# UNIVERSITY LANGUAGE POLICY MANAGEMENT: THE CASE OF A UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY IN SOUTH AFRICA

By

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# DECLARATION

I hereby declare that “**University language policy management: the case of a University of Technology in South Africa”** is my own work and that all sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

02/09/2022

**SIGNATURE** **DATE**

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# ABSTRACT


The present study examined language policy management in higher education institutions in South Africa using a University of Technology as a case study. The first objective of the study was to ascertain the extent of students' language learning problems that manifest at the University of Technology after the adoption of the English-only language policy. The second objective was to determine whether students' biographical factors (gender, age, year of study, home language, and faculty) have any influence on their language learning problems. The third objective was to ascertain the nature of lecturers' opinions regarding English as a medium of instruction at the University of Technology. The fourth objective was to determine whether the faculty variable has any influence on lecturers' opinions regarding English as a medium of instruction at the University of Technology. To this end, a questionnaire was administered to a randomly selected sample of 110 students and 84 lecturers who completed and returned the questionnaires. The last objective was to establish the reasons why the University of Technology changed its language policy from a dual-medium to a monolingual language policy. To this end, purposive sampling, namely a single-case study, was used to select the Registrar as the participant in this study.

The findings revealed that the students differed in the extent of their language learning problems that manifest at the institution after the adoption of an English-only language policy. A very high percentage (78.18%) of students reported a moderate language listening problem. The findings also revealed that the year of study influenced students' experiences of listening problems. Fourth-year students experienced more challenges from learning problems than first-, second- and third-year students.

The findings showed that lecturers differed significantly in the nature of their opinions regarding English as a medium of instruction at the institution. A very high percentage (83.33%) of lecturers reported an uncertain opinion level. The findings on the analysis of each item indicated that the faculty variable had a significant influence on lecturers' opinions regarding some of the single items.

The findings from the interviews regarding reasons as to why the University of Technology changed its language policy from a dual-medium to a monolingual language policy, point to inclusivity to accommodate black students who are in the majority but also driven by sociolinguistic, bureaucratic, and economic factors which lead to ineffective language management in South Africa and at South African universities.

On the basis of the findings of this study, a model for the process of implementing the university language policy management was proposed and recommended.

**Keywords**: Language policy management, Higher education institutions, Monolingual language policy, Language learning problems, English, Afrikaans.

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# DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to

my late mother

**Roselyn Nontombi Dube**

and

my late father

**Patrick Koli Dube**

for raising me up and instilling in me a sense of responsibility, hard work and patience

and to

my late elder sister

**Thembekile Temperance Nxaba**

for being my role model in pursuit of academic excellence.

May your souls rest in eternal peace!

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| | |
|---|---|
| ANOVA | Analysis of Variance |
| CODESA | Convention for a Democratic South Africa |
| CUT | Central University of Technology, Free State |
| NWU | North-West University |
| PanSALB | Pan South African Language Board |
| RSA | Republic of South Africa |
| SU | Stellenbosch University |
| UCGH | University of the Cape of Good Hope |
| UCT | University of Cape Town |
| UFS | University of the Free State |
| UJ | University of Johannesburg |
| UKZN | University of KwaZulu-Natal |
| UNISA | University of South Africa |
| UP | University of Pretoria |

# CHAPTER 1
# ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY

## 1.1 MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

The overarching purpose of this study is to research the current language policy management in higher education institutions in South Africa, using a University of Technology as a case study. Research has shown that students and lecturers of indigenous language groups are hampered in their teaching, learning and research efforts because the current universities' language policies do not make provision for education in their mother tongues.

In 1976, the school children of Soweto embarked on a massive political uprising refusing to receive education in Afrikaans which they saw as the language of the oppressor. Although it took about 18 years thereafter for South Africa to get freedom, this was one of the many events which led to the abolishment of apartheid. The uprising in Soweto led to massive changes in language of instruction in schools as English became the primary language of instruction in many schools, while the position of Afrikaans weakened.

Through the abolishment of apartheid in the early 1990s, new laws and policies regarding education in South Africa came into place. The major changes were the change in language policy as prescribed in section 27(2) of the Higher Education Act of South Africa (1997).

Under the Higher Education Act of 1997, The Language Policy for Higher Education was introduced in 2002. It is referred to as a 'new act' regarding its aim to promote multilingualism in institutional policies and practices. This act noted that "the role of language and access to language skills is critical to ensure the right of individuals to realise their full potential to participate and contribute to the social, cultural, intellectual, economic, academic and political life of South African Society" (Language Policy for Higher Education, 2002:10). This act also states that the role of access to language skills is critical to ensure the right of individuals to realise "the full potential to participate and contribute to the social, cultural, intellectual, economic, academic and political life of South African Society" (Language Policy for Higher Education, 2002:10).

Students at South African universities are from different ethnic groups and speak different languages. Therefore, universities are expected to diversify the languages of instruction to include indigenous official languages (Draft Languages Policy for Higher Education (2017). In promoting multilingualism, institutions in different regions in South Africa should formulate their policies in line with the guidelines contained in the policy framework, taking into account their regional circumstances, and the needs and preferences of communities as stated in the Constitution (National Language Policy Framework, 2003).

In order to ensure the simultaneous development of multilingual environment, Asmal (2003:4) saw the National Language Policy as "an opportunity to create new institutional identities, cultures and missions by embracing and accommodating the rich diversity of cultures and languages in South Africa". He further stated that "a multilingual approach to learning and teaching at South African universities will create an environment that promotes freedom of thought and speech to produce students who are self-motivated and responsible thinkers".

Language policy management in higher education is a sensitive issue. According to Mwaniki (2012), language has effectively been used to serve ends that neither entrench nor deepen social justice; he further posited that this is particularly evident in the dynamic's attention to language in higher education in South Africa. He refers to the higher education sector as one that remains largely unreformed and untransformed deep into the second decade of democracy. Therefore, there is a need for research on university language policy management in South Africa.

South Africa is witnessing an ongoing resistance in historically Afrikaans-medium universities. This resistance emanates from a change of a language policy from parallel with English and Afrikaans to an English-only language policy. Among those universities is the Stellenbosch University and the North-West University, though not in all the three campuses of the latter university.

Mkhize and Balfour (2017:146) noted that "the shift to English language policy is driven by the belief that English enables students to achieve a reasonable prospect of success but at the same time the links between underperformance in schooling and poor throughput rates for black students especially from whom English is a second or third language at universities is still obvious". The researcher argues that the commitment to developing African languages as languages of education will be the solution to the problem, although the reality is that developing these languages as fully functional languages of instruction is not going to happen in the short, medium to long term. Foley (2004; 62) suggested that "if the indigenous languages are not going to be developed as full media of instruction in higher education, then serious attention must be paid to the idea of developing students' proficiency in the current languages of tuition"; especially, for students who are from disadvantaged backgrounds where English is only used in a school situation. To them using either Afrikaans or English for academic transactions is in a way a violation of a basic human right and it is in contrast with the Language Policy for Higher Education (2002) that clearly states that language/languages must not be a barrier to access and success in higher education. Mwaniki (2012) saw this expectation of language proficiency as masking the dynamics accompanying acquiring advanced English proficiency before joining an institution of higher learning. He pointed out that for the students who are from vulnerable societies, this is still a dream. The purpose of this research, therefore, is to highlight the unintended results of a shift of a language policy, such as the language-related learning challenges and the interventions that can be adopted to eliminate the unintended negative impact the change may bring about.

The preceding arguments highlight the importance of language and how much it touches on the human, legal and constitutional right of human beings. This line of reasoning on language as a right is evident in Ruiz (1984, who asserted that language touches on many aspects of social life and linguistic discrimination is tantamount to discrimination in other aspects unless one acknowledges language as a resource and that it is impossible to affirm anyone's right to it.

Mwaniki (2012:221) further reiterated Ruiz's idea by stating that "English has become a major determinant in accessing higher education". He also stated that "this development portends exclusion to those sectors of society that cannot afford English-medium pre-university education".

Over the years, South Africa has been witnessing unrest over language policy management in these universities that are brought about by the metamorphosis as highlighted by Du Plessis (2006). The researcher hopes that the findings will also have the potential to inform policy and programme interventions that will improve performance of our students in South African universities.

This issue of language policies in South Africa and their management is a topical issue in both scholarly and policy discourses. These politics of language play out in South Africa's higher education in the form of debates on the choice of language(s) of instruction, and the policies upon which these choices are premised, especially in Historically Afrikaans-Medium Universities (HAMUs). Related to this debate, is the issue of language-related challenges that the students encounter in HAMUs, and challenges that are related to language policies in these institutions. The continued hegemony of Afrikaans and English in institutions of Higher Education has results throughout the education section for other African languages (Moloi & Chetty, 2011; Fleisch, 2008). Similarly, at Institutions of Higher Learning, literacy requirement in English remains a challenge and has an impact in the pass rate of students. That is one of the reasons why one of the aims of this study is to investigate and document language-related learning challenges that are manifest at the University of Technology after the adoption of the English only language policy.

Attempts have been made by other authors to investigate issues related to language policy change in South Africa. However, there is a dearth of studies that have investigated factors that would necessitate a shift from a bilingual or a parallel-medium language policy dispensation to an English-only dispensation in a historically Afrikaans-medium university. Du Plessis (2006), in his study about the repositioning of historically Afrikaans-medium universities in South Africa, focused on the shift from a monolingual (Afrikaans) to a bilingual policy (English and Afrikaans). The concept of a historically Afrikaans-medium university, according to Du Plessis (2006), referred to the apartheid period and is used to differentiate between two types of historically white universities: those using English as a medium of instruction and those using Afrikaans.

Mkhize and Balfour (2017) investigated language rights in education in South Africa, while Mwaniki (2011) based his study on language and justice in one of South Africa's historically Afrikaans universities. Very few, if any studies, have conducted research on the real factors that would necessitate a shift from a bilingual-parallel language policy to a monolingual language policy with English as a medium of instruction in a historically Afrikaans-medium university and the language-related challenges that come with such a shift. This study attempted to close that gap. More specially, this study investigated the reasons that led to the change of the language policy from dual-medium to English-only language policy as well as language policy management dynamics and complexities at the University of Technology after the adoption of English-only language policy. The study also investigated if there were language-related challenges after the adoption of English as a monolingual language policy.

The University of Technology where the research was conducted is situated in the city of Bloemfontein, in the Free State province of South Africa. The institution was established in 1981 as the Technikon, Free State, which originally was an Afrikaans-medium institution in 2009. During the apartheid regime it catered for Afrikaans- and English-speaking students only, using a dual-medium policy. In 2004, during the restructuring by the government, the Technicon's status was elevated to that of a university of technology. Following this restructuring in 2009, the institution shifted to an English-only medium institution.

Potgieter and Anthonissen (2017) referred to the migration of South African institutions of higher learning to an English-monolingual system as disregarding the home language and first language of African students and lacking the will to maintain and to take care of these official languages. English acts as a barrier to students who don't speak it as their first language. To highlight this, the Language Policy for Higher Education (2002) clearly states that language/languages must not be a barrier to access and success in higher education:

> "Teaching and learning facilitation at CUT in all learning environments, such as the classroom, laboratories, etc., will be conducted in English" (CUT Language Policy, 2015:5).

In 2018, at the time of this investigation, the institution, where the research was conducted, had an enrolment of about 19 577 students and four faculties, namely Engineering and Information Technology, Health and Environmental Sciences, Humanities, and Management Sciences. In 2021, the year in which the latest audited student enrolment data was, released, the enrolment number had increased to about 22 317. Table 1.1 shows the CUT language statistics in 2018 and Table 1.2 shows the CUT student language statistics in 2021. Both tables display that Sesotho is by far the most dominant language for students at the institution, which clearly indicates that the shift is not necessarily about the language of the majority but accommodating most speakers of African languages in a dominant language that is a second language to most of them.

The National Language Policy Framework (2003) promotes multilingualism in South Africa and strongly encourages the utilisation of the indigenous languages together with English in order to encourage national unity.

Although Sesotho is a widely spoken African language and it is taught as a language module in the Faculty of Humanities, however, there have been no steps to elevate Sesotho to become one of the languages of learning and teaching at the institution, except for the development of lexicons in the following fields: Civil Engineering, Biomedical Technology; Legal Terminology; Cost and Management Accounting; and Science Technology and Mathematics Education.

*Table 1.1: CUT student language statistics in 2018*

| Faculty | Unspecified | Afrikaans | Afrikaans/ English | English | Other European | Other African | IsiZulu | (s9Ndebele (Ndebele) | Sepedi (Northern Sotho) | Sesotho (Southern Sotho) | SiSwati (Swati) | Xitsonga (Tsonga)) | Setswana (Tswana) | Tsivenda (Venda) | IsiXhosa (Xhosa) | CUT Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Engineering and Information Technology | 49 | 408 | 34 | 414 | 3 | 18 | 251 | 11 | 163 | 2559 | 53 | 123 | 830 | 87 | 707 | 5 710 |
| Health and Environmental Sciences | 11 | 246 | 12 | 102 | 3 | 8 | 100 | 4 | 48 | 890 | 25 | 33 | 284 | 24 | 241 | 2 031 |
| Humanities | 32 | 156 | 19 | 138 | 1 | 6 | 234 | 10 | 28 | 3372 | 44 | 28 | 555 | 11 | 626 | 5 260 |
| Management Sciences | 45 | 208 | 17 | 300 | 4 | 9 | 239 | 27 | 169 | 3628 | 34 | 53 | 982 | 27 | 811 | 6 553 |
| Teaching and Learning | | | | | 21 | | | | | 2 | | | | | | 23 |
| **CUT Total** | **137** | **1 018** | **82** | **954** | **32** | **41** | **824** | **52** | **408** | **10 451** | **156** | **237** | **2 651** | **149** | **2 385** | **19 577** |

Source: Institutional Planning and Quality Enhancement: Data Services (CUT, 2018)

***Table 1.2: CUT student language statistics in 2021***

| Home language | Afrikaans | English | isiNdebele | IsiXhosa | isiZulu | Language unknown | Other language | Sesotho | Sesotho sa Lebowa | Setswana | siSwati | Tshivenda | Xitsonga | **Total** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Faculty of Engineering, Built Environment and Information Technology | 266 | 550 | 24 | 855 | 320 | 9 | 23 | 3 487 | 137 | 918 | 87 | 105 | 124 | **6 905** |
| Humanities | 116 | 250 | 16 | 792 | 362 | 7 | 7 | 4 253 | 73 | 641 | 88 | 20 | 58 | **6 683** |
| Management Sciences | 153 | 350 | 8 | 807 | 197 | 7 | 13 | 4 259 | 47 | 837 | 28 | 24 | 46 | **6 776** |
| Health & Environmental Sciences | 176 | 126 | 6 | 256 | 122 | 2 | 12 | 867 | 46 | 250 | 38 | 21 | 31 | **1 953** |
| TOTAL | **711** | **1 276** | **54** | **2 710** | **1 001** | **25** | **55** | **12 866** | **303** | **2 646** | **241** | **170** | **259** | **22 317** |

Source: Institutional Planning and Quality Enhancement: Data Services (CUT, 2021)

South Africa has 11 official languages, namely IsiZulu, IsiXhosa, Afrikaans, English, Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, Xitsonga, SiSwati, Tshivenda, and IsiNdebele. Table 1.3 shows the 11 official languages of South Africa that can be used as languages of learning and teaching, depending on the province where the university is situated.

***Table 1.3: South African Languages***

| Language | Number of speakers | Percentage of total |
|---|---|---|
| Afrikaans | 5 983 420 | 13,35 |
| English | 3 673 206 | 8,2 |
| IsiNdebele | 711 825 | 1.59 |
| IsiXhosa | 7 907 149 | 17.64 |
| IsiZulu | 10 677 315 | 23.82 |
| Sesotho Sa Leboa | 4 208 974 | 9.39 |
| Sesotho | 3 555 192 | 7.93 |
| Setswana | 3 677 010 | 8.2 |
| Si Swati | 1 194 433 | 2.66 |
| Tshivenda | 1 021 761 | 2.28 |
| Xitsonga | 1 992 201 | 4.44 |
| Other | 217 291 | 0.48 |
| Total | 44 819 777 | 100,0 |

Source: Statistics South Africa, Census 2011

However, in spite of the above-mentioned facts, there is scepticism about the effectiveness of teaching content subjects in the indigenous languages, the reason being that facilities and learning material are still not in place. New terms need to be developed for indigenous languages to be used for content subjects. For this reason, parents and students in most institutions prefer English as medium of instruction and research. This happens not only in South Africa but also in countries such as Tanzania (Kembo-Sure, 2010:13). One of the aims of this study is to investigate and document language-related learning challenges that are manifest at the University of Technology after the adoption of the English only language policy.

Mutasa (2015) concluded that parents perceive English as the answer to successful education of their children. Alexander (2004) asserted that English proficiency gives access to global markets and makes it possible for one to be elevated to the esteemed circle of the global elites. In the same breath, most parents assume that English is the instrument that will enable their children to fulfil their roles in society. Prinsloo (2011) agreed with the above idea by stating that parents see English as the most important (or only) instrument for obtaining a job and achieving occupational mobility. English is the medium through which children gain access to quality education, success and social status. It is the pathway to modernity and access to international recreation (books, music, films and television) Prinsloo (2011).

The English language is the primary medium of learning and teaching for most universities in South Africa. Although some lecturers appear to be inadequately prepared to use English as a medium of instruction since English is either a second or a third language to them. The same can be said about the students, resulting in learning difficulties (Prinsloo, 2011).

Few universities in South Africa have started to elevate African languages to become languages of learning and teaching. Universities which are in the process of doing so are the University of Limpopo (UL), the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN), the University of Cape Town (UCT) and Rhodes University. The problems, as mentioned above, are the lack of academic lexicons in indigenous languages. To achieve academic status to the extent that they could be used as languages of learning and teaching at universities much more corpus development needs to take place.

On the positive side, institutions like CUT are in the process of developing lexicons for different selected programmes in their faculties. For instance, at CUT this is done by the Centre for Innovation in Learning and Teaching. This is an indication of a change in attitude and willingness to support multilingualism. On 18 November 2021, CUT launched the lexicon booklet for Civil Engineering and the book is housed in the Centre for Innovation in Learning and Teaching (CILT). The project seeks to enhance learning and teaching through the development of discipline-specific lexicons in Sesotho. The book was compiled by lecturers and students from the Department of Civil Engineering, the Sesotho National Lexicography Unit at the University of the Free State and the Pan South African Language Board (PanSALB), which authenticated and verified its translation into Sesotho. This lexicon project responds to the Language Policy Framework for Public Higher Education Institutions, which seeks to promote multilingualism as a strategy to facilitate meaningful access and success in higher education. It further responds to the CUT language policy, which commits multilingualism and translanguaging by promoting the use of the three predominant languages in the Free State province, namely English, Afrikaans and Sesotho. Through initiatives such as the development of lexicons, CUT is contributing to the advancement of Sesotho as a developing academic language. Furthermore, the emergence of discipline-specific Sesotho paves the way for strengthening and promoting the use of the Sesotho language to facilitate students' understanding of complex scientific concepts (Malebo, 2021; Ngidi, 2021; Theletsane, 2021). To date, CUT has produced and translated lexicons for the following fields: Civil engineering; Biomedical Technology; Legal Terminology; Cost Management Accounting; and Science Technology and Mathematics Education (Malebo, 2021). All these translations are from English to Sesotho.

The need for indigenous languages to take their position as alternative languages of instruction is needed for reasons as stated by Mwaniki (2011) below. The massive shift to English at Higher education institutions seems not to be solving the language-related problems because many indigenous students who are from disadvantaged communities still struggle with English. It still poses a problem to their (students') completion of qualifications and acts as a barrier to access and success. Language, to a greater extent, determines who has access to higher education. All over the world, language proficiency is a requirement for general admission at higher education institutions, which is determined either through a national qualification examination or by national and/or international language proficiency examination. Higher education studies require advanced language proficiency that only the middle and upper class can afford. Effectively, for economically challenged and socially vulnerable sectors of society, advanced language proficiency is often an illusion (Mwaniki, 2011). For example, at the CUT, 50% in English is an admission requirement for first-year students (CUT Calendar, 2018:135). This means that for a student to be admitted to the CUT he/she must have displayed a minimum competence in the English language according to a standard test of CUT's choice on applicable science and technology subjects.

Mutasa (1996) maintains that there is a remarkable lack of interest towards indigenous languages as English enjoys a higher status, which has a detrimental effect on the attitude towards indigenous languages as mediums of instruction, leading to the decrease in the need to elevate the indigenous languages to their rightful place in education. Another reason for the lack of interest in students to have their subjects offered in their (students') home language is that even at secondary school level the subjects are offered in English, except where the indigenous languages are taught as school subjects. Hill (2010) is also concerned about the development of African languages for a higher function. He is of the view that the main social cost of the dual medium model was the exclusion of black student – indigenous language speaking students. Mutasa (1999:86) argued that "no one seems to take African languages seriously. They seem to have nothing to offer except everyday communication between members of families". Foley (2004:60) also argued that "in South African context it may be that people conceive of their home languages as just that, the language of the home". In response to concerns such as this, Webb (2002:26) argued that "a major programme of language valorisation is clearly necessary". The research shows that English is preferred over indigenous languages at institutions of higher learning (Mutasa, 2015), hence a need to elevate the indigenous languages to their rightful place in education.

In a study conducted by Mutasa (2015) regarding language policies at South African universities, the findings revealed that English dominates all aspects of life at universities, that English is a prerequisite for entry into universities and also the primary medium of instruction at all the universities surveyed. Mutasa (2015) was further concerned that there are no plans to counter the domination of English at universities. Most of the students considered English as a prerequisite for job prospecting; hence, the students (all races) neither see the value of learning in the medium of indigenous languages, nor taking modules in indigenous African languages.

In a fieldwork study carried out with school principals at six schools in the Durban metropolitan area of the KwaZulu-Natal province of South Africa, they revealed that English is represented as a unifying force, as a vehicle for economic advancement, and as the appropriate choice in prestigious domains such as the classroom (Chick, 2000:470).

In a report on the development of African languages as mediums of instruction in higher education published in March 2005, there is a concern that African languages would disappear because of the decrease in the number of students (Ministerial

Committee Report, 2005). For the sake of survival at some universities, such as the University of South Africa (UNISA), African languages are still offered in the medium of English to African students in order to increase the number of students. This is one of the strategies adopted for the survival of African languages.

Seshoka (2013) attested to the above idea by stating that as part of the rationalisation process at South African universities, many of the home language courses were in fact dropped. For example, lecturer numbers who were teaching different African language courses such as isiZulu at UNISA the largest university in the country, were reduced to half the number since 1996. At Rhodes University, indigenous language modules were dropped altogether in the late 1990s, leaving only two members of staff. However, they (indigenous language modules) have been resuscitated by the institution. Seshoka (2013:8) further remarked that there can be no effective democracy and education through the medium of languages that are not widely spoken. Languages that were privileged under the apartheid regime largely continue to be privileged even though South Africa has a high illiteracy rate. This situation will contribute to the level of illiteracy because most of the people in South Africa are not educated. The statistics show that 4.4 million adults in South Africa were still illiterate in 2021 (Khuluvhe, 2021: 9). In contrast to the discussion above, Balfour (2010, cited in Parmegiani & Rudwick, 2014) stated that UKZN has been at the forefront of counteracting the dominance of English in tertiary education with the implementation of a language policy that strives for the development of isiZulu as a language of learning and teaching to the extent that it will have "the institutional and academic status of English" (UKZN, 2006:1). On the other hand, according to the findings of a study conducted at UKZN on bilingualisation at this university (Parmegiani & Rudwick, 2014), the responses indicated that students are not necessarily more at ease using their home language in any communicative situation and they would rather use English or a combination of English and their home languages to carry out academic projects. The students' responses indicated their uneasiness towards indigenous languages. Although some universities such as UKZN, UL and UCT are actively promoting the advancement of the African languages, at other universities very little has been done in this regard.

The relevance of researching the management of language policies in South African higher education is to be found in the recognition that language is a resource that can, and often does, determine the execution of universities' core mandates of teaching, research and community engagement (Boyer, 1990). Now the question is: Which language will be the best to fulfil the mandate? In spite of laws and policies, the medium of instruction in most educational institutions, and also at the CUT, remains English and does not accommodate teaching, learning and research in students' home languages such as Sesotho.

## 1.2 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This section states the problem by providing the major research questions, followed by an operational or practical clarification of the questions. The operational questions direct the practical research as completed in this study. It should be noted that the three research questions were each investigated by collecting data from a different sample denoting the significance of the research questions.

Research Question 1: Anchor question:

> *Why did the University of Technology change its language policy from a dual-medium language policy to a monolingual language policy?*

Research Question 2: Lecturers' opinions about language policy management (questionnaire):

> *What are the language policy management dynamics and complexities at the University of Technology after the adoption of the English-only language policy?*

Operational format of Question 2:

- *What is the nature of lecturers' opinions regarding English as a medium of instruction at the University of Technology?*
- *Does the faculty variable have any influence on lecturers' opinions regarding English as a medium of instruction at the University of Technology?*

Research Question 3: Students' experiences to language-related learning challenges (questionnaire):

> *What language-related learning challenges are manifest at the University of Technology after the adoption of the English-only language policy?*

Operational format of Question 3:

- *To what extent do students experience language learning problems that manifest at the University of Technology after the adoption of the English-only language policy?*
- *Do students' biographical factors (gender, age, year of study, home language, and faculty) have any influence on their language learning problems?*

## 1.3 RESEARCH AIMS

The aim of the present study was to investigate reasons and factors that led to the change of the language policy of the University of Technology from bilingual (Afrikaans and English) to monolingual (English-only), the language policy management dynamics and complexities as a result of the policy change, as well as language-related learning challenges that manifested after the adoption of the monolingual English-only language policy.

In order to conduct an investigation into the state of the present language policy of the institution, the aims of the study were formulated as follows:

a) To assess the reasons why the University of Technology changed its language policy from a dual-medium to a monolingual language policy.
b) To investigate language policy management dynamics and complexities at the University of Technology, after the adoption of the English-only language policy.
c) To investigate and document language-related learning challenges at the University of Technology, after the adoption of the English-only language policy.

It was envisaged that the study would add value to the understanding of language policy management by investigating the factors that necessitated a shift from a bilingual medium language policy dispensation to English-only at a historically Afrikaans university and the effect of such a shift on students to effectively use English to pursue and complete their studies on schedule.

## 1.4 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The study provides a detailed account of the dynamics and complexities attendant to the management of language policies in South African Universities as well as how language policies impact on the universities' core mandate of teaching, research and community engagement.

These insights have the potential to inform policy and programme interventions in universities, especially those interventions that are geared towards improving cohort performance indices.

The outcome of this research will be helpful to other institutions who are battling with language policy issues to draw from the findings of the study on the shift from a bilingual language policy to a monolingual language policy (English) at the University of Technology.

## 1.5 STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS

Chapter 1 introduces the reader to the essence of the thesis by providing the motivation for the study, research questions to state the problem, aims of the study, and significance of the study.

University language policy management in South Africa, including historical considerations regarding language policies at South African institutions of higher learning is provided in Chapter 2.

Chapter 3 deals with language policy, planning and management theories.

Chapter 4 details the research design and methodology. This includes data collection, the selection of the sample, and the planning, organisation and analysis of the data.

Chapter 5 discusses the empirical investigation at the University of Technology as a case study. It is in this chapter that the presentation, analysis and interpretation of data are presented.

Chapter 6 presents the main findings of this study.

Chapter 7 provides the summary, conclusions, recommendations and limitations of the study.

# CHAPTER 2
# UNIVERSITY LANGUAGE POLICY MANAGEMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA

## 2.1 INTRODUCTION

The language contestations date back to before the 1910 Union when the first South African university, the University of the Cape of Good Hope (UCGH), was established. This university was established as an English-medium institution in 1873. With the establishment of the Union, there was a need to introduce Dutch as the second official language of the newly introduced state within higher education (Steyn, 1993a:226-227). This resulted in a directive by the Department of Education in 1919 to introduce bilingual higher education, using English and Dutch as languages of teaching and learning (Du Plessis, 2005:96). However, Dutch was soon replaced by Afrikaans as a second medium of instruction in the same year (Steyn, 1993a:250)

In 1919, all South African universities were compelled by the Department to introduce a dual-medium instruction. Despite this directive, the parallel-medium option nevertheless emerged alongside the dual-medium policy and practice as an alternative in cases where student numbers made it viable. The bilingual universities, where Afrikaans-speaking students were in big numbers, slowly changed into monolingual Afrikaans-speaking universities (Du Plessis, 2005:97). The above shifts in languages illustrate the contestations that have been going on in South Africa dating back from the first South African university.

This study explores university language policy management’ using a University of Technology as a case study. This is a historically Afrikaans-medium university, using a monolingual language policy. Before 2009, however, it made use of a dual-medium language policy. In 2009 it changed its language policy to English-only as a language of teaching and learning and for all its administrative transactions. Among others, the study sought to answer the following main research question: Why did the University of Technology change its language policy from a dual-medium language policy to a monolingual language policy?

Language policies in education are inextricably linked to politics that are more general. The above indicates that national language policies will always have an influence on higher education language policies. Purser (2000) suggests that there is usually a strong relationship between national language policy and university language policy. This research sought to further examine the reasons as to why a historically Afrikaans university would change its language policy to an English one.

This chapter offers a preliminary overview of language policies in education from 1910 to the present. Cuvelier, Du Plessis and Teck (2003) asserted that the colonial period was made up by four stages of colonisation. First by the Dutch (1652–1814), then by the British (during the first and second British periods, 1814–1834) more or less concurrently by the Dutch-speaking Afrikaners (during the Republican period) and, finally, again by the British (during the third British period). During these periods, each colonial government promoted its own language (either English or Afrikaans) as the primary language in education and implemented mandatory language learning towards its own language. Hartshorne (1992:186-187) pointed out that "language policies for education are highly charged with political issues which are seldom, if ever, decided upon on educational grounds alone. Globally, these decisions have to do with the issues of political dominance, the protection of power structures, the preservation of privilege and the distribution of economic resources."

Lastly, this first chapter also outlines the research objectives and research questions and provide an overview of the methodology and analysis employed in this study.

Du Plessis (2006) reported that the taking over of Afrikaans as a language of teaching and learning in South Africa's education system was dealt a blow by the events of June 1976 in Soweto when the South African leaners protested against being taught in the medium of Afrikaans. What is striking was that Afrikaans-medium universities do not consider themselves bilingual universities. Instead, they preferred parallel-medium education (or single-medium education).

The above discussion indicates how language policies were used as instruments to regulate language practices in higher education institutions. Noted here again is the effect of these changes in terms of language policies on the students who were not first-language speakers of Afrikaans. On the other hand, parallel-medium institutions of higher learning experience problems associated with research, which is one of the core mandates of a university. To promote research at university and gain international exposure, lecturers must publish in English accredited journals. Mwaniki (2011) documented the irreversible decline in accredited and subsidy-bearing research outputs in Afrikaans. The shift in the language of publication confirms that English is the preferred language at universities.

The above discussion touches on the aims/objectives of this study, which relate to the dynamics of and complexities facing the language policies of historically Afrikaans-medium universities. Language-related challenges and the promotion of the transformation agenda are some of the possible reasons for the change with regard to the language policy at the selected institution. The findings towards the end of the study will answer this important question. Language contestations in the historically Afrikaans-medium universities are aggravated by the notion that language is, to a significant extent, linked to race. This is for example, evident with the University of the Free State, where in 2015, the Afriforum movement (an independent group of Afrikaners) challenged the language policy change, which removed Afrikaans as a medium of instruction and replaced it with English. There is the notion that if the university uses Afrikaans as a language of instruction, it has not been transformed and students who are first language speakers of Afrikaans in that institution are at an advantage as far as teaching and learning are concerned.

## 2.2 HISTORICAL CONSIDERATIONS REGARDING LANGUAGE POLICIES IN SOUTH AFRICAN HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS OVER TIME

In terms of this discussion, historical considerations regarding language policies refer to the language competition that has taken place since the Dutch took over South Africa in 1652, through the creation of the Union of South Africa and apartheid in 1910, the apartheid era in 1948 and, subsequently, the establishment of the Republic of South Africa (RSA) in 1961, and the democratic South Africa in 1994. The language policymakers during the apartheid period did not take into consideration the fact that South Africa has many languages. Only the colonial languages, namely English and Afrikaans, had official status. The situation changed only with the coming of democracy in 1994 when the constitutional provisions promoted multilingualism. These provisions were aimed at using language as a way of correcting past colonial injustices as a unifying factor in society. In this way, language is seen as an instrument of democratic and fundamental values, as well as social justice (Alexander, 2002:146). Historical considerations about language policies will be discussed in the following paragraphs.

Language issues will never be divorced from politics. Language matters are highly charged with politics in that they represent issues of power, and the interaction between different social actors is often based on language issues (Grin, 2003). It is imperative, therefore, that these political dimensions are of critical importance and enjoy considerable visibility through political processes. This occurs in political debates regarding the position to be awarded to the minority languages in the national legislation of certain states (Grin, 2003). Language politics in the South African context seem to play a part in universities because universities have a mandate to decide on the language of instruction in terms of their language policies. This becomes a challenge because universities are made up of a cohort that has different language preferences.

Dutch was a language of teaching and learning in Dutch schools from 1652 to 1914 when Afrikaans took over as a language of teaching and learning. The historical changes with regard to language had an impact on the language policies of universities. Hence, the bilingual universities like Stellenbosch, Pretoria, and Free State slowly evolved into monolingual Afrikaans-speaking universities that catered for the whites, who used Afrikaans as a language of academic transaction (Steyn, 1993a). Steyn describes this process at these universities since 1918. According to Du Plessis (2006: 97), he (Steyn) identifies at least three crucial factors in this development, namely, “the demand for Afrikaans higher education (among students and the public in general), the language competency of students (especially bilingual Afrikaans-speaking students as opposed to monolingual English-speaking students) and language loyalty among Afrikaans speakers” (Steyn, 1994: 44–46). “The development of Afrikaans as a medium of higher education in South Africa unfolded against the background of the growth of Afrikaner nationalism, especially after the mid-1930s, the period when the Afrikaans movement gained ground and the language was established as a viable option for medium of instruction” (Steyn, 1993a: 248–252).

Phillipson (1992, 1998) and Skutnabb-Kangas (1998:13) defined linguicism as referring to “ideologies and structures which are used to legitimate, effectuate and reproduce an unequal division of power and resources between groups which are defined on the basis of language”. They add that “in such ideology, the language of the politically or economically dominant group or class is given a higher social status than the indigenous languages”. Such a view is self-evident in South Africa where, historically, English and Afrikaans have been given a higher status than black African languages (Tait, 2007). Tait further stated that “even Western donors tend to support educational programmes that promote the use of English as the language of teaching and learning”. There is no match between official South African policy and its gradually evolving realities (Webb, 1999:27). Several obvious reasons can be given for this mismatch between policy and practice, such as the issue of lack of funds, human resources and educational resources. However, Webb (1999:28) furthermore provided three possible reasons for these circumstances, namely:

- The socio-linguistic character of South Africa.
- The inadequate language policies.
- The apparent lack of political will.

Kamwangamalu (2001:429) reiterated the stance that there is “a mismatch between South Africa’s multilingual language policy on the one hand, and language practices on the other”. He maintained that the “mismatch between language policy and language practices is based on the main on three factors, comprising the esteem given to English as a global language, the ambivalent language-related clauses in the country’s constitution, and the legacy of Apartheid’s language in education, especially the Bantu Education Act of 1953”.

Language contestations have plagued university language policies in South Africa since the establishment of the UCGH, which was the first university in South Africa that was established in 1873. With the establishment of the Union of South Africa in 1910, Dutch and English became official languages in the constitution of the Union. The relevant section reads as follows:

> Both the English and Dutch languages shall be the official languages of the Union and shall be treated on a footing of quality and possess and enjoy freedom rights and privileges (Hill, 2009:8).

In 1874, the Cape Parliament passed a higher education act, which stated the framework for a newly introduced colonial education system (Boucher, 1973). The act made tertiary education provision for elite high schools, which were then awarded the status of being ‘colleges’. These colleges were responsible for training students, in English, for assessments of the new tertiary institution. In 1875, the University Extension Act awarded the university the right to function beyond the borders of the Cape Colony. This extended the field of higher education into the two Boer republics and the second British colony of Natal (Hill, 2009:8). Later, in 1918, the autonomous universities came into being, namely the University of Cape Town (UCT), the University of Stellenbosch (US), and the UNISA of which the latter comprised an examination university with seven university colleges that prepared students for assessment (Steyn, 1994). UNISA was established as a parallel bilingual university (Steyn, 1993a). At that stage, teaching and learning at university level in South Africa was provided strictly in English. By 1919, the universities were compelled by the Department of Education to introduce English and Dutch as languages of instruction (Du Plessis, 2005).

According to Steyn (1993a), Dutch was soon replaced by Afrikaans as the second language of academic transaction, especially since it was given recognition in the same year (1919) as a school language and subject until the final school year. The Department of Education compelled all South African universities (including UCT and the University of Pretoria [UP]) to introduce dual-medium teaching, where two languages are taught to one individual. Bilingual/dual-medium students were to be considered ‘normal students. The Department of Education did not encourage the institution of a parallel-medium option, where two languages are used to different individuals. Nevertheless, two languages emerged alongside the dual-medium policy and practice as an option in cases where the cohort allowed the usage of two languages, in particular, at the UP. However, it was not possible to have both the dual- and parallel-medium model as time went on, and the dual-medium model took over. The bilingual universities, where bilingual Afrikaans-speaking students were a large group, slowly became monolingual Afrikaans-only universities. Steyn (1993a:254) explained this process at the UP, Orange Free State, Stellenbosch, and Potchefstroom during the year 1918. He stated at least three main factors in terms of this change: “first, there was the high demand for Afrikaans universities (among students) and the public in general; second, the language proficiency of students', especially bilingual Afrikaans-speaking students as opposed to monolingual English-speaking students; and third, the sense of ownership among Afrikaans natives" (Steyn, 1994:44-46).

The problem of the language policy in the historically Afrikaans universities has not ended. Cele (2004:40) further reported: "At the Stellenbosch University, progress with regard to the equity profile of the university's student body is slow." Cele further remarked that "at the Stellenbosch University, Afrikaans remains the academic language of instruction and that this may be a barrier to access for many African students". Cele (2004:40) stated that strategies of internal transformation must be devised to combat the discrimination of black staff and students. Currently, however, the university has approved a new language policy with English, Afrikaans and isiXhosa as languages of learning and teaching.

Contestations during the apartheid years, specifically in 1948, came as a result of the existence of 19 district departments of education, one national and four provincial departments for white education, one department for Indian education, one for coloured education and 12 for black education. Each education department had its own language policy. English was used as a language of teaching and learning for Indian educational institutions, Afrikaans was generally the language of instruction for coloureds, and English was used for whites who originated from Britain and Afrikaans for Afrikaners of Dutch descent (Kamwangamalu, 2001). Separate tertiary institutions of education were established for Indian, coloured, black, and white students. White universities were categorised into Afrikaans and English medium institutions (Tait, 2007). Tait further argued that the division possibly still exists to this day and noted that it is aimed at satisfying the needs of the Afrikaans- and English-speaking white minority group. In order to cater for this white group, most historically Afrikaans universities were shifting to dual medium, offering tuition in English and Afrikaans (Kamwangamalu, 2001). Although access to these institutions was then possible for black South African students, they still lamented the fact that Afrikaans mother-tongue speakers, where parallel-medium policy was used, were still at an advantage. The SU has been experiencing problems related to institutional racism that led to the creation of the Open Stellenbosch Movement whose aim was to challenge the hegemony of white Afrikaans culture and the alienation of black students and staff at the institution.

The Open Stellenbosch Movement consists of black students and staff members at the university who are against the slow rate of transformation at this institution (Daily Maverick, 2015). On the other hand, in higher education institutions, where English is a sole medium of instruction, students from disadvantaged communities still struggle. English still poses a problem to them and acts as a barrier to access and success (Prinsloo, 2011). The above statement is an indication of a problem with regard to language policy management. Political developments in the present-day RSA have contributed to shaping university language policies and their management. The following discussions highlight these political developments according to year.

Table 2.1 illustrates the brief history of South African universities.

***Table 2.1: A brief history of South African universities***

| | |
|---|---|
| 1806 | British rule in the Cape Colony begins. |
| 1836 | The University of London is established and provides a model for the examining university. |
| 1858 | The Board of Public Examiners in Literature of Science is established. |
| 1873 | The UCGH is established and replaces the Board of Public Examiners in Literature of Science. |
| 1874 | The Cape Higher Education Act makes provision for tertiary education at elite 'colleges', which is certified by the UCGH. |
| 1899 | Victoria College (Stellenbosch) – an English-medium institution – becomes the first exclusively tertiary institution in the South African Republic; plans to establish a Dutch-medium institution to compete with the UCGH are terminated by the outbreak of the Anglo-Boer War. |
| 1910 | The Union of South Africa is established – the official languages are English and Dutch (Afrikaans from 1925). |
| 1916 | The South African Native College is established on the site of the University of Fort Hare in Alice – the only institution catering for African students in southern Africa. |
| 1918 | After World War I, the UCGH moves to Pretoria and is renamed UNISA.<br>The US and UCT are established as the first teaching universities. |
| 1948 | The National Party is elected – this is the beginning of the apartheid era. |
| 1959 | The University Education Act extends apartheid to higher education – during the 1960s and 1970s, 'ethnic' universities are established in the apartheid Bantustans. |
| 1961 | The establishment of the Republic of South Africa Constitution, Act 32 of 1961, policy of separate development of black minorities. |
| 1994 | Democratic election marks the end of the apartheid era – the new Constitution recognises 11 official languages. |

| | |
|---|---|
| 2002 | Rationalisation of the apartheid higher education system – institutional mergers reduce the number of tertiary institutions from 36 to 23. |

Source: Hill (2009)

### 2.2.1 Language in education policy during the colonial era: 1652–1910

The colonial period was characterised by four stages of colonisation, first by the Dutch (during the Dutch period), then by the British (during the first and second British periods), more or less concurrently by the Dutch-speaking Afrikaners (during the Republican period) and, finally, again by the British (during the third British period). Cuvelier et al. (2003:105) stated that each colonial government introduced its own language as the primary language of society and implemented language policies in a strict manner.

### 2.2.2 Higher education politics in the Union period: 1910–1961

During the year 1910, the Union of South Africa was established. The official languages during this period were English and Dutch, and Afrikaans from 1925 (Hill, 2009:106).

> The statehood period is characterised by the establishment of the first and second South African states, the first being a state for the Afrikaners and the English from 1910 onwards, and the second for all South Africans from 1994 onwards (Cuvelier et al., 2003).

Both states came into being after a period of immense inter-ethnic conflict which was concluded with a peace treaty and which resulted in the signing of the Constitution forming the basis for the building of a united South Africa (Ebrahim, 1998). Cuvelier et al. (2003) commented that in both instances, the primary challenge was to set in motion policies and processes in order to integrate the newly established, but historically divided, nation. Language, and mainly language in education, was the main agenda in the nation-building programme of both states.

During 1822, English became the only official language of the Cape Colony. Once again, English became the sole medium of all government offices in 1825, and the language of courts in 1827 (Du Toit, 1975). Dutch was also reinstituted in courts in 1884 (Aucamp, 1926). During this period, English was the official language. This period was followed by the Orange Free State Ordinance, no. 3 of 1854. During this period, Dutch was the official language.

The language policies during the apartheid era had an influence on the higher education language policies of 1910 to 1961, and 1961 to 1993, because the language used by the government of the day impacts on government services, such as courts of law, education and parliament. This means that the language used by the government is one, which must be used for education, parliament and court proceedings (Section 108 of Act 32 of 1961 – Continued principle of equal treatment of English and Afrikaans). Purser (2000) concurred that the expectation is that there would be a relationship between the national and higher education language policies.

In the period 1910–1961, the language policy in South Africa was one of an adopted range of strategies, which were both coercive and ideological, and the means by which the state maintained the hegemony of whites over blacks. It was informed by the ideology of the European nation state that assumes a natural division of humanity into nations whose unique identity is reflected in the language they speak (Goode & Schneider, 1994). Suggested in this ideology is the belief that people live in single communities bounded in space and time and a "view of culture as a static phenomenon practiced uniformly and transmitted without change from generation to generation rather than dynamic and changing adaptions" (Goode & Schneider, 1994:67).

The year 1948 marked the beginning of the apartheid era when apartheid policy became the law of the land in South Africa. During this period, South Africa consisted of 19 distinct departments of education: one national and four provincial departments for white education, one department for Indian education, one for coloured education and 12 for black education. Each department had its own language policy. Separate institutions of higher learning were created which catered for four races. White universities were also divided into Afrikaans- and English-medium universities. It is possible that this division continues to exist to this day, and it should be noted that it is aimed at meeting the needs not only of white people but also of the Afrikaans- and English-speaking population at large. The language competition between English and Afrikaans speakers is as old as the history of South Africa. The original European settlers of 1652 spoke Dutch, which eventually evolved into Afrikaans. However, in 1822, the British came into power and stipulated that English was to be the language of the country, used in government, churches and schools. This, along with the freeing of slaves and the efforts of the British to introduce racial equality in the courts, led to the Boers' movement to the northern parts of the country, starting in 1836 and, as

British imperialism grew, to the Anglo-Boer War at the turn of the century. The statehood era was characterised by apartheid, which promoted ethnic nationalist thinking, and which was regarded as an attempt at nation building. As such, it succeeded in building an Afrikaner nation but failed in building a united South Africa. On the other hand, apartheid's primary legacy was a highly divided society, characterised by ethnic class, social race, linguistic and religious divisions (Venter, 1998). During this period, language and language in education were cornerstones of apartheid engineering. Under apartheid, the Afrikaans language, which had replaced Dutch as the official language in 1925, became the main language in South African society. During the apartheid era, the language policy actively promoted the official use of black minority languages in the black regions and homelands. Language contestation during this period therefore came as no surprise, particularly since the language medium in education was one of the burning issues, which caused a deadlock in the negotiations. This was even true in the final constitution agreement regarding this issue, which was reached late on the evening of 7 May 1996, literally hours before the constitution was adopted the following morning. The matter was resolved by means of a compromise on the education clause (section 29) which provides for single-medium institutions, a demand that was made by the National Party and which was initially rejected by the African National Congress (Cuvelier at al., 2003). The events of May 1996 do not form part of the period under discussion, but they are mentioned here to highlight the language problem in our South African government, and which affects our South African universities.

First-language education was viewed negatively. Afrikaans was rejected as a language of academic transaction in 1976, and the position of English was advanced. In addition, African languages were looked down upon at that time (Kamwangamalu, 2001). This issue of looking down on indigenous languages is still prevalent in most South African university language policies, which do not promote them as mediums of instruction. The architects of the apartheid plan envisioned separate systems of education for blacks (even in urban areas where the native languages would be included gradually in university teaching). Black people rejected this law from the beginning. First, they saw the divide-and-conquer motive behind this plan. Second, they wanted to learn English as a language of wider communication, with the indigenous languages not reaching beyond the sixth year of schooling. However, there were imposed barriers to learning English, especially in metropolitan areas, African schools, residences and workplaces, which were often separated by law from those of other races and, as a result, they did not have the chance to interact freely with people whose home language was English (Venter, 1998). The universities that were in existence during this period were the following:

The Stellenbosch University (SU), which was established in 1918, was an Afrikaans-only university at that time. The University of the Free State (UFS) was also a fully functioning, independent university in 1950, and the name was changed from Grey College to the University of the Orange Free State. In 1993, it adopted a system of parallel-medium tuition, changing from Afrikaans-only tuition. However, the language policy has now been changed to English-only, a process in which the phasing out of Afrikaans will take five years to complete. Currently, all the first-year students receive their tuition in English-only, a process that began in 2017.

In 1916, the South African People's College on the site of Fort Hare came into being. The first headmaster was Mr Alexander Kerr. The Extension of University Education Act, Act 45 of 1959, prohibited black students from attending white universities (mainly the UCT and the University of the Witwatersrand), dividing tertiary institutions according to race. The act introduced tribal colleges for black university students, which brought about the so-called 'bush' universities such as Fort Hare, Vista, Venda, Zululand and the Western Cape. Black people were prevented from attending white universities, where English was the medium of instruction.

The Potchefstroom University for Christian Higher Education, which is now North-West University (NWU), was merged into UNISA in 1921. During this period, it catered for Afrikaans speakers. To date, it offers tuition in both English and Afrikaans, with the Potchefstroom campus using Afrikaans as a monolingual language policy.

The previous discussion indicates that language and politics are closely related in South Africa. The government's divide-and-conquer approach to block language policy was allied to the entire degrading system of laws that kept black South Africans in permanent poverty. In order to introduce a remarkable change in the language issues in South Africa, an all-inclusive policy is needed in the sphere of language as well as in all other aspects of political life.

### 2.2.3 Higher education language politics: 1961–1993

This was the reformist period (trilateral politics), a parliament system with increased coloured and Indian representation. This trilateral parliament encompassed a (white) house of assembly, a (coloured) house of representatives and an (Indian) house of delegates. Only black South Africans were excluded from the national government. During this period, the two official languages were English and Afrikaans. Section 3 of the interim Constitution, Act 200 of 1993, stated equal treatment of English and Afrikaans at universities. In 1992, the National Education Policy investigation was undertaken, which led to the 1992 Language Report, which presented different options for language in education policy (Constitution, Act 110 of 1983).

During the apartheid period, the language discrimination prevented black people of South Africa from enrolling at tertiary institutions, either as students or as workers (Dlamini, 1996). This situation was only partially addressed after the establishment of homeland universities. Unfortunately, the law of 'separate development' resulted in giving English and Afrikaans the status of becoming official languages in higher education and, by the same token, in the marginalisation and underdevelopment of indigenous languages. Thus, language was used as an instrument to control, oppress and exploit the majority of the people of South Africa (Hartshorne, 1987; Marivate, 1992; Reagen, 1985, 1990). The Central University of Technology, Free State (CUT) is among the institutions of higher learning that were in existence during this period. It opened its doors in 1981 as 'Technikon Free State', changes that were introduced by the South African government in restructuring higher education. It was in 2004 that the former Technikon Free State officially exchanged its 'technikon' status for a tailor-made identity when its new name was published in the Government Gazette as the Central University of Technology, Free State (CUT Calendar, 2018:6) by which time it had been catering for Afrikaans speakers.

### 2.2.4 Universities' language politics in the transition period: 1993–1996

#### *2.2.4.1 Convention for a Democratic South Africa (CODESA) period*

"Codesa 1 was the first sitting of a formal multiparty negotiation forum to discuss the principles of a new constitution and the creation of a temporary or transitional power control of the transitional period" (South African History Online, 2017), which led to the end of apartheid and drafting of a democratic constitution for South Africa.

Section 3 of the interim Constitution, Act 200 of 1993, recognised 11 official languages; maintained the principle of equal treatment of English and Afrikaans at universities; and required the extension of the rights of African languages. During this period, the official languages were English and Afrikaans, and there were nine African languages in the Bantustans. Those languages were: IsiXhosa (predominantly used in Transkei and Ciskei); Setswana (predominantly used in Bophuthatswana); Tshivenda (predominantly used in Venda); Sepedi (predominantly used in Lebowa); Shangaan (predominantly used in Gazankulu); Southern Sotho (predominantly used in Qwaqwa); IsiZulu (predominantly used in KwaZulu); IsiNdebele (predominantly used in KwaNdebele); isiSwati (predominantly used in Kangwane). This is according to the National Education Policy Investigation and Language Report (1992), which presented different options for the language in education policy.

During this period, Section 6 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act 108 of 1996, enforced official languages. The state was required to uplift the status and extend the use of historically underprivileged languages (i.e., nine official African languages of erstwhile Bantustans). Principles of equality and partly of esteem were introduced to replace the principle of equality. In October 1995, the Pan South African Language Board (PanSALB) was created, whose mandate included the promotion and creation of conditions for the recognition for all official languages, non-official languages and sign language. In 1995, the National Commission on Higher Education was established, and in December 1996, it published its green paper on higher education transformation, which served as the basis for the Higher Education Act in 1997. The act challenged South African colleges and universities' alleged resistance to broadening the number of official native languages of teaching and learning at tertiary level (Mda, 1997:367).

Table 2.2 illustrates the language dispensation at higher education institutions in 1994.

**Table 2.2: Language dispensation at higher education institutions in 1994**

| Type | Afrikaans | English | Bilingual | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Universities | 5 | 13 | 3 | 21 |
| Technikons | 0 | 8 | 7 | 15 |
| TOTAL | 5 | 21 | 10 | 36 |

Source: Du Plessis (2005:100)

By 1994, a large number of universities were using one language (13 out of 21), almost one quarter were using Afrikaans (five out of 21), and only three of them were officially bilingual (see Table 2.2) (Du Plessis, 2005:100).

This period is important for the subject of this thesis because it brought about massive changes in the language policy of South African higher education and the nature of student distribution (Jansen, 2004).

Table 2.2 shows language dispensation of higher education in South Africa that has put to an end the (relatively short-lived) practice of Afrikaans-only universities in South Africa (Steyn, 1994).

### 2.2.5 Higher education language politics after the adoption of the Constitution, Act 108 of 1996, to the present

After a long period of contestations on higher education language policies in South Africa, the 1993 Interim Constitution and the adoption of the Constitution, Act 108 of 1996, led to the introduction of 11 languages in South Africa, and the importance was placed on multilingualism. In 1993, the Interim Constitution called for the elevation of eleven languages, the idea of differentiation between national and regional policies, and suggested that previously alienated languages were to be ‘empowered’ (Du Plessis, 2000). The importance of preventing language from being used for the purpose of discrimination, a principle that was later built into Section 3 of the 1993 interim constitution, was crucial (Du Plessis, 2000).

The Constitution (Act 108 of 1996, Section 6.2) stipulates that the national and provincial governments must, by means of laws and other measures, regulate and monitor their use of official languages. Without deviating from the contents of

Subsection 2, it also states that all official languages must have equal respect and must be treated equitably (Section 6.4). On the other hand, the PanSALB, which was established by national legislation, promotes and creates the circumstances under which official languages can be used. This means that all official languages must have equal treatment (equity) and be treated with fairness and impartiality (equitability).

Furthermore, the following clauses are of significance in developing and promoting the official indigenous languages and sign language(s) of South Africa, namely Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, SiSwati, Tshivenda, Xitsonga, Afrikaans, English, isiNdebele, isiXhosa and isiZulu:

> 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 (Section 29.2).
>
> Everyone has the right to use the language and participate in the cultural life of their choice, but no one exercising these rights may do so in a manner that is inconsistent with any provisions of the Bill of Rights (Section 30).

During this period, after the adoption of the constitution, Afrikaner negotiators saw the language developments as a threat to the future of Afrikaans. This relates to the ongoing debates on the historically Afrikaans-medium universities regarding the issue of language policy. Afrikaans-speaking people see English as a threat to the Afrikaans language. Du Plessis (2000:104) observed: “given the threat to the future of Afrikaans, the Afrikaans community played a very active role in the language debate”.

The 1993 interim constitutional clause set the antecedent for the inclusion of the language clause in the 1996 Constitution. However, the language clause in the 1996 Constitution differs from the language clause in the 1993 Interim Constitution in different ways. Both sets start an important change from the language dispensation of the apartheid period, moving South Africa from an officially bilingual dispensation to one which respects 11 official languages. In documenting the differences between the language clauses of the 1993 Interim Constitution and the 1996 Constitution, Du Plessis (1999) observed that one of the most important differences is the fact that the principle of equity, or equal rights for all (official) languages has been replaced in the 1996 Constitution language clause by the principle of equitability, subject to the requirement that disadvantaged languages should, nevertheless, receive preferential treatment. A second remarkable difference is that a clear difference is drawn between language rights over which the government exercises a degree of control and the language rights of individuals and groups. As a result of this, it is no longer the government's responsibility to protect the language rights of the individual, which means that groups will have to be more active and organised if they wish to lay claim to language rights.

For Afrikaans speakers, the rise of the new policy discourse post-1994 created the concern that Afrikaans would lose its position, which is to say, lose many of the higher functions that have yet to be developed. Principal among these was its status as a medium of instruction in higher education (Cluver, 1992; Combrinck, 1991).

#### *2.2.5.1 Complaints lodged with the Pan South African Language Board*

Today, long after the introduction of the 1996 Constitution, which recognises 11 official languages, many Afrikaner communities decry the "anglicisation of South Africa" (Perry, 2003:103).

The Northern Amandebele National Organisation laid claims against the state, asking for their language to be recognised as the twelfth official language (Perry, 2003:104). In 2006, the Afriforum (an independent group of Afrikaners) was formed with the aim of encouraging the inclusion of minority groups such as Afrikaners in public debates and civil actions. In particular, it encourages the preservation of Afrikaner culture, and has opposed the renaming of streets and changing of language policies in institutions of higher learning from parallel medium (Afrikaans and English) to English-only.

Mwaniki (2012:215) reported that the language provisions of the 1993 Interim Constitution and the 1996 Constitution intend to establish a radical change with the language practices of the past. This affected higher education because it brought about transformation in the sense that language could no longer be a barrier to access and success in higher education, both in the sense that African and other languages had not been promoted as academic/scientific languages in so far as the first-year high school learners are not fully proficient in English and Afrikaans (RSA Department of Education, 2002). The purpose of the implied changes to the language policy and planning scholarship and practice in South Africa is to ensure that the multilingual dispensation highlighted in the Interim Constitution and the 1996 Constitution is accomplished so that language policy and planning practice and scholarship can make a contribution towards changing the socio-political and historical contexts that ultimately led to the adoption of both constitutions.

It was after the adoption of the Constitution, Act 108 of 1996, that South Africans became proud of Section 29(2), which states that everyone has the right to receive an education in the official language or languages of their choice in public educational institutions that is reasonably practicable (RSA, 1996). While the right is there, only a few people are able to enjoy it because the dominating languages are English, and Afrikaans and the indigenous languages are still not actively used as languages of academic transaction in most South African universities.

This has always been in contrast to the constitutional rights because before the 1996 Constitution, in some historically Afrikaans universities, the medium of instruction was Afrikaans, which made it impossible for the disadvantaged black South Africans to access these institutions. It is also in contrast with what is articulated in paragraph 5 of the Language Policy for Higher Education (RSA, Department of Education, 2002:45) which states that, "language has been and continues to be a barrier to access and success in higher education, in the sense that African and other languages had not been developed as academic languages". It is only a few universities, such as the UKZN, UCT and UL, which have started to develop African languages as languages of teaching and learning.

After the abolition of apartheid, a number of changes took place in the South African education system such as the 1997 draft White Paper on Higher Education. Mda (1997:367) asserted that in October 1995, "the Pan-South African Language Board, whose mission includes the promotion and creation of conditions for the development, use and respect for all official languages, non-official languages and sign language, was established".

In 1995, the National Commission on Higher Education was created. In 1996, it released its Green Paper on Higher Education transformation, which served as the basis for the Higher Education Act of 1997. The Act compelled South African universities and colleges to increase the number of official languages of instruction used at these universities (Cuvelier et al., 2003; Mda, 1997). Contrary to this, English and Afrikaans languages are still dominant in Higher Education. Some South African universities, such as the UL, UKZN and UCT, are adhering to the education transformation by promoting indigenous languages. In 2003, the University of Limpopo introduced a bachelor's degree in contemporary English and multilingual studies, which enables students to study one major module with six modules, through the medium of their home language, *Sesotho sa Leboa* (Northern Sotho) or *Sepedi*, and the others entirely in English (Tlowane, Mashatole, Bopape & Morapedi, 2012).

The UKZN is actively engaged in promoting *isiZulu* as the language of teaching and learning in the near future, as suggested in the Green Paper on Higher Education Transformation. The UKZN is currently implementing a long-term bilingual language policy, and isiZulu is one of the languages of the university that will soon become the language of instruction. This is in line with the goals of South Africa's multilingual language policy as this institution is prepared to take a lead in its successful implementation (UKZN Language Policy, 2006).

Du Plessis (2005:98) explained that after 1994, a different framework documents that were completed by the Council on Higher Education contributed to the development of "a one national, coordinated by diverse higher education system" (Council on Higher Education, 2004:26).

Another important development was the promulgation of the Higher Education Act, Act 101 of 1997, which provided a legal framework for system-level governance, the establishment, declaration, merging and closure of higher education institutions, institutional governance, funding, language usage, private higher education institutions and the banning of former umbrella governance bodies in higher education. Jansen (2004:301) argued that "the changes in the institutional landscape affected historical Afrikaans-medium universities, especially in terms of size and shape". Jansen further stated that at the time of writing, black student enrolment had increased by 56 000 (1 120%) in historically white, Afrikaans-medium universities and that black student enrolments had increased by 49 000 (490%) in historically white technikons such as the CUT.

By 1994, the South African higher education system was made up of 36 public higher education institutions that were structured along racial and ethnic lines and according to a clear divide between 21 universities and 15 technikons, all administrated by eight different government departments (Council on Higher Education, 2004).

According to Du Plessis (2005), by 2004, the number of bilingual universities of higher learning had increased and almost one third of universities (seven out of 22) were now bilingual universities. Du Plessis (2005:91) added that “the proportion of bilingual English-medium institutions had increased from just over one half in 1994 (out of 36) to not more than two thirds of all South African universities in 2004”.

Table 2.3 lists the 26 South African universities and displays their language dispensation at higher education institutions in 2015.

***Table 2.3: Language dispensation at higher education institutions in 2015***

| University | Official languages as stated in institutional policy | | | Language Policy (2015) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Language of Learning and Teaching | Other language/indigenous language selected | | |
| Cape Peninsula University of Technology | English | Afrikaans | IsiXhosa | Yes |
| Central University of Technology, Free State | English | | | Yes |
| Cape Town | English | Afrikaans | IsiXhosa | Yes |
| Durban University of Technology | English | | IsiZulu | Yes |
| Fort Hare | English | | IsiXhosa | Yes |
| Free State | English | Afrikaans | Sesotho | Yes |
| Johannesburg | English | Afrikaans | Sepedi, IsiZulu | Yes |
| KwaZulu-Natal | English | | IsiZulu | Yes |
| Limpopo | English | Afrikaans | Sesotho sa Leboa<br>Xitsonga, Tshivenda<br>Setswana, IsiNdebele | Yes |
| Mangosuthu University of Technology | English | | IsiZulu | Yes |
| Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University | English | Afrikaans | IsiXhosa | Yes |
| North-West | English | Afrikaans | Sesotho, Setswana | Yes |
| Pretoria | English | Afrikaans | Sepedi | Yes |
| Rhodes | English | Afrikaans | IsiXhosa | Yes |
| Stellenbosch | English | Afrikaans | IsiXhosa | Yes |

| University | Official languages as stated in institutional policy | | | Language Policy (2015) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Language of Learning and Teaching | Other language/indigenous language selected | | |
| Tshwane University of Technology | English | Afrikaans | | Yes |
| UNISA | English | Afrikaans | All 9 official indigenous languages | Yes |
| Vaal University of Technology | English | | | |
| Venda | English | | | Yes |
| Walter Sisulu | English | | IsiXhosa | |
| Western Cape | English | Afrikaans | IsiXhosa | Yes |
| Witwatersrand | English | Afrikaans | Sesotho | Yes |
| Zululand | English | | IsiZulu | Yes |

Source: Published by the Department of Higher Education and Training (2015)

The above table shows the use of Afrikaans, English and African languages selected as the languages of academic transactions in 2015. The table further shows that Afrikaans could be used as the main, but not the only, language of teaching and learning. In fact, the policy rules out the continued existence of so-called 'Afrikaans' universities (Du Plessis, 2005:101). The higher education policy does not specifically stipulate that universities must be bilingual but allows Afrikaans to be used as a language "through the range of strategies, including the adoption of parallel and dual language medium options". The higher education language policy also expects universities to play a role in encouraging multilingualism in institutional language policies and practices (Du Plessis, 2005). Bengu (1997:2,12) referred to the language policy as the government strategy of building a non-racial nation in South Africa that is meant to facilitate communication across all races, languages and regions, while at the same time creating an environment in which respect for all languages other than one's own would be encouraged. "This approach is in line with the fact that both societal and individual multilingualism are the global practice today, especially on the African continent (Language in Education Policy, 1997:1).

Table 2.4 shows the distribution of the student populations of the former historical Afrikaans universities in 2016.

***Table 2.4: Distribution of student populations of the former historically Afrikaans universities, 2016***

| University | Asian | Black | Coloured | White | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| NWU | 1.0% | 60.0% | 3.0% | 36.0% | 47 008 |
| UFS | 1.5% | 63.7% | 4.9% | 29.8% | 33 096 |
| UJ | 4.9% | 72.0% | 3.1% | 19.3% | 47 233 |
| UP | 3.1% | 56. 1% | 1.6% | 39.2% | 61 293 |
| US | 2.8% | 18.3% | 17.6% | 61.3% | 30 854 |

Source: Census Statistics South Africa 2016

The above table indicates that the South African university population has become multilingual and culturally diverse. In contrast, however, some South African universities have opted for one language in their learning and teaching contexts.

The tables shown above indicate that the dominant language for academic transaction in South African universities is English, followed by Afrikaans. Thus far, very few universities have adopted African languages as languages of teaching and learning, with the exception of the UL, UKZN and UCT. According to the Council on Higher Education (2001), a language policy for higher education can only be successfully formulated as part of a comprehensive language.

Roodt (2001) asserted that the language policy of higher education is characterised by a strong preference for the use of English, which is revealed in lectures, study materials, tests, examinations, and administrations, recruitment of personnel, student research, publications, and conferences.

Paradoxically, Madiba (2004), Moloi and Chetty (2011), and Fleisch (2008) mentioned that research has shown that most of the students admitted to South African universities are not competent in English, although it is used as the exclusive language of learning and teaching at most institutions of higher learning. The result of this is high dropout and failure rates at such institutions.

Ngcobo (2003) viewed the implementation of the South African Language Policy for Higher Education as the most problematic aspect of language planning in this country since implementation demands a number of things, including concrete steps, the allocation of financial resources, devising time schedules for completion, evaluation and examination. Currently, management of the diversity of languages in South Africa after the apartheid regime has been chaotic, because of the lack of a clear and precise language policy, leading to the use of English and Afrikaans as primary languages in the socio-economic and political domains of our society.

All language policy decisions are politicised. Vaara, Tienari, Piekkari and Santti (2005) claimed that “corporate language policies are easily seen as practical; inevitable and even natural whether we like it or not, they also involve power implications that are easily overlooked”. They further postulate that it is unfortunate, then, that university language policymakers often fail to consider how language policy decisions become politicised in their organisations.

Language can present a number of learning challenges because monolingual language policy programmes favour learning in the dominant language at the expense of losing one’s home language and promote the assimilation agenda. Ochoa (1995) is of the view that school policies normally do not include incorporate discussions touching on the history and culture of students who are the recipients of the language policy. This situation also applies to South African universities using a monolingual language policy with English as the sole medium of instruction. Only student representatives such as those on the students’ representative council participate in policy discussions at other institutions of higher learning, with the result that surveys are not conducted with all of the students. CUT is one of the universities, which are now using English as the only medium of instruction. Therefore, this study sought to answer some of the questions regarding the challenges and complexities that have manifested at CUT a University of Technology after the adoption of a monolingual policy.

## 2.3 SUMMARY

The foregoing discussion outlined university language policy management in South Africa. Historical considerations regarding language policies that have been discussed is an indication of language contestations that have been taking place in South Africa over time and their impact on the South African higher education institutions.

The next chapter (Chapter 3) discusses language policy, language planning and language management theories in South Africa.

# CHAPTER 3
# LANGUAGE POLICY, LANGUAGE PLANNING AND LANGUAGE MANAGEMENT THEORIES

## 3.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter university language policy management in South Africa was discussed. This included historical considerations regarding language policies at South African institutions of higher learning. These discussions provided a background to this chapter. This chapter discusses language policy, language planning and language management theories in South Africa. The theoretical framework of language planning and language management in South Africa in the post-apartheid era, the recent development in language policies of historically Afrikaans universities, and language policy management in South Africa from a cultural perspective, will be discussed.

Language policy management at South African institutions of higher learning is a topical issue. This is because of the still problematic implementation of the relevant language policies. Despite many laws by the government in favour of the advancement of South Africa's native languages, little has changed (Webb, 2004). This is an indication that racial politics seem to play part in language politics and the universities are the hardest hit. Historically Afrikaans universities are the ones that have experienced changes in language policies because they had to shift from being Afrikaans-only to parallel/bilingual medium and from parallel/bilingual to English medium only. While this is intended to accommodate the other groups, this indicates that the recognition of 11 official languages and support of human rights is still not taken into cognisance in South Africa. Alexander (2001) stressed the importance of language by indicating that language is an important and worldwide phenomenon and a pillar of strength in all human communities. It is for this reason that South Africa opted to promote multilingualism as the most relevant approach to resolving language problems in South Africa.

Language planning, which is one of the framework upon which the study is based, is defined as a "body of ideas, laws and regulations (language policy), change rules, beliefs, and practices intended to achieve a planned change (or to stop change from happening" (Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997:3). "Language planning involves *deliberate*, although not always overt, *future oriented* change in systems of language code and/or speaking in a societal context" (Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997:3), or more modest levels for other purposes. In general terms, language planning is an attempt by someone to change linguistic ways of doing things for some people living together for some reason. The reasons are complicated, ranging from an insignificant notion that one does not like the way some people talk, to the sophisticated way that a community can be assisted in preserving its culture by preserving its language (Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997).

On the other hand, Cooper (1989:45) explained that "language planning is about deliberate effort to influence the behaviour of others with respect to acquisition, structure or functional allocation of language codes". Wardhaugh (2007:357) defined language planning "as an attempt to interfere deliberately with a language or one of its varieties". What is common in these two definitions is the idea of language planning as man's intervention into the natural processes of language change.

Tollefson (1991:16) defined language planning as "deliberate efforts to assist the structure of functions of language differences". Weinstein (1980:56) saw it as a government's authorised, long-term, sustained, and conscious effort to change language functions in a society for the purpose of solving communication problems.

Christian (1988:197) defined language planning as an "explicit systematic effort to resolve (perceived) language problems and achieve related goals through institutionally organised interventions in the use and usage of language or language varieties".

Fishman (1973:23) saw language planning as "an organised pursuit of solutions to language problems, typically of the national level". Fishman furthermore identifies four types of language planning problems linked to specific language planning processes. These include code selection which is linked to the policy formulation process in language planning, management of regional or sociolinguistic variability linked to stabilisation and codification, addition of new functions to a code linked to the process of elaboration, and the development of functional differentiation between varieties linked to cultivation.

“In the simplest sense, language planning is an attempt by someone to modify the linguistic behaviour of some community for some reason” (Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997:3).

The foregoing definitions have a common feature of looking at language planning as planned conscious effort. Regardless of who is involved, language planning has to be an organised and deliberate effort to address issues relating to language use in a multilingual society.

Language planning scholars look at it as a consciously organised effort to deal with language-related issues in a multilingual society. What is implicit in both Fishman’s and Tollefson’s descriptions is that language planning is a non-ending process which requires revisiting and revision at any stage in the formulation and implementation of policies resulting from such planning. This is seen in Weinstein’s (1980) work when he uses the term *long term*. It is because of the revision and revisiting stated by the institutions that language policies in the institutions of higher learning had to be revisited and revised after five years for the institutions to reflect and introduce new concepts if there would be a need to do so. One other main reason will be to reflect on the policy and see if the recipients and other stakeholders of the policy still regard it as relevant language policy.

Language policy and language planning have common features and differences. One of the ways of differentiating ‘language policy’ from ‘language planning’ is to look at language policy as the expression of ideological orientations and views, and language planning as the actual proposal that makes up its implementation (Bakmand, 1966:1). Hence, language policies are for all intents and purposes best considered as a subset of language planning, being an important field of sociolinguistics. On the other hand, this area of language planning found itself repeatedly having to do with language policies for linguistic minorities. Eastman (1991:96) stated that no society exists without a language policy, although many policies exist without language planning. The definition commonly used for language policy is that it is language planning by governments. Tollefson (1991:6) contributed to the definitions by stating that the traditional definition of ‘planning’ or ‘policy’ expresses an implicit belief in a historical, unconstrained action and choice. Baldauf (2005) defined language policy as “a body of ideas, laws, regulations, rules and practices intended to achieve some planned language change”. This study adopts this definition. Language policy is therefore seen as the “primary mechanism for manipulating and imposing language behaviours, as it relates to decisions about language and their uses in education and society” (Shohamy, 2006:47-48). Whether implicitly or explicitly, language policy is the instrument used to arrive at decisions regarding the “preferred languages to be used, where, when and by whom” (Shohamy, 2006:48).

In the above discussion, the various ways of understanding language planning form a conceptual framework within which this study discusses language planning in a specific understanding. The following discussion is on language policy practice in South Africa.

## 3.2 RECENT LANGUAGE POLICY AND PRACTICE IN SOUTH AFRICA

Language policy practice in education is in a poor state. Theoretically, learners at basic education level, are allowed a choice from official languages. English second language is the medium of learning and teaching for the majority of students in South Africa in spite of their generally wholly inadequate academic proficiency in it. There are many reasons behind this practice. One of them is that parents perceive English as the only instrument of getting a job and for occupational endeavours for getting access to quality education, success, social status, openness, modernity, progressiveness and access to quality education, success, and social status (Prinsloo, 2011:40). Even when children are still in basic education, parents encourage teachers to teach in English, by saying that a “child must learn English and be taught in English” (Foley, 2004: 60). Kamwangamalu (2002:6) reiterated that African languages are still associated with apartheid laws and the policy of home language education, which was reducing chances for black South Africans to fit in the world of work after completing their education. English may be a language of work, but the researcher argued that if students receive lessons in their first language they can engage and do well in their studies. This is in line with the fact that “language may not act as a barrier to access and success”, according to both the Constitution and the National Language Policy for Higher Education. This is a gain stated in the values of the Language policy Framework (2020:13), which emphasises a stance against the use of any language for the purposes of exploitation, exclusion, domination, and discrimination.

The situation in institutions of Higher Learning still favours English over and above the legislative frameworks and constitution regarding multilingual education which specifies the promotion of indigenous languages as languages of learning and teaching. Maseko (2014) as well as Pillay and Yu (2015) highlight that it is pleasing that there are some universities that are showing commitment to promoting indigenous languages in their Curricula, such as the University of Kwa-Zulu Natal and the University of Limpopo. The University of Kwa-Zulu Natal use both isiZulu and English in the foundation phase teacher training programmes and the programmes are assessed in both languages. The University of Limpopo in 2003 introduced a bachelor`s degree in contemporary English and multilingual studies which enables students to study in their home language SeSotho and Sepedi.

Mkhize and Balfour (2017:138) argue that "the absence of commitment in promoting African languages results in the violation of language rights of the African language-speaking students, and also promotes continued hegemonic segregationist and assimilation ideologies". They see these as having a negative impact on the academic performance of African language-speaking students. On the other hand, Bozzoli (2015) sees this lack of commitment as a contributory factor to a poor throughput rate in the higher education sector.

The recent language statistics (2021) at the Central University of Technology show that Sesotho is by far the most dominant language for students at this university, which clearly shows that the shift is not necessarily about the language of the majority but accommodating most speakers of African languages in a language of power, English, which is a second language to most of them.

In many universities in South Africa, such as University of the Free State (Khetoa & Motsei, 2021), University of South Africa (Seti, Bornmann & Alvarez-Mosquera, 2015), and University of KwaZulu-Natal (Parmegian & Rudwick, 2014), research and surveys have been conducted to determine the number of students who prefer indigenous languages as languages of learning and teaching (LOLTs). The findings revealed that students prefer their indigenous languages, but the challenge they face is that African languages have not yet been uplifted to become languages of instruction in most institutions. On the other hand, the outside world demands proficiency in English, which is the language of employment and a *lingua franca*. Jansen (2005:24) asserted that African languages at universities such as UKZN will take many years before it becomes an instructional language.

The above argument calls for the balance to be struck between English and the African languages for our students to find a place in the world of work, as the disadvantage with the black African students being taught in English is that English is their second or third languages. Lack of English vocabulary becomes a challenge to them.

These arguments indicate that the language policies used at universities that are either English-only or both English and Afrikaans contribute to making black African students not to perform to their full potential. In most cases the language to them becomes an impediment to obtain the grades they deserve. This situation in some historically Afrikaans-medium universities puts Afrikaans-speaking students at an advantage of being taught and assessed in their home languages.

Among the 11 official languages that are spoken in South Africa, the 1999 figures of the South African Institute of Race Relations (SAIRR, 1999), showed that isiXhosa, isiZulu, and Afrikaans were the largest language groupings in South Africa. In 2013, the English home language speakers increased from 3.3 million to 3.9 million but constituted 11% of the population in both the 1999 and 2013 survey (SAIRR, 2014).

Another reason in favour of the English language policy is that indigenous languages are associated with years of discrimination of education in their home language (Kamwangamalu, 2002). Furthermore, the language policy that is based on only one language is that it’s practice in South Africa reflects a centralist political regime. South African political leaders believe that the government will be successful if only one language is used, believing that one language will be cost-effective and more practical. (Kamwangamalu, 2002).

Another factor is that some members of the cabinet did not regard language as a national priority, and they did not see it as an issue that deserves practical attention. Roodt (2001) commented in support of the above statement that the design of a proper language policy and framework for the development of multilingualism is defeated by the fact that South Africa seems to be in favour of an English language policy. Roodt (2001) further stated that very few universities in South Africa promote indigenous languages as medium of instruction. This practice is in contrast with section 29(2) of the Bill of Rights which stipulates that everyone has the right to receive education in the official language or languages of their choice in public education at institutions where the education is reasonably practicable (Republic of South Africa, 1996). Mutasa (2015:47) agreed that "African languages appear to be under siege in tertiary institutions in spite of the commitment demonstrated by universities in their language policies".

Another situation, an impediment of the handling of language policies, is that at some universities – the University of Johannesburg (UJ) being one of them – the staff and students speak a variety of languages. This poses a challenge for the university as to which of these languages must be developed, as no choice will satisfy the needs of all the students and staff. At UJ, isiZulu and Sesotho are the languages that are most widely spoken, but the university opted for Sesotho because UKZN and the University of Zululand (UNIZULU) cater for the isiZulu language. The current situation is that English is the sole medium of instruction until Sesotho has been developed to be used as the medium of instruction. By choosing Sesotho (UJ) and isiZulu (UNIZULU and UKZN), are in line with the clause which mandated universities to choose the languages that are prevalent in their provinces (Barkhuizen & Gough, 1996).

The above discussion clearly indicates that in South African universities English is still a dominant language and so far, it does not have competition. An in-depth discussion on this will be presented when the South African university language policies and their management are analysed, and the limitations and strengths of their institutional policies are discussed.

Before language policy requirements can be discussed, it is important to first clarify the relationship that exists between language planning and language policy.

### 3.2.1 Language policy management in institutions of higher learning

University language policy management has always been a problem because of the stipulations in the Language Policy for Higher Education, which are difficult to put into practice. One of them is that the Minister of Education developed the Language Policy for Higher Education in 2002 (Department of Higher Education, 2002), which states that the role of access to language skills is critical to ensure the right of individuals to realise and to promote multilingualism in institutional policies and practices of South African public higher education institutions.

The above poses a problem because most of the learners from basic education join institutions of higher learning having been taught in the medium of English with very few teachers who speak indigenous languages (Morama, 2015). This problem is common mostly in learners who are from former model C schools since they are completely taught in the medium of English.

On the other hand, the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa puts more emphasis on positive measures to elevate the status of the 11 official languages. Contrary to this, is that most of the institutions of higher learning are opting for English as a language of academic transaction. This is seen to be happening even in the historically Afrikaans-medium universities.

The Language Policy Framework, released on 30 October 2020 (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2020) addresses the lack of alignment with curricula and language policy of the Department of Basic Education. The alignments will serve to facilitate the transition from basic education to the institutions of higher learning. The recent policy framework calls for partnership and collaboration between the two departments.

According to Kagwesage (2012), language is a key to understanding the learning content, and it becomes easy if the facilitator and students are conversant in the language of instruction. This idea by Kagwesage brings us to section 5 of the Language Policy for Higher Education (Ministry of Education, 2002), which declares that language should not act as a barrier to access and success in higher education. It states that many indigenous languages have not been developed to be used as scientific and languages of learning and teaching. On the other hand, there are learners from disadvantaged areas who are not proficient in either Afrikaans or English. To reiterate on this, Heugh (2007:200) argued that “whilst English is believed to be the horizontal language of access, it has in effect become the vertical language of exclusion”. Roy-Campbell (in Brock-Utne 2005:180) warned that “one cannot overstate the damage being effected upon the psyche of African children who are being forced to learn in a foreign language”. In order to address this problem, some universities such as the CUT have introduced the academic literacy module, which is compulsory for all first-year students to solve the problem of success in higher education. This approach has succeeded because by the time students reach their second-year level of study, their English proficiency becomes better.

The above arguments highlight the difficulties in university language policy management in South Africa. At the same time, Chapter 2, section 29(2), of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996:13) declares:

> Everyone has a right to receive education in 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 institutions, taking into account (a) equity and (b) practicability and (c) the need to redress the results of past racially discriminatory laws and practices.

It may be because of the above clause that some institutions opted for English as the sole medium of instruction to the exclusion of indigenous languages.

The Language Policy Framework (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2020) tried to address the gaps that the language Policy for Higher Education of 2002 had failed to achieve. The 2002 policy has not been implemented; instead, the institutions have the copies of language policies that are in place to be produced whenever there is a need to do so. This was Mutasa's (2014) observation when he reviewed the language policies of South African universities. He pointed out that they lack elaboration and clear time frames in terms of implementation. By time frames he referred to when and how indigenous languages will be accommodated in the teaching and learning of content subjects.

The Language Policy Framework (2020) is now promising incentives, funding, and clear directives within the policy on how multilingualism is to be realised within higher education institutions (Department of Higher Education and Training 2020). On the other hand, as much as the language policy framework is promising all the good, Parmegian and Rudwick (2014:107) pointed out that in another case, the multilingual policy at a South African university is regarded with suspicion and scepticism. They stated that the history of the country plays a role in rejection or ignorance of a language policy in higher education. The use of African languages in schools prior to democracy was meant to keep students in low ranks, with low payments.

In Parmigiani and Rudwick's (2014:107) words:

> In such circumstances, policymaking must be for more nuanced and adoptable, eliminating a one-size-fits-all kind of policy which cannot meet the needs of specific groups of students, and does not give lecturers the opportunity to negotiate language use in formal lectures, tutorials, seminars and informal group discussions.

The above argument is a clear indication that the government plays a pivotal role in language management that in a way has a direct influence on institutions of higher learning.

The proposal to elevate indigenous languages is in contrast with what is happening in South Africa. Webb (2004) stated that leadership in South Africa uses English on legislative debates and English is also used for state administration. No one is promoting multilingualism, which makes it difficult for universities to promote indigenous languages in their language policies. The above idea is supported by Alexander and Webb (in Heugh, 2007), that English is the common language among the economically and politically influential. To them, English is seen as the language of work and high functions. Lillis and Curry (2010:01) made a similar observation and referred to English as "the default language of science and academic research and dissemination", noting that it is "considered by prestigious institutions to be the global language of science". Based on this, the universities find it difficult to uplift indigenous languages to become LOLT because their research output is based on research papers published in the English language and research is one of the core mandates of universities. Van der Walt (2013) reiterated that despite the emphasis put on multilingualism, English has the status of the international language of science. Van der Walt referred to English as often used as an indicator of the degree to which a higher education holds as an "international" character. Potgieter and Anthonissen (2017) were also of the view that English is perceived as a status-maker for the majority of the South African people and has become a symbol of education, internationalism affluence, and emancipation.

Van Lit (2015) reiterated that not much progress has been achieved in terms of language policy in South African universities. He highlighted that a decade has lapsed with not much progress seen. Van Lit (2015) was further of the opinion that with approximately 76.9% of South Africans not using English and Afrikaans, South Africa should not be having problems in using indigenous languages as media of instruction in their institutions of higher learning.

The above discussion clearly shows that the findings from this study will assist the policymakers to understand the difficulties universities are faced with regarding language policy management and, in that way, they will have to come out with interventions to solve the problem.

### 3.2.2 Classroom practices as a strategy to deal with language policy issues

Van der Walt (2016:93) posited that for home or community language to be used in the classroom students must be fully prepared for that activity. Van der Walt (2016) suggested that before the languages are introduced for teaching and learning, a survey of language use and attitudes should be conducted. In support of this idea, Madiba (2014) and Ramani et al. (2007) pointed out that the problem might be subject to terminology for indigenous languages. They believed that subject-specific terminology development is a huge necessity in this regard. Another way of solving the language policy problem can be the introduction of code-switching in classrooms. In this way a local language can be used together with English or Afrikaans, depending on the language chosen by the institution. The focus in strengthening the ability of lecturers to make micro-planning decisions to support the learning of their multilingual learners will also have a positive impact in promoting multilingual teaching in classrooms (Van der Walt & Hilbert, 2014).

Contrary to the above idea, Ngcobo (2014:134) conducted a survey to determine students' attitudes towards English and their home language in higher education. The survey revealed that "students' responses to the first questionnaire displayed a preference for the informal use of their 12 indigenous languages as a learning resource, but this did not initially translate into positive attitudes concerning the formal use of their first languages in higher education". Ngcobo (2014:34) further had the idea that code switching, and co-language activities can be introduced by using local languages. He believed that this approach could change the students' attitudes. Van der Walt (2016:94) argued for placing the responsibility upon the lecturers as they are the ones who can arrange and plan accordingly when preparing programmes for their classes.

The above discussion clearly indicates the ways that can be adopted to solve the problem of language policy management in institutions of higher learning. By introducing the above-mentioned approaches, indigenous languages can end up occupying their space in learning and teaching.

## 3.3 LANGUAGE POLICY AND LANGUAGE PLANNING

### 3.3.1 Categories of Language Policy

Language policy is usually compiled to encourage one language at the expense of others. The difference from the above notion is that language policy is designed to protect indigenous languages and the "language planning process must be linked to the critical evaluation of language policy: the former providing standards of rationality and effectiveness, the latter were testing these ideas against actual practice in order to promote the development of better … language planning module" (Ricento, 2009). Such a field would be better described as "language policy and planning (LPP)" (Ricento, 2009).

Schiffman (1996:30) categorised language policy in the following ways:

**Bilingualism or trilingualism policies**: A policy favouring the two official languages is a policy of bilingualism. There are a variety of ways in which these policies can be applied. For example, in the case of bilingualism policy, an institution can offer tuition in two languages to the same individual while in the case of trilingualism policy tuition can be offered in three languages to the one individual. Tait (2007: 38-39) provides the following ways in which these policies can be applied:

- Based **on non-territorialised individual rights**: A policy of bilingualism based on non-territorialised individual rights recognises the same rights to all members of the community whatever their location on the national teritorry. Countries which are examples of these are South Africa, Tanzania, Kenya, Canada, Ireland, Norway, Hong Kong and New Zealand.
- Based **on territorialised individual rights**: A language policy based on territorialised individual rights recognises the same rights to all members of the community within a specific region. Countries which are examples of these are Finland, Northern Ireland, Scotland and Hawaii.

- **Based on territorialised rights**: The rights to use a particular language may be restricted to a particular nation or certain domains within a restricted territory. Countries practising this are Switzerland, Cameroon and Belgium.

**Covert versus overt policies**: Covert policies are *de facto*, unstated, customary, traditional, grassroots, and implicit without having any written support in legal documents. The term *covert* here refers to a covered or hidden kind of policy. Shohamy (2006:50) referred to these kinds of policies as policies that are “implicit, informal, unstated, *de facto*, grassroots, and latent”.

Overt policies are *de jure*, explicitly constitutional, statutory, specific and which are specifically and legally defined. Overt policies also refer to a document which has been compiled by the authorities of an institution as a country to regulate the use of language falling under their authority. Such a policy also determines what languages are to be used. Overt policy is the kind of policy that is written and publicised (Shohamy, 2006).

Overt policy is set to be explicit but that does not mean that it is explicit. It will be implemented as there are times when language use is in opposition with stated policies. The South African language policy for universities is a good example of that and it is discussed later in the chapter. Nyaga (2013:28) attested that this “language policy supports functional multilingualism, but monolingualism in English seem to be favoured in the implementation of the policy”. Thus, Schiffman (1996) advocated for a study of language policies that incorporates both the overtly declared policies and the covert defector language policies as this will show the ‘cleavages’ that occur between the two.

**Egalitarian versus restricted**: Egalitarian policy treats languages, even of a small minority as totally equal, always putting both (or all) languages on an equal footing, addressing all citizens as if they are bilingual (Schiffman, 1996:3).

Restricted policies are not as open and equal for all.

### 3.3.2 Basic principles for language policy

According to Tait (2007: 40), in accordance with the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, the basis for a well-constructed language policy consists of the following important principles:

- Promoting and protecting linguistic and cultural diversity.
- Supporting democracy through the entrenchment of language equity and language rights.
- Asserting the view that multilingualism is a resource.
- Redressing the marginalisation of indigenous languages.
- Encouraging the learning of other South African languages.

The following discussion will present facts about the language policy requirements.

## 3.4 LANGUAGE POLICY REQUIREMENTS

The language policy must adhere to the contents of the Constitution on language as a human right and is important to the management of our country's diverse language resources, the accomplishment of government goals for the promotion of national unity, equity, democracy and addressing the language use, needs and priorities of South Africans (Tait, 2007).

This would mean that multilingualism is a priority for South Africans to have a functional language policy. Webb (2004) maintains that the functional language policy will have to meet the following requirements:

- Development of an efficient language industry which will include new terms.
- Encouraging provision of enough infrastructures for to be used for teaching native languages.
- Providing competent financial support for the accomplishment of the language policy.
- Stimulating the private sector to promote, encourage and put into practice a policy of multilingualism.
- Promoting demand for the learning and teaching of African languages.

- Encouraging the emphasis on the marginalised languages and sign languages. The marginalised languages include Khoi and the San languages.

Based on the mentioned requirements, Ricento (2009:83) documented “that language corpus and language policy is always largely ignored because of the actual cost of coining new vocabulary or engaging in spelling reform is comparatively modest, by contrast elevating a language to official status or on the other hand introducing another language as a medium of instruction in the education system, is likely to be a much costlier policy decision – and hence one that does deserve attention”.

Tait (2007: 40-41) maintains that adhering to the South African Constitution, the basic requirements for a language policy for South Africa have to be:

- consistent with the constitutional provisions on language, including those relating to language as human right, and are
- fundamental to the management of our language resources, the achievement of government goals for the promotion of democracy, equity and national unity, and addressing the language use, needs and priorities of the people of South Africa.

This would mean putting into practice a functional language policy which recognises the indigenous languages. Tait (2007: 41) further maintains that such a language policy would have to be aligned with the Constitution and the requirements would include:

- Supporting the development of human resources with a view to implement the policy of multilingualism.
- Professionalisation of the activities of language practitioners through legislation.
- Development of an efficient language industry by using and developing appropriate technology.
- Special redress for the alienated languages, including the sign language/s.
- Providing adequate financial support for the functional language policy.

## 3.5 MODELS OF LANGUAGE PLANNING

The following discussion is about language planning models, decision-making theory and language marketing theory.

### 3.5.1 Language planning – Haugen's model

Haugen (1966, 1983) proposed a language planning models that has come to be known as the "Language Planning Processes Models". Arguably, the model forms the basis of many language planning models (Mwaniki, 2004). The model indicates that the activities which make up the language planning process can be viewed from either a societal or language focus. "The societal focus is called 'status planning' and consists of those decisions a society must make about language selection and the implementation to choose and disseminate the language or languages selected. The language focus is called 'corpus planning' and consists of linguistic decisions which need to be made to codify and elaborate a language or languages. These two foci form the basis for an overview of all the activities which make up the language planning process. The model can be examined in terms of form or policy planning, with its emphasis on basic language and policy decisions and their implementation, or on function or language cultivation, with its emphasis on language teaching and extended language development and use" (Kaplan and Baldauf 1997: 29).

The language planning model has dominated discussion on language planning since it was first introduced by Einar Haugen in the mid-1960s, as he was a pioneer in the field of language planning (Haugen, 1966). In one of his works, Haugen (1997:341) dealt with what he termed the "taxonomy of linguistic description", which is hindered by the ambiguities and obscurities attached to the term's *language* and *dialect*.

Haugen (1997) defined his model as follows: Selection of norm; codification of form; elaboration of function and acceptance by the community.

- Selection refers to a language or a variety, which will be developed for broader communication.
- Codification, also known as corpus planning, refers to developing the form of a language, its linguistic structure, including phonology, grammar, and lexicon

- Elaboration refers to the scale of the utilisation in writing. Both codification and elaboration are distinct (Haugen, 1997:348).

Haugen (1997:348) argued that codification may be defined as minimal variation in form, elaboration as maximal variation in function. He further stated that codification of form is inherently delimiting, the elaboration of function counterbalances it. Adding on selection of norm, Haugen claimed that it is important because the success of elaboration or codification depends on it.

Acceptance, according to Haugen's model, is "part of the life of a language" (Haugen,1997:350). He specified that selection of norm and codification "refer primarily to form" and elaboration of function and acceptance by community to "the function of language" (Haugen,1997:350). Selection of norm and acceptance by community "are concerned with society" and codification and elaboration of function are concerned "with language" (Haugen,1997:350-351).

Haugen was of the opinion that "nothing in the literature on language planning can make him reject his model as a framework for the starting point of language planners everywhere" (Haugen, 1983:269).

The strength of Haugen's model is based on the fact that it aims to combine the historical-structural model with the neoclassic model. The neoclassic model is when he maintained that language planning is about systematising a language in which the written word that is taught precedes the spoken word (Zaidi, 2013). He believed that language must be based on its literary form. Haugen was not oblivious of the importance of norms of society and their influence on linguistics, but purely on language and the planning thereof. He pointed out that if "dialects are to be tolerated, the teaching of tolerance must begin with other and more basic features of inequality in society than the purely linguistic one" (Zaidi, 2013:12). He continued to say that "whenever language problems have appeared, there has been some form of what we have chosen to call 'language planning', a form of social planning" (Haugen, 1985:7).

#### *3.5.1.1 Critical issues in language planning*

Language planning goes with a lot of questions such as: By whom is language planned? Why is it planned? If it is planned, for who? Zaidi (2013) spoke of hidden ideologies in language planning. Zaidi further looked at language planning as having a lot to do with control by a country or an organisation at the same time creating a class of subalterns. The family, according to him, also has a role to play in language planning. Zaidi (2013) left us with a question: Does language planning empower anyone, and if yes, who?

Terdiman (1985:38) argued that language is “always engaged with the realities of power”. He supported his opinion by stating that in the post-World War I scenario, the German language was almost wiped out from school in the United States. Between 1915 and 1948, students registering for German dropped from 25% to 1% (Leibowitz cited by Wiley, 1996:132). The reason behind this drop was the hegemony of English in Germany. The researcher shares the same sentiment as the above idea when looking at the status of the indigenous languages at our South African universities. These languages are on the verge of being wiped out because of the English hegemony in our institutions, as indicated, for example, by the decline in student enrolments leading to the closure of African Language departments at many universities (Alexander, 2003; Thamaga-Chitjaj & Mbatha, 2012).

Language policies at our South African institutions are promoting English to be the monolingual language of learning and teaching. This is supported by David (2008:79) when he stated that “there is a nexus between language management and language shift (LMLS), and language planning. There are several reasons for language shift and death. Apart from natural disasters resulting in the death of a speech community, many man-made factors that can cause language shift and death is language policies” (David, 2008:79).

Tollefson (1995), on the other hand, argued that language policies are both the outcome and arena of power struggle. Tollefson (1995), as well as Watson-Gegeo and Gegeo (1995), in their respective chapters in *Power and Equality in Language Education*, tried to unravel the hidden agenda in language policies. Tollefson (1995) found that English was dominating in Kenya while Watson-Gegeo and Gegeo (1995) found that English was dominating in Solomon Islands. English, in the words of Pennycook (1995), has become a very powerful means of inclusion and exclusion. In agreement with Pennycook, the South African Language Policy for Higher Education (2002) categorically states that language has been and continues to be a barrier to access and success in higher education, both in a sense that African and other languages have not been developed as academic/scientific languages, in so far as many students entering higher education are not proficient in English and Afrikaans. The researcher has also observed that English in South African institutions of higher learning remains a prerequisite for students to be considered for studying.

Pennycook (1995) raised his concern that in Kenya, English is dominating despite Swahili's status of being the official national language. He further made an example that in the Solomon Islands, English is spoken by less than 20% of the population, and yet it is a requirement for higher jobs in public and private sectors. To these scholars, "this is undermining traditional sources of knowledge, growing inequalities between urban and rural areas, and emergence of social classes" (Watson-Gegeo & Gegeo, 1995:66). The researcher concurs with the idea of undermining traditional resources of knowledge. Taking into cognisance that in South Africa English is dominating, yet only 9.6% of the population are people whose home language is English, with isiZulu spoken by 22.7% of the South African population. On the other hand, Phillipson and Skutnabb-Kangas (1977:116), as well as Kaplan and Baldauf (1997), have argued that the home is a quintessential site for micro language planning. Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) termed it "micro planning", while Omoniyi (2010) referred to it as "micro language literacy planning". These scholars were concerned about parents who forbid the speaking of a home language at home, preferring English or any foreign language. They further indicated that an indication for such language planning in the home can be extremely destructive for the language which has been prohibited.

#### *3.5.1.2 Post-coloniality and language planning*

Most of the nations who executed language planning were former colonies of different Western powers. Countries such as Malaysia, Tanzania and Namibia developed slogans aimed at building new nations in favour of local languages at the expense of the language of the colonisers (Fierman, 1991). Basing his argument on the preceding argument, Fierman (1991) posited that there is no distinction between politicians and language planners. He referred to language planners as politicians who do not always divulge the motivation force that highlight their undertaking. Their "actions frequently produce unexpected results and the environment in which their policies are implemented may include factors which they did not adequately anticipate" (Fierman, 1991:5). The researcher concurs with Fierman's point of view, because in South Africa the situation is the same. The language that is used for learning and teaching in schools and institutions of higher learning is decided by the government of the day. In South Africa, English remains a prestigious language and a language of political economic mobility in which the aristocratic people educate their children (Toffelson, 1986; Watson, 1983; Zvengler, 1985). Du Plessis (2005) sees the language policies for universities in South Africa as having shifted from bilingual and parallel to monolingual, with English as the soul language of learning and teaching.

#### *3.5.1.3 Summary of Haugen's model of language planning*

In Zaidi's words (2013), it may be argued that if one language is promoted at the expense of other language(s), it means that language planning is planning imbalance in socio-linguistic economic terms. Language planning has not been smooth sailing because in Wardhough's words, it is a deliberate "human intervention into natural processes of language change, diffusion and erosion" (Wardhaugh, 2010:379).

The researcher concurs with Wardhaugh in claiming that if language planning is about subalternisation of certain languages and privileging of the languages of the powerful elites, indigenous languages will slowly become extinct.

### 3.5.2 Decision-making theory in language planning models

Decision-making theory deals with decisions involving language planning. "A great deal of language planning theory has an economic base, particularly with respect to the theory behind the decisions and to the alternative courses of action considered in language planning" (Eastman 1983: 134). "Most language planning researchers conceive of language planning as a practical, action-oriented field (as applied to sociolinguistics), which would necessarily rest on theoretical concepts of how decisions involving language are made so that they reflect a composite urge articulated by the community" (Jernudd & Das Gupta 1971: 198, cited in Eastman 1983: 134). However, decisions about language do not always reflect what the community wants. Tauli (1968) identifies planning with "abstract linguistic thought" and sees it as sensitive to what the linguists or the authorities want, regardless of what the community wants. In his opinion, language planning should not do what the people want. Language planning "is identified with an expert enterprise motivated by abstract ideals of a selected, albeit deeply concerned group of linguists" (Jernudd & Das Gupta 1971: 198, cited in Eastman 1983: 134 – 135).

One of the language planning models that use decision-making theory or aspects of decision-making theory is the "Cost-benefit Analysis Model" developed by Thornburn (1971). This model formed the foundation for development of economics of language as an aspect of language planning. The model constitutes of three basic components, namely: inputs; outputs; and consequences of outputs. "At the input end of the model, decisions and choices have to be made about the languages to be taught because the decisions and/or choices made have a marked impact on the cost, both to the state as the provider of teaching personnel, and language teaching materials. The decisions or choices made at the supra level of policymaking with regard to the language(s) to be taught to learners carry cost imperatives to learners and households, or what may be termed as the micro level. At the micro level, learners and households have to make decisions and choices with regard to the cost they can incur in the process of acquiring language(s)" (Mwaniki, 2004:115).

Mwaniki (2004:115) commented that the output of this model is also grounded in decision-making theory, especially as encapsulated in 'spread hypothesis'. Spread hypothesis, which was proposed by the language planning scholars Bjorn Jernudd and Jyotirindra Das Gupta, refers to the degree of 'language products' resulting from decisions about language. The spread hypothesis holds that for planning to be successful, alternatives must be chosen to ensure that the decision has an effect on the social use of language products. It also holds that successful planning will forecast what language products will spread and how they will spread, so that uncertainty about how the decision will affect language use will be reduced Mwaniki (2004). The rationale behind judging spread alternatives is to come up with a language plan that is the best alternative, allowing people to recognise, accept and use 'certain language products' (Jernudd and Das Gupta 1971: 206). Mwaniki (2004:115) further stated that as the consequence of output end of this model "it is thus posited that the 'measurable' of 'knowledge' of either the language of wider communication or national language as encapsulated in this model is a relative concept whose only benchmark of determination are decisions and/or choices predetermined as constituting ‘knowledge’ of either the language of wider communication or national language”.

Eastman (1983: 140) observes that “both the spread hypothesis and cost-benefit analysis view language planning as rooted in decision-making. Both approaches to decision-making forms of planning are necessarily goal oriented. Eastman (1983: 139) further observes that “cost-benefit analysis theory, as well as its application in practice to language planning, is a useful way for planners to provide support for the final decisions they recommend and for authorities (such as politicians) to back up the choice made as the chosen language plans are implemented. In short, a cost-benefit analysis of language-choice alternatives shows which language will cost less money when implemented. It shows which measurable future quantification of further differences between the choices will be – at least for the near future. Cost-benefit analysis also provides some indications of which language is best, given the goals of the authority requiring a choice”. A similar approach of using “Cost-benefit Analysis Model” is evident with the universities when deciding on the LOLT.

Haarman (1990:20) proposed a model of language planning which is referred to as “the methodological framework for language planning”. Haarman’s framework (1990) proposed a new range of language planning functions that he refers to as ‘prestige planning’. In his model he emphasised that any kind of planning has to attract positive values, namely that planning activities must have such prestige as to guarantee a favourable engagement on the part of the planners, and moreover on the part of those who are supposed to use the planned language (Haarman, 1990:104).

Haarman (1990:106) posited that in its very essence “language planning is a process rather than a state of affairs. Any sociolinguistic approach to applied methodological matters in this field should aim al illustrating the processual character of planning. It would be too simplistic to view planning activities in the light of temporary process which ends once the intended objectives of corpus and/or status planning have been achieved. In its ideal form, language planning is a continuous activity of controlling language variation under changing societal conditions.”

Haarman (1990:20) furthermore developed an “ideal typology of language cultivation and language planning”. The typology specifies the three functions of language planning, namely language status planning, language prestige planning, and language corpus planning. The typology also outlines the ranges of language planning. Bamgbose (1989) defined corpus planning as those aspects of language planning which are primarily linguistic and, hence, internal to language aspects that fall under corpus, aspects such as vocabulary, pronunciation, spelling, and reform style. Haarmann, 1990: 104) refers to prestige planning as any kind of planning that attract positive values and have such “prestige as to guarantee a favourable engagement on the part of the planners and, moreover, on the part of those who are supposed to use the planned language”. With regard to status planning, Wright (2004:43) posited that status planning concerns itself with the choice or varieties that will become the official language of the state, particularly the medium of institutions, which means the language of the state automatically has an influence on the language policies of institutions of higher learning. Wright referred to the language as an “official language of the state as power and social mobility”.

Haarman (1990:20) spoke of the typology which outlines the ranges of language cultivation which incorporates group activities and activities of individuals. The range of activities are presented in a continuum of efficiency in terms of organisational input, with the activities of individuals having the minimum impact at the lower end of the continuum of efficiency, and governmental activities having the maximum impact at the upper end of the continuum of efficiency.

### 3.5.3 Language marketing model

This model is proposed by Dominguez (1998:1) who argues that language is a tool or a resource for communication, an expression of personality and a signal of identity. Mwaniki (2004:112) cited Dominguez (1998), as saying that “from the perspective of marketing, language may also be considered as an intangible product or, at least, a complementary or auxiliary product”. Dominguez (1998) defined products as “the solution to a problem” or “what meets a conscious or unconscious need”. Dominguez (1998) further observed that there are three essential elements in the strategic marketing plan:

1) The customer (intermediate or final).
2) The uncontrollable variables (the sociocultural and economic environments and the competitors).

3) The variables controllable by planners, that is, the techniques or policies of the product, distribution, promotion and price.

Determinants or uncontrollable variables are external conditions influencing the results of marketing activities. Their knowledge is indispensable, because for the achievement of intended objectives, the actions to be developed and the techniques to be used must be different, just as the determinants are, in each case. Equally, the same technique will produce different results according to the determinants, depending on the linguistic contexts. The customer or the speaker of a language(s) is also a determinant. Dominguez (1998) stated that the language marketing model also includes the other aspect of the decision-making theory, namely the “spread hypothesis”. The spread hypothesis refers to the degree of actual use of ‘language products’ resulting from decisions about language. The spread hypothesis holds that for planning to be successful, alternatives must be chosen to ensure that the decision has an effect on the social use of the language products. It holds that successful planning will forecast what language products will be spread and how they will spread so that uncertainty about how the decision will affect language will be reduced.

The new managerial approach emerged in the 1980s and came into being in response to what was regarded as the inadequacies of the traditional model of administration. The approach may alleviate some of the problems of the earlier model of public administration. There is a general agreement as to actual changes that are involved from the traditional administrative model (Hugher, 2003:44).

The following discussion will be on the types of language planning.

## 3.6 TYPES OF LANGUAGE PLANNING

Different authors see language planning as an organised effort which aims to address language issues in a multilingual setting. Both Cooper (1989) and Fishman (1973) defined language planning as a non-ending process that needs to be revised at intervals. Weinstein (1980:55) saw “language planning as a government authorised long term sustained and conscious effort to alter a language itself or to change a language’s functions in a society for the purpose of solving communication problems”. Language planners in their process of achieving language goals engage in a variety of activities with the aim of improving usage, image and esteem of language. Different activities bring about different types of language planning. The three subdivisions of language planning will be discussed in the following sub-sections.

### 3.6.1 Status planning

"Status planning consists of decisions a society must make about language selection and the implementation to choose and disseminate the languages selected" (Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997: 29). It deals with implementation of language policies through the mass media and education. According to Dogancay-Aktuna (1997) status planning deals mainly with official languages that are representing the state. The choice of language of teaching and learning always lies with the state. Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) further refers to status planning as the activities which make up the language planning process that can be viewed from either a society's or a language focus. It consists of the decisions a society must make about language selection and the implementation to choose to disseminate the language or languages selected. Ridge (1996) defined status planning as the aspects of language planning which primarily reflect social issues and concerns and, hence, are external to the language(s) being planned. The two models that deal with this are language selection and language implementation.

### 3.6.2 Corpus planning

"Corpus planning has to do with modification of words, creation of new words, reforming, spelling and adopting a new script" (Cooper, 1989:31). Bamgbose (1991) saw corpus planning as the steps taken to ensure that a language, which is its structure, spelling and vocabulary, is modified to conform to the demands made of it by its functions, namely orthographic innovation including design, harmonisation, spelling reform; pronunciation; changes in language structure; vocabulary expansion; simplification of registers; style; and the preparation of language material (Bamgbose, 1989).

Linguists such as Mattheier and Panzer (1992) categorised corpus planning according to the following themes.

#### *3.6.2.1 Codification*

This has to do with standardisation procedures needed to develop and formalise a linguistic and usually literate set of language norms (Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997). Codification is usually performed by individuals with linguistic learning who explicitly decide on the linguistic form the language has to take. Haugen (1966) referred to the initiation in the case of linguistic form as the selection of a norm in implementation as the codification of form. This implementation is seen as the acceptance by the community.

#### *3.6.2.2 Graphisation*

This is considered the first step in the standardisation of a language. "Writing systems employ an alphabet, syllabary or a system of ideograms. These systems provide the basis on which literacy materials can be established and have the potential to reduce the linguistic variation in a language community" (Wurm, 1994a).

#### *3.6.2.3 Grammaticisation*

This involves the extraction and formulation of rules that describe how language is structured (Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997). Most of the grammars developed have been prescriptive and done according to the variety of the language, especially those used in schooling or for literacy development.

#### *3.6.2.4 Lexicalisation*

This refers to the selection and development of an appropriate lexicon. This also involves the assignment of styles and spheres of usage for the words of the language (Haugen, 1983). Lexicalisation may specify how words are used in a particular domain.

#### *3.6.2.5 Terminological modernisation*

This involves "the development of new lexical items or terminology for a language. This is undoubtedly one of the areas which have generated the most discussions within corpus planning. This is the area that will need a lot of advancement in our South African universities if the indigenous languages are to become languages of learning and teaching" (Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997:44).

#### *3.6.2.6 Stylistic development*

Stylistic development implies that a language is more than the sum of its lexical, grammatical and syntactic parts (Gee, 1992). Each language has its own discourses appropriate for each of the domains in which it is used. Stylistic development signals recognition that, without appropriate development of linguistic styles in those domains important to a language it is not fully able to meet all the demands placed upon it (Gee, 1992).

### 3.6.3 Acquisition planning

Acquisition planning has to do with setting the language goals in the education system that deals with the totality of language education, such as target languages, the attitudes to be generated and the skills developed, as well as the levels of proficiency desired for each of the target languages (Ingram, 1989). Acquisition planning is also involved in the learning and teaching in a second language, home language education and bilingual education (Jones, 2001).

The following discussion will be on the theoretical framework of language planning theory, the language planning orientation model and language management theory.

## 3.7 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF LANGUAGE PLANNING THEORY

Language is an emotional matter; opposition to a language can become violent. A good example of this is the 1976 Soweto uprisings where the learners revolted against the use of Afrikaans as a language of learning and teaching. In the case where a local vernacular is chosen, that vernacular may not be standardised. Decisions must be made regarding the variety of the local vernacular that will be 'officialised' (Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997). It is further possible that the local vernacular will not have a standardised lexicon and/or standardised grammar. It is also possible that the local variety may not have standardised orthography and it is also possible that the lexicon of the local vernacular may not be particularly well-suited to the needs of a modernising society; new lexical items may need to be created to facilitate the ability of the language to deal with modern concepts, particularly in education (Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997:35).

Language modernisation is a time-consuming and resource-intensive process, as is the translation of key materials into a new language. The fact is that most scientific and technical information available in the major global storage and retrieval networks occurs in one of a very few languages (i.e., English, French, German and Russian). For complex historical reasons it is presently the case that the vast majority of scientific and technical texts are published in English and data bases, and most of them are organised using an English sociology of knowledge. These facts make English and the other so-called ‘world languages’ important competitors for the position as national language, or as a language with some official status (Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997).

The decision of choosing a language is not always an easy one. The former colonial language spoken by the elite, and probably providing access to the larger modern world, may not be a good choice if an objective of the choice is to facilitate national unity, since the colonial language may be regarded as a symbol of oppression by other people, and it might not be the language of the masses (Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997). Another question is if it is not a foreign language, then which of the indigenous languages? (Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997:33). Other types of dominance include the language of the capital city, the language of the wealthiest group, and the language of the most powerful group, usually the military or the language of the political elite (Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997).

The above discussion suggests that there are many factors that come into play in the process of choosing a language, for example, the information such as understanding the segments of the population that speak the language and the register they use. It also has a lot to do with an understanding of the emotional attitudes of the population with respect to home language speakers. The choice of a language is usually a problem because the native speakers of a particular language always have a clear advantage. They do not have to learn that language, they have a native facility in the language, and they have easy access to the best jobs. All other groups are, by definition, disadvantaged and will oppose the choice. The above idea is one of the reasons why universities have a problem with their language policies. In the case of the historically Afrikaans universities, native speakers of Afrikaans have always been at an advantage over their counterparts because to them Afrikaans is their home language.

For language implementation, the introduction or the advancement of a language always needs the educational sector to disseminate and store the teaching materials prepared, for example dictionaries and grammar books. After implementation, it is equally important to monitor and evaluate the success of the strategies and the progress shown towards implementation. Such an evaluation should constitute an ongoing process and feedback must always be provided (Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997).

## 3.8 LANGUAGE PLANNING ORIENTATIONS MODEL

The language planning orientations model was introduced by Ruiz in 1984. The aim behind introducing this model was to “promote cultural democracy and social justice” (Ruiz, 2010:167). This model is relevant for this study because it accounts for the role played by attitudes towards language and its roles, and also the role played by languages in a society, including institutions of higher learning and its usability in understanding language use and choices in multilingual contexts (Ruiz, 1984).

Ruiz (1984), in his influential article on orientations in language planning, pointed out strengths and shortcomings of language as a problem, a right and as a resource. He spoke of promotion of cultural democracy and social justice which accounts for the role that the attitudes play “towards language and its role, and towards languages and their roles in society”. According to Ruiz (1984:16), attitudes may be pre-rational and unconscious, and he argued that “orientations are related to language attitudes in that they constitute the framework in which attitudes are formed and determine what is thinkable about language in society”. According to Ruiz (1984), there are of two kinds of orientations, namely normative (evaluative) and descriptive (have a particular view about language itself). The three language orientations that Ruiz (1984: 16) discussed are language as a problem, language as a right and language as a resource, which are discussed in the following sub-sections.

### 3.8.1 Language as a problem

This lens remains a useful tool in examining our national language learning policies McNelly (2015). Ochoa (1995), on the other hand, bemoaned educators who view students with a deficit in their ability to think and learn, and he refers to them as proponents of monolingual or English-only educators. Monolingual language policy programmes favour learning the dominant language at the expense of losing their (learners') home language and promote an assimilation agenda. Ochoa (1995) further stated that this is the most common form of bilingual education in the United States. In South Africa and worldwide globalisation has led to the Anglicisation of higher education (Borman & Potgieter, 2017). Many institutions of higher learning use English in their language policy because it has the appearance of being congruent with success in the capitalistic market economy. Policies at the school and school system level generally do not include any discussion surrounding the history and culture of students who participate in monolingual language programmes. These education policies discontinue home language instruction when it is assumed that students have attained sufficient proficiency in the school's language of instruction (Ruiz, 1984). Policies within some school systems in the United States may invoke 'sink or swim' immersion into exclusive dominant language classrooms (Baker, 2011). Ruiz furthermore stated that in this instance, there is limited, no English as a second language (ESL) programme, or no bilingual programme at all. I concur with Ruiz on this. This is usually the case for first-year students in South Africa who come from high schools with very low English language proficiency and have to learn the new modules in English.

Skutnabb-Kangas (1988), however, argued that regarding the issue of indigenous languages, the responsibility of education should be that of advocating for the use of indigenous languages as well as offering practical strategies for the realisation of such goals. These practical strategies for using indigenous languages are suggested in the policy for higher education but are not utilised in education.

### 3.8.2 Language as a right

Everyone has the right to use the language of their choice and to participate in the cultural life of their choice, but no one exercising these rights may do so in a manner without taking the provision of the Bill of Rights (section 30 of the Constitution, 3.1.2 language policy) into consideration.

Language as a right can be defined in terms of personal, human, and legal or constitutional rights. Izsak (2013: 9), in her report to the United Nations Human Rights Council in Geneva, stated as follows: “Language is particularly important to linguistic minority communities seeking to maintain their distinct group and cultural identity, sometimes under conditions of marginalization, exclusion and discrimination.” Izsak further stated that “the protection of linguistic minority rights is a human rights obligation”. Giles, Bourhis and Taylor (1997) believed that language often serves as the most important symbol of ethnic identities. Language, furthermore, often constitutes the main ground for the politics of identity and group demands for recognition which in recent years have become important factors in political dynamics (Kymlicka, 1995).

Ruiz (1984:22) was of the opinion that language touches on many aspects of social life and found that linguistic discrimination is tantamount to discrimination in other aspects of social life touched by language. Ruiz (2010) further argued that unless one acknowledges language as a good thing (a resource) it is impossible to affirm anyone’s right to it. One has to recognise language as a resource before he can affirm anyone’s rights to that language. Darder (2011) believed that any changes toward the advancement of bilingual education need to be considered very carefully and implemented gradually. Language right issues date back to the 1976 protest against the Afrikaans language policy of the former National Party government, which led to more than 100 deaths across the country. Even today, in post-apartheid South Africa, many white Afrikaans-speaking persons feel that the government is conducting an active anti-Afrikaans campaign. This is evident from the “court and civil actions being taken by members of the Afrikaans-speaking community to ensure the retention of single-medium Afrikaans schools and parallel-medium universities” (Webb, 2005:12-13). Other signs of ethnolinguistic-related tensions and unhappiness in South Africa are the African National Congress’s actions in changing the names of towns, cities and streets in the country. To add on these language rights is the large number of complaints submitted to PanSALB about the perceived violation of language rights, of which 80% are directed against state departments, the establishment of a committee for marginalised languages, and the movement among the Khoisan communities to revive their cultural distinctiveness as “first people” (Webb 2002:12-13).

Dunbar (2002) attested that language rights are an important issue, especially since they are “fundamental constituent elements of personal identity”. He further stated that language rights are important for recognising “equality of respect and recognition” and emphasised the dignity and integrity of a person and individuals’ fundamental rights to autonomy, self-determination and self-development.

The foregoing argument puts emphasis on the role played by language in a person’s self-esteem, which is one of the reasons why language policy management in universities poses problems. All human beings want to preserve their languages and the question is: Which language policy will be the best for South African universities?

### 3.8.3 Language as a resource

Literature indicates that the notion of language as a resource has been part of language planning for decades (Ruiz, 2010). Language as a resource chooses a pluralistic society over assimilation (McNelly, 2015). Language as a resource is an asset to a community and is useful in building economic and social bridges across different communities. It can be seen as a way of eliminating the tensions that arise when discussing language as a problem and as a right. Language as a resource allows individuals and groups to play a greater role in world politics and the world economy (Ruiz, 1984). It is the preservation of heritage languages and promotes tolerance and cooperation between groups and is the control element and expression of identity (Baker, 2011; Ruiz, 1984; UN News Centre, 2013). Language as a resource cultivates cultural, spiritual and educational growth for economic, commercial and political gain (Baker, 2011; Ruiz, 1984).

Language is furthermore seen as an essential component of working towards reaching a pluralistic society. It is a resource which enables participants within a society the freedom to communicate with individuals outside of their community. Language functions as a way of affirming and empowering cultural ideologies and beliefs (Darder, 2011). Ruiz (1984) looked at language as a personal and national resource where the importance rests on the communicative and identity values attached to it by its speakers. This orientation seeks to develop languages as resources in cognisance of the fact that lack of use, rather than use of such resource, leads to exhaustion (Hornberger & Ricento, 1996), which is equitable to destruction of “existing resources through mismanagement and repression” (Ruiz, 1984:26).

Lo Bianco (2001:4) asserted that “language in its widest sense can be thought of as a personal resource and an asset”, and s goes further to state that a society can cultivate and develop a community by ensuring that many voices can be heard. Ruiz (1984:27), on the other hand, maintained that a “fuller development of a resource-oriented approach to language planning could help to reshape attitudes about language and language groups”. “Such an approach would not only begin with the assumption that language is a resource to be managed, developed and conserved, [but also] would tend to regard language minority communities as sources of expertise” (Ruiz, 1984:28), to further the course of language learning and multilingualism in multilingual contexts. Van der Meeren (2005:311) has added that a language becomes a resource when it is utilised in a way to promote strategic advantage of either the global or subsidiary level. Again, a language represents a barrier when it effectively prevents strategic advantage. Therefore, this shows that languages can represent both a resource and a barrier at the same time. Van der Meeren (2005) further documented that in such situations, institutions may conduct cost/benefit analysis to determine whether adoption of a particular language within a particular group creates value for the institution or organisation.

The three orientations, namely, language as a problem, language as a right and language as a resource may appear to be competing; they are not incompatible. Nyaga (2013:27) and Ruiz (1984:18) found that where one orientation could be more desirable than another in a specific context, having a ‘repertoire of orientations’ from which to draw could be most desirable.

The foregoing discussion encouraged us to approach bilingual education with language resource policy and planning because it “will only contribute to a greater social cohesion and cooperation” (Ruiz, 1984:28).

The following discussion is on language management in South Africa after the apartheid period which will then deal with a language management approach as one of the ways of finding solutions to language policy management in institutions of higher learning in South Africa.

## 3.9 LANGUAGE MANAGEMENT THEORY

Language management theory has long been developing with the key author being Neustupný, who has written extensively on the subject dating back to the year 1970. Language management has its origins in the 'language correction' theory developed in the 1970s and 1980s mainly by Jernudd and Neustupný. Language management grew as an extension and adjustment of language planning theory. Management refers to a wide range of acts of attention to language problems. "In the language planning theory of the 1960s, 1970s and 1980s, 'language problems' were viewed in the narrow sense of the word" (Mwaniki, 2010:261). Current language management theory aims to incorporate not only the whole of language defined in the traditional narrow sense, but a wide range of additional problems, implicating discourse and communication in intercultural contact situations (Neustupný & Nekvapil, 2003:185).

Neustupny and Nekvapil (2003) categorised management into organised and simple management of language. They refer to simple management as the management of problems as they appear in individual communication acts, for example the problem of spelling a particular word or how to redress the use of an expression a speaker has just uttered, but now considers not to be sufficiently polite.

Language management theory maintains that, in principle, language problems originate in simple management and from there are transferred to organised management. However, this does not mean that organised management would be a mere summary of simple management acts. Referring to language management, Mwaniki (2004:167) posited that "language management theory is a complex theoretical precept emanating from decision-making theory, socio linguistic theory, modernisation theory, systems theory, critical theory and management theory".

The theory of language management is relevant to this study because the study deals with university language management in South Africa, which deals a lot with how language policy can be properly managed.

Nekvapil (2009:2) distinguished between “simple management” and “organised management”. Simple management, according to him, is when a moderator in a television interview uses a colloquial expression and after pronouncing it, immediately adds the equivalent standard expression. He reflected to this as self-initiated self-repair. Organised management deals with more complex management processes, which are trans-situational, and sometimes demonstrate a lesser or a greater degree of organisation (Nekvapil, 2009). Another contributor to language management theory is Spolsky (2009), who stated that language policy is all about choices, and the goal of a theory of language policy is to account for the choices made by the individual speakers on the basis of speech recognised by the community (or communities) of which they are members. Some of the choices are the results of management, reflecting conscious and expecting efforts by language managers to control the choices (Spolsky, 2009:1-2).

Language management theory originated as a theory focused on language problems which arise during actual interactions. Neustupný (2003) maintained that the language management theory researcher is supposed to keep as close to interaction as possible in order to evaluate and understand the dynamics of the interaction and put observed problems into perspective. Language problems must be seen within the context of communication problems and within the context of interaction problems. The ultimate purpose of such interaction is to observe to take evaluated problems and make them objects of adjustment designs, which may be implemented in future interactions. Nekvapil and Nekula (2006) noted that in language management, social structure is the macro focus, while interaction is the micro focus. They identified the relationship between micro and macro in language management theory as dialectical. In particular interactions, the participants first recognisably orient themselves towards social structures and thereby reproduce them, and second, that in particular interactions the participants contribute to the transformation of these structures.

The following discussion will be on language policy management based on the six historically Afrikaans universities. The discussion will include strengths and limitations of the language policies in these universities, and the recent developments taking place in these universities will also be highlighted.

## 3.10 ANALYSIS OF UNIVERSITY LANGUAGE POLICIES IN SOUTH AFRICA

### 3.10.1 An analysis of the language policies of historically Afrikaans universities

The analysis includes only the South African former historically Afrikaans universities. The criterion used for selecting these six universities is that this research is a case study conducted at a University of Technology, which falls under the historically Afrikaans institutions.

### 3.10.2 The University of Johannesburg Language Policy (2019)

The council of the University of Johannesburg approved the University Language Policy in September 2019.

#### *3.10.2.1 Principles*

The UJ Language Policy is informed by the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 1996, the Higher Education Act, Act 101 of 1997, the Language Policy for Higher Education (2003), the Use of Official Languages Act, Act 12 of 2012, the UJ Institutional Stature (2012) and the UJ vision, mission and strategy goals and objectives.

University of Johannesburg recognised the following:

a) the rich multilingual nature of the Gauteng region;
b) the notion of functional multilingualism where the choice of using a particular language is determined by different contexts such as the purpose and nature of language use and communication;
c) the important role of language in promoting human dignity, and the transformation process required to build a free and just democracy;
d) the need to develop and study indigenous African languages of fields of academic study (UJ, 2006:5).

#### *3.10.2.2 Policy statement*

Sesotho sa Leboa (Northern Sotho), English, isiZulu (Zulu) and Afrikaans are designated as primary languages (Article 9, UJ Institutional Statute, 2012). The institutional use of these languages will be guided by the principle or functional multilingualism as elaborated upon in the language policy implementation plan (UJ, 2006: 5).

#### *3.10.2.3 Language of instruction*

All approved modules and programmes are offered in English and wherever possible and reasonably practicable, will also be offered in the other three designated languages.

UJ will adopt comprehensive measures to ensure that students have access to English academic literacy courses to facilitate the use of English as a tool for teaching and learning and for professional purposes (2006:5). Language conversational courses in isiZulu and Sesotho sa Leboa for staff and students started to be offered online from 2020.

#### *3.10.2.4 Working language(s)*

English is the primary language of internal governance, administration, marketing, and internal and external communication. (UJ, 2006:5). Supported by the policy provision of functional multilingualism, Sesotho sa Leboa, Afrikaans, and isiZulu.

#### *3.10.2.5 Future of designated languages*

Conditions will be created for the ongoing systematic elaboration / intellectualisation of isiZulu, Afrikaans and Sesotho sa Leboa, and the continued elaboration of Afrikaans as academic languages and languages of science (UJ, 2006:6).

#### *3.10.2.6 Revision of the policy*

The UJ language policy will be revised every five years, in consideration of the developments in the National Higher Education Language Policy Framework and UJ's own language dynamics among its students, staff and stakeholders (UJ, 2006:7).

### 3.10.3 The Central University of Technology, Free State Language Policy (2015)

#### *3.10.3.1 Principles*

The language policy is informed by the Higher Education Act, Act 101 of 1997, and the amendments thereto, the Language Policy for Higher Education (2002) and related legislative developments. It is also guided by South Africa's transformative agenda and legislative framework, the elements of which include, but are not limited to the following:

- Adherence to the tenets of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa.
- Accommodating multilingualism and diversity within the larger context of promoting a non-racial, non-sexist and multicultural environment, and
- Ensuring consistency with the image and vision of the institution in the usage and implementation of the language policy (CUT Language Policy, 2015:2).

#### *3.10.3.2 Policy statement*

CUT will, in all its endeavours, but within the limits of its mandate as a university of technology, reasonably accommodate multilingualism within the regional, national and international contexts within which CUT operates.

CUT will, whenever possible, promote indigenous languages in teaching and learning, within the context of individual consultation.

In the main, and subject to the relevant clauses below, the academic language and the language of all forms of institutional transaction will be English.

Within its budgetary and feasibility constraints, CUT will continue in its endeavours to empower its students and staff in English proficiency (CUT Language Policy, 2015:2).

#### *3.10.3.3 Language of instruction*

Official correspondence at CUT will be conducted in English … [which] includes, but is not limited to, official documents, memoranda, letters, and any documents and/or e-mails pertaining to CUT's business activities.

Notwithstanding the above, multilingualism will be accommodated to the extent that the staff members of CUT are allowed to correspond informally with one another on personal matters in their language preference.

English will be used as a language of general communication in all CUT endeavours. These include, but are not limited to, the following: meetings, workshops, seminars, training sessions, publications, invitations, magazines, notices and written announcements. The university logo should include the following languages: English, Sesotho and Afrikaans.

English will be the primary language used for both internal and external transactions such as telephone responses and face-to-face enquiries CUT Language Policy, 2015:9).

#### *3.10.3.4 Accommodating multilingualism*

English is the primary language that will be used in academic and institutional transactions, and other languages will only be accommodated as far as reasonably possible and set out in the policy (CUT Language Policy, 2015:9).

#### *3.10.3.5 Revision of the policy*

The CUT language policy will be revised every FIVE years, and in consideration of developments in the National Higher Education Language Policy Framework (2003) and CUT's own language dynamics amongst its students, staff and stakeholders (CUT, 2020).

### 3.10.4 University of the Free State Language Policy (2016)

#### *3.10.4.1 Principles*

The following principles inform the adoption of this policy:

> *"Diversity, equity, redress, reconciliation, and social justice.*
> *Practicability, cost-effectiveness, and justifiability.*
> *Support for academic literacy development at undergraduate level.*
> *Support for the development of multilingualism.*
> *Language as a resource for the university to achieve individual development and integration. Flexibility and inclusivity."*
> (UFS Language Policy, 2016:1).

#### *3.10.4.2 Policy statement*

English becomes the primary medium of instruction at undergraduate and postgraduate level on all three campuses.

Multilingualism is supported among other activities by an expanded tutorial system especially designed for first-year students. Tutorials take place in English, Afrikaans, and Sesotho in the same class on the Bloemfontein campus and in English, Sesotho and isiZulu on the QwaQwa campus.

In particular professional programmes such as teacher education and the training of students in Theology who wish to enter the ministry in traditional Afrikaans-speaking churches, where there is a clear market need, the parallel medium English-Afrikaans and Sesotho/isiZulu continues …

The primary formal language of the UFS administration will be English with sufficient flexibility for the eventual practice of multilingualism across the UFS (UFS Language Policy, 2016:1).

Undergraduate teaching and learning:

> *"South African Sign Language and Braille will continue to be supported by the UFS within budgetary and feasibility constraints."*

#### *3.10.4.3 Accommodating multilingualism*

Multilingualism resources "will be provided in the context of tutorials in order to support epistemological access for all students" (UFS Language Policy, 2016:1).

#### *3.10.4.4 Monitoring and revision*

The Language Committee will report annually on implementation and make recommendations to ensure the reasonable embedding of the policy into UFS policies, programmes and institutional culture (UFS, 2016:1).

### 3.10.5 North-West University Language Policy (2018)

#### *3.10.5.1 Principles*

Enhancement of access and success remains "the primary premise" for the language policy for "teaching-learning and assessment" at the NWU (NWU Language policy, 2018:3). This principle determines "the way in which the university implements functional multilingualism in the teaching and learning environment across all campuses" of the university. The NWU remains involved in the "quest for creative solutions in a national contribution towards the intellectualisation of multilingualism" (NWU Language Policy, 2018:3).

#### *3.10.5.2 Policy statement*

English and Afrikaans are used as primary languages of tuition. The language choice for research remains with the individual researchers and the decision is taken and carried out in consultation with the relevant research director.

Within the parameters of the principles of functional multilingualism, English, Setswana and Sesotho are employed as official languages of the NWU (NWU Language Policy, 2018:2-3).

Without the diminishment of the use of English and Afrikaans, Setswana and Sesotho must be developed by the university as languages of communication, and teaching and learning, and that the intellectualisation of multilingualism must be viewed as a development concept that needs to be given effect to in an organised and organic manner.

The language directorate involves itself in active ways in action research regarding the desirability (NWU Language Policy, 2018:3).

#### *3.10.5.3 Accommodating multilingualism*

In an attempt to enhance the multilingual competencies of staff and students, structures exist across the NWU aiming at "the improvement of individual multilingual skills within the academic, administrative and student environments".

Concerted efforts are made of each of the NWU campuses to implement Setswana and Sesotho for teaching–learning purposes; monitoring the effectiveness thereof and to report annually on the progress and outcomes of these projects.

The quality of language usage – spoken and written – is important to the NWU, which means that a set of workable guidelines is needed "to guide and gauge language standards" applicable to the NWU (NWU Language Policy, 2018:5).

#### *3.10.5.4 Monitoring and revision*

Revision will be done in the year 2021 (thereafter every five years) (NWU, 2018).

### 3.10.6 The University of Pretoria Language Policy (2019)

#### *3.10.6.1 Principles*

The UP language policy seeks to facilitate the provision of education of the highest quality to ensure post-university success for graduates and promote the University's local, regional and international standing through thriving scholarship; and promote inclusiveness and social cohesion, while guarding against exclusivity and marginalisation, and in this way contribute to creating an environment where all students and staff feel confident and comfortable and can enjoy a sense of *belonging* (UP Language Policy, 2019:1).

#### *3.10.6.2 Promotion of multilingualism*

Language of learning and teaching: English in lectures, tutorials and assessments.

The UP promotes the development, not only of all official languages, but also of other languages used in the South African community. The university promotes multilingualism for all South African languages, with specific responsibility for the development of Sepedi to the highest level of scholarship; and within what is sustainable and practicable within the context of the university's financial, staffing and infrastructure resources (UP Language Policy, 2019:2).

#### *3.10.6.3 Monitoring and revision*

Revision will be done after five years (UP, 2019).

### 3.10.7 The Stellenbosch University language policy (2016)

The Stellenbosch University (SU) is committed to engagement with knowledge in a diverse society. The language policy aims to give effect to section 29(2) of the Constitution in relation to language usage in its academic, administrative, professional and societal contexts. The policy aims to increase equitable access to US for all students and staff and to facilitate pedagogically sound teaching and learning (SU Language Policy, 2016:2).

Since the SU campuses are situated in the Western Cape, the SU commits itself "to multilingualism by using the province's three official languages, namely Afrikaans, English and isiXhosa" (SU Language Policy, 2016:2).

Provision is made for isiXhosa (SU Language Policy, 2016, Section 7.5.4) in certain programmes. IsiXhosa is already used with a view to facilitate effective learning and teaching, especially where the use of isiXhosa may be important for career purposes. US has a language centre which focuses, not only on the provision of short courses, but also on terminology development (in the form of glossaries in numerous subjects).

#### *3.10.7.1 Principles*

The Language Policy is based on the following normative principles, which must guide all aspects of the interpretation an implementation of this Policy:

The language at SU should promote access to and success in academic, administrative, professional and social contexts, and should not constitute a barrier to students and staff. This is particularly important given the constitutional imperatives to redress the results of past racial discrimination and to ensure no direct or indirect unfair discrimination against present or prospective SU staff and students.

SU applies its chosen languages in such a way that it includes all students, staff and other stakeholders.

The Language Policy implementation adapts to the changing language demographics and language preferences of students and staff (SU Language policy, 2016:5).

#### *3.10.7.2 Language of instruction*

Afrikaans and English are SU's languages of learning and teaching. SU supports their academic use through a combination of facilitated learning opportunities for students, including lectures, tutorials and practical's, as well as learning support facilitated by means of information and communication technology.

There are separate lectures in Afrikaans and English. English is used "routinely, but not exclusively, in its academic, administrative, professional and social contexts" (SU Language policy, 2016:4).

#### *3.10.7.3 Accommodating multilingualism*

The Language Centre, the faculties, the language departments, support services and management bodies are co-responsible for the advancement of multilingualism of SU.

IsiXhosa is an emerging formal academic language that receives particular attention for the purpose of its incremental introduction into selected disciplinary domains, prioritised in accordance with student needs in a well-planned, well-organised and systematic manner (SU Language Policy, 2016:4).

#### *3.10.7.4 Monitoring and revision*

Each faculty, responsibility centres and Student Representative Council submits a report to the Rector's Management Team once a year, by a date determined by the Vice-Rector: Learning and Teaching, detailing any difficulties that it has experienced with implementing the language policy.

The Vice Rector for Learning and Teaching is responsible for monitoring and "facilitates the testing of the Language Policy against changing circumstances through research on the implementation, monitoring and impact of the policy" (SU Language Policy, 2016:10).

The Vice Rector also "facilitates regular consultation with the broader SU community about matters concerning the Language Policy" (SU Language Policy, 2016:11).

### 3.10.8 Summary of six language policies

#### *3.10.8.1 Strengths*

The policy documents show signs of being part of the solution to rectify the damaging colonial practices of the past. This is in line with the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996), section 29(2), which states: "There is a need to redress the results of past racially discriminatory laws and practices". The problem though is that the policies are there but not all universities practice what is written in them. All six policies set out the laudable intention to overcome these legacies of past circumstances in order to facilitate access and achievement for more diverse linguistic groups. For example, this is included in their policy documents, in which they promise to promote multilingualism.

The SU, as indicated under section 3.11.4, has decided to add isiXhosa as one of the LOLTs with a view to facilitate effective teaching and learning.

The six policies seem to be genuinely oriented to produce transformation. All of them state commitment to a multilingual approach. They seem to take into consideration "the proper recognition of the value of other languages … and on ideology of linguistic inclusiveness, equity and parity of esteem" (Webb, 2012:207). This is indicated in their language policies, but the question is: What will they be practically doing to move with the transformation strengths of the language policies?

Noted here again is that some universities do cater for people living with disabilities. The SU language policy, for instance, indicates that provision is always made during lectures, tutorials and public events to cater for deaf people. Again, according to the UFS language policy (2016:6), the university recognises and promotes the South African Sign Language and Braille. Provision is always made during lectures to cater for deaf and blind people. The UFS Language Policy also stipulates that in exceptional circumstances other teaching and learning situations may be provided to students with disabilities to address their specific language requirements related to their particular disability. For example, provisions can be made to offer translation services in the South African Sign Language for students who qualify in terms of UFS's disability policy, should it be reasonable and within the limits of UFS's resources, and subject to approval in terms of the aforementioned policy. The CUT Language Policy (2015) also stipulates that in exceptional circumstances, other teaching and learning situations may be provided to students with disabilities. It also indicates in the related documents that there are policy provisions for CUT students with disabilities. To support this, in 2016, lifts were installed to make it easy for students on wheelchairs to move from one floor to the other when they attend lectures. Also, the CUT has produced and translated lexicons in Civil Engineering, Biomedical Technology, Legal Terminology, Cost Management, Accounting, Science Technology and Mathematics Education, which lexicons are a translation from English to Sesotho.

#### *3.10.8.2 Monitoring and revision*

All the policies are subject to revision on a yearly basis or after five years, which can pave ways for transformation and improvement as far as languages are concerned.

#### *3.10.8.3 Limitations*

All six universities under discussion stated commitment to a multilingual approach but very little has been done so far. The languages are taught but not up to the extent of becoming languages of instruction in the near future. For instance, the UJ stated that there ought to be “reasonable demand for teaching, learning and assessment in a particular language determined by means of the language preference exercised from time to time by students” (UJ, 2006). This seems to mean that African languages will only be offered as LOLTs when there is sufficient demand from the student body. On the contrary, Drummond (2016) concurred argued that for a product to be on demand it must be available to the public, for the public to notice the need. The absence of commitment to the development of the native languages for academic purposes results in the violation of the language rights of students speaking African languages, and also promotes continued hegemonic assimilation and segregationist ideologies. Not only do these ideologies have a negative impact on academic performance of students speaking African languages, but they also violate the language rights of these students, as they derail social cohesion, which is a cornerstone for a successful democracy (Maseko, 2014; Pillay & Yu, 2015; Turner & Wildsmith-Cromarty, 2014).

The problematic nature of demand-based provision is ongoing in South African universities. Parents strive for their children to be educated in English (Van Huyssteen, 2003. The view that having English as the language of instruction will provide greater opportunities for social advancement, is widely held (Ngidi, 2007; Webb, 2012). Makalela (2005) looked at this as a false hope that is barely understood, and poorly learned English will be a vehicle for economic progress.

The foregoing discussion indicated that the possibilities that other South African languages may develop and occupy teaching and learning spaces, are evaded (Balfour, 2018). Although universities such as UKZN, the University of Limpopo, Rhodes University and the University of Cape Town are actively trying to promote multilingualism, English remains the primary medium at all institutions. I argue that promoting solely the English language is in contrast with decolonisation agenda that higher education institutions are expected to follow.

## 3.11 RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN LANGUAGE POLICIES OF HISTORICALLY AFRIKAANS-MEDIUM UNIVERSITIES

### 3.11.1 North-West University

In May 2013, there was a protest by the National Education, Health and Allied Workers' Union (Nehawu) that the university is not transforming to reflect the racial dynamics of the province. "The management of the NWU has defended its controversial language policy, which entails non-Afrikaans-speaking students at its Potchefstroom campus receiving lessons through translation headsets in class because lectures are mostly conducted in Afrikaans (Nkosi, 2013).The acting registrar, John Botha, in his signed letter said that NWU has "implemented a functionally multilingual language policy" since 2007, which was adopted "after a proper consultative and inclusive process" (Nkosi, 2013:1). The NWU management told Nehawu that "the use of Afrikaans on the campus will remain", bearing in mind that both the Constitution and the National Language Policy of Higher Education allude to the importance of retaining Afrikaans as a language of higher learning, therefore language may not act as a barrier to access and success. (Nkosi, 2013:2).

In May 2018, a move by the university to change its language policy from Afrikaans to English as a medium of instruction at the Potchefstroom campus was met with resistance from Afrikaans-speaking students. Due to complaints from Afrikaans-speaking students who preferred Afrikaans, and non-Afrikaans students who preferred English, the university decided to invite students "to sign a petition to express their language preferences before the matter is taken to a full council for ratification and approval" (Gaanakgomo, 2018:2). In the year 2018, November 22, the council for NWU adopted the new language policy for the institution. The policy was to accommodate and provide a fair and functional multilingual environment across all components of the university (NWU Language Policy, 2018:1).

### 3.11.2 The University of the Free State

The University of the Free State (UFS) is one of several universities in the country that have been grappling with language-related protests, many of which turned violent and created division between students. The UFS council was given the mandate in 2015 to review its language policy, and after a unanimous vote, it was decided that English would be the primary medium of instruction of undergraduate and post graduate students at its Bloemfontein, QwaQwa and South campuses.

The civil movement, Afriforum challenged the proposed language policy change, arguing that the removal of Afrikaans as a medium of instruction was inconsistent with the law. The Free State High Court in Bloemfontein ruled in favour of Afriforum and set aside the decision by the UFS to have English as the sole medium of instruction from 2017 (News 24, 2017). The University applied to both the Supreme Court of Appeal and the Constitutional Court for leave to appeal. The Supreme Court of Appeal ruled in favour of the UFS to implement its new language policy (News 24, 2017). The UFS has at present changed its language policy from parallel to English-only (Peterson, 2016).

### 3.11.3 The University of South Africa Language Policy

Afriforum took the University of South Africa (UNISA) language policy fight to High Court. This move came after UNISA's decision to stop using Afrikaans as the medium of instruction and assessments from 2017. "English is currently the only primary language at UNISA (Nkosi, 2016). The supreme court of appeal ruled on 22 September 2021 regarding a resolution taken by UNISA to exclude Afrikaans as a LOLT and held that UNISA was supposed to come up with a strong justification for phasing out Afrikaans; since to the court this was a sheer limitation to the right to receive education in a particular language without convincing and clear evidence.

### 3.11.4 The Stellenbosch University Language Policy

The Stellenbosch University (SU) council approved the institutional language policy which came into effect in January 2022. The policy provides for the use of Afrikaans, English and isiXhosa in learning and teaching at the university. The three languages will also be used for general communication at the university (Moss, 2021:1).

### 3.11.5 The Central University of Technology, Free State

The Central University of Technology, Free State (CUT) council approved the new language policy in November 2021, for implementation with effect from January 2022. Although the policy seeks to promote three predominant languages in the Free State province, namely English, Afrikaans and Sesotho as well as the South African Sign Language in learning and teaching at the university, is still biased towards the use of English. This is evident in the statement which states "English is widely used in communication worldwide, and, therefore, provides a common code that facilitates communication amongst speakers of different mother tongues. Therefore, English has significant business, academic and international value. In the South African context, speakers of the various official South African languages also use English to communicate with each other. Therefore, CUT uses English routinely, but not exclusively, in its academic, professional, administrative, and social contexts" (CUT Language Policy, 2021:3). Sesotho on the other hand, is not given the same status as English. This is also evident in the statement which says "Sesotho is used by most African language speakers in the Free State province. By means of specific initiatives, such as the development of lexicons in identified academic programmes, and expanding Sesotho as an internal language of communication, CUT contributes to the advancement of Sesotho as a developing academic language. The university has also embarked on implementing a conversational Sesotho module for all first-year students whose mother tongue is not Sesotho" (CUT Language Policy, 2021:3). It is evident that Sesotho is still being developed through lexicons and conversational module for all first-year students whose mother tongue is not Sesotho, as opposed to English which is fully used for teaching and learning purposes (CUT Language policy, 2021:3).

## 3.12 LANGUAGE MANAGEMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA: A CULTURAL PERSPECTIVE

History has shown that language management in South Africa is influenced by the government that is in power during a particular period. In this section both the negative and positive sides of a normative approach to language management as well as problems of a normative approach (Webb, 2004) will be discussed.

Webb (2005:2) stated that if we want to establish why language management in South Africa today is being used as an instrument for power and control, one should perhaps ask the following questions:

a) Is language management concerned with taking note of what people want and what they do in order to achieve their personal goals, or their goals for their children, and is it directed by patterns of linguistic behaviour in society, or is it, in fact, prescriptive instead of being descriptive?
b) Is the language management discourse constructed on the basis of assumptions about what a 'good' society is and what is best for a society, and is it aimed at constructing a new social reality with particular values, beliefs, norms and patterns of behaviour, directing the behaviour of people and changing the way citizens think and perceive their world, their roles in this new world?
c) Is it used as a strategy for obtaining domination over the population through the centralisation of empowerment of the self and the marginalisation of the other?
d) Is language management based on arbitrary decisions, serving sectional interests and directed at changing the society into something it does not want to be, and is it aimed at exploiting and manipulating the communities in this new society and is it implemented in a dogmatic, intolerant way?

According to Webb (2005), the current political leadership and government has an unformulated language ideology, and in its quest for political control, language is used as a site of struggle for control and for the construction of a particular, culturally homogenised society, with particular views, beliefs and values. He (Webb) continues to state that their use of English-only in legislative debates, their tacit support for the use of English as the only language for state administration (explicitly), proposed in the case of the courts and their lack of attempts to promote multilingualism in the public and private sector, effectively mean that many citizens have very little choice about what language to use, being compelled to use English in all high-function public contexts.

The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP, 2004:9) documented that the increasing monolingual English reality in the public domain "shapes the barriers and advantages individuals face in life-political, social, economic and cultural". It also entrenched socio-economic inequalities, perpetuating the gap between the (very) rich and poor, the advantaged and disadvantaged.

### 3.12.1 Justification of the normative approach

Webb (2005:4) justified the normative approach of language management basing his argument on the following reasons:

a) Normative language management in South Africa is not arbitrary. The type of society and the social order at which it is directed, is based on the Constitution and the value underlying its dignity, equality and freedom, which are accepted by all South Africans. Language management is thus not a case of social engineering, part of an attempt to change the sociocultural character of the country or to "modernise or Westernise it, but is a case of social development, in the sense of enlarging people's" choices.
b) Language management in South Africa is directed on increasing access to rights and opportunities and establishing equity and social justice, defining in the process what the role of language is in this regard. Language management must be directed at increasing the use of African languages as media of communication in high-function formal contexts.
c) The development of African languages as high-function languages can also contribute to national integration. It is sometimes argued that the recognition of the African languages will lead to the promotion of ethnicity and group differentiation, even mutually exclusive ethnic identities, as in the time of apartheid. This will not happen if a national identity is based on a justifiable concept of multilingualism and cultural diversity.
d) Language management in South Africa is directed at combating the hegemony of English. The hegemony of English is one of the factors responsible for inequalities in the country, namely unequal growth and educational development; unequal social opportunities; the inadequate development of democracy and the restriction of cultural liberty (i.e., the freedom to choose one's own identity); a lack of efficiency and productivity in the public sector; and insufficient international competitiveness in the world market. The hegemony of English in South Africa has led to marginalisation and exclusion, placing minorities at risk.

### 3.12.2 Problems faced by language management in South Africa

Alexander (2004) questioned whether a society such as that in South Africa can establish, maintain and sustain a pluralist language policy and plan. Using dimension identified by Hofstede (2003), Webb (2005:5) listed the following characteristics of communities in the larger South African society:

a) Respect for authority and seniority, with subordinates expected to be obedient, and not to question authority.
b) A preference for centralised political power and decision-making.
c) A tendency to link power and decision-making.
d) A tendency to link power, status and wealth.
e) Valuing collective interests above individual interests, with political power exercised by interest groups, and views determined by group interests.

### 3.12.3 Ineffective language management in South Africa

Although it is not possible to determine the reasons why the South African government allows non-implementation of the country's constitutional language stipulation in official places, including institutions of higher learning, four types of reasons for poor language management in South Africa have been distinguished by Mwaniki (2004) and one more by Webb (2005). These reasons are political and bureaucratic factors, economic factors, sociolinguistic factors, theoretical factors (Mwaniki, 2004), and cultural factors (Webb, 2005).

#### *3.12.3.1 Political and bureaucratic factors*

There are three political factors mentioned by Webb (2006). The first factor refers to the interrelationship between political regimes and linguistic regimes (the language used by government for official purposes). According to Pool's (1990) argument, language regimes are constrained by political regimes.

Pool (1990: 246) pointed out that "political elites manipulate the language regime to promote their political purposes". Pool further distinguishes among three types of political regimes, namely, democratic regimes, leftist regimes and centralised regimes. In this interrelationship, *democratic regimes* produce pluralist language regimes, leftist regimes promote populist language regimes, and *centralised regimes* produce single language regimes, which usually select the language of power (Webb, 2006: 5). He (Webb) also maintained that “centralised regimes are, of course, directed at central control, at retaining authority and preserving their power and prestige” (Webb, 2006: 6). Such political regimes “are generally directed at assimilating language regimes, see linguistic diversity as a barrier, an obstruction, and want to make the whole nation competent in one language” (Pool, 1990: 246).

> Language policy practice in South Africa clearly reflects a centralist political regime, a government directed at efficiency and central control. Political and bureaucratic leaders in South Africa probably believe that the government will perform its task more effectively if only one language is used, believing that the use of a single language will lead to more effective public administration, will facilitate effective central control and will be cheaper and more practical, and that, on the other hand, an official part of language management will act as an obstacle to communication with the public, will facilitate division and hinder national integration, thus endangering the state and leading to conflict and retarded development. National integration, they probably argue, can only be achieved through the construction of linguistic and cultural homogeneity (Webb, 2006:6).

The second factor is that “though it is possibly true that some members of the South African cabinet have an ideological commitment to multilingual, and even to the value of cultural diversity, it is unlikely that the majority of them regard the language issue as something that needs serious practical attention. It is probable, rather, that they believe that language management is only about linguistic and cultural rights, and that language is, therefore, not a national priority” (Webb, 2006:6).

The third political factor that obstructs the effective implementation of language management language in South Africa, and thus leads to ineffective language management, is globalisation. As Labrie (1996:6) pointed out, globalisation, with its free movement of goals, people, and information, and decreased social control over people, leads to the “emergence of new communication communities, new ways of communication and new types of discourse” and it will, therefore, be difficult to effect ‘multilingual’ behaviour if the proposed new way is in contradiction with existing practice.

The fourth possible factor is what (De Kadt, 2005) refers to as the relative absence of linguistically, clearly defined ethnic identities in African language communities as well as (Webb: 2006:7). She (De Kadt) argued that "the key explanatory variable (in the non-development of African languages) is the political salience of linguistically defined ethnic identity"; and, furthermore, that "language development is unlikely to be successful unless it is an issue on which the survival of the government depends" (Webb: 2006:7). De Kadt (2005) continued to say that "the apartheid government's use of African ethnic identities to further segregation and discrimination has delegitimised the use of these identities as a political tool in post-apartheid South Africa. While this has been valuable in securing political stability and avoiding inter-ethnic tension in modern South Africa, it has also meant that the political value of the successful development of any indigenous African language is extremely limited" (Webb, 2006:7). "Without an increased focus by the current government on ensuring the development and implementation of African languages as languages of education, and providing space for the use of these languages in government, further language development is unlikely to become a reality" (De Kadt, 2005:5).

The language policy practice in South Africa, which clearly reflects a centralist political regime, with English as a preferred official language in government, might have contributed to the decision of CUT and other institutions to use English-only as a language of instruction. The university management may also probably believe that the university will perform its task more effectively if only one language is used, believing that the use of a single language will be cheaper and more practical.

#### *3.12.3.2 Economic factors*

"Besides the obvious but unfounded factor that language management language is costly and unaffordable, two further factors can be mentioned. The first goes along with the political ideology of central control, namely the belief that there is correlation between linguistic and cultural diversity and economic development" (Webb, 2006:7). Pool (1990:251) stated that "development-oriented elites in multilingual countries typically perceive a conflict between linguistic pluralism and modernisation, and typically propose to solve this conflict by promoting linguistic assimilation, generally the use of a foreign language". However, these "development-oriented elites seem to forget that there are multilingual countries that are economically highly developed, and monolingual countries that are economically poorly developed. Furthermore, Pool (1990:251) pointed out that there is in fact no causal relation between the two issues: "There is no data which suggests that linguistic assimilation will lead to political and economic development; and the data upon which such views are based reflects static associations, which one should avoid as a basis when investigating cause and effect." In fact, he said it is possible that "the adoption of a language belonging to a rich and powerful foreign country creates economic, political and cultural dependence and strangles the channels of professional access and interclass mobility" (Pool, 1990:252).

Webb (2005:7) mentioned the following:

> Another factor for non-implementation of language policy is globalisation (the production, distribution and consumption of goods and information and the migration of workers subject to free market forces and competitiveness), which obviously facilitates linguistic and cultural assimilation to the dominant language of globalisation, namely English. In such a situation it could be obvious to policy decision-makers that a management language regime is not sensible.

The globalisation factor also leads to ineffective language management at universities. The belief that African languages are not scientifically advanced to cope with globalisation (with its free movement of people and information) encourages policymakers at some universities such as CUT to prefer English as a medium of instruction, at the expense of other official languages in South Africa.

#### *3.12.3.3 Sociolinguistic factors*

Sociolinguistic factors have led to ineffective language management in South Africa. The central and first factor is "the a-symmetric power relations between the languages of the country: the hegemonic strength of English, on the one hand, and the negative social meaning of the indigenous African languages (and Afrikaans, in some communities), on the other. The African languages are generally perceived as inappropriate for use in high-function formal contexts and have consequently also not developed the capacity to be used in such contexts" (Webb, 2006:8). Secondly, several key language political concepts that were central in the time of apartheid, such as mother-tongue instruction and ethnicity, also had a negative impact on the implementation of a meaningful policy of management language (Webb, 2006). Finally, there is the role of South Africa's history of the use of language for political control, for example the racial division of South Africa on the basis of language, the appropriation of Afrikaans and the invention of African languages (Makoni, 2003; Webb, 2005).

The perception that African languages (and Afrikaans) are generally inappropriate for use in high-functioning formal contexts, and the fact that they have not developed the capacity to be used in such contexts, might have an influence in the decision of some institutions of higher learning, including CUT, to use English as a medium of instruction.

#### *3.12.3.4 Theoretical factors*

Mwaniki (2004) argued that language management in South Africa is not adequately grounded theoretically and suggests that a language management theory should be developed, applied and grounded in social theory, systems theory, critical theory, public management, phenomenology and human development theory. One could add that the same should apply to the language management at institutions of higher learning.

#### *3.12.3.5 Cultural factors*

"The South African Constitution embodies a pluralist approach, and ascribes to a liberal democracy, directed at the values of individual freedom, equality and human rights. A liberal democracy, as per definition, is grounded on the notions of equity and individualism and may, arguably, be inherently contradictory with the cultural character of the majority of South Africans" (Webb, 2006:8). Cultural character of South African people may have contributed towards the non-implementation of the policy on language management. Using three of the four dimensions identified by Hofstede (2003), for characterising communities' cultural character Webb (2006:9) characterised the larger South African society as follows:

**High-power distance**: Respect for authority and seniority, with subordinates expected to be obedient and less questioning of authority, the centralisation of political power and of decision-making and a linkage between power, status and wealth.

**Uncertainty avoidance**: Being unwilling to take risks, intolerance of ambiguity, clear definition of the distribution of power, rigidity, traditionalism, totalitarian ideology, with citizens accepting the authority of political tenders.

**Collectivist (law individualism index):** Collective interest prevails over individual interests, views predetermined by group interests, political exercises by interest groups, rigid social systems, large differences in wealth between sectors of the economy.

Webb (2006:9) posed a question whether societies with the above characteristics can be successful in implementing a language policy directed at linguistic equity and parity of esteem for all languages and with the emphasis on individuality and equity and whether such societies tend to prefer powerful languages and language behaviour which will benefit the powerful elite. Contrary to the government sector, I argue that language management at institutions of higher learning is not a top-down approach. Students are consulted and play a critical role in deciding on the language of instruction.

## 3.13 SUMMARY

This chapter has provided a detailed review of literature that was deemed relevant to this study. Issues surrounding university language policies and their practices were analysed, and the theoretical framework of language planning theory, together with the theory of language management and language policies, were discussed. The chapter also highlighted the reasons for ineffective language management in South Africa, including at institutions of higher learning. Decision-making theory model of language planning. The Cost-benefit Analysis Model" of language planning, which uses decision-making theory or aspects of decision-making theory, and constituting of three basic components, namely: inputs; outputs; and consequences of outputs is relevant for this study, which seeks to establish why did the University of Technology change its language policy from a dual-medium language policy to a monolingual language policy?

It has transpired from the preceding review of the literature that language planning development in South Africa is characterised by the democratic political regime, which produces pluralist language regimes (recognising 11 official languages, and commitment to raise the status of indigenous African languages through their development and use). However, the language management practice reflects a centralised political regime, which produces a single-language regime, with English becoming more and more dominant than other official languages. This reflects a striking discrepancy between the country's language policy ideology and language policy practice. This approach by government and the reasons for its (government) ineffective language management has spilt over to some institutions of higher learning, where English has become the only language of instruction.

The next chapter (Chapter 4) discusses the research design and methodology adopted in this study.

# CHAPTER 4
# RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

## 4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on the research design and methodology used in this study. The research paradigm and design, sampling and sampling procedure, data collection and analysis procedures used in this investigation are also outlined.

## 4.2 AIMS OF THE STUDY

The aims of the study were as follows:

1. To assess reasons why the University of Technology, changed its language policy from a dual-medium to a monolingual language policy.
2. To investigate language policy management dynamics and complexities at the Central University of Technology.
3. To investigate and document language-related learning challenges that are manifest at the University of Technology after the adoption of the English-only language policy.

## 4.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The following specific objectives were formulated:

1. To ascertain the extent of students' language learning problems that manifest at the University of Technology after the adoption of the English-only language policy.
2. To determine whether students' biographical factors (gender, age, year of study, home language, and faculty) have any influence on their language learning problems.
3. To ascertain the nature of lecturers' opinions regarding English as a medium of instruction at the University of Technology.

4. To determine whether the faculty variable has any influence on lecturers' opinions regarding English as a medium of instruction at the University of Technology.
5. To establish the reasons why the University of Technology changed its dual-medium language policy to a monolingual language policy.

## 4.4 HYPOTHESES

Based on the aims of the study, the following theoretical hypotheses were formulated:

1. Students do not differ in the extent of their language learning problems that manifest at the University of Technology after the adoption of the English-only language policy.
2. Students' biographical factors (gender, age, year of study, home language, and faculty) have no influence on their language learning problems.
3. Lecturers do not differ in the nature of their opinions regarding English as a medium of instruction at the University of Technology.
4. The faculty variable has no influence on lecturers' opinions regarding English as a medium of instruction at the University of Technology.

## 4.5 RESEARCH PARADIGM

Research paradigm has to do with the basic assumptions that guide the researcher's inquiry as related to the relationship between the researcher and the researched (Creswell, 1998:75-78). Since the relationship between the researcher and the researched is an epistemological issue, the research paradigm is informed by the researcher's theoretical paradigm. The post-positivistic theoretical paradigm is linked to the quantitative research approach, whereas the interpretive theoretical paradigm presupposes the qualitative approach (Smit, 2010:17).

The research paradigm of this study was undertaken within both the quantitative and qualitative research paradigms. Therefore, it was informed by and located within both post-positivist and interpretive theoretical paradigms. The relationship between the researcher and the researched within the post-positivist theoretical paradigm assumes that they are "mutually exclusive entities working independently of each other", whereas the relationship between the researcher and the researched within the interpretive theoretical paradigm assumes that they “work in an interrelated dialogic fashion” (Smit, 2010:15). Since the qualitative approach employed in this study related to Aim 1 (see 4.2), it was underscored by an interpretive theoretical paradigm. On the other hand, the quantitative approach, which related to the second and third aims (see 4.2), was within the post-positivist theoretical paradigm.

An interpretive paradigm, also known as a phenomenological approach, aims to understand people (Babbie & Mouton, 2007) or any phenomenon. Myers (2009) argued that the “premise of interpretive researchers is that access to reality (whether given or socially constructed) is only through social constructions such as language, consciousness and shared meanings”. “Interpretive paradigm is underpinned by observation and interpretation thus to observe is to collect information about events, while to interpret is to make meaning of that information by drawing inferences or by judging the match between the information as some abstract patterns” (Thomas, 2010: 296).

An interpretive paradigm is concerned with understanding the phenomenon from subjective experiences of individuals and stresses the need of putting the analysis in context (Reeves & Hedberg, 2003; Smit, 2010). It, therefore, presupposes that a person using interpretive approach collects information in natural settings. This paradigm was used in this study to collect and analyse information from the Registrar at the CUT.

On the other hand, the post-positivism approach recognises that reality cannot be completely understood, but only approximated (De Vos, Strydom, Fouche & Delport, 2011). The post-positivism approach is open to different multiple methodological approaches and usually includes both qualitative and quantitative methods (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Gratton & Jones, 2010). This allows for the development of alternative research strategies to find information in unlikely and creative ways (Glicken, 2003). In order to gain an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon under investigation, the study used both quantitative and qualitative methods (Gay, Mills & Airasian, 2011) and both interpretive and post-positivism paradigms.

## 4.6 RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design includes justification for the exploration of a posed research question and provides details on the research steps to be followed in collecting, analysing, and interpreting the observed facts. In their description of a research design, Fouche (2002), Hagan (2002) and Babbie and Mouton (2007), defined it as a roadmap or blueprint according to which one intends to conduct research and achieve the research goals and objectives. On the other hand, Creswell (2012:20) indicated that research design is "specific procedures involved in the research process: data collection, data analysis and report writing". Similarly, research design could be defined as the specific plan made to provide answers to research questions, while also covering the strategies adopted to ensure the integrity of the research project (Pollit & Beck, 2008). De Vos et al., (2011) presented research design as the researcher's decision on the process of the study. Macmillan (2012:13) presented the research design as "the plan for carrying out a study"; he then went further to indicate that the research design can be either qualitative, quantitative or through the use of a mixed method.

The first aim of this study employed an interpretive, qualitative single-case study design. The second and third aims were conducted within a post-positivistic, quantitative descriptive and inferential design. An interpretive, qualitative, single case study design was used to select only the Registrar for the interviews (single-case study design), collect information in a natural setting (interpretive) and analyse data collected through interviews (qualitative) from the Registrar. The post-positivistic, quantitative, descriptive, and inferential design was applied to students and lecturers through collecting and analysing data from the questionnaires (quantitative, descriptive, and inferential).

The type of method employed in this study was a case study, where the CUT was used as the case study. According to Henning, Van Rensburg and Smit (2004), a case study is employed to gain an in-depth understanding of the situation and meaning for those involved. A case study is conducted in order to test theoretical methods by using them in real-world situations and focussing on specific and interesting cases (Yin, 2003:23). In other words, the researcher carries out a case study to clearly understand the various aspects, while designing research of a given situation. It is a research strategy which focuses on the dynamics present within single settings. This indicates that a case study is conducted within a single or individual person, a programme, events, group, intervention, or community (Henning et al., 2004).

The advantage of the case study research design is that it focuses on specific and interesting cases and attempts to test a theory with a typical case. In this study, the purpose was to investigate university language policy management in South Africa: the case study of the CUT. Yin (2003) defined a case study as an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, when the boundaries between the phenomenon and its contexts are clearly evident and in which multiple sources of evidence are used.

This study used a mixed method design to examine the *University Language Policy management in South Africa: The case of a University of Technology in South Africa*. Ivankova, Creswell and Plano Clark (2007:269) defined a mixed method design as a "procedure for collecting, analysing and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data at some stage of the research process within a single study to understand a research problem more completely". The mixed method design uses both qualitative and quantitative approaches for research to enable the researcher to fully comprehend complex subject matter (Creswell, 2009). Quantitative designs within mixed methods enable the description of trends, attitudes and opinions on the phenomenon (Creswell, 2014), while the qualitative within mixed methods design enables the individual to benefit from the experiences of the phenomenon. It facilitates a deeper understanding of the participants' experiences.

A qualitative research approach is said to provide a means of unquantifiable facts about a phenomenon (Berg, 2007); it is about investigating the qualities of a phenomenon rather than its quantities (Henning, Van Rensburg & Smit, 2004); it is about finding out what happens, how it happens, and why it happens by not only looking at the actions of participants, but also trying to find out how their thoughts and feelings are represented in those actions (Henning et al., 2004). Denzin and Lincoln (1998:3) defined qualitative research as "multi method in focus, involving an interpretive, naturalistic approach to its subject matter". Additionally, Creswell (1998:15) defined qualitative research as an iqnquiry process of understanding based on distinct methodological traditions of inquiry that explore a social or human problem “where the research conducts the study in natural setting, builds a complex yet holistic picture through analysis of words and reports in detail the views of the informants”. Denzin and Lincoln (1998) emphasised that qualitative research involves studying things in their natural setting and share in their understanding and perceptions and to explore how they (participants) structured and gave meaning to the phenomenon under study.

Macmilan (2012) presented qualitative research as interpretive research that takes place in the natural setting as a strategy of understanding a particular phenomenon. This approach relies on the verbal narratives, while in other situations this would include documented observations. Gay, Mills and Airasian (2011) presented qualitative research as the process of collecting, analysing, and interpreting narratives and visual data. Fraenkel and Wallen (2010) indicate that qualitative researchers focus more on the understanding of a particular situation based on the participants’ views and description. The use of a mixed methods design in the current study was, however, informed by the bio-ecological theory, which bridges the gap between qualitative and quantitative designs by engaging in descriptive and explanatory studies (Derksen, 2010).

## 4.7 RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

Questionnaires and interviews were used as data collection instruments in this investigation. The questionnaire was used as a data collection instrument for both lecturers and students while the interviews were used to collect data from the Registrar.

### 4.7.1 Questionnaires

A questionnaire, as defined by Forcese and Richer (1973), is a form of securing answers to questions. They further explain that questionnaires are forms which the respondents fill in by themselves. A survey method uses questionnaires as data collection instruments. Questionnaires elicit good data and save time, and they have the ability to reach a number of respondents (Forcese & Richer, 1973:85). Surveys may be cheap if existing records are used (Borg & Gall, 1983:404). In this study, two sets of questionnaires were constructed: one for the teaching staff at the CUT and one for the students. The questionnaire for the teaching staff was meant to investigate language policy management dynamics and complexities in South African universities with specific reference to the CUT. The questionnaire for students was meant to investigate and document language-related learning challenges that manifested at the CUT after the adoption of the monolingual English-only policy.

However, a questionnaire has its own advantages and disadvantages. Among the many advantages of a questionnaire, Cohen and Manion (1989:111-112) stated the following:

- Affordability is the primary advantage of a written questionnaire because it is the least expensive means of data gathering.
- Written questionnaires preclude possible interview bias. The way the interviewer asks questions and even the interviewer's general appearance or interaction may influence the respondent's answers. Such biases can be completely eliminated with a written questionnaire.
- A questionnaire permits anonymity. If it is arranged such that responses are given anonymously, the researcher's chances of receiving responses which genuinely represent a person's beliefs, feelings, opinions, or perceptions would increase.
- Questionnaires permit respondents a sufficient amount of time to consider answers before responding.
- Questionnaires can be distributed to many people simultaneously, that is a large sample of the population can be reached.
- Generally, the data provided by the questionnaires can be more easily analysed and interpreted than data obtained from verbal responses.
- A respondent may answer questions of a personal or embarrassing nature more willingly and frankly on a questionnaire, than in a face-to-face situation with an interviewer who may be a complete stranger. In some cases, it may happen that respondents report less than expected and make more critical comments in a mailed questionnaire.
- Respondents can complete questionnaires in their own time and in a more relaxed atmosphere.

- Questions requiring considered answers, rather than immediate answers, could enable the respondents to consult documents in case of a mailed questionnaire.
- Data obtained from questionnaires can also be compared and inferences can be made.

Although the questionnaire has advantages, it also has disadvantages. According to Kidder and Judd (1989:223), Mahlangu (1987:84-85) and Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1999:190), disadvantages of the questionnaire include the following:

- Questionnaires do not provide the flexibility of interviews. In an interview an idea or comment can be explored. It is possible to gauge how people interpret questions. If the questions are interpreted differently by respondents, the validity of the information obtained is jeopardised.
- People are generally better to express their views verbally than in writing.
- Questions can or will be answered only when they are sufficiently easy and straightforward to be understood with the given instructions and definitions.
- In a mailed questionnaire the respondents could examine all the questions at the same time before answering them and the answers to different questions could not be treated ‘independently’.
- Researchers are unable to control the context of question answering, and specifically in the presence of other people. Respondents may ask friends or family members to examine the questionnaire or comment on their answers, causing bias if the respondent’s own private opinion is desired and the written questionnaire does not allow the researcher to correct misunderstandings or answer questions that the correspondents may have. Respondents might answer questions incorrectly or not at all due to confusion and misinterpretation.

In this investigation, most of the noted disadvantages were avoided by first clarifying the correct method of answering. Closed questions were used for easy analysis and interpretation of data.

#### *4.7.1.1 Construction, response alternatives and scoring of the questionnaire*

The first section of the questionnaire for lecturers (Section A) consisted of the faculty to which they belong. The second section (Section B) consisted of items on language policy management dynamics and complexities, particularly at the CUT (Appendix A).

The first section of the questionnaire for students (Section A) consisted of the biographical information of the respondents, namely gender, age in years, year of study, home language, and faculty. The second section (Section B) consisted of items on language-related learning challenges, namely speaking problems (items 1–8), listening problems (items 9–15), reading problems (items 16–21), and writing problems (items 22–28) (Appendix B).

With regard to Section B of the questionnaire for both students and lecturers, a Likert scale rating scale with four response alternatives or categories was used, namely: Strongly agree (SA), Agree (A), Disagree (D) and Strongly disagree (SD). Ngidi (1995:84) has identified two major advantages of such four categories. First, they have been tested in many different situations and have worked successfully. Second, they have got a wide applicability because they can fit almost any subject matter.

Section A of the questionnaire was assigned numerical symbols using a systematic method because the response categories did not have a quantitative relationship to each other. In Section B of the questionnaire for students, the statements were assigned codes or values as follows: A 1 to Strongly agree, 2 to Agree, 3 to Disagree, and 4 to Strongly disagree. This was because all the questions were negatively worded. In Section B of the questionnaire for lecturers, the six negatively worded statements were assigned codes or values for items 1, 3, 8, 9, 10 and 14 as follows:

- 1 – Strongly agree
- 2 – Agree
- 3 – Disagree
- 4 – Strongly disagree

For the other eight positively worded statements, the assigned codes or values were as follows for items 2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 11, 12 and 13:

- 4 – Strongly agree
- 3 – Agree

- 2 – Disagree
- 1 – Strongly disagree

This is a usual procedure, typically the lowest number is assigned to the most negative response and the highest number to the most positive response (Orlich, 1978:87; Sibaya, 1993:110).

#### *4.7.1.2 Determining students' language learning problems*

The student respondents were divided into groups in order to test the hypothesis that students do not differ in the extent of their language learning problems that manifest at the CUT after the adoption of the English-only policy. Since all the items were negatively worded, the scoring pattern was 1, 2, 3, 4. Therefore, the lowest possible score was 28; in other words, 28×1 could theoretically be obtained by a respondent who endorsed a Strongly agree response to every statement. The possible highest score was 112; in other words, 28×4 could theoretically be obtained by a respondent who endorsed a Strongly disagree response to every statement. With scores that could range from 28 to 112 and three response categories, the following three groups, devised by grouping scores into class intervals, were created:

- LLLPL group: A low language learning problem level group consisted of respondents with scores in the range of 28–56.
- MLLPL group: A moderate language learning problem level group consisted of respondents with scores in the range of 57–84.
- HLLPL group: A high language learning problem level group consisted of respondents with scores in the range of 85–112.

#### *4.7.1.3 Determining lecturers' perceptions regarding English as a medium of instruction*

The lecturer respondents were also divided into groups in order to test the hypothesis that lecturers do not differ in the extent of their perceptions regarding English as a medium of instruction at the CUT. Since the scoring pattern was 1, 2, 3, 4 for negatively worded statements and 4, 3, 2, 1 for positively worded statements, the lowest possible score was 14; in other words, 14×1 could theoretically be obtained by a respondent who endorsed a Strongly agree response to every negatively worded item. A possible highest score was 56; in other words, 14×4 could theoretically be obtained by a respondent who endorsed a Strongly disagree response to every positively worded item. With scores that could range from 28 to 112 and three response categories, the following three groups, devised by grouping scores into class intervals, were created:

- Group 1: A negative opinion group consisted of respondents with scores in the range of 14–28.
- Group 2: An uncertain opinion group consisted of respondents with scores in the range of 29–42.
- Group 3: A positive opinion group consisted of respondents with scores in the range of 43–56.

### 4.7.2 Interviews

A qualitative interview schedule, with semi-structured interview questions, was used to collect data from the Registrar. Semi-structured interviews provide information on people's experiences of a phenomenon or process. These include issues such as how people describe, understand, assess and interact with each other over a given phenomenon (Guest, Namey & Mitchel, 2013). A researcher prepares the guide which is used to lead the interview, and interviewees have the freedom to elaborate on the point to detail their complex experiences (Hugh-Jones, 2010). Semi-structured interviews are flexible because the interviewee can give more details than was anticipated. The sequence of questions may change, and some interview questions may not be asked, or new questions may be included (Hays & Singh, 2012).

In this study, the responses from the interviews provided the researcher with rich data on the language policy at the CUT. Bryman (2012) warned that the disadvantages of semi-structured interviews are that some research participants may give responses which differ from what researchers may observe. To avoid this disadvantage in this study, the interview responses were recorded on a tape recorder. The interview schedule for the Registrar consisted of questions to assess reasons and factors as to why the CUT changed its dual-medium language policy to a monolingual language policy (Appendix C).

## 4.8 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS.

Reliability and validity are the two concepts of critical importance in understanding issues of measurement in scientific research. Kidder and Judd (1989:53) maintained that although reliability and validity are two different characteristics of measurement, they overlap. They are two ends of a continuum, but it is difficult to distinguish them at the middle point. According to Cooper (1989:15), many questionnaires lack reliability and validity, but the researcher can employ means by which the questionnaire can be both reliable and valid.

### 4.8.1 Reliability of the research instruments

In quantitative research, reliability refers to the degree to which a test is internally consistent (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000). One of the special statistical measures to determine internal consistency reliability is Cronbach's alpha (Muijs, 2004). Internal consistency has to do with the correlation among the items. To ensure that items 1–28 (Section B), as well as the items for the four separate domains of language-related learning challenges in the questionnaire for students, namely speaking problems (items 1–8), listening problems (items 9–15), reading problems (items 16–21), and writing problems (items 22–28), are internally consistent, Cronbach's alpha was calculated. Although the questions in items 1–14 (Section B) of the lecturers' questionnaire were not all similar, as they addressed various different aspects of language policy management dynamics and complexities, Cronbach's alpha was also calculated for them.

Reliability of an instrument also denotes "a consistency of measure of concept" (Bryman, 2012:169). Reliability entails stability, which means that the instrument has to yield the same results over time (Bryman, 2012; Creswell, 2014). Reliability has also been defined as the extent to which findings can be replicated or reproduced by another inquirer (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). Hammersley (1992:67) defined reliability as "the degree of consistency to which instances are assigned to the same category by different observers or the same observer on different occasions". In qualitative research this entails not only providing an accurate interpretation of the transcripts (Silverman, 2000), but also making available the field notes or extended transcripts to allow the readers to formulate their own hunches and perspectives (Bryman, 1988) on the phenomenon being studied. It is also argued that to assure reliability, the researcher has to document his or her procedure in order to reveal how the inherent subjectivity in qualitative research has been managed, while at the same time maintaining rigour (Kirk & Miller, 1986). The procedure of the interview with the Registrar was documented under the interview section of this study.

### 4.8.2 Validity of the research instruments

Validity is the degree to which an instrument actually measures what it purports to measure (Muijs, 2004; Leedy & Ormond, 2010). Hammersley (1990:57) defined validity as the "extent to which an account accurately represents the social phenomenon to which it refers". Hammersley (1990) further pointed out that validity is another word for truth. The most important guideline is that basic to the validity of a questionnaire, is asking the right questions phrased in the least ambiguous way. Content validity and face validity were used in this study. Content validity refers to the representativeness of the sample of questions included in the instrument (Cohen et al., 2000; Muijs, 2004). It entails careful examination and checking of the scale of items, through the use of experts in the field concerned (Muijs, 2004). Face validity, on the other hand, simply means a cursory examination to show that the instrument does measure what it is intended to measure (Muijs, 2004). The researcher used the promoter and experts in the Department of Communication Sciences at the CUT, for validation of the instrument.

## 4.9 PLANNING FOR ANALYSING DATA

In this study, the analysis of quantitative data from the questionnaires involved both descriptive and inferential statistics, while the analysis of the qualitative data from the interview involved themes.

A qualitative approach was adopted since "it allows for the collection of rich data in natural settings. In turn, it allows for the exploration of the understandings, experiences, and imaginings of the research participants" (Babbie & Mouton, 2007). This approach was used to establish the reasons why the University of Technology changed its language policy from dual-medium to a monolingual. The information that was obtained from the interview with the Registrar was used for qualitative analysis of the data.

A quantitative approach, which used both descriptive and inferential statistics was employed to establish language policy management dynamics and complexities at University of Technology, as well as language-related learning challenges at the selected institution after the adoption of the English-only language policy. The information that was obtained from the questionnaires with lecturers and students was used for quantitative analysis of data.

### 4.9.1 Descriptive analysis of data

"Descriptive statistics is a method of presenting quantitative descriptions in a manageable form so as to have manageable summaries from manageable details" (Babbie & Mouton, 2007:415). Descriptive statistics is used for summarising and reducing the data that have been collected on a research sample (Newman, 1997; Sibaya, 1993). Therefore, it does not involve testing of the hypotheses for generalising the population parameters. In this study, descriptive statistics was used for the same purpose.

The analysis of the lecturers and students in the sample according to their biographical information (Section A of the questionnaire) was done first. The descriptive analysis of the sample data for 28 statements for students and 14 statements for lecturers (Section B of the questionnaire) was then done using respondent counting, percentages, and average (mean) for the responses to each statement.

The respondent counting involved counting the number of respondents who marked the Strongly agree, Agree, Disagree, and Strongly disagree categories in each statement. To avoid giving misleading information, the number of respondents who marked a particular category was given with the reported percentages in brackets (parenthesis).

The group scores on a set of statements were averaged for reducing or summarising the data to make them easier to work with and interpret. When the mean or average for the responses to each item is converted to the nominal categories, it gives an indication of the group response to a particular statement (Orlich, 1978; Henerson, Morris & Fitz-Gibbon, 1987). In this study, it meant that when the mean or average for the responses to each statement were converted to the Strongly agree, Agree, Disagree, and Strongly disagree categories, it would give an indication of the lecturer and student responses to a particular statement.

#### 4.9.2 Inferential statistics

While descriptive statistics is concerned with summarising or describing the data of a sample, inferential statistics is concerned with generalisation from a sample to make estimates about a wider population and determining whether differences between groups might be due to chance (Borg & Gall, 1983; Muijs, 2004; Neuman, 1997; Orlich, 1978; Rowntree, 1981). It, therefore, involves hypotheses testing. Inferential statistics was used for the same purpose in this study. To test the hypothesis that students do not differ in the extent of their language learning problems that manifest at the CUT after the adoption of the English-only language policy, as well as the hypothesis that students' biographical factors (gender, age, year of study, home language, and faculty) have no influence on their language learning problems, a chi-square test was used for the combined domains of language-related learning problems (speaking, listening, reading, and writing), while ANOVA (analysis of variance) was used for differences (main effects) among the mean scores for students' biographical variables (gender, age, year of study, home language, and faculty) for each language-related problem.

The chi-square ($\chi^2$) test is appropriate for analysis of counts and to test the association between two or more sets of categories (Durkheim, 2007). The purpose of ANOVA allows researchers to test the difference between more than two groups of subjects and the influence of more than one independent variable (Durkheim, 2007:252). The purpose of analysing variance in ANOVA is to determine whether groups differ significantly among themselves, therefore, researchers test for an effect (Borg & Gall, 1983).

The chi-square one-sample test in this study was specifically used to test the hypothesis that students do not differ in the extent of their language learning problems that manifest at the CUT after the adoption of the English-only language policy, while the chi-square test for *k* independent samples was used to test the hypothesis that students' biographical factors (gender, age, year of study, home language, and faculty) have no influence on their language learning problems. The chi-square test in this study was used to test whether significant differences existed between the observed frequencies and the expected frequencies in the three groups of students, namely low, moderate, and high language learning problem levels.

The chi-square one sample test was also used to test the hypothesis that lecturers do not differ in the extent of their perceptions regarding English as a medium of instruction at the CUT, while the chi-square test for *k* independent samples was used to test the hypothesis that the faculty variable has no influence on lecturers' perceptions regarding English as a medium of instruction at the CUT.

In this case, the chi-square one sample test in this study was used to test whether significant differences existed between the observed frequencies and the expected frequencies in the three groups of lecturers, namely a negative opinion group, an uncertain opinion group, and a positive opinion group. ANOVA was also used for differences (main effects) among mean scores for the faculty variable and each language policy-related statement.

The null hypotheses for both the chi-square one sample test and chi-square test for *k* independent samples are rejected at a 0.05 level of significance, which means that the likelihood of the results occurring by chance is lower than 5%. If the calculated probability value (p) is less than a 0.05 level of significance ($p<0.05$), the null hypothesis is rejected (Sibaya, 1993). The opposite applies if the calculated probability value (p) is greater than a 0.05 level of significance ($p>0.05$).

### 4.9.3 Reduction and display of qualitative data

In qualitative research, after the interviews the data has to be summarised, coded and sorted into themes, clusters and categories (Miles & Huberman, 1994). In this study, the data reduction process, which involved organising and sorting data in categories and themes, was used after the interviews with the Registrar to assess the reasons and factors as to why the CUT changed its dual-medium language policy to that of a monolingual language policy.

### 4.9.4 Data storage

Hard copies of the completed questionnaires for lecturers and students are kept in a lockable safe and soft copies of the analysed data were stored in a memory stick. The interviews with the Registrar were recorded and kept in a tape recorder and the soft copies of the analysed data are stored in a memory stick.

## 4.10 POPULATION

The term *population* refers to the people who possess a certain characteristics problem which helps the researcher to address the problem statement of the study (Kumar, 2014; Lapan, Quartroli & Riemet, 2012). The population in this study consisted of students at the CUT, the members of the teaching staff and the Registrar. The office of the Registrar deals with the institution's language policy, the lecturers teach according to the language policy and students are the direct recipients because they are the ones who are taught in the medium of a particular language.

During the time of investigation, the population of this study consisted of the Registrar, 19 577 students, and 296 lecturers from the four faculties, namely Engineering and Information Technology, Health and Environmental Sciences, Humanities, and Management Sciences.

## 4.11 SAMPLE

Purposive sampling, namely a single-case study, was used to select the Registrar as the participant in this study. Yin (2009) maintained that "qualitative researchers can choose to have a single-case design, when the case represents an extreme or unique case. Examples of a single case that can be studied are an individual, an organisation or a community. To employ such a design, the researcher has to be certain that the phenomenon under study is very rare and that the participants who have the specific characteristics are very few and far in between". The Registrar was selected as a single participant who has specific, in-depth knowledge of the CUT language policy, and is a custodian thereof.

Purposive sampling is defined as the process of selecting samples that are rich in the information needed for the research and are fit for the study (Patton, 2002; Trochim & Donelly, 2007). Neuman (2000) contended that in purposive sampling, the researcher handpicks the cases to be included in the sample on the basis of his or her judgement of their typicality. The selection of the Registrar through the purposive sampling method was done based on the assumption that she represented a typical sample from the appropriate target population. The Registrar is the custodian of the Language Policy at the CUT; therefore, she could provide the researcher with relevant information on the reasons and factors as to why the CUT changed its dual-medium language policy to a monolingual language policy.

A stratified random sampling design was used to select an almost equal number of lecturers and students as participants for this study. Since the researcher wanted to draw a manageable stratified sample of 400 students, using equal allocation, 100 students were selected from each of the four faculties. Stratified random sampling was used to select an equal number of lecturers from each of the four faculties. The researcher wanted to draw a manageable stratified sample of 120 lecturers, using equal allocation. Therefore, 30 lecturers were selected per faculty. Stratified sampling is used in situations where populations consist of subgroups or strata (Durkheim & Painter, 200). Since not the same proportion of students or lecturers were selected from each faculty as they are in the population, the stratified sampling was disproportionate.

## 4.12 PLANNING FOR THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

Permission to conduct the research was requested (Appendix D) and was obtained from the CUT Director of Institutional Planning and Quality Enhancement (Appendix E). An ethical clearance permission letter was also received from the University of Zululand (Appendix F). According to Macmillan and Schumacher (2010:196), the term *ethic* refers to "a set of principles that people use to decide what is right and what is wrong or what is good or bad". Coetzee (2003) defined the term *research ethics* as moral and legal principles regulating the conduct of research in relationship with the resource provider, the research participants, the public and the researcher. Strydom (2002) stated that anyone who is involved in research needs to be aware of research ethics and the general agreements about what was proper and improper in the scientific research.

Studies in the social sciences need to consider the importance of ethical issues in research because much of the research is done with human subjects (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). Ethical issues relate to what is considered appropriate and inappropriate in the field of social science research. Consideration of ethical issues in conducting a study enables the researcher to protect the participants. It builds a relationship of trust with the participants and ensures that research is conducted with integrity (Babbie, 2014). The ethical standards that are adhered to in social sciences are voluntary participation, protection of participants from any form of harm, informed consent, ensuring anonymity and confidentiality of participants, honesty in reporting results, and approval of the research by the institutional review boards (Babbie, 2014; Creswell, 2014; Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). The following paragraphs outline the ethical issues that were taken into consideration in this study.

### 4.12.1 Voluntary participation

Researchers are mandated to avoid forcing people to participate in studies. It is ethical to explain the purpose of the study to participants and to request them to participate out of their own will. Participants should not be involved in the study for personal benefit such as money. They should not be involved because the researcher is in authority and, therefore, participants do not want to shame their superior (Babbie, 2014; Babbie & Mouton, 2007). The current study observed the principle of voluntary participation by explaining the purpose of the study to participants. The researcher further informed the participants that they should participate in the study out of their own free will and that they could withdraw their participation at any point.

### 4.12.2 Informed consent

Informed consent involves giving participants enough information to enable them to decide whether to participate in the study or not. Researchers need to brief the participants about the purpose of the study, what would be done with the data collected and what is expected from the participants (Bryman, 2012; King, 2010). Bryman (2012) suggested the use of a consent form that explains the purpose of the study and requests participants to sign before they respond to the questions. The researcher in the current study requested and received approval for the study from the CUT Director of Institutional Planning and Quality Enhancement. The purpose of the study was explained in the questionnaire and during the interview.

### 4.12.3 Protection of participants from any form of harm

Researchers should ensure that participants are not caused any harm as a result of participating in the study. Possible forms of harm include physical and psychological injuries. Research in the social sciences is more likely to pose psychological rather than physical harm. The psychological harm may be in the form of revealing the participants' unacceptable views and attitudes, damaging the participants' reputation, and embarrassing them (Babbie, 2014; King, 2010). The current study guarded the participants' safety by not revealing their names.

### 4.12.4 Ensuring anonymity and confidentiality of participants

Anonymity implies that even the researcher is unable to track the sources of the responses (Babbie & Mouton, 2007). In the current study, the researcher ensured the anonymity of the participants by not disclosing their names. Keeping the participants anonymous was not easy with qualitative data (interview) because it was only the CUT Registrar who was interviewed. The description and reporting of the results were done in a manner that could not expose the participants.

## 4.13 SUMMARY

This chapter focused on the methodology that was used in this study. The research paradigm and design, sampling and sampling procedure, data collection and analysis procedures used in this investigation were also outlined.

The next chapter (Chapter 5) presents and analyses the data that were collected.

# CHAPTER 5
# PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

## 5.1 SUMMARY

In Chapter 4, a detailed account of the research design and methodology was given. In this chapter the analysis and interpretation of the data are presented. Descriptive and inferential statistics are for the quantitative analysis of data for students with regard to language-related learning challenges that manifest at the CUT after the adoption of the English-only policy. Descriptive and inferential statistics are also used for the quantitative analysis of data for lecturers with regard to language policy management dynamics and complexities at South African universities, with specific reference to the CUT after the adoption of the English-only policy. A qualitative approach was used to analyse the responses from the Registrar.

## 5.2 ADMINISTRATION OF THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

The Statistical Analysis Software programme and the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) were used for analysing student and lecturer data. Cronbach's coefficient alpha was used to determine the internal consistency reliability estimates for items 1–28 (Section B), which measure overall student language-related learning problems, speaking problems (items 1–8), listening problems (items 9–15), reading problems (items 16–21), and writing problems (items 22–28). The internal consistency reliability estimate for the overall four domains of language-related learning problems is 0.90, which is excellent (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1989). An instrument with coefficient alpha measure of over 0.7 is regarded as internally consistent (Muijs, 2004). The internal consistency reliability estimates for speaking problems, listening problems, reading problems, and writing problems are 0.80, 0.66, 0.77, and 0.80, respectively. The internal consistency reliability estimates for the questionnaire related to the Language Policy Management is 0.69.

Table 5.1 illustrates the distribution of students in accordance with their biographical characteristics. Out of 400 questionnaires that were distributed to students, 110 were returned.

***Table 5.1: Distribution of students according to biographical variables (N=110)***

| **Criteria** | | **Frequency** |
|---|---|---|
| Gender | Male | 37 |
| | Female | 73 |
| Age in years | 18–21 | 53 |
| | 22–25 | 47 |
| | 26–29 | 9 |
| | 30+ | 1 |
| Year of study | First | 45 |
| | Second | 25 |
| | Third | 27 |
| | Fourth | 13 |
| Home language | English | 8 |
| | Afrikaans | 17 |
| | Sesotho | 53 |
| | IsiZulu | 15 |
| | Setswana | 6 |
| | Sepedi | 9 |
| | SiSwati | 1 |
| | Other | 1 |
| Faculty | Health and Environmental Sciences | 24 |
| | Humanities | 35 |
| | Management Sciences | 21 |
| | Engineering and Information Technology | 30 |

Table 5.2 illustrates the distribution of lecturers in accordance with their faculty characteristics. Out of 120 questionnaires that were distributed to lecturers, 84 were returned.

***Table 5.2: Distribution of lectures according to faculties (N=84)***

| Faculty | Number |
|---|---|
| Health and Environmental Sciences | 22 |
| Humanities | 21 |
| Management Sciences | 21 |
| Engineering and Information Technology | 20 |

## 5.3 RESULTS OF THE STUDY

### 5.3.1 Descriptive analysis of data for students

This section establishes whether the samples of students at the CUT have language challenges with speaking (items 1–8), listening (items 9-15), reading (items 16–21) or writing (items 22–28) in English or not. The results are presented in Table 5.3 and Figure 5.1.

***Table 5.3: Frequency distribution of students' responses to items 1–28 (N=110)***

| Statement number | Strongly agree* | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree | Mean $\overline{x}$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 4 (3.64) | 30 (27.27) | 46 (41.82) | 30 (27.27) | 2.93 |
| 2 | 9 (8.18) | 50 (45.45) | 40 (36.36) | 11 (10.0) | 2.48 |
| 3 | 4 (3.64) | 36 (32.73) | 46 (41.82) | 24 (21.82) | 2.82 |
| 4 | 24 (21.82) | 52 (47.27) | 23 (20.91) | 11 (10.0) | 2.19 |
| 5 | 22 (20.0) | 45 (40.91) | 28 (25.45) | 15 (13.64) | 2.33 |
| 6 | 6 (5.45) | 30 (27.27) | 39 (35.45) | 35 (31.82) | 2.94 |
| 7 | 3 (2.73) | 33 (30.0) | 39 (35.45) | 35 (31.82) | 2.96 |
| 8 | 10 (9.09) | 61 (55.45) | 30 (27.27) | 9 (8.18) | 2.35 |
| 9 | 1 (0.91) | 16 (14.55) | 54 (49.09) | 39 (35.45) | 3.19 |
| 1 | 1 (0.91) | 14 (12.73) | 42 (38.18) | 53 (48.18) | 3.34 |
| 11 | 5 (4.55) | 39 (35.45) | 46 (41.82) | 20 (18.18) | 2.74 |
| 12 | 6 (5.45) | 26 (23.64) | 51 (46.36) | 27 (24.55) | 2.90 |
| 13 | 3 (2.73) | 22 (20.0) | 64 (58.18) | 21 (19.09) | 2.94 |
| 14 | 1 (0.91) | 54 (49.09) | 43 (39.09) | 12 (10.91) | 2.60 |

| Statement number | Strongly agree* | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree | Mean $\bar{x}$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 15 | 11 (10.0) | 57 (51.82) | 34 (30.91) | 8 (7.27) | 2.35 |
| 16 | 3 (2.73) | 23 (20.91) | 52 (47.27) | 32 (29.09) | 3.03 |
| 17 | 7 (6.36) | 48 (43.64) | 31 (28.18) | 24 (21.82) | 2.65 |
| 18 | 7 (6.36) | 76 (69.09) | 16 (14.55) | 11 (10.0) | 2.28 |
| 19 | 16 (14.55) | 49 (44.55) | 32 (29.09) | 13 (11.82) | 2.38 |
| 20 | 1 (0.91) | 55 (50.0) | 42 (38.18) | 12 (10.91) | 2.59 |
| 21 | 2 (1.82) | 55 (50.0) | 44 (40.0) | 9 (8.18) | 2.55 |
| 22 | 12 (10.91) | 45 (40.91) | 32 (29.09) | 21 (19.09) | 2.56 |
| 23 | 3 (2.73) | 23 (20.91) | 63 (57.27) | 21 (19.09) | 2.93 |
| 24 | 2 (1.82) | 33 (30.0) | 57 (51.82) | 18 (16.36) | 2.83 |
| 25 | 2 (1.82) | 37 (33.64) | 55 (50.0) | 16 (14.55) | 2.77 |
| 26 | 12 (10.91) | 43 (39.09) | 32 (29.09) | 23 (20.91) | 2.60 |
| 27 | 8 (7.27) | 45 (40.91) | 41 (37.27) | 16 (14.55) | 2.59 |
| 28 | 9 (8.18) | 65 (59.09) | 24 (21.82) | 12 (10.91) | 2.35 |

* Percentages are in parentheses

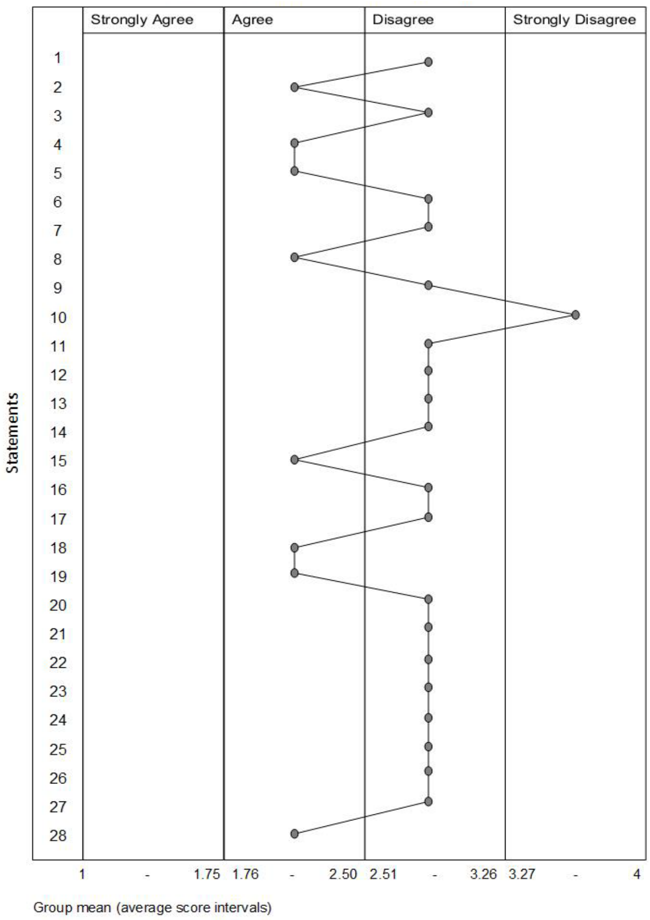


***Figure 5.1: Graphic representation of students' responses to every negatively***

Table 5.3 reveals the following information pertaining to students' responses to each item.

***Statement 1: I hesitate to speak English with lecturers and friends in and outside the classroom.***

Four (3.64%) students strongly agreed and 30 (46.27%) agreed that they hesitate to speak English with lecturers and friends in and outside the classroom. A total of 46 (41.82%) disagreed and 30 (27.27%) strongly disagreed to this statement. The mean score is 2.93. When converted back to the nominal categories of the scale, it falls within the 'disagree' category (see Figure 5.1). This means that, on average, the students disagreed to the statement that they hesitate to speak English with lecturers and friends in and outside the classroom.

***Statement 2: I feel self-conscious about my speaking proficiency.***

Nine (8.18%) students strongly agreed and 50 (45.45%) agreed that they feel self-conscious about their speaking proficiency. Forty (36.36%) students disagreed and 11 (10.0%) strongly disagreed. The mean score is 2.48. When converted back to the nominal categories of the scale, it falls within the 'agree' category (see Figure 5.1). This means that, on average, the students agreed that they feel self-conscious about their speaking proficiency.

***Statement 3: I have difficulty in speaking fluently in English.***

Four (3.64%) students strongly agreed and 36 (32.73%) agreed that they have difficulty in speaking fluently in English. A total of 46 (41.82%) disagreed and 24 (21.82%) strongly disagreed. The mean score is 2.82. When converted back to the nominal categories of the scale, it falls within the 'disagree' category (see Figure 5.1). This means that, on average, the students disagreed that they have difficulty in speaking fluently in English.

**_Statement 4: I mix other languages with English in my conversations._**

A total of 24 (21.82%) students strongly agreed and 52 (47.27%) agreed that they mix other languages with English in their conversations, whereas 23 (20.91%) disagreed and 11 (10.0%) strongly disagreed. The mean score is 2.19. When converted back to the nominal categories of the scale, it falls within the 'agree' category (see Figure 5.1). This means that, on average, the students agreed that they mix other languages with English in their conversations.

**_Statement 5: I worry about making mistakes all the time when I speak._**

A total of 22 (20.0%) students strongly agreed and 45 (40.91%) agreed that they worry about making mistakes all the time when they speak. In this case, 28 (25.45%) disagreed and 15 (13.64%) strongly disagreed. The mean score is 2.33. When converted back to the nominal categories of the scale, it falls within the 'agree' category (see Figure 5.2). This means that, on average, the students agreed that they worry about making mistakes all the time when they speak.

**_Statement 6: I feel embarrassed about my low language proficiency._**

Only 6 (4.45%) students strongly agreed and 30 (27.27%) agreed that they feel embarrassed about their low language proficiency, whereas almost the same number of 39 students (35.45%) disagreed and 35 (31.82%) strongly disagreed. The mean score is 2.94. When converted back to the nominal categories of the scale, it falls within the 'disagree' category (see Figure 5.1). This means that, on average, the students disagreed that they feel embarrassed about their low language proficiency.

**_Statement 7: I feel proficient English speakers view me as not intelligent, incompetent and dull._**

Only 3 (2.73%) students strongly agreed, but 33 (30.0%) agreed that they feel that proficient English speakers view them as not intelligent, incompetent and dull. With this statement, 39 (35.45%) disagreed and 35 (31.82%) strongly disagreed. The mean score is 2.96. When converted back to the nominal categories of the scale, it falls within the 'disagree' category (see Figure 5.1). This means that, on average, the students disagreed that they feel proficient English speakers view them as not intelligent, incompetent and dull.

***Statement 8: I am unfamiliar with certain English vocabulary.***

Ten (9.09%) students strongly agreed and 61 (55.45%) agreed that they are unfamiliar with certain English vocabulary. Thirty (27.27%) disagreed and 9 (8.18%) strongly disagreed. The mean score is 2.35. When converted back to the nominal categories of the scale, it falls within the 'agree' category (see Figure 5.1). This means that, on average, the students agreed that they are unfamiliar with certain English vocabulary.

***Statement 9: I am unable to fully understand lecturers in and outside the classroom.***

Only 1 (0.91%) student strongly agreed and 16 (14.55%) agreed that they are unable to fully understand lecturers in and outside the classroom, whereas 54 (49.09%) disagreed and 39 (35.45%) strongly disagreed. The mean score is 3.19. When converted back to the nominal categories of the scale, it falls within the 'disagree' category (see Figure 5.1). This means that, on average, the students disagreed that they are unable to fully understand lecturers in and outside the classroom.

***Statement 10: I am unable to keep up with the conversation or discussion with my classmates.***

Only 1 (0.91%) student strongly agreed and 14 (12.75%) agreed that they are unable to keep up with the conversation or discussion with their classmates. A total of 42 (38.18%) disagreed and 53 (48.18%) strongly disagreed. The mean score is 3.34. When converted back to the nominal categories of the scale, it falls within the 'strongly disagree' category (see Figure 5.1). This means that, on average, the students strongly disagreed that they are unable to keep up with the conversation or discussion with their classmates.

***Statement 11: During the conversation with my lecturers and classmates I become unfamiliar with some meanings.***

Only 5 (4.55%) students strongly agreed, but 39 (35.45%) agreed that they become unfamiliar with some meanings during the conversation with their lecturers and classmates, while 46 (41.82%) disagreed and 20 (18.82%) strongly disagreed. The mean score is 2.73. When converted back to the nominal categories of the scale, it falls within the 'disagree' category (see Figure 5.1). This means that, on average, the students disagreed that they become unfamiliar with some meanings during the conversation with their lecturers and classmates.

***Statement 12: Lecturers speak too fast.***

Six (5.45%) students strongly agreed and 26 (23.64%) agreed that lecturers speak too fast. About 51 (46.36%) disagreed and 27 (24.55%) strongly disagreed. The mean score is 2.90. When converted back to the nominal categories of the scale, it falls within the 'disagree' category (see Figure 5.1). This means that, on average, the students disagreed that lecturers speak too fast.

***Statement 13: I always ask speakers/lecturers for clarification.***

Three 3 (2.73%) students strongly agreed and 22 (20.0%) agreed that they always ask speakers/lecturers for clarification. A majority of 64 (58.18%) students disagreed and 21 (19.09%) strongly disagreed. The mean score is 2.94. When converted back to the nominal categories of the scale, it falls within the 'disagree' category (see Figure 5.1). This means that, on average, the students disagreed that they always ask speakers/lecturers for clarification.

***Statement 14: I sometimes respond inaccurately.***

Only 1 (0.91%) student strongly agreed, whereas 54 (49.09%) agreed that they sometimes respond inaccurately. On the other hand, 43 (39.09%) disagreed, but only 12 (10.91%) strongly disagreed. The mean score is 2.60. When converted back to the nominal categories of the scale, it falls within the 'disagree' category (see Figure 5.1). This means that, on average, the students disagreed that they sometimes respond inaccurately.

***Statement 15: I sometimes misunderstand my lecturers.***

On this statement, 11 (10.0%) students strongly agreed and 57 (51.82%) agreed that they sometimes misunderstand their lecturers, whereas 34 (30.91%) disagreed but only 8 (7.27%) strongly disagreed. The mean score is 2.35. When converted back to the nominal categories of the scale, it falls within the 'agree' category (see Figure 5.1). This means that, on average, the students agreed that they sometimes misunderstand their lecturers.

***Statement 16: I am unable to fully comprehend passages, articles, projects and assignments.***

Only 3 (2.73%) students strongly agreed and 23 (20.91%) agreed that they are unable to fully comprehend passages, articles, projects and assignments. With this statement, 52 (47.27%) disagreed and 32 (29.09%) strongly disagreed. The mean score is 3.03. When converted back to the nominal categories of the scale, it falls within the 'disagree' category (see Figure 5.1). This means that on average, the students disagree that they are unable to fully comprehend passages, articles, projects and assignments.

***Statement 17: I require longer duration to read projects, question papers, articles, projects, and assignments.***

Seven (6.36%) students strongly agreed and 48 (43.64%) agreed that they require longer duration to read projects, question papers, articles, projects and assignments, whereas 31 (28.18%) disagreed and 24 (21.82%) strongly disagreed. The mean score is 2.65. When converted back to the nominal categories of the scale, it falls within the 'disagree' category (see Figure 5.1). This means that, on average, the students disagreed that they require longer duration to read projects, question papers, articles, projects and assignments.

**Statement 18: *I occasionally encounter unfamiliar words.***

Only 7 (6.36%) students strongly agreed, whereas 76 (69.09%) agreed that they occasionally encounter unfamiliar words. With this statement, only 16 (14.55%) disagreed and 11 (10.0%) strongly disagreed. The mean score is 2.28. When converted back to the nominal categories of the scale, it falls within the 'agree' category (see Figure 5.1). This means that, on average, the students agreed that they occasionally encounter unfamiliar words.

***Statement 19: I constantly refer to English and bilingual dictionaries.***

With this statement, 16 (14.55%) students strongly agreed and 49 (44.55%) agreed that they constantly refer to English and bilingual dictionaries. On the other hand, 32 (29.09%) disagreed and 13 (11.82%) strongly disagreed. The mean score is 2.38. When converted back to the nominal categories of the scale, it falls within the 'agree' category (see Figure 5.1). This means that, on average, the students agree that they constantly refer to English and bilingual dictionaries.

***Statement 20: I constantly refer to base forms prefix or suffix to guess meanings of words.***

Only 1 (0.91%) student strongly agreed; however, a larger number of 55 (50.0%) agreed with the above statement. On the other hand, 42 (38.18%) students disagreed and 12 (10.91%) strongly disagreed with this statement. The mean score is 2.59. When converted back to the nominal categories of the scale, it falls within the 'disagree' category (see Figure 5.1). This means that, on average, the students disagreed that they constantly refer to base forms prefix or suffix to guess meanings of words.

**_Statement 21: Reading comprehension and fluency is sometimes hampered._**

Only 2 (1.82%) students strongly agreed, whereas 55 (50.0%) agreed that their reading comprehension and fluency is sometimes hampered**.** About 44 (40.0%) of the students disagreed and nine (8.18%) strongly disagreed. The mean score is 2.55. When converted back to the nominal categories of the scale, it falls within the 'disagree' category (see Figure 5.1). This means that on average, the students disagreed that their reading comprehension and fluency is sometimes hampered.

**_Statement 22: I require a longer period to write an essay._**

Twelve (10.91%) students strongly agreed and 45 (40.91%) agreed that they require a longer period to write an essay. On the other hand, 32 (29.09%) disagreed and 21 (19.09%) strongly disagreed. The mean score is 2.56. When converted back to the nominal categories of the scale, it falls within the 'disagree' category (see Figure 5.1). This means that, on average, the students disagreed that they require a longer period to write an essay.

**_Statement 23: I am not familiar with the topics._**

Only 3 (2.73%) students strongly agreed and 23 (20.91%) agreed that they are not familiar with the topics. A much larger number of 63 students (57.27%) disagreed and 21 (19.09%) strongly disagreed on this statement. The mean score is 2.93. When converted back to the nominal categories of the scale, it falls within the 'disagree' category (see Figure 5.1). This means that, on average, the students disagreed that they are not familiar with the topics.

**_Statement 24: I have difficulty in writing academic essays._**

Only 2 (1.82%) students strongly agreed and 33 (30.0%) agreed that they have difficulty in writing academic essays, while 57 (51.82%) disagreed and 18 (16.36%) strongly disagreed. The mean score is 2.83. When converted back to the nominal categories of the scale, it falls within the 'disagree' category (see Figure 5.1). This means that, on average, the students disagreed that they have difficulty in writing academic essays.

| |
|---|
| ***Statement 25: I have difficulty in procuring ideas to write essay outlines.*** |

Again, only 2 (1.82%) students strongly agreed and 37 (33.64%) agreed that they have difficulty in procuring ideas to write essay outlines, while 55 (50.0%) disagreed and 16 (14.55%) strongly disagreed. The mean score is 2.77. When converted back to the nominal categories of the scale, it falls within the 'disagree' category (see Figure 5.1). This means that, on average, the students disagreed that they have difficulty in procuring ideas to write essay outlines.

| |
|---|
| ***Statement 26: I mentally construct sentences in my mother tongue before translating into English.*** |

On this statement, 12 (10.91%) students strongly agreed, while 43 (39.09%) agreed that they mentally construct sentences in their mother tongue before translating it into English. A total of 32 (29.09) students disagreed and 23 (20.91%) strongly disagreed. The mean score is 2.60. When converted back to the nominal categories of the scale, it falls within the 'disagree' category (see Figure 5.1). This means that, on average, the students disagreed that they mentally construct sentences in their mother tongue before translating it into English.

| |
|---|
| ***Statement 27: I constantly refer to English and bilingual dictionaries and an online translator.*** |

Only 8 (7.27%) students strongly agreed and 45 (40.91%) agreed that they constantly refer to English and bilingual dictionaries or an online translator, whereas 41 (37.27%) disagreed and 16 (14.55%) strongly disagreed. The mean score is 2.59. When converted back to the nominal categories of the scale, it falls within the 'disagree' category (see Figure 5.1). This means that, on average, the students disagreed that they constantly refer to English and bilingual dictionaries and an online translator.

**_Statement 28: I need to synthesise, paraphrase and cite various sources._**

Nine (8.18%) students strongly agreed and 65 (59.09%) agreed that they need to synthesise, paraphrase and cite various sources, whereas 24 (21.82%) disagreed and 12 (10.91%) strongly disagreed. The mean score is 2.35. When converted back to the nominal categories of the scale, it falls within the 'agree' category (see Figure 5.1). This means that, on average, the students agreed that they need to synthesise, paraphrase and cite various sources.

### 5.3.2 Analysis of data for students using inferential statistics

This section establishes the extent of English language learning problems and whether English language challenges are influenced by students' biographical factors such as gender, age, year of study, home language, and faculty, or not. The hypotheses are tested, and the results are presented in Tables 5.4 to 5.9. The presentation of the data in tables is preceded by the reiteration of each hypothesis.

#### *5.3.2.1 Testing of hypothesis 1*

Hypothesis 1 is reiterated as follows:

> *Students do not differ in the extent of their language learning problems that manifest at the Central University of Technology, Free State (CUT) after the adoption of the English-only policy.*

The appropriate statistical test chosen for testing this hypothesis was the chi-square one sample test. The chi-square one sample test is appropriate because hypothesis 1 is concerned with comparing how many respondents of the whole sample fall into each of the descriptive categories, namely a low language learning problem (LLLP), a moderate language learning problem (MLLP) and a high language learning problem (HLLP). The chi-square one sample test is recommended for comparing differences in the observed frequencies with the expected frequencies in a single sample with various categories to determine whether the differences (except for sampling error) are typical of the population from which the sample was drawn (Behr, 1988:82).

***Table 5.4: Group and language learning problems levels***

| Level | Score range | Frequency |
|---|---|---|
| Low language learning problem (LLLP) | 28–56 | 4 |
| Moderate language learning problem (MLLP) | 57–84 | 86 |
| High language learning problem (HLLP) | 85–112 | 20 |

A chi-square value of 103.55 at degrees of freedom (df) = 2 was obtained for Table 5.4. It is significant at our chosen level of significance, which is 0.05. Since $p<0.05$, the decision is to reject the null hypothesis and conclude that students differ in the extent of their language learning problems that manifest at the CUT after the adoption of the English-only policy.

#### *5.3.2.2 Testing of hypothesis 2*

Hypothesis 2 is reiterated as follows:

> *Students' biographical factors (gender, age, year of study, home language, and faculty) have no influence on their language learning problems.*

The chi-square test for *k* independent samples was chosen as an appropriate statistical test for testing this hypothesis. The chi-square test for *k* independent samples is appropriate because the respondents in the sample are categorised in terms of personal particulars and their responses are considered independently.

One-way ANOVA was also chosen as an appropriate statistical test for testing this hypothesis for the effect of students' biographical factors on each domain of language learning problems (speaking, listening, reading, and writing). One-way ANOVA is appropriate for designs that have one independent variable consisting of more than two groups (Durkheim, & Painter, 2007:271). One-way ANOVA instead of chi-square test for *k* independent samples is chosen for each domain of language learning problems because each domain has few items to create three meaningful categories.

*Table 5.5: Biographical variables and students' language learning problems*

| Criteria | | Language learning problem level | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Low (28–56) | Moderate (57–84) | High (85–112) |
| Gender | Male | 0 | 31 | 6 |
| | Female | 4 | 55 | 14 |
| Age in years | 18–21 | 2 | 46 | 5 |
| | 22–25 | 1 | 33 | 13 |
| | 26–29 | 1 | 6 | 2 |
| | 30+ | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| Year of study | First | 3 | 38 | 4 |
| | Second | 0 | 18 | 7 |
| | Third | 1 | 20 | 6 |
| | Fourth | 0 | 10 | 3 |
| Home language | English | 0 | 4 | 2 |
| | Afrikaans | 0 | 12 | 5 |
| | Sesotho | 4 | 40 | 9 |
| | IsiXhosa | 0 | 14 | 1 |
| | IsiZulu | 0 | 5 | 1 |
| | Setswana | 0 | 8 | 0 |
| | Sepedi | 0 | 2 | 0 |
| | SiSwati | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| | Other | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| Faculty | Health and Environmental Science | 1 | 19 | 4 |
| | Humanities | 1 | 25 | 9 |
| | Management Sciences | 0 | 18 | 3 |
| | Engineering and Information Technology | 2 | 24 | 4 |

Chi-squire values of 2.370 at df=2; p>0.05 for gender; 7.629, df=6, p>0.05 for age; 6.804, df=6, p>0.05 year of study; 13.691, df=16, p>0.05 for home language; 3.656, df=6, p>0.05 for faculty, respectively, were obtained for Table 5.5. They are not significant at our chosen level of significance, which is 0.05. Since p>0.05, the decision was not to reject the null hypothesis and conclude that students' biographical factors (gender, age, year of study, home language, and faculty) have no influence on their language learning problems.

***Table 5.6: One-way ANOVA for Factor 1: Speaking problems***

| Source | Sum of Squares | DF | Mean Square | F | Significant level |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Gender | 0.08177785 | 1 | 0.08177785 | 0.27 | 0.6041 |
| Age | 0.24671790 | 2 | 0.12335895 | 0.41 | 0.6671 |
| Year of study | 0.00899435 | 3 | 0.00299812 | 0.01 | 0.9987 |
| Home language | 0.10602133 | 2 | 0.05301066 | 0.17 | 0.8407 |
| Faculty | 1.03265185 | 3 | 0.34421728 | 1.15 | 0.3321 |

Table 5.6 reveals that there are no significant differences (main effects) among mean scores for students' biographical variables (gender, age, year of study, home language, and faculty) on perceptions of speaking problems. This means that students' perceptions of the speaking problems are not dependent on their biographical variables.

***Table 5.7: One-way ANOVA for Factor 2: Listening problems***

| Source | Sum of Squares | DF | Mean Square | F | Significant level |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Gender | 0.08341609 | 1 | 0.08341609 | 0.45 | 0.5056 |
| Age | 0.28663895 | 2 | 0.14331948 | 0.77 | 0.4669 |
| Year of study | 1.53237789 | 3 | 0.51079263 | 2.89 | 0.0390* |
| Home language | 0.86511106 | 2 | 0.43255553 | 2.38 | 0.0971 |
| Faculty | 0.23848617 | 3 | 0.07949539 | 0.42 | 0.7387 |

*P<0.0390

Table 5.7 indicates that the main effect, termed 'year of study' is significant at the 3.90% level of significance. Since the mean scores for listening problems for first year, second year, third 3rd year and fourth year of study are 2.62, 2.63, 2.62 and 2.64, respectively, it means that fourth-year students experience more challenges from listening problems than first-, second- or third-year students.

***Table 5.8: One-way ANOVA for Factor 3: Reading problems***

| Source | Sum of Squares | DF | Mean Square | F | Significant level |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Gender | 0.06930851 | 1 | 0.06930851 | 0.24 | 0.6227 |
| Age | 0.74028746 | 2 | 0.37014373 | 1.32 | 0.2723 |
| Year of study | 1.22708898 | 3 | 0.40902966 | 1.47 | 0.2282 |
| Home language | 1.16915931 | 2 | 0.58457965 | 2.11 | 0.1263 |
| Faculty | 0.24951900 | 3 | 0.08317300 | 0.29 | 0.8337 |

Table 5.8 reveals there are no significant differences (main effects) among mean scores for students' biographical variables (gender, age, year of study, home language, and faculty) on perceptions of reading problems. This means that students' perceptions of the reading problems are not dependent on their biographical variables.

***Table 5.9: One-way ANOVA for Factor 4: Writing problems***

| Source | Sum of squares | DF | Mean square | F | Significant level |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Gender | 0.42246430 | 1 | 0.42246430 | 1.44 | 0.2325 |
| Age | 0.45469628 | 2 | 0.22734814 | 0.77 | 0.4658 |
| Year of study | 2.07385926 | 3 | 0.69128642 | 2.44 | 0.0682 |
| Home language | 0.18050355 | 2 | 0.09025177 | 0.30 | 0.7394 |
| Faculty | 0.30206069 | 3 | 0.10068690 | 0.34 | 0.7994 |

Table 5.9 reveals there are no significant differences (main effects) among mean scores for students' biographical variables (gender, age, year of study, home language, and faculty) on perceptions of writing problems. This means that students' perceptions of the writing problems are not dependent on their biographical variables.

### 5.3.3 Descriptive analysis of data for lecturers

This section reports on the opinions of the sample of CUT lecturers regarding English as a medium of instruction at the CUT. The results are presented in Table 5.10 and 5.11 as well as Figure 5.2 and 5.3.

***Table 5.10: Frequency distribution of responses to items 1–14 (N=84)***

| Statement number | Strongly agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree | Mean $\bar{x}$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| +1 | 9 (10.71%) | 28 (33.33%) | 22 (26.19%) | 25 (29.76%) | 2.75 |
| –2 | 41 (48.81%) | 34 (40.48%) | 5 (5.95%) | 4(4.76%) | 3.33 |
| +3 | 9 (10.71%) | 19 (22.62%) | 41 (48.81%) | 15 (17.86%) | 2.74 |
| –4 | 17 (20.24%) | 26 (30.95%) | 24 (28.57%) | 17 (20.24%) | 2.51 |
| –5 | 9 (10.71%) | 25 (29.76%) | 36 (42.86%) | 14 (16.67%) | 2.35 |
| –6 | 9 (10.71%) | 29 (34.52%) | 28 (33.33%) | 18 (21.43%) | 2.35 |
| –7 | 38 (45.24%) | 32 (38.10%) | 9 (10.71%) | 5 (5.95%) | 3.23 |
| +8 | 6 (7.14%) | 40 (47.62%) | 32 (38.10%) | 6 (7.14%) | 2.45 |
| +9 | 15 (17.86%) | 34 (40.48%) | 25 (29.76%) | 10 (11.90%) | 2.36 |
| +10 | 13 (15.48%) | 35 (41.67%) | 26 (30.95%) | 10 (11.90%) | 2.39 |
| –11 | 0 (0%) | 11 (13.10%) | 33 (39.29%) | 40 (47.62%) | 1.65 |
| –12 | 7 (8.33%) | 54 (64.29%) | 16 (19.05%) | 7 (8.33%) | 2.73 |
| –13 | 18 (21.43%) | 50 (59.52%) | 13 (15.48%) | 3 (3.57%) | 2.99 |
| +14 | 0 (0%) | 23 (27.38%) | 44 (52.38%) | 17 (20.24%) | 2.93 |

* Percentages are in parentheses
+ Positively worded statements (scoring = 4, 3, 2, 1)
– Negatively worded statements (scoring = 1, 2, 3, 4)

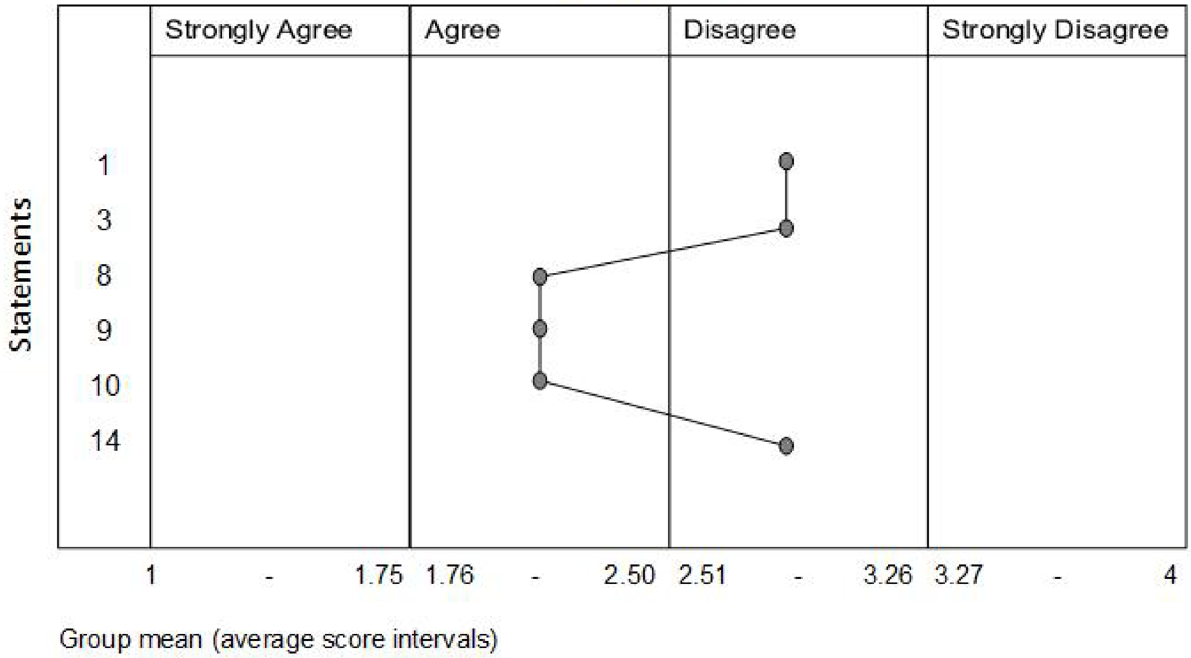


*Figure 5.2: Graphic representation of lecturers' responses to every negatively worded statement*

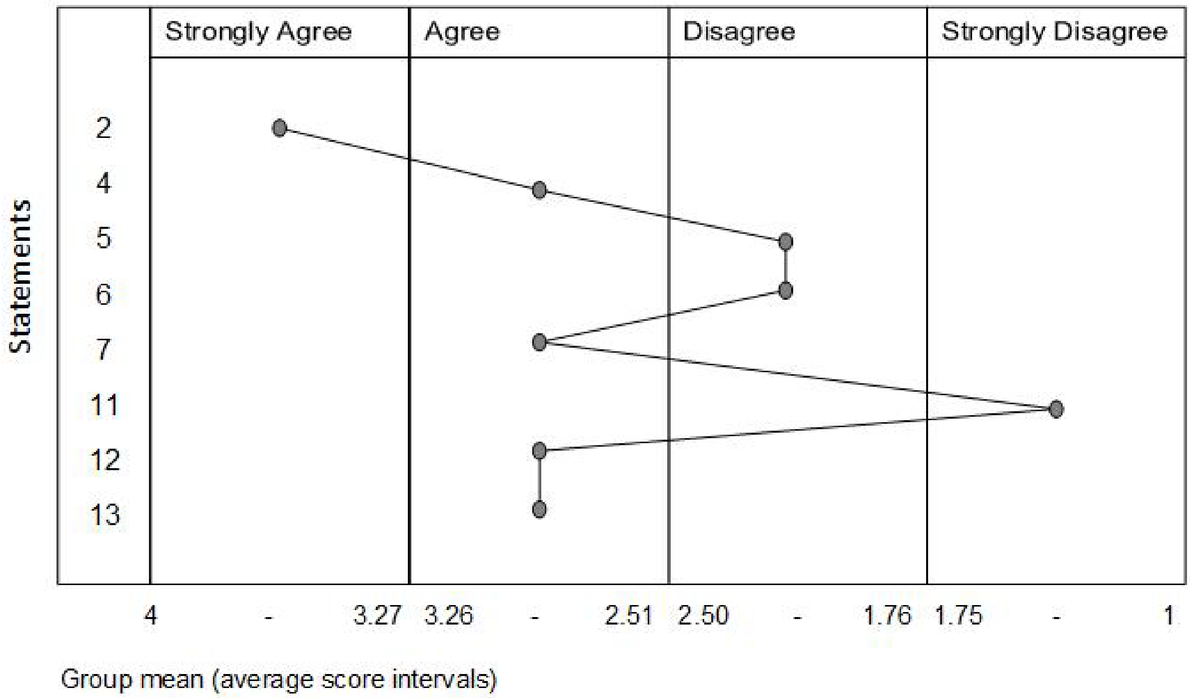


*Figure 5.3: Graphic representation of lecturers' responses to every positively worded statement*

The data in Table 5.10 shows the following information pertaining to lecturers' responses to each item.

***Statement 1: A minimum of 50% CUT English Language Policy is a barrier to access and success of students.***

This statement is a negatively worded statement. Table 5.10 reveals that 9 (10.71%) of the lecturers strongly agreed and 28 (33.33%) agreed that the minimum of 50% CUT English Language Policy is a barrier to access and success of students**.** A total of 22 (26.19%) lecturers disagreed and 25 (29.76%) strongly disagreed. The mean score is 2.75. When converted back to the nominal categories of the scale, it falls within the 'disagree’ category (see Figure 5.2). This means that, on average, the lecturers disagreed that the minimum of 50% CUT English Language Policy is a barrier to access and success of students.

***Statement 2: I am satisfied with the use of English as a language of teaching and learning.***

This is a positively worded statement. Table 4.9 shows that 41 (48.81%) of the lecturers strongly agree and 34 (40.48%) agreed that they are satisfied with the use of English as a language of teaching and learning. Five lecturers (5.95%) disagreed and 4 (4.76%) strongly disagreed. The mean score is 3.33. When converted back to the nominal categories of the scale, it falls within the 'strongly agree’ category (see Figure 5.3). This means that, on average, the lecturers strongly agreed that they are satisfied with the use of English as a language of teaching and learning.

***Statement 3: The policy attempt to increase the number of speakers in one language at the expense of other languages.***

This statement is negatively worded statement. Table 5.10 reveals that 9 (10.71%) of the lecturers strongly agreed and 19 (22.62%) agreed that the policy attempt to increase the number of speakers in one language at the expense of other languages**.** A total of 41 (48.81%) of the lecturers disagreed and 15 (17.86%) strongly disagreed.

The mean score is 2.74. When converted back to the nominal categories of the scale, it falls within the ‘disagree’ category (see Figure 5.2). This means that, on average, the lecturers disagreed that the policy attempt to increase the number of speakers in one language at the expense of other languages.

***Statement 4: The university language policy accommodates multilingualism and diversity.***

This is a positively worded statement. Table 5.10 shows that 17 (20.24%) of the lecturers strongly agreed and 26 (30.95%) agreed that the university language policy accommodates multilingualism and diversity. A total of 24 (28.57%) disagreed and 17 (20.24%) strongly disagreed. The mean score is 2.51. When converted back to the nominal categories of the scale, it falls within the ‘agree’ category (see Figure 5.3). This means that, on average, the lecturers agreed that the university language policy accommodates multilingualism and diversity.

***Statement 5: Provision is made at CUT to empower staff members in English proficiency.***

This is a positively worded statement. Table 5.10 reveals that 9 (10.71%) of the lecturers strongly agreed and 25 (29.76%) agreed that provision is made at CUT to empower staff members in English. On the other hand, 36 (42.86%) of the lecturers disagreed and 14 (16.67%) strongly disagreed. The mean score is 2.35. When converted back to the nominal categories of the scale, it falls within the 'disagree’ category (see Figure 5.3). This means that, on average, the lecturers disagreed that provision is made at CUT to empower staff members in English.

***Statement 6: Monitoring procedures or follow-ups have been put into place to ensure that the language policy has actually been put into practice.***

This is a positively worded statement. Table 5.10 shows that 9 (10.71%) of the lecturers strongly agreed and 29 (34.52%) agreed that monitoring procedures or follow-ups have been put into place to ensure that the language policy has actually been put into practice. However, 28 (33.33%) of the lecturers disagreed and 18 (21.43%) strongly disagreed. The mean score is 2.35. When converted back to the nominal categories of the scale, it falls within the ‘disagree’ category (see Figure 5.3). This means that, on average, the lecturers disagreed that monitoring procedures or follow-ups have been put into place to ensure that the language policy has actually been put into practice.

***Statement 7: English must be used as the language of internal and face-to-face enquiries.***

This is a positively worded statement. Table 5.10 reveals that 38 (45.24%) of the lecturers strongly agreed and 32 (38.10%) agreed that English must be used as the language of internal and face-to-face enquiries. Only a small number of 9 (10.71%) lecturers disagreed and 5 (5.95%) strongly disagreed. The mean score is 3.23. When converted back to the nominal categories of the scale, it falls within the 'agree’ category (see Figure 5.3). This means that, on average, the lecturers agreed that English must be used as the language of internal and face-to-face enquiries.

***Statement 8: Code-switching is always a resort when I ask questions for revision.***

This statement is a negatively worded statement. Table 5.10 reveals that 6 (7.14%) of the lecturers strongly agreed and 40 (47.62%) agreed that code-switching is always a resort when they ask questions for revision. However, 32 (38.10%) disagreed and 6 (7.14%) strongly disagreed. The mean score is 2.45. When converted back to the nominal categories of the scale, it falls within the 'agree’ category (see Figure 5.2). This means that, on average, the lecturers agreed that code-switching is always a resort when they ask questions for revision.

***Statement 9: Students always ask clarity seeking questions in tests and examinations since English is the medium of instruction.***

This statement is a negatively worded statement. Table 5.10 reveals that 15 (17.86%) of the lecturers strongly agreed and 34 (40.48%) agreed that students always ask clarity seeking questions in tests and examinations since English is the medium of instruction. Only 25 (29.76%) disagreed and 10 (11.90%) strongly disagreed. The mean score is 2.36. When converted back to the nominal categories of the scale, it falls within the 'agree' category (see Figure 5.2). This means that, on average, the lecturers agreed that students always ask clarity seeking questions in tests and examinations since English is the medium of instruction.

***Statement 10: My students always have language problems in their tests and projects.***

This statement is a negatively worded statement. Table 5.10 reveals that 13 (15.48%) of the lecturers strongly agreed and 35 (41.67%) agreed that their students always have language problems in their tests and projects. However, 26 (30.95%) of the lecturers disagreed and 10 (11.90%) strongly disagreed. The mean score is 2.39. When converted back to the nominal categories of the scale, it falls within the 'agree' category (see Figure 5.2). This means that, on average, the lecturers agreed that their students always have language problems in their tests and projects.

***Statement 11: I have been consulted for inputs/comments in the language policy.***

This is a positively worded statement. Table 5.10 shows that none of the lecturers strongly agreed and only 11 (13.10%) agreed that they have been consulted for inputs/comments in the language policy. About 33 (39.29%) of the lecturers disagreed and 40 (47.62%) strongly disagreed. The mean score is 1.65. When converted back to the nominal categories of the scale, it falls within the 'strongly disagree' category (see Figure 5.3). This means that, on average, the lecturers strongly disagreed that they have been consulted for inputs/comments in the language policy.

***Statement 12: I agree with the formulation of the contents of the language policy and find it acceptable.***

This is a positively worded statement. Table 5.10 shows that 7 (8.33%) of the lecturers strongly agreed and 54 (64.29%) agreed with the formulation of the contents of the language policy and found it acceptable. About 16 (19.05%) disagreed and 7 (8.33%) strongly disagreed. The mean score is 2.73. When converted back to the nominal categories of the scale, it falls within the 'agree' category (see Figure 5.3). This means that, on average, the lecturers agreed with the formulation of the contents of the language policy and found it acceptable.

***Statement 13: The Central University of Technology policy is a good choice.***

This is a positively worded statement. Table 5.10 reveals that 18 (21.43%) of the lecturers strongly agreed and 50 (59.52%) agreed that the CUT policy is a good choice, whereas 13 (15.48%) disagreed and 3 (3.57%) strongly disagreed. The mean score is 2.99. When converted back to the nominal categories of the scale, it falls within the 'agree' category (see Figure 5.3). This means that, on average, the lecturers agreed that the CUT policy is a good choice.

***Statement 14: Lexicons and terminology in other languages are developed at the Central University of Technology.***

This statement is a negatively worded statement. According to Table 5.10 none of the lecturers strongly agreed but 23 (27.38%) agreed that lexicons and terminology in other languages are developed at CUT. However, 44 (52.38%) disagreed and 17 (20.24%) strongly disagreed. The mean score is 2.93. When converted back to the nominal categories of the scale, it falls within the 'disagree' category (see Figure 5.2). This means that, on average, the lecturers disagreed that lexicons and terminology in other languages are developed at CUT.

### 5.3.4 Analysis of data for lectures using inferential statistics

This section establishes the extent of lecturers' opinions regarding English as a medium of instruction are influenced by lecturers' biographical variable (faculty) or not. Hypotheses 3 and 4 are tested, and the results are presented in Tables 5.11 and 5.12, respectively. The presentation of the data (in tables) is preceded by the reiteration of each hypothesis.

#### *5.3.4.1 Testing of hypothesis 3*

Hypothesis 3 is reiterated as follows:

> *Lecturers do not differ in the nature of their opinions regarding English as a medium of instruction at the Central University of Technology, Free State (CUT).*

The appropriate statistical test chosen for testing this hypothesis is the chi-square one sample test. The chi-square one sample test is appropriate because hypothesis 3 is concerned with comparing how many respondents of the whole sample fall into each of the descriptive categories, namely negative opinion, uncertain opinion and positive opinion groups.

***Table 5.11: Group and lecturers' opinion levels***

| Opinion | Range | Frequencies |
|---|---|---|
| Negative opinion | 14–28 | 12 |
| Uncertain opinion | 29–42 | 70 |
| Positive opinion | 43–56 | 2 |

A chi-squire value of 96.286 at df=2 was obtained for Table 5.11. It was significant at our chosen level of significance, which is 0.05. Since $p<0.05$, the decision was to reject the null hypothesis and conclude that lecturers differ significantly in the nature of their opinions regarding English as a medium of instruction at CUT.

#### *5.3.4.2 Testing of hypothesis 4*

Hypothesis number four is reiterated as follows:

> *The faculty variable has no influence on lecturers' opinions regarding English as a medium of instruction at the Central University of Technology, Free State (CUT).*

The chi-square test for *k* independent samples was chosen as an appropriate statistical test for testing this hypothesis. The chi-square test for *k* independent samples was appropriate because the respondents in the sample were categorised in terms of faculties and their responses were considered independently.

One-way ANOVA was also chosen as an appropriate statistical test for testing this hypothesis on the effect of faculty variable on each language policy-related item.

***Table 5.12: Faculty and lecturers' opinion levels***

| Faculty | Negative opinion (14–24) | Uncertain opinion (29–42) | Positive opinion (43–56) |
|---|---|---|---|
| Health & Environmental Sciences | 2 | 20 | 0 |
| Humanities | 5 | 16 | 0 |
| Management Sciences | 4 | 16 | 1 |
| Engineering & Information Technology | 1 | 18 | 1 |

A chi-squire value of 0.434 at df=6 was obtained for Table 5.12. It was not significant at our chosen level of significance, which is 0.05. Since p>0.05, the decision was not to reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the faculty variable has no influence on lecturers' opinions regarding English as a medium of instruction at CUT.

*Table 5.13: One-way ANOVA for faculty and lecturer items*

| Item | Sum of squares | DF | Mean square | F | Significant level |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 1.90670996 | 3 | 0.63556999 | 0.62 | 0.6033 |
| 2 | 1.02683983 | 3 | 0.34227994 | 0.53 | 0.6628 |
| 3 | 0.34393939 | 3 | 0.11464646 | 0.14 | 0.9335 |
| 4 | 2.94826840 | 3 | 0.98275613 | 0.91 | 0.4382 |
| 5 | 1.09632035 | 3 | 0.36544012 | 0.46 | 0.7127 |
| 6 | 7.89372294 | 3 | 2.63124098 | 3.23 | **0.0266*** |
| 7 | 3.33636364 | 3 | 1.11212121 | 1.50 | **0.2213** |
| 8 | 4.92099567 | 3 | 1.64033189 | 3.29 | **0.0248** |
| 9 | 1.64588745 | 3 | 0.54862915 | 0.65 | 0.5859 |
| 10 | 11.31255411 | 3 | 3.77085137 | 5.51 | **0.0017** |
| 11 | 2.16753247 | 3 | 0.72251082 | 1.49 | **0.2239** |
| 12 | 4.29956710 | | 1.43318903 | 2.84 | **0.0432** |
| 13 | 0.97813853 | | 0.32604618 | 0.62 | 0.6035 |
| 14 | 0.99783550 | | 0.33261183 | 0.69 | 0.5609 |

*Bold type indicates level of significance below 5%

Table 5.13 reveals that the items representing main effects 6, 8, 10 and 12 are significant at 2.66%, 2.48%, 0.17% and 4.32%, respectively. Since the mean score for item 6 for the faculties of Health and Environmental Sciences, Humanities, Management Sciences, and Engineering and Information Technology are 1.91, 2.24, 2.67, and 2.60, respectively, it means that lecturers in the faculty of Management Sciences, more than those in the other faculties, agreed that monitoring procedures or follow-ups have been put in place to ensure that the language policy has actually been put into practice.

Since the mean score for item 8 for the faculties of Health and Environmental Sciences, Humanities, Management Sciences, and Engineering and Information Technology are 2.64, 2.24, 2.19, and 2.75, respectively, it means that lecturers in the faculty of Engineering and Information Technology, more than those in the other faculties, disagreed that code-switching is always a resort when they ask questions for revision.

Since the mean score for item 10 for the faculties of Health and Environmental Sciences, Humanities, Management Sciences, and Engineering and Information Technology are 2.27, 1.86, 2.81, and 2.65, respectively, it means that lecturers in the faculty of Management Sciences, more than those in the other faculties, disagreed that their students always have language problems in their tests and projects.

Since the mean score for item 12 for the faculties of Health and Environmental Sciences, Humanities, Management Sciences, and Engineering and Information Technology are 2.36, 2.76, 2.95, and 2.85, respectively, it means that lecturers in the Management Sciences, more than those in the other faculties, agreed with the formulation of the contents of the language policy and found it acceptable.

### 5.3.5 Analysis of data obtained through interviews with the Registrar

This section analyses the Registrar's responses to eight questions assessing the reasons that led to the CUT to change its language policy to a monolingual language policy. The qualitative results are presented in Table 5.14.

***Table 5.14: Reasons why the CUT changed its language policy***

| Theme 1 | Theme 2 | Theme 3 | Theme 4 | Theme 5 | Theme 6 | Theme 7 | Theme 8 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Reasons for changing from bilingual policy (Afrikaans and English) to a monolingual policy (English) as the sole medium of academic transactions. | Support to students who are non-English first language speakers. | Implementation of the language policy. | Value of multilingual learning environment. | Students and employee satisfaction with the use of English as the sole medium of academic transactions. | Language-related complaints. | Student involvement in language policy decision. | Future prospects of CUT becoming a multilingual institution. |
| **Response** | **Response** | **Response** | **Response** | **Response** | **Response** | **Response** | **Response** |
| Previously CUT was a technikon and was dominated by Afrikaans-speaking leadership, but later dominated by black students. In an attempt to be progressive and inclusive, it was felt that English was much better. | Regardless of their matric symbols in English, students take a compulsory Academic Language Proficiency (Academic Literacy and Communication Skills) module in their first year and those with language problems are sent to a teaching and learning centre where they are assisted by language specialists. | The university language policy is not followed to the letter. | Multilingualism is valued because the policy allows it outside the classroom. | Not sure because no research has been conducted to check whether they are satisfied or not. | There are no language-related complaints. | Students are involved through the students' representative council. | Not in the near future due to resource implications. |

***Theme1: Opinion about the reasons for changing from a bilingual policy (Afrikaans and English) to a monolingual policy (English) as the sole medium of academic transactions.***

*Previously (prior to 2004) CUT was a Technikon and was dominated by Afrikaans leadership. When it became a University of Technology and as attempt to be progressive, in 2007 CUT wanted a language where everybody would find common framework and it was felt that English is much better.*

*When CUT had a large number of black students, the leadership had to be proactive, otherwise black students might remember 1976 riots and ask why Afrikaans which they fought against is used as a medium of instruction.*

*Although CUT was a dual medium but some lecturers would use Afrikaans-only and as a result other students would get lost. In order to be inclusive, English was the best.*

***Theme 2: Opinion about the support to students who are non-English first language speakers.***

*Academic Language Proficiency course taken by all first year students is meant to assist them to understand the language so that they can understand textbooks and lectures. Those students with language problems are referred to language specialists for assistance.*

***Theme 3: Opinion about implementation of the language policy.***

*The policy is not followed to the letter and a good example is the development of lexicons, which is still at an elementary stage. Some are doing it and others are not but no one is monitoring that. The best thing to do is to include it as part of the internal auditor's task to check whether the policy is implemented or not.*

**_Theme 4: Opinion about the value of multilingual learning environment._**

*Multilingualism is valued because the policy allows for extra consultation outside the classroom should a student need clarification in his/her mother tongue and if a lecturer has the ability to do that.*

**_Theme 5: Opinion about students and employees' satisfaction with the use of English as the sole medium of academic transactions._**

*Although there is no research that has been conducted to test whether students and employees' are satisfied with the use of English as the sole medium of academic transactions or not, however, we sometimes get requests for interpreters for students when conducting disciplinary cases.*

*Recently we had presentations by potential Vice-Chancellors and we received a request to interpret their presentations from English to Sesotho. These examples show that some students and employees are not comfortable with the use of English as a sole medium of transactions. We are also expected to provide translations on our letterheads but it is costly and the budget doesn't allow us to do it.*

**_Theme 6: Opinion about language-related complaints._**

*Other than the above-mentioned requests for interpretation from students and translation from employees there are no language-related complaints that have been received.*

**_Theme 7: Opinion about student's involvement in language policy decision._**

*Any policy that affects students is taken to Student Representative Council for students to make inputs on both campuses. Students are also represented at Senate and Council where policies are approved. Therefore, there is student's participation.*

***Theme 8: Opinion about future prospects of CUT becoming multilingual institution.***

*Multilingual is a dream. We are struggling with fees due to '#fees must fall' campaign and the Department of Higher Education and Training doesn't want us to increase tuition fees while it can't afford to pay for them either. How can we introduce multilingualism without increasing tuition fees because to do that we need a dedicated unit for linguists who will translate course material to different languages? How can we begin looking at multilingualism when we are struggling to employ enough lecturers for English medium of instruction and have inadequate infrastructure?*

## 5.4 SUMMARY

Chapter 5 detailed quantitative analysis and interpretation of data for both descriptive and inferential statistics, as well as qualitative analysis of data for interviews. The next chapter (Chapter 6) discusses the results.

# CHAPTER 6
# DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

## 6.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 5, details on the analysis and interpretation of data were given. In this chapter, the findings emanating from the data that were analysed in Chapter 5 are discussed.

## 6.2 RESULTS FROM THE INTERVIEWS WITH THE REGISTRAR

The findings from the interviews with the Registrar revealed that the reasons for the CUT changing from a dual medium language policy (Afrikaans and English) to a monolingual language policy (English) as the sole medium of academic transactions are (1) when CUT changed from being a technikon to become a University of Technology, it was dominated by black students and in order to be progressive and inclusive, it changed its language policy, and (2) CUT became proactive so as not to remind black students about what triggered the Soweto 1976 uprisings.

The interviews also revealed that support is provided to students who are non-English first language speakers through the Academic Language Proficiency course that is compulsory to all first-year students and through language specialists for those students with language problems. Although the language policy is not implemented to the letter, multilingualism is valued by the policy that allows for extra consultation outside the classroom in a student’s home language if a lecturer has the ability to do that.

The interviews further revealed that there is no certainty whether students and employees are satisfied with the use of English as the sole medium of academic transactions because no research has yet been conducted to test this. However, requests for interpreters by some students during disciplinary hearings and a recent request for translating presentations of potential vice-chancellors from English to Sesotho suggest that some students and employees are not comfortable with the use of English as a sole medium of transactions. However, no language-related complaints have been received.

An interesting finding of the interviews is that students are involved in any policy that affects them, including the language policy. This is done through the students' representative council on both campuses, their representation at Senate and Council where policies are approved.

Lastly, the interviews painted a blunt picture about CUT's future prospects of becoming a multilingual institution. The picture painted was that the institution will continue to use English in even in years to come. This seems to suggest that CUT will remain a monolingual institution for some time to come.

Deducing from the above findings from the interviews regarding reasons as to why the CUT changed its language policy to that of a monolingual language policy, one can conclude from the Registrar's response that the main reason was to accommodate black students, who dominated the institution when it changed from being a technikon to become a University of Technology. Although CUT is dominated by black students, the majority of whom are Sesotho-speaking, English is the language of instruction. This approach is in line with literature (Mwaniki, 2004; Pool, 1990; Webb, 2005), which indicates that sociolinguistic factors (the perception that African languages are generally inappropriate for use in high-function formal contexts and the fact that they have not developed the capacity to be used in such contexts), bureaucratic factors and economic factors (believing that the university will perform its task more effectively if only one language is used, and believing that the use of a single language will be cheaper and more practical) lead to ineffective language management in South Africa. The latter (economic factor) was evident in the Registrar's reference to the future prospects of CUT becoming a multilingualism institution as a dream due to lack of student fees. She cited the need for a dedicated unit for linguists who will translate course material to different languages, and the need for more lecturers and infrastructure.

## 6.3 RESULTS FOR LECTURERS FROM DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

The graphic presentation in Figure 5.3 reveals that on average, the lecturers agreed that the university language policy accommodates multilingualism and diversity (mean score of 2,51) (item 4); that English must be used as the language of internal and face-to-face enquiries (mean score of 3.23) (item 7); they agreed with the formulation of the contents of the language policy and they found it acceptable (mean score of 2.73) (item 12); and that the CUT policy is a good choice (mean score of 2.99) (item 13). They strongly agreed that they are satisfied with the use of English as a language of teaching and learning (mean score of 3.33) (item 2). This shows that, lecturers generally, they are in favour of English as a language of teaching and learning at CUT. They only disagreed that there is provision at CUT to empower staff members in English (mean score of 2.35) (item 5), that monitoring procedures or follow-ups have been put into place to ensure that the language policy has actually been put into practice (mean score of 2.35) (item 6), and they strongly disagreed that they have been consulted for inputs/comments in the language policy (mean score of 1.65) (item 11).

The graphic presentation (Figure 5.2) reveals that, on average, lecturers disagreed that the minimum of 50% CUT English Language Policy is a barrier to access and success to students (mean score of 2.75) (item 1), the policy attempts to increase the number of speakers in one language at the expense of other languages (mean score of 2.74) (item 3), and that lexicons and terminology in other languages are developed at CUT (mean score of 2.93) (item 14). They agreed that code-switching is always a resort when they ask questions for revision (mean score of 2.45) (item 8), that students always ask clarity- seeking questions in tests and examinations since English is a medium of instruction (mean score of 2.36) (item 9), and that students always have language problems in their tests and projects (mean score of 2.39) (item 10).

This above descriptive analysis shows that out of 14 statements, the lecturers in the sample had a positive opinion on 8 of them, which translates to 57% of the statements. This means that lecturers are generally positive towards the university language policy management at CUT.

## 6.4 RESULTS FOR LECTURERS FROM INFERENTIAL STATISTICS

### 6.4.1 Findings with regard to the nature of lecturers' opinions regarding English as a medium of instruction at the Central University of Technology, Free State

The findings revealed that lecturers differed significantly in the nature of their opinions regarding English as a medium of instruction at CUT. A very high percentage (83.33%) of the lecturers reported an uncertain opinion level compared to those who reported a negative opinion level (14.2%) and those who reported a positive opinion level (2.38%).

### 6.4.2 Findings with regard to the influence of the faculty variable on the nature of lecturers' opinions regarding English as a medium of instruction at the Central University of Technology, Free State

The findings from the chi-square test for *k* independent samples showed that the faculty variable had no significant influence on lecturers' opinions regarding English as a medium of instruction at CUT. This means that lecturers' opinions, considered according to their independent faculties in relation to the total scale scores of the three level categories, were the same.

However, the findings from the one-way ANOVA analysis of each item indicated that the faculty variable had a significant influence on lecturers' opinions regarding some of the single items. The findings showed that lecturers in the Faculty of Management Sciences (mean score of 2.67), more than those in other faculties (Health and Environmental Sciences, mean score of 1.91; Humanities mean score of 2.24, and Engineering and Information Technology mean score of 2.60), agreed that monitoring procedures or follow-ups have been put in place to ensure that the language policy has actually been put into practice (item 6).

The findings also showed that lecturers in the Faculty of Engineering and Information Technology (mean score of 2.75), more than those in other faculties (Health and Environmental Sciences mean score of 2.64; Humanities mean score of 2.24, and Management Sciences mean score of 2.19), disagreed that code-switching is always a resort when they ask questions for revision (item 8).

The findings further showed that lecturers in the Faculty of Management Sciences (mean score of 2.81), more than those in other faculties (Health and Environmental Sciences mean score of 2.27; Humanities mean score of 1.86, and Engineering and Information Technology mean score of 2.65), disagreed that their students always have language problems in their tests and projects (item 10).

Another finding revealed that lecturers in the Faculty of Management Sciences (mean score of 2.95), more than those in other faculties (Health and Environmental Sciences mean score of 2.36; Humanities mean score of 2.76; and Engineering and Information Technology mean score of 2.85), agreed with the formulation of the contents of the language policy and found it acceptable (item 12).

## 6.5 RESULTS FOR STUDENTS FROM DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

The graphic presentation (Figure 5.1) reveals that on average, the students agreed that they felt self-conscious about their speaking proficiency (mean score of 2.48) (item 2), mixing other languages with English in their conversations (mean score of 2.19) (item 4), worry about making mistakes all the time when they speak (mean score of 2.33) (item 5), and are unfamiliar with certain English vocabulary (mean score of 2.35) (item 8). They disagreed that they hesitate to speak English with lecturers and friends in and outside the classroom (mean score of 2.93) (item 1), have difficulty in speaking fluently in English (mean score of 2.82) (item 3), feel embarrassed about their low language proficiency (mean score of 2.94) (item 6), and feel that proficient English speakers view them as not intelligent, incompetent, and dull (mean score of 2.96) (item 7). This shows that generally they do not experience speaking problems.

The graphic presentation (Figure 5.1) shows that, although on average, the students disagreed that they are unable to fully understand lecturers in and outside the classroom (mean score of 3.19) (item 9), and they are unfamiliar with some meanings during the conversations with their lecturers and classmates (mean score of 2.73) (item 11), lecturers speak too fast (mean score of 2.90) (item 12), always ask speakers/lecturers for clarification (mean score of 2.94 (item 13), sometimes respond inaccurately (mean score of 2.60) (item 14), and agreed that they sometimes misunderstand their lecturers (mean score of 2.35) (item 15), but they strongly disagreed that they are unable to keep up with the conversations or discussions with their classmates (mean score of 3.34) (item 10). This shows that, generally, they do not experience listening problems.

The graphic presentation (Figure 5.1) also shows that on average, students disagree that they are unable to fully comprehend passages, articles, projects and assignments (mean score of 3.03) (item 16), require longer duration to read projects, question papers, articles, projects and assignments (mean score of 2.65) (item 17), constantly refer to base forms prefix or suffix to guess meanings of words (mean score of 2.59) (item 20), and that their reading comprehension and fluency are sometimes hampered (mean score of 2.55) (item 21). However, they agreed that they occasionally encounter unfamiliar words (mean score of 2.28) (item 18) and that they constantly refer to English and bilingual dictionaries (mean score of 2.38) (item 19). This shows that generally, they do not experience reading problems.

The graphic presentation (Figure 5.1) indicates that on average, students disagreed that they require longer periods to write an essay (mean score of 2.56) (item 22), are not familiar with the topics (mean score of 2.93) (item 23), have difficulty in writing academic essays (mean score of 2.83) (item 24), have difficulty in procuring ideas to write essay outlines (mean score of 2.77) (item 25), mentally construct sentences in their mother tongue before translating them into English (mean score of 2.60) (item 26), and constantly refer to an English and or bilingual dictionary and online translator (mean score of 2.59) (item 27). However, they agreed that they need to synthesise, paraphrase, and cite various sources (mean score of2.35) (item 28). This shows that generally, they do not experience writing problems.

The findings from the students who reported that they generally do not experience speaking, listening, reading, and writing problems contradict those of the lecturers, which revealed that, generally, code-switching is always a resort when they ask questions for revision; students always ask clarity seeking questions in tests and examinations since English is the medium of instruction, and that students always have language problems in their tests and projects.

The findings from students, which show that students generally do not experience speaking, listening, reading and writing problems, are contrary to the observation that many students are "inadequately equipped to engage successfully in the academic discourse" (Van Dyk, Zybrands, Cillie & Coetzee, 2009) required of them in a particular subject. The findings are also in contrast to the observation that tertiary education students struggle to cope with the demands placed on them in terms of reading and writing expectations for coursework (Butler & Van Dyk, 2004).

The students' report that they generally do not experience speaking, listening, reading and writing problems, may partly be attributed to the support that is provided to students who are non-English first language speakers through the Academic Language Proficiency course that is compulsory to all first-year students. This is possible because academic literacy, which encompasses reading, writing, listening, and speaking, has been determined in studies to be a main reason for success or lack of academic success of university students (Van Dyk et al., 2009).

## 6.6 RESULTS FOR STUDENTS FROM INFERENTIAL STATISTICS

### 6.6.1 Findings with regard to the extent of students' language learning problems that manifest at the Central University of Technology, Free State after the adoption of the English-only language policy

The findings revealed that students differ in the extent of their language learning problems that manifest at the CUT after the adoption of the English-only policy. A very high percentage (78.18%) of the students reported a moderate language learning problem level compared to those who reported a high level (18.18%) and those who reported a low level (3.64%).

### 6.6.2 Findings with regard to the influence of students' biographical factors on their language learning problems

The findings from the chi-square test for k independent samples show that students' biographical factors (gender, age, year of study, home language, and faculty) have no influence on their language learning problems. This means that students' responses, considered according to their independent personal particulars in relation to the language learning problems' total scale scores of the three level categories, are the same.

The first finding from the one-way ANOVA analysis of each domain of language learning problems revealed that students' biographical factors (gender, age, year of study, home language, and faculty) have no influence on students' speaking problems, reading problems, and writing problems as separate language learning domains. This means that students' experiences of speaking problems, reading problems, and writing problems are not dependent on their biographical variables.

However, the second finding from the one-way ANOVA analysis revealed that the year of study influences students' experiences of listening problems. The findings indicated that fourth-year students (mean score of 2.64) experience more challenges from listening problems than first-, second- and third-year students, with mean scores of 2.62, 2.63, and 2.62, respectively. No matter what explanation is given, it was not clear why fourth-year students experienced more listening problems than their first-, second- and third-year counterparts. One of the possible reasons could be that the content taught to students at fourth-year level of study is more advanced and more difficult than in the first-, second- and third-year levels, and therefore, fourth-year level students are unable to fully understand lecturers, or they become unfamiliar with some meanings during the lessons. Since the mean scores for listening problems for first year, second year, third 3rd year and fourth year of study are 2.62, 2.63, 2.62 and 2.64, respectively, it means that fourth-year students experience more challenges from listening problems than first-, second- or third-year students.

## 6.7 SUMMARY

Chapter 6 detailed the discussion of the results. In the next chapter (Chapter 7), the summary, conclusions and recommendations of the study are presented.

# CHAPTER 7

# SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

## 7.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the summary of the whole study (problem, aims, objectives, hypotheses, methodology), conclusions, recommendations, limitations of the study and avenues for further research are presented.

## 7.2 SUMMARY

### 7.2.1 The problem

The study was designed to investigate university language policy management in higher education institutions in South Africa, using a University of Technology as a case study. To this end, the problem was stated in the form of the following research questions:

1. Why did the University of Technology change its language policy from a dual medium to a monolingual language policy?
2. What is the nature of lecturers' opinions regarding English as a medium of instruction at the University of Technology?
3. Does the faculty variable have any influence on lecturers' opinions regarding English as a medium of instruction at the University of Technology?
4. To what extent do students experience language learning problems that manifest at the University of Technology after the adoption of the English-only language policy?
5. Do students' biographical factors (gender, age, year of study, home language, and faculty) have any influence on their language learning problems?

### 7.2.2 Aims of the study

1. To assess the reasons why the University of Technology changed its language policy from a dual-medium to a monolingual language policy.

2. To investigate language policy management dynamics and complexities at the University of Technology after the adoption of the English-only language policy.
3. To investigate and document language-related learning challenges that are manifest at the University of Technology after the adoption of the English-only language policy.

### 7.2.3 Objectives of the study

1. To ascertain the extent of students' language learning problems that manifest at the University of Technology after the adoption of the English-only language policy.
2. To determine whether students' biographical factors (gender, age, year of study, home language, and faculty) have any influence on their language learning problems.
3. To ascertain the nature of lecturers' opinions regarding English as a medium of instruction at the University of Technology.
4. To determine whether the faculty variable has any influence on lecturers' opinions regarding English as a medium of instruction at the University of Technology.
5. To establish the reasons why the University of Technology changed its language policy from a dual-medium to a monolingual language policy.

### 7.2.4 Hypotheses postulated

1. Students do not differ in the extent of their language learning problems that manifest at the University of Technology after the adoption of the English-only language policy.
2. Students' biographical factors (gender, age, year of study, home language, and faculty) have no influence on their language learning problems.
3. Lecturers do not differ in the nature of their opinions regarding English as a medium of instruction at the University of Technology.
4. The faculty variable has no influence on lecturers' opinions regarding English as a medium of instruction at the University of Technology.

### 7.2.5 Methodology

Questionnaires and interviews were used for collecting data. Questionnaires were administered to a randomly selected sample of 84 lecturers who completed and returned the questionnaires out of 120 to whom they were distributed and 110 students who completed and returned the questionnaires out of 400 to whom they were distributed. An interview was conducted with the Registrar. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used for quantitative data analysis collected from lecturers and students. In this regard, respondent counting, percentages as well as means (averages) were used for descriptive analysis of the data. Appropriate statistical tests, namely the chi-square one sample test, chi-square test for *k* independent samples, and One-way ANOVA were used for testing hypotheses of the study. Qualitative data from the interviews with the Registrar were summarised, coded and sorted into themes, clusters and categories.

## 7.3 CONCLUSIONS

The results of the study from the statistical tests led to the following conclusions:

1. Lecturers differed significantly in the nature of their opinions regarding English as a medium of instruction at the institution. The majority of the lecturers were uncertain about English as a medium of instruction at the institution.
2. The faculty variable had no influence on lecturers' overall opinions regarding English as a medium of instruction at the institution.
3. The faculty variable had a significant influence on lecturers' opinions regarding some single items related to English as a medium of instruction at the institution. Lecturers in the Faculty of Management Sciences, more than those in other faculties, agreed that monitoring procedures or follow-ups have been put in place to ensure that the language policy has actually been put into practice. Lecturers in the Faculty of Management Sciences, more than those in other faculties, also agreed with the formulation of the contents of the language policy and find it acceptable. They (Lecturers in the faculty of Management Sciences), more than those in other faculties, disagreed that their students always have language problems in their tests and projects. Lecturers in the Faculty of Engineering and Information Technology, more than those in other faculties,

disagreed that code-switching is always a resort when they ask questions for revision.

4. Students differed in the extent of their language learning problems that manifest at the institution after the adoption of the English-only language policy. The majority of students experienced moderate language learning problems.
5. Students' biographical factors (gender, age, year of study, home language, and faculty) had no influence on their language learning problems.
6. Students' biographical factors (gender, age, year of study, home language, and faculty) had no influence on students' speaking problems, reading problems, and writing problems as separate language learning domains.
7. The year of study influenced students' experiences of listening problems. Fourth-year students experienced more challenges from listening problems than first-, second- and third-year students.

## 7.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

The main purpose of this study was to investigate university language policy management in higher education in South Africa, using a University of Technology as a case study. Based on the findings of this study, a model for the process of implementing the university language policy management in higher education institutions in South Africa is proposed and presented in Figure 7.1.

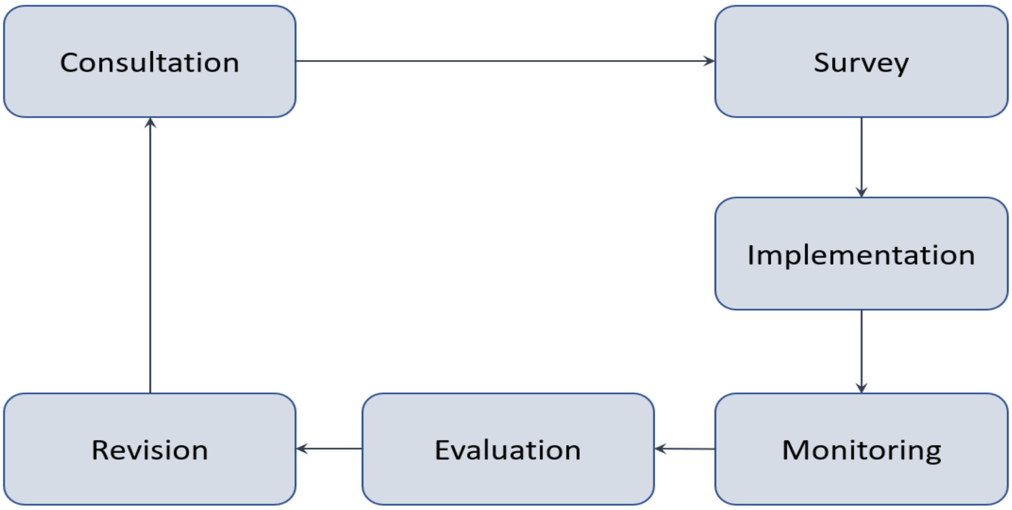


***Figure 7.1: A proposed model for the process of implementing the university language policy management***

The model starts with a wider and thorough consultation of both staff and students. This would avoid a situation where the majority of staff express that they were not consulted for inputs/comments in the language policy. Consultation should also be accompanied by advocacy, where staff and students would be appraised on the reasons for language change. The reasons could refer to policies of the country, student population and demographics, widening of access to higher education and inclusivity. Where the language policy has been implemented, consultation should be done when the policy is being revised.

Once consultation has been finalised, the survey should then be conducted. Thereafter, based on the outcome of the survey, the implementation of the policy could follow. During the implementation phase, support should be provided to non-speakers of the chosen language of instruction. This (support) would avoid a situation where the majority of staff would express that they are not satisfied with the empowerment of staff in a particular chosen language.

The next stage should be the monitoring of the implemented language policy. Monitoring would assist in identifying areas that hinder the implementation of the language policy. This (monitoring) would avoid a situation where the majority of staff would express that they are not satisfied with monitoring procedures.

The evaluation stage should follow after the continuous monitoring stage. This is where deficiencies or problems in the implementation of the language policy that were identified during the monitoring stage are analysed in order to determine alternatives or find appropriate interventions. A survey on staff and student satisfaction about the language policy should be conducted at this stage. This would avoid a situation where there is uncertainty whether staff and students are satisfied with the language policy or not.

The evaluation stage should lead to the revision stage of the language policy, as determined by the policy of the institution on the period after which all the policies should be revised, for example, every five years. The revision of the policy should be informed by the new changes or developments, identified gaps, and results of the survey from the evaluation of the existing language policy.

Revision is not a final stage of the process, because during this stage, the initial process of consultation starts all over again, followed by survey, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation. This is an iterative cycle in the proposed model for the process of implementing and management of the university language policy.

## 7.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND AVENUES FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The following limitations of the study are highlighted and recommendations for directing future research are made:

1. The sample of this study was drawn from CUT only; therefore, it is not representative of the entire population of universities in the country. Further similar studies need to be conducted at other universities so that more light can be shared on the findings.
2. The sample of this study consisted of only the Registrar, 84 lecturers who completed and returned the questionnaires out of 120 to whom they were distributed, and 110 students who completed and returned the questionnaires out of 400 to whom they were distributed. More research, with a bigger sample, is essential so that the results can be generalised nationally.

In spite of the limitations mentioned above, this study has achieved its main purpose of investigating language policy management in higher education institutions in South Africa, using a University of Technology as a case study.

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# APPENDICES

## APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR LECTURERS

**QUESTIONNAIRE TO BE COMPLETED BY THE TEACHING STAFF AT**

**CENTRAL UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY, FREE STATE (CUT)**

1. This is a questionnaire on your opinion on the **University Language Policy Management in South Africa: The Case of Central University of Technology, Free State.**

2. The instructions on how to rate each item statement accompany this questionnaire.

3. Please answer all the questions.

4. Your responses will be treated with confidentiality; therefore, do not write your name on this questionnaire.

Your co-operation will be highly appreciated.

Thank you

…………………………………………………………………….
S.A. Ngidi

**Section A: PERSONAL INFORMATION**

Make a cross [X] in the box against the item that describes your personal particulars.

**FACULTY**

| | |
|---|---|
| Health and Environmental Sciences | |
| Humanities | |
| Management Sciences | |
| Engineering and Information Technology | |

**Section B**

Below are statements concerning your opinion in the University Language Policy Management.

Please put a cross [X] opposite the letter that best describes your position.

**KEY:**

SA = strongly agree

A = agree

D = disagree

SD = strongly disagree

1 Minimum of 50% CUT English Language Policy is a barrier to access and success of students.

| SA | A | D | SD |
|---|---|---|---|

2 I am satisfied with the use of English as a language of teaching and learning.

| SA | A | D | SD |
|---|---|---|---|

3 The policy attempts to increase the number of speakers in one language at the expenses of other languages.

| SA | A | D | SD |
|---|---|---|---|

4 The university language policy accommodates multilingualism and diversity.

| SA | A | D | SD |
|---|---|---|---|

5 Provision is made at CUT to empower staff members in English proficiency.

| SA | A | D | SD |
|---|---|---|---|

6 Monitoring procedures or follow ups have been put into place to ensure that the language policy has actually been put into practice.

| SA | A | D | SD |
|---|---|---|---|

7 English must be used as the language of internal and face to face enquiries.

| SA | A | D | SD |
|---|---|---|---|

8 Code switching is always a resort when I ask questions for revision.

| SA | A | D | SD |
|---|---|---|---|

## APPENDIX B: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENTS

**QUESTIONNAIRE TO BE COMPLETED BY THE STUDENTS AT THE**

**CENTRAL UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY FREE STATE (CUT)**

1. This is a questionnaire for a doctoral study registered at the University of the Free State (UFS) on university language policy management in South Africa, focusing on the Central University of Technology, Free State (CUT).

2. The instructions on how to rate and to respond to each item statement accompany this questionnaire.

3. Please answer all the questions.

4. Included in this questionnaire is a section on your personal information.

5. You are requested to answer all questions on personal information in accordance with the instructions accompanying this questionnaire.

6. Your information will be treated with confidentiality, therefore do not write your name and your surname on this questionnaire.

Your co-operation will be highly appreciated.

Thank you.

…………………………………………………….
S.A. Ngidi

**Section A: PERSONAL INFORMATION**

Make a cross [X] in the box against the item that describes your personal particulars.

**1 GENDER**

| | |
|---|---|
| Male | |
| Female | |

**2 AGE IN YEARS**

| | |
|---|---|
| 18-21 | |
| 22-25 | |
| 26-29 | |
| 30 and above | |

**3 YEAR OF STUDY**

| | |
|---|---|
| 1ST | |
| 2ND | |
| 3RD | |
| 4TH | |

**4 MOTHER TONGUE**

| | |
|---|---|
| English | |
| Afrikaans | |
| Sesotho | |
| IsiXhosa | |
| isiZulu | |
| Setswana | |
| Sepedi | |
| SiSwati | |
| Other (specify) | |

**5 FACULTY**

| | |
|---|---|
| Health and Environmental Sciences | |
| Humanities | |
| Management Sciences | |
| Engineering and Information Technology | |

## Section B

Below are the statements that could relate to your language learning problems that you experience due to the language policy adopted by your institution. Please make a cross [X] through the letter that best describes your position.

**KEY:**

SA = strongly agree
A = agree
D = disagree
SD = strongly disagree

**SPEAKING PROBLEMS**

1. I hesitate to speak English with lecturers and friends in and outside the classroom.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| SA | A | D | SD |

2. I feel self-conscious about my speaking proficiency.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| SA | A | D | SD |

3. I have difficulty in speaking fluently in English.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| SA | A | D | SD |

4. I mix other languages with English in my conversations.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| SA | A | D | SD |

5. I worry about making grammatical mistakes all the time when I speak.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| SA | A | D | SD |

6. I feel embarrassed about my low language proficiency.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| SA | A | D | SD |

7. I feel proficient English speakers view me a not intelligent, incompetent and dull.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| SA | A | D | SD |

8. I am unfamiliar with certain English vocabulary.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| SA | A | D | SD |

**LISTENING PROBLEMS**

1 I am unable to fully understand lecturers in and outside the classroom.

| SA | A | D | SD |
|---|---|---|---|

2 I am unable to keep up with the conversation or discussion with my classmates.

| SA | A | D | SD |
|---|---|---|---|

3 During the conversation with my lecturers and classmates I become unfamiliar with some meanings.

| SA | A | D | SD |
|---|---|---|---|

4 Lecturers speak too fast.

| SA | A | D | SD |
|---|---|---|---|

5 I always ask speakers/lecturers for classification.

| SA | A | D | SD |
|---|---|---|---|

6 I sometimes respond inaccurately.

| SA | A | D | SD |
|---|---|---|---|

7 I sometimes misunderstand my lecturers.

| SA | A | D | SD |
|---|---|---|---|

**READING PROBLEMS**

1 I am unable to fully comprehend passages, articles, projects and assignments.

| SA | A | D | SD |
|---|---|---|---|

2 I require longer duration to read projects, question papers, articles, projects and assignments.

| SA | A | D | SD |
|---|---|---|---|

3 I occasionally encounter unfamiliar words.

| SA | A | D | SD |
|---|---|---|---|

4 I constantly refer to English and bilingual dictionaries.

| SA | A | D | SD |
|---|---|---|---|

5 I constantly refer to base forms prefix or suffix to guess meanings of words.

| SA | A | D | SD |
|---|---|---|---|

6 Reading comprehension and fluency is sometimes hampered.

| SA | A | D | SD |
|---|---|---|---|

**WRITING PROBLEMS**

1 I require longer period to write an essay.

| SA | A | D | SD |
|---|---|---|---|

2 I am not familiar with the topics.

| SA | A | D | SD |
|---|---|---|---|

3 I have difficulty in writing academic essays.

| SA | A | D | SD |
|---|---|---|---|

4 I have difficulty procuring ideas to write essay outlines.

| SA | A | D | SD |
|---|---|---|---|

5 I mentally construct sentences in mother tongue before translating into English.

| SA | A | D | SD |
|---|---|---|---|

6 I constantly refer to English and bilingual dictionary and online translator.

| SA | A | D | SD |
|---|---|---|---|

7 I need to synthesise, paraphrase and cite various sources.

| SA | A | D | SD |
|---|---|---|---|

# APPENDIX C: INTERVIEW WITH CUT REGISTRAR

## STRUCTURED INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR THE CENTRAL UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY, FREE STATE (CUT) REGISTRAR

**1** Can you briefly state the reasons why CUT decided to change from a bilingual policy to a monolingual policy with English as the sole medium of academic transactions?

**2** Does the institution provide support to students whose first language is not English so that they can be academically successful?

**3** Does the CUT policy follow the University language policy to the letter?

**4** Since you have a diverse group of students does the institution operate in a manner that values a multilingual learning environment in which students will learn in terms of your language policy?

**5** Are students and employees satisfied with the use of English as the sole medium of academic transactions? If yes or no please expatiate.

**6** Do you sometimes have language-related complaints? If so, how do you deal with them?

**7** Are students involved in decisions made that affect their learning such as making inputs towards the language policy of the institution?

**8** Is there a future for your institution becoming a multilingual institution? If Yes, how and if no why?

# APPENDIX D: LETTER OF REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT THE CENTRAL UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY, FREE STATE

31 Spitskop Ridge
Dolf van Niekerk Avenue
Langenhovenpark
9301
01 June 2015

The Director Academic Planning
Central University of Technology Free State
Private Bag X20539
Bloemfontein
9300

Dear Sir

APPLICATION FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

Kindly receive my application for permission to conduct research on "**University Language Policy Management in South Africa: The Case of Central** University of Technology, Free State" I intend conducting this research at CUT. My participants will be students, lecturers and the office of the Registrar.

Currently I am a Lecturer in the Department of Communication Sciences, Faculty of Humanities at CUT and also a registered PhD student at the University of the Free

State, in the Department of Linguistics and Language Practice Faculty of Humanities. I sincerely believe that this research will not only provide us with insightful information regarding the above-mentioned topic, but it will also add value to the language policy challenges facing the institutions of Higher learning in South

Africa.

To this end, I am committed to honouring and adhering to the conditions that may accompany any undertaking of this nature.

I would appreciate if my appointment could be considered.

Yours faithfully

……………………………
S.A. Nigidi 0837665263

## APPENDIX E: LETTER OF PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT THE CENTRAL UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY, FREE STATE

Central University of Technology, Free State

**INSTITUTIONAL RESEARCH AND QUALITY ENHANCEMENT**

**Mrs Sizakele Audrey Ngidi**

**Central University of Technology**

**Department: Department of Communication Sciences**

**Faculty of Humanities**

**Lecturer**

radebephilile2@gmail.com / sngidi@cut.ac.za

**PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH ENTITLED "UNIVERSITY LANGUAGE POLICY MANGEMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA: THE CASE OF CENTRAL UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY, FREE STATE"**

Dear Mrs Sizakele Audrey Ngidi

This is to confirm that you have been granted permission to conduct research at CUT campus entitled "UNIVERSITY LANGUAGE POLICY MANGEMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA: THE CASE OF CENTRAL UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY, FREE STATE"

The conditions of the permission are:

- The research will not interrupt any of the official activities at the CUT;
- You will supply us with the copy of your report;
- The cost of all related activities will be covered by yourself;
- Recruitment of participants is the sole responsibility of yourself;
- Voluntary nature of the potential participant's decision to consent to participate should be strictly observed;
- You should not disclose a potential participant's decision to participate or otherwise to any other party;

- Permission does not compel, in any sense, participation of staff members or students in your research.

**DIRECTOR: INSTITUTIONAL RESEARCH AND QUALITY ENHANCEMENT**

**DR DM BALIA**

**20 SEPTEMBER 2016**

# APPENDIX F: LETTER OF ETHICS CLEARANCE FROM THE UNIVERSITY OF THE UNIVERSITY OF ZULULAND

**UNIVERSITY OF ZULULAND**
**RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE**
(Reg No: UZREC 171110-030)

**RESEARCH & INNOVATION**
Website: http://www.unizulu.ac.za
Private Bag X1001
KwaDlangezwa 3886
Tel: 035 902 6273
Email: MangeleS@unizulu.ac.za/
MbonaM@unizulu.ac.za

## ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

| | |
|---|---|
| Certificate Number | UZREC 171110-030 PGD 2021/76 |
| Project Title | University Language Policy Management in South Africa: The case of the Central University of Technology, Free State |
| Principal Researcher/ Investigator | S.A Ngidi |
| Supervisor and Co-supervisor | Dr E Mncwango |
| Department | General Linguistics and Modern Languages |
| Faculty | Arts |
| Type of Risk | Low Risk. Desktop, fieldwork or laboratory |
| Nature of Project | Honours/4th Year; Master's; Doctoral: x; Departmental |

The University of Zululand's Research Ethics Committee (UZREC) hereby gives ethical approval in respect of the undertakings contained in the above-mentioned project. The Researcher may therefore commence with data collection as from the date of this Certificate, using the certificate number indicated above.

SPECIAL CONDITIONS: **(1) This certificate is valid for 1 year from the date of issue.**
**(2) Principal researcher must provide an annual report to the UZREC in the prescribed format [due date- 19 January 2023]**
**(3) The UZREC must be informed immediately of any material change in the conditions or undertakings mentioned in the documents that were presented to the meeting.**
**(4) Under the Protection of Personal Information Act, 04 of 2013 ("POPIA"), researchers have a general legal duty to protect information they process. They must ensure the security and protection of any personal information processed through the research and provide a compliant and consistent approach to data protection. The information collected via interviews must be for research purposes only. No personal information such as opinions, views and academic background may be linked to the respondents' identity or shared with anyone for marketing purposes or otherwise.**

The UZREC wishes the researcher well in conducting research.

**Prof. Nokuthula Kunene**
**Chairperson: University Research Ethics Committee**
**Deputy Vice-Chancellor: Research & Innovation**
**21 January 2022**

RESEARCH & INNOVATION OFFICE