (4) Few of the 23 universities have strategies for promoting student proficiency.

(g) Some challenges are brought forward by access of the factors of production

Three big challenges on access of the factors of production form part of the internal factors affecting fit between government language policies and institutional language policies. The challenges are:

- (1) Most of the 23 universities are silent on recruiting, training or supporting academics in indigenous languages;
- (2) Most of the 23 universities fail to involve their leaders or managers to align the government language policies and/or management with their institutional language policies and develop the use and status of indigenous languages for their education; and
- (3) Most of the 23 universities fail to create space to attract resources, especially funding strategies to develop the use and status of indigenous languages.

7.2.3 Outcomes of the survey

There is a link between the Case Study results and those of the survey. The following points summarise the survey results:

- (1) Most universities cluster the indigenous languages to delay their development;
- (2) There is no balance between academic ranks; professors dominate and they seem to be greying;
- (3) Managers or chairs of departments seem to be invisible;
- (4) Comprehensive universities were active participants in this survey;
- (5) Linguistic rights are well known by all the 23 universities;
- (6) Institutional language policies in some universities are not known by indigenous language academics;
- (7) English retained official status in most of the 23 universities;
- (8) Implementation of the official languages is not done in most universities;
- (9) English followed by Afrikaans remained the academic disciplines in most universities;
- (10) European languages dominate the 23 universities' curricula;
- (11) Lecturers are not being prepared to teach indigenous languages;
- (12) English is commonly used to teach indigenous languages;
- (13) There is no academic freedom on the use of languages for examinations or assignments; and

- (14) Academics in indigenous languages prefer to study English followed by isiZulu.

7.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

A successful fit between institutional language policies and government language policies that incorporate the development of the use and status of indigenous languages for the South African higher education system has four basic rules (see Table 7.1 below).

Table 7.1: The four basic rules to fit institutional language policy into government language policies in SA higher education system

Rule	Description
1	Explore environmental issues affecting institutional language policies in higher education.
2	Engage the university to improve the use and status of indigenous languages.
3	Evaluate the university progress on the recognition of indigenous languages.
4	Develop explanatory theory that can promote best practice on institutional language policies.

The first three rules (Rule 1, 2 and 3) relate to the first three objectives and Rule 4 is part of the fourth objective that will still be fully discussed in this section. Hence, this section on recommendations is further divided into four subsections (7.3.1 to 7.3.4), and each section represents a basic rule to fit an institutional language policy into government language policies in the South African higher education system.

7.3.1 Explore environmental issues affecting institutional language policies in higher education

If there is one aspect of fit between the government language policies and an institutional language policy that incorporates developing the use and status of indigenous languages for higher education system which is not well understood, it is the environment. Hence, this subsection represents **Rule 1** identified in Table 7.1 above or the first rule that South Africa's public higher education institutions engaging in linguistic transformation should follow. The council of the institution concerned will have to study the environmental issues: external and internal environments that affect institutional language policies in the South African higher education system. Four steps should be followed in this exploration, including:

(a) Step 1: Understanding the historical use and status of languages in the country's higher education system

The higher education institution concerned must first understand the use and status of languages of the country's higher education system from colonial and apartheid systems up to now; the racial, colonial and apartheid influences on the choice of the institution's primary language(s) or language(s) of tuition; language disciplines and languages for various professions.

(b) Step 2: Understanding historical factions in the SA higher education system

The higher education institution concerned must understand the contributions made by the past factions of higher education institutions in the country and their impact on linguistic discriminations. The following are factions of higher education institutions of the past in South Africa:

- (1) HBUs (HIHUs) versus HWUs;
- (2) Historically Afrikaans-speaking versus English-speaking universities;
- (3) Historically, non-racial universities and universities that had parallel language of instruction in the past; and
- (4) The Technikon model.

(c) Step 3: Knowledge and acceptance of what makes a language an essential part of university education

The higher education institution concerned must know and accept what makes a language an essential part of university education. The higher education institution must follow the trends of official language and domain status. It will have to accept that the language clause (section 119 of Act 32 of 1961) has been abolished. Hence, the official status of the nine indigenous languages (isiNdebele, isiXhosa, isiZulu, Sepedi, Seotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda and Xitsonga) is no longer regional or Bantustan. The new language clause is that of 1996 (section 6 of Act 108 of 1996). In this clause the official status of those nine indigenous languages is nationally equal to English and Afrikaans; and the university concerned is a national asset, there are no regional or Bantustan universities in the country. Thus, all the 11 official languages should be recognised by all universities. Similarly, the domain status is no longer racism, colonisation or apartheid, but democracy, freedom and equality.

(d) Step 4: SWOT and DIIP analysis

The acronyms SWOT and DIIP are crucial in exploring environmental issues affecting institutional language policies in higher education. The council of each of the 23 universities needs to start at ground level, and return regularly to, a benchmark. This is the function of the SWOT analysis. SWOT is an acronym for strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats. When planning to develop an institutional language policy a South African university needs to embark on a SWOT analysis to establish its strengths and weaknesses (internally) and the opportunities and threats facing it (externally). Internal strengths could be a good alignment with the university's vision and its institutional language policy; good governance that includes full commitment by the university's council to institutional policy formulation, development, translation and implementation; and access of factors of production that include good academics for indigenous languages, good leaders and managers, and access to finance for language projects. Weaknesses could be the opposite to the strengths: poor alignment of the university's vision and its institutional language policy; poor governance that includes no commitment by the university's council to institutional policy formulation, development, translation and implementation; and failure to access factors of production that lead to the appointment of unskilled academics for indigenous languages, incompetent leaders and managers, and failure to access funding for language projects. Opportunities could be the country's constitution and government language policies and demands on multilingualism, freedom and equality; while threats could be the culture of racism, colonisation and apartheid that are embedded in the country's education system and any other operation including industry. Whatever institutional language policy thinking technique it uses, the council of each of the 23 universities must create a discipline to return regularly and rigorously to define its SWOT. It is a crucial part of revision cycles of the institutional language policy. Without a SWOT analysis the council of the university concerned will drift aimlessly without a resolve to effect a fit between government language policies and its institutional language policy that incorporates the use and status of indigenous languages in its university's functions. If this happens then the council of the university concerned has started to fail.

The DIIP analysis – of demographic, institutional, international and political influences – is an equally useful thinking tool on the externally-oriented Opportunity and Threat side. In the corporate world the acronym PESTEL is normally used. PESTEL is an analysis of the external influence on a firm: the acronym stands for political, economical, social, technological, environmental and legal. “The former PEST has been expanded to include the

legal and environmental aspects” (Law, 2009:424). DIIP is similar to PESTEL, but in this context the focus is on the four variables that are seen to be overlooked by the 23 universities on developing their institutional language policies: demographic, institutional, international and political. Note that demographic, institutional and political variables in the DIIP are similar to the social, legal and political variables of PESTEL, respectively. Only the international variable emerged as a new variable in the DIIP. Furthermore, the economical, technological and environmental variables of PESTEL are not totally ignored in the DIIP. They should be visited sometimes because in most cases economical and technological variables emerge as threats on developing the use and status of indigenous languages.

7.3.2 Engage the university to improve the use and status of indigenous languages

Understanding the environment through SWOT and DIIP analyses is not the end of the game – execution is essential. Hence, “superb execution is more than values and commitment” (Gerstner, 2002:233). Fit between the government language policies and an institutional language policy that incorporates the use and status of indigenous languages is not achieved owing to the 23 universities’ stance at present as we have seen in the Case Study and Survey findings. Thus, this is **Rule 2** or the second rule that should be followed by a public higher education institution in South Africa engaging in linguistic transformation. The council of the institution concerned will have to conform to the external and internal environments that affect institutional language policies in the South African higher education system by focusing on its linguistic transformation activities and performance. It has to adhere to the following statement:

The fact that we have 11 official languages and have even recognized the need to encourage others...means that we are serious about taking practical measures to advance the use of all our languages (Mbeki, 1999:1 cited in Nkuna, 2010: v).

This should be the starting point, and seven steps should be followed in this exploration, including:

(a) Step 1: Accepting that the apartheid, regional and Bantustan demarcation of the country is no longer at work

There are no homelands, no place for specific language groups, and the group areas Act of 1913 has been abolished. You can expect to encounter an Afrikaner, English person, any

Mosotho, Mutsonga, Muvhenda or any umuNguni, anywhere in the country and in any university. The democratic universities' establishments were not a product of ethnicity or a specific population group and the official language status is not based on the number of speakers per home language. They are all equal without considering the number of speakers, and they are all national languages, and not regional or languages for the Bantustans. Thus, to succeed on the fit between the government language policies and institutional language policy, while incorporating the use and status of indigenous languages, the university concerned should consider four recommendations in relation to demography, namely:

- (1) A university should consider that all of the 11 official languages are official languages nationally, without considering the number of the home language speakers;
- (2) No language group should be denied linguistic rights, freedom and equality in any form of discrimination;
- (3) If the university wants to negotiate for economic reasons, it can only negotiate among the Nguni Group and the Sotho Group to opt for one language each, considering that different universities may have only one of those languages for each group;
- (4) Based on (3), each university must at least have six primary languages or languages of tuition: Afrikaans; English; one from Nguni; one from Sotho; Tshivenda; and Xitsonga.

(b) Step 2: Considering the institutional factor as a centre of educational transformation

Linguistic discrimination in the SA higher education started from the constitution of the Cape Colony to the Union government and then to the Apartheid government and educational policies. Linguistic transformation focuses on the eradication of those abolished laws and policies. Thus, to succeed on the fit between the government language policies and institutional language policy, while incorporating the use and status of indigenous languages, the 23 universities' councils should acknowledge that:

Focusing on decisions doesn't necessarily require a strict focus on the mental process of managers...It can mean examining the accessible components of decision making – which decisions need to be made, what information is supplied, key roles in the process and so forth (Davenport, 2009:118).

Thus, the university concerned should consider six recommendations in relation to the institutional factor. The recommendations are:

- (1) Study the language clause (sections 6 of Act 108 of 1996) and the Education clause (section 29 of Act 108 of 1996); understand and implement it, without excuses;
- (2) Study the Higher Education Act, 1997 (Act 101 of 1997), especially subsection 27 (2) on institutional language policy, understand and implement without excuses;
- (3) Study and understand the Education White Paper 3, understand and implement without excuses;
- (4) Study all education policies and acts, especially the NQF Act and the HEQF to understand the qualification levels, and design indigenous language courses based on those levels;
- (5) Study the recommendations of the Language Policy of Higher Education, understand and implement without excuses;
- (6) Study the recommendations by both the Gerwel and Ministerial Committee report, understand and implement without excuses.

(c) Step 3: Go international but retain and sustain local languages

Raman (2009:137) asserts: “African nations share common languages, cultures, and trade routes, and companies that cluster them together can create viable markets.” So, what should the 23 universities do? Commenting on globalisation, Lysandrou and Lysandrou (2003:225) say:

Cynical view of the role of global English in the world today can be stretched to encompass an equally cynical view of the relation which that language structure has to local languages... there is another, more sinister aspect to the functional division of labour between English as a language of communication and local languages as languages of community. If the community continues stockpiling of claims on the world’s output based on presupposes a continual replenishment and expansion of the latter, that expansion in turn must presuppose not only the contribution of various technological and economic factors that can underpin productivity increases and improvements in standards, and also a contribution of an assortment of political, social and cultural factors insofar as these help safeguard the stability and cohesion of the local environments within which individuals live and work. From this particular perspective, it is reasonable to suppose that the same group of agents standing to gain from homogenising influence of English, also stand to gain from opposing processes ‘of asserting, recognising, and protecting more local languages, traditions and identities’.

What is said in this quotation needs high consideration from the councils of the 23 universities when dealing with the role of global English, which is a factor that is most misunderstood in any linguistic transformation environment. Hence, globalisation is the factor that gives rise to

economical and technological challenges and leads the 23 universities to ignore demographic, institutional and political factors when developing their institutional language policies. Those 23 universities even ignore the regional and continental significance because of globalisation and global English. With the above quotation in mind, councils of the 23 universities should note that they are expected to make:

Major contributions to the local and regional development agendas, with interesting regional variations resulting from their institutional and locational contexts; such returns merit considerable support (Glasson, 2003:21).

Thus, the 23 universities should consider six recommendations in relation to the international factor. The recommendations are:

- (1) The 23 universities should be vocal, aware and clear on promoting the study of foreign languages;
- (2) If they are preparing people to work for their country, region and continent, they should first learn to adapt to local, regional and continental languages before they go for the international or overseas languages;
- (3) The teaching staff of the local, regional, continental or international languages should come from the language's native countries. Most of them should be native speakers of the target language;
- (4) South Africa is a developing country (it forms part of countries in the middle); it does not gain from globalisation, and focusing on developing global English is a waste in itself;
- (5) Globalisation is not a replacement or continuation of colonisation; it must start from local, to regional, to continental, to international and to global; and
- (6) Globalisation and global English, should not exercise authority over the indigenous languages, they must be developed together.

(d) Step 4: The politics of liberation should be maintained

This should be the starting point for the 23 universities to address the political factor and linguistic problems. Vil-Nkomo (2009:52) says:

There is a major lesson to be learned about how Fort Hare University became relevant for the survival of a community and a group of people who had been condemned to fail by a destructive political system.

So what should the 23 universities do? The destructive political system referred to by Vil-Nkomo was not only practised during apartheid, but also by the colonial system. This led to nine pitfalls that are still evident today within the 23 universities as outlined subsection 7.2.2(d). Thus, the 23 universities will have to consider nine recommendations in relation to the political factor, namely:

- (1) Respond positively to multilingualism;
- (2) Recognise the official status of all nine indigenous languages;
- (3) Divorce languages from race and operate within the rainbow-nation strategy;
- (4) Eradicate linguistic colonisation and educate the colonised on linguistic democracy;
- (5) Bury section 119 of Act 32 of 1961 and Extension of University Education Act (No 45 of 1959), and implement sections 6 and 29(1) of Act, 1996 (Act108 of 1996);
- (6) Prevent the diminished teaching of indigenous languages and develop relevant curricula;
- (7) Teach an indigenous language through the medium of that language;
- (8) Remove restrictions on the language use for university purposes; and
- (9) Start teaching other South African languages that have no official status, including Khoi, Nama and San languages; and the SA sign language.

(e) Step 5: Align the vision through local, regional and continental focus

To begin this step, it is crucial to quote the pioneers of a vision, Collins and Porras (1996:76) when they say “it is vision that provides the context.” For this reason:

Without a vision of national development and continental development, we can just forget any prospect that this continent will be transformed (Turok & Olukoshi (2010:41).

So, to succeed in fitting the government language policies with institutional language policies, while incorporating the use and status of indigenous languages, the vision of the university concerned should provide a context for this fit, for the reason that:

Visions stretch our imaginations, ambitions, thoughts and behaviours to take us forward without any immediate expectation of short-term fulfilment such as that which comes from operation work in hand. Visions are of a higher order (Garratt, 2003:61).

So, the visions of the 23 universities should be an energising force that encourages people to attune, align and stretch out to generate the forward movement of those universities from being local universities to regional, to continental and to universities of international status. Thus, the 23 universities will have to consider three recommendations in relation to their visions, namely:

- (1) Developing visions that have a local, regional, continental and international focus;
- (2) Revising and aligning their visions with their institutional language policies to address linguistic issues locally, regionally, continentally and internationally; and
- (3) Putting more emphasis on the local and regional linguistic situation for extra boost to indigenous languages' alignment, because most of those languages are spoken in the SADC region.

(f) Step 6: Governance holds the 23 universities' keys for smooth transformation to multilingualism

“Decision making norms take place in a common law fashion, incorporating lessons learned from previous applications” (Useem, 2006:138). So, to begin the discussion on governance and institutional language policy, it is important to cite a statement from Agency Theory and Information Asymmetry that:

The nature and quality of interactions between two entities, such as a company's management and board, are affected by how much they know about each other's interests, objectives, fears and aspirations. While each side has knowledge of itself and knowledge about the other side, each side also has blind spots: things it doesn't know about itself, and things it doesn't know about others (Thomas, Schrage, Bellin & Marcotte, 2009:71).

Council has to collaborate with senate in all of the 23 universities in order to establish an institutional language policy and make it accessible. Hence, like in the quotation above, there are interactions between two entities: council and senate/management. Thus, the nature and quality of interactions between council and senate/management are affected like a company's management as quoted above. Thomas, et al., (2009) also identified four types of interactions, which can be adapted to advise councils of the 23 universities, namely:

- (1) Open discussion or review is possible when each side reveals what it knows to the other;
- (2) The council fulfils its role as adviser when members share insights and experiences with the senate or management;

- (3) Disputes are possible between senate/management and the council when the line between senate's knowledge (of operation, for example) and that of the council is challenged by the council's quest for further discussion or review;
- (4) The danger zone is the space where neither senate/management nor council has knowledge about a situation.

The 23 universities will have to consider seven recommendations in relation to their governance, including:

- (1) The four types of interactions listed above should not be overlooked;
- (2) Institutional language policy and strategy are the domains of the council and members;
- (3) The council should collaborate with the senate, and the senate will have to receive the input from the remaining 99 percent of people in the operation loop of the university concerned;
- (4) The collaboration between the council and senate should lead to the establishment of an institutional language policy and they should make it accessible;
- (5) The institutional forum should advise the council on government language legislations and policies;
- (6) An institutional language policy should have a time-frame for revision; and
- (7) The 23 universities must have strategies for promoting student proficiency on the designated language(s).

(g) Step 7: Factors of production are a must have

Labour, leadership or management and capital are common factors of production required. Martin and Moldoveanu (2003:37) say: "In our knowledge-based economy, value is a product of knowledge and information." Hence, labour, leadership or management and capital are what can produce superior institutional language policies that have value for the South African higher education system and the South African society. Thus, Pitman (2003:46) advises that there is:

A key lesson to focus on value creation – or anything else, for that matter: You can't impose a mind-set on people. It emerges from a learning process in which they become persuaded that an objective is worthwhile and then apply their talents to realising it. The process often involves heated debate; indeed, I found that disagreement is a key to getting agreement. Without disagreement, people will simply fall into line with no real commitment to the program.

There must be a good relationship between the management and the academic employees, especially those in the employment of indigenous language departments, units or sections, in the case of this study, as Kim and Mauborgne (2003:127) confess:

When employees don't trust managers to make good decisions or to behave with integrity, their motivation is seriously compromised. Their distrust and its attendant lack of engagement is a huge, unrecognised problem in most organisations. This issue has always mattered, but it matters now more than ever, because knowledge-based organisations are totally dependent on the commitment and ideas of their employees.

Any university is a knowledge-based organisation. So, section 16(1) (d) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, (Act 108 of 1996), states categorically that everyone has the right of expression including academic freedom and freedom of scientific research. Thus, Kim and Mauborgne's confession cited above is crucial for the 23 universities. Furthermore, the university senate or management should also acknowledge that "people care about the decisions you make, but they care even more about the process you use along the way" (Ibid., 2003:127). The successful fit between the government language policies and institutional language policies that incorporate the use and status of indigenous languages for the South African higher education system requires a fair process. Indigenous language programmes or qualifications are no longer production-based but knowledge-based. So, one may recommend a fair process to be in the centre of the three pillars of access to factors of production: Labour, entrepreneurial skills and capital.

Still on entrepreneurial skills, leadership or management is also a cornerstone of this fit. McClelland and Burnham (2003:120) maintain:

A good manager is one who, among other things, helps subordinates feel strong and responsible, rewards them properly for good performance, and sees that things are organised so that subordinates feel they know what they should be doing. Above all, managers should foster among subordinates a strong sense of team spirit, of pride in working as part of a team. If a manager creates and encourages this spirit, his or her subordinates certainly should perform better.

This can create a good fit between government language policies and the institutional language policy of any of the universities concerned. McClelland and Burnham also identified three motivational groups, namely:

- (1) **Affiliative managers** need to be liked more than they need to get things done. Their decisions are aimed at increasing their own popularity rather than promoting the goal of the institution;
- (2) **Managers motivated by the need to change** are not worried about what people think of them. They focus on setting goals and reaching them, but they put their own achievement and recognition first; and
- (3) **Institutional managers** are interested above all in power. They focus on building power through their own individual achievement.

Institutional managers are the most effective, and their direct reports have a greater sense of responsibility, see the university goals more clearly, and exhibit more team spirit. Nine recommendations in relation to access to factors of production should be considered. They are:

- (1) Start with a fair process in mind because it profoundly influences attitudes and behaviours critical to higher performance. It builds trust and unlocks ideas;
- (2) The great challenge is to change the colonial and apartheid culture of English and Afrikaans domination and motivate people to take personal responsibility and try multilingualism;
- (3) Match talent with the task of developing an institutional language policy by considering people skills such as facilitation, teamwork, influence and creative communication;
- (4) Indigenous language academics must operate in a culture where they constantly grapple with challenges and problems and must come up with fresh ideas;
- (5) Managers must end any colonial and apartheid minds of viewing indigenous languages academics just as a pair of hands; and must view them as knowledge workers who accumulate wisdom of experience on the universities' front lines;
- (6) Indigenous language departments must improve their strategies of hiring and retaining more Generation Y academics (Gen Y academics); They must manage a common problem that Gen Y academics seem to have, unrealistic expectations about what the indigenous languages are going to do for them; and that they are looking for a pay-check more than a career;
- (7) The 23 universities must invest heavily in indigenous language academics and capabilities, and they must garner ideas from everyone and everywhere: the senior academics, the junior academics and the students;

- (8) The 23 universities must be good on talent, speed, shared mind-set, accountability, collaboration, learning, leadership, student connectivity, strategic unity, innovation and efficiency;
- (9) The 23 universities should adhere to the 4+2 formula: The management should excel on four primary practices (strategy; execution; culture; and structure) and embrace two of the secondary practices (talent, innovation, leadership and mergers and partnerships).

7.3.3 Evaluate the university progress on indigenous languages recognition

The difference between the present ‘democratic’ universities in South Africa and the past colonial and apartheid universities is the ability to execute. This subsection focuses on **Rule 3** or the third rule to be followed by a public higher education institution in South Africa engaging in linguistic transformation (see Table 7.1). So, if the past colonial and apartheid universities were executing their colonial and racial laws that supported Afrikaans and English languages better than what the present ‘democratic’ universities are doing measured against the democratic laws that recognise 11 official languages (Afrikaans, English, isiNdebele, isiXhosa, isiZulu, Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda and Xitsonga), the past colonial and apartheid universities, though they were declared dead and buried by the Higher Education Act, 1997 (Act 101 of 1997), are still beating the present ‘democratic’ universities here and now. One of the reasons is that the colonial and racial laws on languages are still controlling South African universities. This is one of the reasons why after 16 years of democracy, 14 years of the Language clause of Act 108 of 1996 and eight years of the Language Policy of Higher Education (2002), 11 of the 23 universities have institutional language policies, but the managers fail to pass this message on to those universities’ indigenous language academic employees. These are contradictions that derail the fit between government language policies and institutional language policies. The first and biggest contradiction is that universities seem to view the native academics of those nine indigenous languages as pairs of hands and not knowledge workers who have their own wisdom of experience – on the colleges, or faculties, as well as indigenous language departments’ front line. It is just like in the colonial and apartheid years where the native academics of those indigenous languages were called assistants to the white scholars. Twelve (85.7%) of 14 answers given on the survey questionnaire represent major contradictory tendencies, all of them contributing to the failure of the country’s universities on the fit between government

language policies and institutional language policies and their failure to develop the use and status of indigenous languages for the South African higher education system. For instance, clustering, unbalanced academic ranks, invisible chairs of departments, failure to disclose institutional language policies, English hegemony, ignorance of new official languages, Afrikaans and English only recognition as academic disciplines against indigenous languages; teaching indigenous languages using English; European languages' domination in the curricula; failure to prepare lecturers to teach indigenous languages; no academic freedom in the use of indigenous languages for academic work; and colonised minds of indigenous language academics.

The 23 universities' managers can benefit from the advice from management researchers and management gurus. For instance, Gerstner (2002: 233) has noted:

No sports team can score if the players don't know what the play is called... companies that out-execute their competitors have communicated crystal-clear messages to all their employees.

A similar statement was made by the chairman and CEO of Mattel in El Segundo, California, Robert, A. Eckert. He says:

People can't and won't do much for you if no one in the organisation knows what's going on, what you expect of them, and what the future holds. And talking to them once a quarter isn't enough – you have to repeat messages of direction, inspiration, and comfort daily, in a variety of forms (Eckert, 2003:44).

Gerstner also gives examples of messages that can be provided to employees by managers. They include 'this is our mission', 'this is our strategy' and 'this is how you carry out your job'. But high-quality execution cannot simply be a matter of catchphrase and message; it should flow openly and unconsciously, not from procedures and rule books. "Manuals may play a role in early training activities, but they have limited value in the heat of battle" Gerstner, 2002:233). Thus, 10 recommendations in relation to progress on the recognition of indigenous languages are considered. They are:

- (1) Give messages to indigenous language academics, such as 'this is the institutional language policy of our university', 'these are the primary language(s) or language(s)

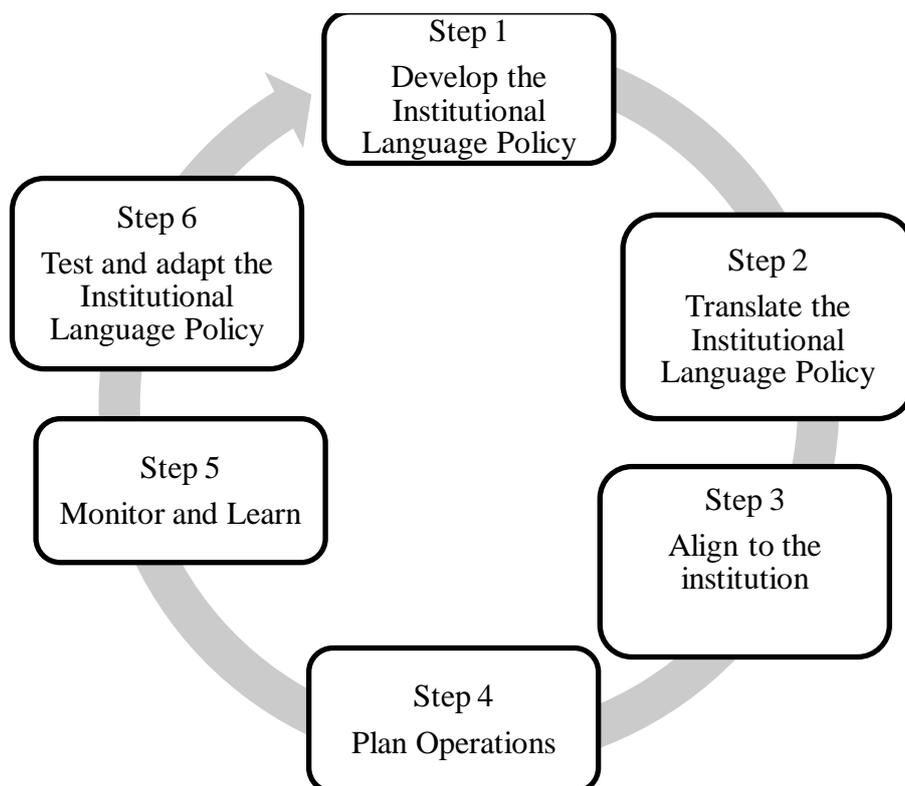
of tuition for the university’, ‘these are languages for academic disciplines and these are languages for professions in our university’;

- (2) Each language should stand in its own;
- (3) Balance the academic ranks, by recruiting new talent;
- (4) Visible managers or chairs of departments should be appointed or existing chairs should be trained to become more visible;
- (5) English and indigenous languages are equal and they must have equal status in all respects;
- (6) Indigenous and African languages should dominate the 23 universities’ curricula;
- (7) Prepare the lecturers to teach indigenous languages;
- (8) Don’t use another language to teach indigenous languages;
- (9) Academic freedom in the use of languages for examination or assignments is a must;
and
- (10) Encourage indigenous language academics to study other indigenous languages.

7.3.4 Develop explanatory theory that can promote best practice in institutional language policies

It will be a wasted exercise if the researcher spent time working on the first three objectives without making some contributions at the end of the completed task. This is the last subsection of the thesis. It focuses on **Rule 4** or fourth rule to be followed by a public higher education institution in South Africa engaging in linguistic transformation (see Table 7.1). It also serves to answer the fourth or last objective of the study: To develop an explanatory theory that can promote best practice in institutional language policies. Such an explanatory theory should become a general theory to guide and help the 23 universities to develop the use and status of indigenous languages without further delay. There are six steps that guarantee a successful fit between the government language policies and institutional language policies and the use and status of indigenous languages in the South African higher education system (see Figure 7.1 below).

Figure 7.1: Six steps to fit government language policies and institutional language policy and advancing the use and status of indigenous languages in the South African higher education system



The Continuous Cycle represents a continuing sequence of steps. It emphasises the connection of all steps. The six steps are discussed here.

Step 1: Develop the institutional language policy

The council in collaboration with the senate develop the institutional language policy. The council and senate may appoint committees to represent them or a consultant. Here the council and senate or committees representing them must first answer three important questions, namely:

- (1) What institutional language policy do we need and why?
- (2) What are the key linguistic issues we face in our institution?
- (3) How can we best produce an institutional language policy?

The first question: ‘What institutional language policy do we need and why?’ directs the focus of the council and senate, their committees or their consultant on higher-level policy concepts. Before formulating an institutional language policy the council and senate, their committees

or their consultant need to agree on aligning their institutional language policy with their institution's core vision (its aspiration for future results): core ideology (mission and values) and envisioned future (goals). The reaffirmation of the core vision puts the council and senate, their committees or their consultant in the right mind-set for considering the rest of the agenda and setting the university's institutional language policy's fundamental guidelines.

The second question: 'What are the key linguistic issues we face in our institution?' calls for an environmental analysis. With the core vision, the council and senate, their committees or consultant, undertake an environmental analysis. They conduct a SWOT analysis to gain an inside-out view of strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats. This is best done by a consultant who can additionally gain an anonymous, frank and candid internal perception of the university's internal strengths and weaknesses, and external opportunities and threats. The external opportunities and threats must be measured against DIIP (demographic, institutional, international and political factors) and the internal strengths and weaknesses should be measured against the university vision, governance and access to factors of production.

The last or third question: 'How can we best produce an institutional language policy?' directs the council and senate, their committees or their consultant to tackle the institutional policy formulation itself. In this question, council and senate, their committees or their consultant decide on a course of action that will create a fit between the government language policies and the institutional language policy, and the use and status of indigenous languages in their educational programmes, which will lead to democracy, multilingualism, freedom and equality. The institutional language policy will respond, in some form to three questions, namely:

- (1) Which indigenous languages are designated primary languages or languages of tuition along with Afrikaans and English?
- (2) Which indigenous languages are designated academic disciplines?
- (3) Which indigenous languages are designated languages of professions?

Step 2: Translate the institutional language policy

Once the institutional language policy has been formulated, council and senate, their committees or their consultant need to translate it into university functions and measures that are clearly communicated to all units and employees. It is possible that institutional language

policies are approved but poorly communicated. It has been found in the survey research that indigenous language academics in most of the 11 universities with accessible institutional language policies do not even know about the existence of those policies. This makes the translation of institutional language policies into specific actions and resource plans all but impossible. Notably, the 23 universities should translate their institutional language policies into performance. In the words of Mankins and Steele (2005:68):

Lower levels in the organisation don't know what they need to do, when they need to do it, or what resources will be required to deliver the performance senior management expects.

As a result of the above, expected results in the case of institutional language policies never materialised. And because nobody is held responsible for this neglect, the cycle of underperformance gets repeated, often for many years. This second step of translating the institutional language policy requires taking the big ideas contained in the institutional language policy or the result of Step 1 and housing them in frameworks like a Balanced Scorecard (BSC). So management teams for the 23 universities should choose to use scorecards effectively. This will offer the universities something exclusively valuable that no other approach can. The management teams should show their abilities to describe the institutional language policies, to measure their institutional language policies, get feedback on their institutional language policies – these are fundamental to the 23 universities. All the institutional activities need these capabilities.

Step 3: Align to the institution

This involves the ongoing alignment of the universities to their institutional language policies. It requires the universities to export the linguistic priorities they identify in step 2 throughout the universities (to academic divisions, support units and academic employees). It is a critical and complex undertaking that needs to work in distinct but related ways.

Step 4: Plan Operations

With the institutional language policies in place, the 23 universities next develop their operational plans that lay out the action that will accomplish their linguistic transformation objectives. Thus management processes are well-situated to excel at this fourth step. This should involve: indigenous language workforce plan, leadership plan and resource or financial plan.

Step 5: Monitor and learn

The 23 universities should conduct Quarterly Strategy Execution Team Meetings to review their progress and ensure achievement of performance scorecards. There are five clear purposes of such meetings. They are: clearly understand the status of the institutional language policies execution team's progress; formulate emergency responses to university-wide opportunities and threats; leverage all appropriate institutional resources while maintaining proper accountability for institutional language policies' performance; facilitate communication and support throughout the institutional language policy teams; and provide a quarterly institutional language policy teams update to all indigenous language academic staff members.

Step 6: Test and adapt the institutional language policy

This process closes the loop of the management system on institutional language policies. Here managers need to rigorously re-examine their institutional language policies and adapt them, deciding they need a new transformational institutional language policy.

7.4 SUMMARY

A limitation of this study is that only indigenous language academics were interviewed. A suggestion for further study will be to extend this study to include university principals, other academics, support staff members and students in order to cover the whole spectrum of university employees and stakeholders, mainly the students at the 23 universities. Further studies can include universities in other African countries.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: CASE STUDY

FROM THE LITERATURE REVIEW TO 23 UNIVERSITIES, THEIR VISION STATEMENTS AND THEIR LANGUAGE OFFERINGS

From the literature review

The extensive search of literature uncovered the external and internal environment on which South Africa's 23 universities operate. The external environment has four major factors challenging the 23 universities when developing their institutional language policies: demographic, institutional, international and political forces. The demographic factor has five challenges that the 23 universities cannot overlook: constitutional and legislation aspects; perspectives; emotional climate and culture; number of speakers per home language; and population changes. The constitutional and legislation aspects challenge the 23 universities to respond to four issues: the 11 official languages; historically diminished use and status of indigenous languages; other indigenous languages recognised, but not official should be developed and used; individual students have freedom and right to choose the language of learning; and avoidance of inequality practices with a strategy of adjusting to a minimum of six languages - Afrikaans, English, one from Nguni group (isiNdebele, isiXhosa, isiZulu and siSwati), one from Sotho group (Sepedi, Sesotho and Setswana), Tshivenda and Xitsonga.

The institutional factor has two major challenges that the 23 universities cannot overlook: constitutional and legislation aspects and policy guidelines. The constitutional and legislation aspects in the institutional factor emphasise the 11 official languages and historically diminished use and status of indigenous languages. Additional legislations on this aspect include: Higher Education Act, 1997 (Act 101 of 1997) that requires the university council to determine the institutional language policy and to publish and make it available on request; Higher Education Amendment Act, 2008 (Act 39 of 2008) defines higher education as "a qualification that meets the requirement of the HEQF for which one of the requirements is for a university to provide courses on six levels of the NQF, from levels 5 to 10; and the Education White Paper 3, 1997 provides the threefold mandate of the country's higher education - human resource development; high-level skills training; and production, acquisition and application of new knowledge. The policy guidelines include the minimum of six languages; the universities to develop in the medium to long-term, the South African languages as mediums of instruction in higher education, alongside English and Afrikaans; the promotion of the study of South African languages and literature through planning and funding incentives; and two reports by two separate task teams supporting the retention of Afrikaans and the development of indigenous languages.

The international factor challenges the 23 universities with foreign language training and globalisation. Section 235 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (Act 108 of 1996) provides the right of the South African people as a whole to self-determination. The Language Policy of Higher Education (2002) recommends that the universities should be encouraged to study the foreign languages. The 23 universities attract most of the students in the SADC region. Eight of the indigenous languages (isiNdebele, isiXhosa, isiZulu, Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati and Xitsonga) are spoken in other countries of the SADC region. Some are even official languages in other countries, for instance, siSwati in Swaziland. English represents the country in the global arena.

The political factor created the linguistic chaos in higher education. It is the factor that influences the other factors in the macro-environment, including the economic, physical and technological factors. Four challenges are facing the 23 universities in this factor: racism, colonisation, apartheid and democracy. The first three (racism, colonisation, apartheid) derailed the promotion of multilingualism, linguistic rights, freedom and equality, and there are still groups of people in the country's population that promote the first three challenges. Democracy is pushing hard for multilingualism, linguistic rights, freedom and equality. It is supported by the democratic rule and policies.

Three factors dominate the internal environment: Vision, governance and access of production. The vision of the country is freedom and democracy. The visions of the 23 universities should be shared visions that reflect freedom and democracy, self-determination, and 1% vision and 99% alignment strategy.

On governance, the council is a governing body that should take decisions pertaining to policies (including institutional language policy) and strategy. The other 99% of the university community are in the operation loop, but they have to make contributions to the development of language policy. The council faces challenges from the external and internal environment. It has to satisfy all stakeholders. It has to conform and perform. In short, the council should play its role effectively and efficiently.

The last factor in the internal environment is access to the factors of production: labour, entrepreneurial ability, and capital. The first refers mainly to the academics that will do the job; the second is the ability of managing the university (including the institutional language project). The 23 universities are challenged by three issues here: management practices, talent and task and capabilities. Lastly, capital is the challenge that worries the 23 universities. The cost-cutting issue mislead the universities. However, there are nine sources of funds identified by the Higher Education Act, 1997 (Act 101 of 1997).

University	Nickname/ Acronym
University of Cape Town	UCT
Cape Peninsula University of Technology	CPUT
Central University of Technology	CUT
Durban University of Technology	DUT
University of Fort Hare	UFH
University of Free State	UFS
University of Johannesburg	UJ
University of Kwazulu Natal	UKZN
University of Limpopo	UL
University of Stellenbosch	Maties
Mangosuthu University of Technology	MUT
Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University	NMMU
North West University	NWU

University	Nickname/ Acronym
Rhodes University	RU
University of Pretoria	Tukkies/UP
Tshwane University of Technology	TUT
University of Venda	Univen
Vaal University of Technology	VUT
University of South Africa	Unisa
University of Western Cape	UWC
University of Witwatersrand	Wits
Walter Sisulu University	WSU
University of Zululand	UniZulu

The 23 universities' vision statements

UCT

Taking excellence as for all it does, UCT's vision is to be a world-class African university. A number of international rankings have listed UCT as the leading university in South Africa and the continent
(Source: www.uct.ac.za)

DUT

A preferred university for developing leadership and productive citizenship
(Source: www.dut.ac.za)

RU

Rhodes University's vision is to be an outstanding internationally-respected academic institution which proudly affirms its African identity and which is committed to democratic ideals, academic freedom, rigorous scholarship, sound moral values and social responsibility.
(Source: www.ru.ac.za)

WSU

(WSU) will be a leading African university focusing on innovative educational, research and community partnership programmes that are responsive to local, regional, national development priorities, and cognisant of continental and international imperatives.
(Source: www.wsu.ac.za)

CPUT

To be the heart of technology education and innovation in South Africa
(Source: www.cput.ac.za)

UFS

To be an excellent, equitable and innovative university
(Source: www.ufs.ac.za)

UL

"To be a leading university epitomising excellence and global competitiveness, addressing the needs of rural communities through innovative ideas"
(Source: www.ul.ac.za)

CUT

An information environment for technological excellence and intellectual growth
(Source: www.cut.ac.za)

UKZN

To be the premier university of African scholarship
(Source: www.ukzn.ac.za)

NMMU

"To be a dynamic African university, recognised for its leadership in generating cutting-edge knowledge for a sustainable future
(Source: www.nmmu.ac.za)

UniZulu

A leading rural-based Comprehensive University providing quality education
(Source: www.unizulu.ac.za)

Maties

With this vision statement, Stellenbosch University commits itself to the outward-oriented role within South Africa, Africa and globally. Stellenbosch University: Is an academic institution of excellence and a respected knowledge partner; contributes towards building the scientific, technology, and intellectual capacity of Africa; is an active role-player in the development of the South African society; has a campus and culture that welcomes a diversity of people and ideas; promotes Afrikaans as a language of teaching and science in a multilingual context
(Source: www.sun.ac.za)

UFH

The University of Fort Hare is a vibrant, equitable African university, committed to teaching and research excellence of its students, scholars and wider community.

Underlying theme of our New Vision:

- A unique brand name: Fort Hare – based on the principle of taking the “best of the past into taking up the challenges of the future”;
- An affirmation of historical role as the training ground for leaders – broadening this mission to include politics, industry, commerce, agriculture, and moral leadership;
- An assertion and celebration of our identity as an African university – a multicultural, continental as opposed of ethnocentric identity;
- Our commitment to institutional sustainability – both in financial, programme and human resources development terms;
- Our commitment to excellence in providing higher quality teaching and research at the service of students, scholars and the public;
- An assertion of our predominantly rural location as a strategic advantage to focus on programmes responding to local and regional development needs;
- Uphold the principle of equality across gender, racial and disability lines.

(Source: www.ufh.ac.za)

MUT

The Mangosuthu University of Technology will strive to be a leading university of technology in the SADC region and on the African continent, and to that end will be driven by the desire for excellence in the performance of its main functions: teaching, learning and community service. The University commits itself to the total education of the individual student as social being and seeks to develop the whole person in terms of personal well-being and social and intellectual competence. The University’s graduate will be a well-rounded individual, independent of mind, life-long learner, and equipped for success in today’s global intercultural workplace. The University commits itself to employing and deploying staff with the capacity to contribute to the production of knowledge in a kindly working environment. The University will strive to be a vibrant intellectual centre and an agent of positive social change. It will function as a learning organisation – one that inspires all the members of its diverse community to achieve their potential – and will actively promote the quality of life of the University community and the communities in which the University is embedded. (Source:

www.mut.ac.za)

Tukkies/UP

“The University of Pretoria strives to be a leader in higher education that is recognised internationally for academic excellence with a focus on quality; a university that is known for international competitiveness and local relevance through continuous innovation; the university of choice for students, staff, employees of graduates and those requiring research solutions; a university with an inclusive and enabling, value driven organisational culture that provides an intellectual home for the rich diversity of South African academic talent; and the premier university in South Africa that acknowledges its prominent role in Africa, is a symbol of national aspiration and hope, reconciliation and pride, and is committed to discharging its social responsibility.” (Source:

www.up.za)

Wits

Universities have immense responsibility of producing cutting edge research, generating knowledge, producing high-calibre leaders and critical thinkers for the future, and reaching out to communities in which they are located. Wits University is proudly fulfilling that role both in Africa and on the international stage. It is catering for changing needs of a democratic South Africa and, from its location in the heart of Gauteng, reflects and celebrates its diversity of cultures. Its outstanding academic reputation and sustained stance against social injustice has earned it the respect of the international community and has attracted international students and researchers. This century we will continue redressing historical injustices, thereby providing new and fulfilling opportunities for black students and attracting and retaining the best black staff in the sector. We will build increasingly close relationships with the private sector, and the public sector professions in seeking sponsorship of research projects, research students, joint appointments of staff, and joint programmes of research that contribute to economic and academic development. We will have a selective approach to research development, concentrating on areas of actual and potential international excellence, as well as new collaborations with top universities in Europe and the US. Our student-centred learning will be sensitive to the needs, views and lives of students. We will strive for transformation in the context of an unwavering commitment to academic standards. We will continue to produce outstanding graduates armed with the confidence to serve the continent at the highest level, and to contribute to the international context, in which South Africa is taking its place as a leading democracy. (Source: www.wits.ac.za)

VUT

To be a dynamic centre of technology leading into quality education for the nation

(Source: www.vut.ac.za)

UNIVEN

To be the centre of tertiary education for rural and regional development in Southern Africa

(Source: www.univen.ac.za)

TUT

To be a quality-driven university of technology at the cutting edge of innovation

(Source: www.tut.ac.za)

NWU

The NWU's vision is to be the pre-eminent University in Africa, driven by the pursuit of knowledge and innovation

Source: www.nwu.ac.za)

UNISA

Towards the African university in the service of humanity

(Source: www.unisa.ac.za)

Languages offered by the 23 universities

UCT English isiXhosa isiZulu Sesotho Swahili	CPUT English isiXhosa Dutch French German Italian Spanish	CUT Sesotho German French isiXhosa Setswana	DUT Afrikaans English isiZulu	UFH Afrikaans English Sesotho isiXhosa	UFS Afrikaans Dutch English French German Sign language Sesotho
UJ Afrikaans English French German Greek isiZulu Latin Semitic Sepedi	UKZN Afrikaans English isiZulu	UL English French German Sepedi Tshivenda Xitsonga	NMMU Afrikaans and Dutch English French isiXhosa	NWU Afrikaans English Setswana	UP Afrikaans English isiNdebele isiZulu Sepedi Setswana Modern European
RU Afrikaans English isiXhosa French German	UNISA Afrikaans ciShona English French German isiZulu isiXhosa Italian Mandarin Portuguese	Maties Afrikaans and Dutch English French German Greek isiXhosa Latin Mandarin	TUT Afrikaans English French German isiZulu Sepedi Setswana Spanish Tshivenda	None	VUT English
UWC Afrikaans Arabic English French German isiXhosa Latin	Sepedi Sesotho Setswana siSwati Spanish Tshivenda Xitsonga	Wits English French German isiZulu Italian SA sign language Sesotho	WSU Afrikaans English IsiXhosa Sesotho	Univen English Sepedi siSwati Tshivenda Xitsonga	UniZulu Afrikaans English German IsiZulu

Source: Compiled by the researcher

APPENDIX B: THE SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Fill in the name of your department.....	
2. Please, tick \surd the appropriate box for the position you hold in your Department:	
PROFESSOR	<input type="checkbox"/>
ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR	<input type="checkbox"/>
SENIOR LECTURER	<input type="checkbox"/>
LECTURER	<input type="checkbox"/>
JUNIOR LECTURER	<input type="checkbox"/>
OTHER.....(Please, specify)	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Are you a head or a chair of department? Please, tick \surd the appropriate box.	
YES	<input type="checkbox"/>
NO	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Please, tick \surd the appropriate box for the type of your university.	
TRADITIONAL	<input type="checkbox"/>
COMPREHENSIVE	<input type="checkbox"/>
TECHNOLOGY	<input type="checkbox"/>
DON'T KNOW	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Do you know the constitutional right of your student to use his/her language(s) of choice for his/her study whenever practicable? Please, tick \surd the appropriate box.	
YES	<input type="checkbox"/>
NO	<input type="checkbox"/>
DON'T KNOW	<input type="checkbox"/>

6. Does your university have a language policy? Please, tick ✓ the appropriate box.

YES

NO

DON'T KNOW

7. Which languages form part of primary languages or languages of tuition in your university? Please, tick ✓ the appropriate language(s)

Language	Tick(s)
Afrikaans	
English	
isiNdebele	
isiXhosa	
isiZulu	
Sepedi	
Sesotho	
Setswana	
siSwati	
Tshivenda	
Xitsonga	
Don't know	

8. Is your university's language policy implemented? Please, tick ✓ the appropriate box.

YES

NO

DON'T KNOW

9. Which South African official languages are taught as subjects in your university? Please, tick ✓ the appropriate language(s)

Language	Tick(s)
Afrikaans	
English	
isiNdebele	
isiXhosa	
isiZulu	
Sepedi	
Sesotho	
Setswana	
siSwati	
Tshivenda	
Xitsonga	

10. Which other language(s), which is (are) not South African official languages are taught in your university? Please, complete

.....

.....

.....

.....

11. Which official language(s) form part of qualifications or programmes in other departments? Please, tick \checkmark the appropriate language(s)

Language	Tick(s)
Afrikaans	
English	
isiNdebele	
isiXhosa	
isiZulu	
Sepedi	
Sesotho	
Setswana	
siSwati	
Tshivenda	
Xitsonga	

12. Are your department's lecturing staff qualified to teach in more than two of the South African 11 official languages? Please, tick \checkmark the appropriate box.

YES

NO

DON'T KNOW

13. Which language is used for teaching and learning in your department? Please, tick \checkmark the appropriate language(s)

Language	Tick(s)
Afrikaans	
English	
isiNdebele	
isiXhosa	
isiZulu	
Sepedi	
Sesotho	
Setswana	
siSwati	
Tshivenda	
Xitsonga	

14. Are the students allowed to answer questions of examinations/assignments in any of the eleven official languages? Please, tick √ the appropriate box.

YES

NO

DON'T KNOW

15. Which language do you still need to learn as an academic and research staff? Please, tick √ the appropriate language(s)

Language	Tick(s)
Afrikaans	
English	
isiNdebele	
isiXhosa	
isiZulu	
Sepedi	
Sesotho	
Setswana	
siSwati	
Tshivenda	
Xitsonga	
Other.....(specify)	