

**UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL**  
School of Education



**An Exploratory Analysis of Postgraduate Educational Research in Language and  
Race in South Africa: A Case study of Three Universities in the Western Cape in  
the Decade 1995-2004**

**By  
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**A thesis**

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## **ABSTRACT**

The objective of this research was to determine the factors that influence application of non-parametric analysis technique. The data emanated from research done by postgraduate students over a ten year period (1995-2004) and archived by the project in postgraduate education research (PPER).

A survey of three South African universities was conducted. The classification of researches from chosen prominent universities were made by research title, research topic, target population, data collection method, and other diversity titles which were used to map the position of non-parametric analysis. The research amongst the three (3) universities included four hundred and twenty-one (421) sampled researches of which only twenty nine (29) were in Language and Race issues.

The first finding indicated that the data of the sampled researches were all analysed using content analysis. Secondly, the findings suggested that there was a relationship between research title and data analysis technique. Lastly, the dominant theme amongst the sampled researches was Language although in many instances when language issues are being researched, race issues are inherently being researched either purposefully or coincidentally. There is a relationship between the history of the institutions and the kinds of research they produce.

**Keywords: Higher education, Research, Language, and Race**

## DECLARATION

I *Liile Lerato Lekena* declare that:

- (i) This research report in this dissertation, except where indicated, is my original work.
- (ii) This dissertation has not been submitted for any degree or examination at any other university.
- (iii) This dissertation does not contain other person's data, pictures, graphs or other information, unless specifically acknowledged as being sourced from other persons.
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  - (vi) This dissertation does not contain text, graphics or tables copied and pasted from the internet, unless specifically acknowledged, and the source being detailed in the dissertation and reference sections.

## DEDICATION

To,  
my late parents and brothers  
Letlafuoa Lekena Lekena  
and  
Celestina Liketso Lekena  
and  
Nako Mohanoe Lekena  
and  
Lereko Lephethesang Lekena  
In  
Loving memory

.....

Liile Lerato Lekena

December, 2012

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# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

### 1.1 INTRODUCTION

The current study is an exploratory analysis of issues and trends in Master of Education (MEd) and Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) research on language and race in education in South Africa in the period 1995 to 2004. The study focuses on three universities in the Western Cape region, namely University of Cape Town, University of the Western Cape and the Stellenbosch University. This chapter introduces the study.

### 1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

In the new millennium, factories, land tools and machinery no longer constitute the highest levels where wealth is concentrated. Resourcefulness of people, their skills, and knowledge are increasingly critical to the world economy. Human capital is more important than physical capital. This scenario is new, as it was not the case about hundred years ago (The Task Force on Higher Education and Society, 2000). Education, especially higher education, has consequently become a major political priority. On a global level, higher education is expected and believed to supply high level human resources for the labour market. Even more importantly, higher education is also entrusted with the responsibility of devising a well established and reliable research system because there is a general agreement among scholars that research adds new knowledge, which has the potential of making the world a better place for all. The work of The Task Force on Higher Education and Society (2000, p.42), in particular, has been an influence on this school of thought. In their words:

One of the most powerful arguments for a public interest in higher education is the value to a country of

<sup>1</sup>a well developed system for research and generation of knowledge. This is of increasing importance within the emerging knowledge economy, allowing a country not only to generate new knowledge, but also to engage in scholarly and scientific commerce with other nations.

### 1.2.1 Related Literature in Educational Research in South Africa

Improving higher education research and keeping track of what is happening is therefore in every country's interest. In South Africa, a recap of primary trends and issues in educational research has been brought together in three significant publications as themes that have emerged over the past decade in education discussions. These publications include *The Gender Equity Task Team* report of 1997 written by Wolpe, Martinez, and Quinlan (1997) which asserts that the major obstacle to gender equity is the violence in schools and that gender inequities are endemic and take a racial and class form. The book *Changing Class* edited by Chisholm (2004) is the second publication. In this book, a description of the implications of rapid and sometimes ill-conceived and poorly implemented change of the education system over a decade characterised by transformation, restructuring, and change in the policy landscape in South Africa is surveyed. The report by the Human Science Resource Council (HSRC) and Nelson Mandela Foundation called *Emerging Voices* (2005) forms the third publication that captured primary trends and issues in educational research in South Africa. This report describes the plight and unequal development of rural communities as a pull towards industrial centres becomes stronger and more devastating in its impact on rural families, areas and communities (*Emerging Voices*, 2005). This report calls for a reconsideration by the state with regards to its approach to rural livelihoods, particularly in the provision of basic health care, not to mention education which was more neglected in the decade following

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<sup>1</sup> Parts of this thesis were published as: **Lekena**, Liile L. Knowledge Generation in South African Higher Education. *Problems of Education in the 21st Century*, 2011, Vol. 30, p47.

apartheid (Balfour, Moletsane, Rule, Karlsson, Pillay, Nkambule, Davey, Lekena, Molefe, Madiya, Bengesai, Goba, 2007).

### **1.2.2 Current Trends and Directions**

Undisputedly, the above-mentioned publications provide a wealth of information for future directions in terms of research within the higher education system (Behr, 1988; Best & Kellner, 1991; Bundy, 2002). However, there is a growing concern amongst academics, that is gaining momentum, that researchers at Higher Education Institutions (HEI`s), while forging new understandings and directions, reproduce agendas in their research; even if directions are responsive to global or national prerogatives. Another apprehension has to do with lack of emphasis and illumination of the fact that regional needs and historic events do impact on the kinds of research conducted in different regions and different eras (Bundy, 2002). For instance, research in language issues in Lesotho may be predominantly on bilingual agendas because there are basically only two languages in Lesotho, while the same kind of research in South Africa has a likelihood of dealing with issues of multilingualism because of the fact that South Africa is multilingual. This shows that different regions have different needs. On a similar note, research conducted in a particular era has a tendency to mirror the typical concerns of that time (Chisholm, 2004). Ever since African countries gained independence from colonial rule, for instance, language issues have taken centre stage in the newly independent countries. A strong yearning towards the elevation of indigenous languages to the same status as the language of the colonisers was prominent in the immediate post-colonial eras (Chisholm, 2004). At the same time, issues of race, class, multiculturalism and ethnicity in relation to education were brought to the centre stage in educational research.

The aforementioned is evidence that major historic events have a bearing on the types of research conducted in areas affected by the events.

### **1.2.3 Impact of Segregation on South African Educational Research**

In South Africa before the first democratic elections took place, during the apartheid era, education was always segregated along racial lines (Dreijmanis, 1988). That system of governance ensured that Blacks were denied equal access to non-Black institutions and education of quality. Since the period after 1994, the higher education system in South Africa has been undergoing transformation and will for the foreseeable future be under pressure to provide access and quality education for all the diverse people of South Africa. By the same token, in South Africa the socio-political transformation of 1994 undoubtedly influenced knowledge production in the form of research in HEI's. Scott (1998) acknowledges that there are links between the growth of mass higher education systems and the radical processes of globalisation which include not only round-the-clock, round-the-globe markets and new information technologies but also revolutionary conceptions of time and space (Dreijmanis, 1988). Massification of institutions is thus one of the major results of democracy within a global context, and so is a wider ambit of knowledge production as people are 'freer' and have a platform to research on issues that are of concern to them (Dreijmanis, 1988). In the processes of massification of higher education obviously the student body becomes much more diverse as historically under-represented people have relatively greater access to higher education either as students or as staff members. Simultaneously, scholars in the form of doctoral and masters students have been cultivating knowledge about language and race in the education sphere in South Africa with the advent of a democratic government (Dreijmanis, 1988)

#### **1.2.3.1 Race and Language**

Race and language issues are key in the South African context. During the post-apartheid era, Hartshorn (1999 p.123) comments that "the education system is not a machine that can be overhauled, but a living organism which grows out of



its earlier incarnations” is particularly relevant. During the apartheid era, indigenous languages were strongly associated with the policy of separate development and the “homelands” to which black Africans were assigned on the basis of ethnicity. This history has complicated the development of South Africa’s indigenous languages in the post-apartheid era.

I find the politics of difference, especially in South Africa where racial integration is still in its infancy, quite interesting. Coming from a basically monolingual, monocultural and monoracial country, Lesotho, and experiencing a few hiccups and shocks in terms of coping in a very diverse setting racially, I was very curious to find out how educational institutions in South Africa handle and manage such issues as race and language. My curiosity was further fuelled by the fact that I tutored a module called Diversity and Learning in the Faculty of Education at the University of KwaZulu- Natal and was always intrigued by the various and varied ways of looking at issues of difference/diversity amongst students and tutors and even among lecturers, especially regarding racial and language issues. I then used the opportunity of being in Project in Postgraduate Educational Research (PPER) to hopefully satisfy my curiosity through a survey of what is being researched in language and race within the educational context. This study is a small portion of the PPER, which was a requirement of my Master’s degree. My outlook in this research is therefore primarily influenced by the Diversity and Learning module which critically looks at how some of the many differences between people have been used to create different social groups that normally denote inequality and how learning is affected by the different social groups.

### **1.3 PURPOSE OF THIS RESEARCH**

Against the backdrop, the purpose of the current research, therefore, is to give a descriptive analysis of issues and trends in MEd and PhD research on language and race in education in South Africa in the period ranging from 1995 to 2004 in three universities in the Western Cape region, namely the University of Cape

Town, the University of the Western Cape and the University of Stellenbosch. The time frame chosen for this study was determined by its being part of PPER, a broader, commissioned study for which the funders provided parameters, the time frame being one.

#### **1.4 SCOPE OF RESEARCH**

I am particularly interested in the Western Cape region due to the fact that these universities though in the same region and within close proximity of each other, have very different cultural and political heritages and thus exemplify the diversity in terms of language and race that I am interested in studying. Another interesting fact is that the Western Cape, because of its beautiful location and well-regarded universities, attracts students from all over South Africa, Africa and other continents. This fact suggests to me that the students are thus very diverse; hence the sample may be representative of the broader society. I was also curious to find out if the three universities differ in their interest in language and race issues given their different histories. Coming from a monoracial country, Lesotho, I was initially only interested in what was done in race/racial studies but a preliminary analysis of the data suggested to me that very little was done in the area I was interested in. Being a graduate in Language and Linguistics already, I then delved into language studies and I was stunned by how most of the time studies in language were implicitly researching race issues (a full discussion on this is available in chapter 4) and I decided to cover both issues because the relationship is so interesting to me.

#### **1.5 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

Research by academics and researchers in South Africa has contributed significantly and has influenced the way the state responds to needs and developments in education. Nevertheless, there is a concern that some issues may be more and/or over-researched while other issues are under- or not

researched at all. There is also a body of knowledge or another corpus of educational research - that produced by postgraduate students - which has not been documented or been fully understood. This research, though not documented or understood, is often a microcosm of research produced by the public domain (in the form of books, reports, articles and other media by academics). This kind of 'shadow world' is equally or even more responsive to research agendas and developments shaped by academics and the state, which, in different ways, impacts on the lives of the students undertaking this work, and the communities in which they are located. Finally, not much attention has been given to the analysis of methodological approach to knowledge generation in order to reveal important changes in research technologies, priorities and values that have changed over time, especially looking at such work in the post-apartheid era that specifically explores research dynamics of higher education.

## **1.6 MAIN OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

The goal of the research was to develop a critical understanding of a wealth of educational research, produced by postgraduate students (masters and doctorate theses) in higher institutions of education in South Africa (university of Western Cape, University of Cape Town, Stellenbosch University) over the 1995-2005 decade. This study researched universities in the coastal provinces since regional needs do impact on the kinds of research conducted in specific regions. It also established whether or not researchers reproduce priorities in their research and found out what it is that they leave out and why.

### **1.6.1 Sub-objectives of the study**

The objectives of this study were to:

- Reveal the main concerns in language and race research done by MEd and PhD students in South Africa, in the decade immediately following the introduction of democratic governance.

- Reveal the paradigmatic and methodological approaches to knowledge generation in educational research on language and race.

## **1.6.2 Research questions**

### **1.6.2.1 Key research question**

What have MEd and PhD students researched in relation to language and race in South Africa during the period 1995-2004?

### **1.6.2.2 Critical sub-questions**

1. What are the main concerns in language and race research done by MEd and PhD students in South Africa in the decade immediately following the introduction of democratic governance?
2. What are the methodological approaches to knowledge generation in educational research on language and race?

## **1.7 THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK - SOCIAL CONSTRUCTIONISM**

Although the current study was exploratory in nature, it could not be conducted in a theoretical vacuum. At the heart of every research lies the crucial question, 'what theoretical framework/s should I use?' This is because a comprehensive account of society and production of knowledge is made possible through the use of theories (Higgs and Smith, 2002), and, as Kumar (2005) notes, often

problems that researchers wish to investigate have their roots in a number of theories that have been developed from different perspectives.

The study adopted social constructionism as a theoretical framework because it aims to account for the ways in which phenomena such as 'race', 'gender', and 'language' are socially constructed rather than 'natural' or 'essential' (Gough & McFadden, 2001). While this perspective draws on post-modernism – in the sense that identities are not fixed and eternal but fluid and discursive – it also draws on elements of critical theory and is a more specific theory which is most appropriate in conceptualizing 'race', 'language' and 'diversity'. A fuller discussion of this framework in relation to the study is provided in the literature review chapter-section 3.3.

## **1.8 JUSTIFICATION OF THE STUDY**

It is an undeniable fact that the time frame chosen for the data used has a political significance. The period 1995-2004 in South Africa signified a period characterized by policy reforms that were designed to address and redress past biases that epitomised the apartheid era. One of the major highlights of the policy reforms was the adoption of a new curriculum based on Outcomes Based Education principles known as *Curriculum 2005*. The curriculum was later revised to the Revised National Curriculum Statements (DoE, 2002) and then the National Curriculum Statements (DoE, 2003). This study may help higher education institutions through its serving to foreground in explicit ways research on the agendas, values, priorities and gaps in educational practice as it pertains to the preparation of trained researchers, field workers, and educators.

## **1.9 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

The study has not attempted to rearticulate the issues emerging from research that has already been undertaken, or that has already provided researchers in

higher education institutions and Non-Governmental Organisations with a conceptual and theoretically informed map for future directions. The study took as accepted the established relationship between the three significant publications in education in South Africa mentioned in the background, and larger developments on the global scene in which competing forces of the market and state move to shift populations and capital in a world in which patriarchy, racism, class and regional divisions are, despite the impact of feminism in the North, still largely responsible for the ways in which power and hegemony are co-constructed and maintained. This research has looked at studies done in language and race only because of a very close relationship between race and language studies that I have found. I also studied the period 1995-2004. Ethical clearance for this study was done in PPER as part of the study. Lastly, although the Western Cape Province has four universities, namely the University of Cape Town, University of the Western Cape, Stellenbosch University and the Cape Peninsula University of Technology, the data that are discussed in this study exclude the Cape Peninsula University of Technology since the data for this institution were not available at the same time as other universities, and due to time constraints I had to continue without it.

## **1.10 THE STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS**

The complete work of this thesis is presented in six chapters, each representing a specific focus of the study, and each works as a building block toward achieving the goal of the study. The following gives a brief overview of what each chapter contributes to the whole.

- **Chapter 1:** The first chapter serves as an orientation of the whole study to the reader. Contained in it is a description of the problem situation and its conceptualisation and framing.

- **Chapter 2:** The chapter gives a brief history of the development of higher education in South Africa. This is done to give the reader an idea of how the system developed, which is vital because the study is in higher education.
- **Chapter 3:** The literature review shares the researcher's exploration of related literature and studies on the research problem. The chapter finishes off by relating the literature to the current study.
- **Chapter 4:** This part motivates for and describes the research methodology adopted in this study. In this part I have included descriptions of research methodology as a science that studies how research is done scientifically. It is the way to systematically solve the research problem by logically adopting various steps. It also defines the way in which the data are collected and analysed (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2000).
- **Chapter 5:** The data presentation and interpretation chapter presents and interprets the themes and categories that emerged from the data. The data are presented from the most general to specific within and amongst the institutions.
- **Chapter 6:** This chapter makes conclusions and recommendations emanating from the literature and the empirical research of the study. A summary of the key findings and their related conclusions are presented first and the recommendations conclude the chapter.

## 1.11 CONCLUSION

This chapter gave the background and justification of this study. Discussed in this chapter are the problem and the objectives. It also tackled the theoretical framework used in the study. A brief overview of the development of higher education in South Africa is provided in the next chapter.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **DEVELOPMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA**

#### **2.0 INTRODUCTION**

The previous chapter provided an overview of this study. This part of the report places South Africa's history and development of higher education into perspective. Although the chapter cannot provide a comprehensive report of South Africa's development of higher education, it does provide an introductory framework by exploring the broad themes of the development. The chapter is intended to be flexible enough to help those readers who seek a basic framework of South Africa's history of higher education. The chapter is made up of five subdivisions: (1) Introduction; (2) Post-school education (3) Traditional and early colonial education (4) Academic higher education (universities) (5) Technikons and their transformation into universities of technology, and lastly (6) Key developments of higher education in the post-1994 era.

#### **2.1 POST-SCHOOL EDUCATION**

Dressel and May-hey (1974) assert that higher education as a field of study takes account of the totality of post-school education as it is practised at higher education institutions such as universities, universities of technology or technical colleges etc., and includes teaching, research and scholarship. The mission and structure of higher education in this country as illustrated by a review of the historical development of higher education until April 1994 reflects not only the social prejudices, but also, since 1948, the political dispensation based on the ideology of apartheid. Jansen (2004,p293) points out that as he was reviewing policy, planning and the political landscape in South Africa, it was revealed that the political landscape and other things have led to important changes in higher



education. This shows that higher education institutions reflect the political structure and dominant ideology of the society in which they are situated. The victory over the apartheid state in 1994, which reached its climax in May 1994 when a new, democratically elected government was inaugurated, set policy makers in all spheres of public life the enormous task of overhauling the social, political, economic and cultural institutions of South Africa to bring them in line with the imperatives of a new democratic order, as the histories of virtually all social structures could then be classified into an 'apartheid era' and a 'post-apartheid era' (Council on Higher Education, 2003) . Provision of a brief overview of the origin and development of salient features of the South African higher education system as it functioned before April 1994 is necessary. This will allow a clear picture of the transition in South African higher education to unfold and enable understanding of the kinds of research done in higher education. Technikons and colleges are included here because in the 'post-apartheid era' they were merged into universities.

## **2.2 TRADITIONAL AND EARLY COLONIAL EDUCATION**

Among the indigenous tribes that occupied the geographical area that is today known as South Africa, education was an informal undertaking controlled by the parents and other senior members of the extended family, as well as the elders of the tribe. Traditional education was not formally organized, nor structured according to the levels of primary, secondary and higher education (Piek, 1979, p.37, 38).

Shortly after the arrival of Jan van Riebeeck at the Cape, formal schooling for the children of settlers and the children of slaves began on a small scale (Siyoko, 1993, p.30, 31). It was mainly religious in nature and under the control of the Dutch churches until 1795 when the Cape Colony was taken over by Britain. A more liberal and secular approach to education was followed under British rule. Primary and secondary education in the young colony flourished, and was extended to the

indigenous population, mainly through the efforts of missionaries from various mission societies (cf. Coetzee, 1963, p. 403-410).

## **2.3 ACADEMIC HIGHER EDUCATION (UNIVERSITIES)**

The first step towards the introduction of higher education in South Africa was the founding of the Board of Public Examiners in 1858 in Cape Town. Although several 'higher' education institutions were already in existence at that time, for example, the South African College at Cape Town (founded in 1829), the Diocesan College at Rondebosch (1848), the Grey Institute at Port Elizabeth and the St. Andrew's College at Grahamstown (both established in 1856), and the Grey College at Bloemfontein (1855), these institutions were not in the true sense of the word institutions for higher learning (Metrowich, 1929, p.6-10; Behr 1988 p.183; Du Toit, 1976, p.61). The colleges mainly did secondary school work and prepared students for the matriculation and more advanced examinations of the University of London (Dreijmanis, 1988, p.18).

### **2.3.1 THE BOARD of PUBLIC EXAMINERS**

The Board of Public Examiners was not a degree-granting body, but it issued certificates in Science and Literature to candidates who had reached the standard of its examinations and in this way served a useful purpose as the pioneer co-ordinating agency in higher education in the Cape Colony (Metrowich, 1929, p.1). Growth in population and resources and cultural development very soon created the need for the establishment of a university at the Cape, and in 1873 the University of the Cape of Good Hope came into existence, though purely as an examining institution (Coetzee, 1963; Van Wijk, 1987; Behr, 1988; Du Toit, 1963). Its function was not to do any actual teaching, but merely to set the standard for

higher education in South Africa, by prescribing courses of study, testing the requirements of all students entering for its examinations, and granting degrees, among other things (Metrowich, 1929). The new university was modeled on the lines of the University of London.

The governance of the university was taken care of by a council of twenty members, initially nominated by the governor, but later appointed equally by the governor and the convocation. A chancellor was chosen by the convocation to act as the official head of the institution. No provision for an academic senate was made, and the council took care of academic matters such as the appointment of examiners, deciding on examination regulations and standards, and determining the subjects for the various degrees and certificates (Coetzee, 1963).

Metrowich (1929, p.4) points out that "the real torchbearers of higher education in South Africa were the individual University Colleges in whose hands lay all the teaching". At the time, these colleges had no official connections with one another, nor any common ideals or aspirations. They were independent institutions, bound together only by the tenuous bond of the matriculation examination. In the course of time, more colleges were established, e.g. a theological seminary founded by the Dutch Reformed Church at Stellenbosch in 1859, and a similar institution established by the Reformed Church at Burgersdorp in 1869. Both these seminaries were later incorporated into universities, the former into the University of Stellenbosch and the latter was moved to Potchefstroom to later become the Potchefstroom University for Christian Higher Education. Whereas all the colleges added post-matriculation work to their pre-matriculation teaching, gradually some of them either dropped the preparatory work for matriculation, or divided into a college for post-matriculation teaching and a separate school (Coetzee & Geggus, 1980; Behr, 1988 p.184).

### **2.3.2 The University Extension Act of 1875**

Under the University Extension Act of 1875 (amended in 1896), the University of the Cape of Good Hope was permitted to operate beyond the borders of the Cape Colony, and after the termination of the Anglo-Boer War, colleges in Transvaal, the Orange River Colony and Natal could, upon payment of a monetary grant, appoint representatives to its council (Coetzee & Geggus, 1980 p.3). At the turn of the century, more higher education institutions were established, for example: (1) the School of Mines in Kimberley in 1896 (2) the Rhodes University College in Grahamstown in 1904 (3) the Pietermaritzburg University College (later the Natal University College) in December 1909 (4) and the Transvaal University College in 1906, incorporating the former Kimberley school of Mines, and renamed the South African School of Mines with the establishment of its branch in Pretoria in 1908 (RSA DNE, 1974, p.10). Coetzee and Geggus (1980 p.3) point out that "after 1902, and especially after Union in 1910, the growth of university teaching was rapid and there was a great deal of controversy, discussion and investigation as to future development".

The first higher education act of the Union of South Africa was the University Act of 1916 which laid down the basic pattern of universities in South Africa. The old University of the Cape of Good Hope as the examining university became the federal University of South Africa (UNISA) in Pretoria with the following constituent teaching colleges: the Huguenot University College, Grey University College, Rhodes University College, the Transvaal University College, the South African School of Mines and Technology and the Natal University College. The South African College and the Victoria College were to become independent institutions and in 1918 they respectively became the University of Cape Town and the University of Stellenbosch (Coetzee & Geggus, 1980; RSA DNE 1974; Metrowich, 1929).

### **2.3.4 The Joint Matriculation Board (JMB)**

At the same time, the Joint Matriculation Board (JMB) was set up to arrange and control the matriculation or university entrance examination. In 1921 the South African School of Mines and Technology became autonomous as the University of the Witwatersrand, and the Transvaal University College became the University of Pretoria in 1931. Upon the recommendation of the Brookes Commission of 1947 that the constituent colleges of the University of South Africa should gradually move to independence, the Natal University College became the University of Natal in 1949 with campuses at Pietermaritzburg and Durban, the Grey University College became the University of the Orange Free State in 1950, and in 1951 both the Rhodes University College and the Potchefstroom University College for Christian Higher Education became autonomous universities (Coetzee & Geggus, 1980, p.4; Pells p.126).

Upon losing its constituent colleges, the University of South Africa underwent a major re-organization. On account of mainly demographic and financial factors, many prospective students in South Africa had a need for distance learning. In 1946 a Department of External Studies was established at UNISA to serve these students, and in 1951 this university was reconstituted as a teaching and examining institution for students from all population groups studying by correspondence (RSA ONE, 1974, p.12).

In the rapidly growing industrial area of Port Elizabeth, a dual-medium (i.e. Afrikaans and English) university was established in 1965, and in 1967 the Rand Afrikaans University for Afrikaans-speaking students came into being in Johannesburg (Coetzee & Geggus, 1980).

University education for Blacks commenced with the South African Native College founded by the Church of Scotland at Fort Hare in 1916 (Ajayi et al. 1990, p.31,32). Until 1936 the college had to fulfill the dual role of providing secondary as well as higher education (Behr 1988 p.185; Siyoko 1993 p.33). In 1918 it was given the status of a university college, and in 1923 it became a constituent college of UNISA and was renamed the University College of Fort Hare. In 1951 Fort Hare was affiliated to the University of Rhodes, and subsequently its students wrote the examinations of the latter institution instead of those of UNISA. In many respects the college passed through the same evolutionary stages as some of the other major universities in South Africa. From its inception Fort Hare had been a multiracial institution with significant numbers of Coloured and Indian students (Horrell, 1963 p.65).

Even the so-called 'liberal' universities (the English-medium Universities of Cape Town, the Witwatersrand, Natal and Rhodes) were initially, if not openly opposed, at least hesitant about admitting Blacks, Coloureds and Indians because of strong prejudice in the community (Welsh & Savage, 1977, p.138, 139). When the 'open' universities of Cape Town and the Witwatersrand did start admitting Black, Coloured and Indian students in the mid-1930s, segregation existed with regard to extra-curricular activities such as sporting activities and social events. At the University of Natal, students of colour were mostly taught in separate classes and in some cases even at separate venues (Behr, 1988 p.185-191; Pells, p.127; Horrell, 1963 p.66, 67; Unesco, 1969 p.84). The Natal Medical School which admitted only Black, Coloured and Indian students was opened in 1951 (Horrell, 1968, p.116). Because of its proximity to Fort Hare, Rhodes University only occasionally admitted Black students who wished to take post-graduate courses which were not available at Fort Hare (Horrell, 1964, p.148).

### **2.3.5 The Report of the Eiselen Commission and Afrikaans-medium Universities**

Prior to 1959, the Afrikaans-medium universities, like the English-medium universities, had the right in terms of their charters to determine their admissions - the power residing with the respective university councils. In terms of this right, the Afrikaans-medium Universities of Stellenbosch, Pretoria, the Orange Free State and Potchefstroom did not accept people of colour as students (Behr, 1988 p.191). In Pretoria the 'Kolege ya Bana ba Afrika' was founded in 1946 by the Dutch Reformed Churches to present part-time classes for preparing Blacks for the examinations of UNISA. Teaching staff was drawn from both UNISA and the University of Pretoria, and in 1949, 22 full-time and 15 part-time students made use of these facilities (Pells, p.148; Horrell, , p.67).

Subsequent to the report of the Eiselen Commission (which gave birth to 'Bantu education'), in 1953 a commission was appointed under the chairmanship of Dr. I.E. Holloway to investigate the practicability of providing separate higher education facilities for Blacks (Horrell, 1968, p.15), and in 1959 the Extension of University Education Act was passed. Dreijmanis (1988, p.31) proclaims this act to be "the most controversial act since World War II". Not only did it provide for the establishment of university colleges for Blacks, Coloureds and Indians, but it also created state-controlled universities alongside state-aided universities, and deprived universities of the right to accept or reject students for admission (Khotseng, 1989, p.55). Prohibiting Blacks from attending White universities without the permission of the Minister of Bantu Education, the Act was fiercely opposed by particularly the English-medium universities on the grounds of it being an invasion of institutional autonomy and academic freedom (Kruger, 1969, p.319). Khotseng (1989, p.54) propounds that "universities were expected to follow the government policies of apartheid in their functions and community services. Thus

government policies took precedence over manpower training and development of people's potential in South Africa".

According to the provisions made by the Act, four university colleges were established: the University Colleges of the North and of Zululand (both established for Blacks in 1959), the University College of the Western Cape (for Coloureds in 1960) and the University College of Durban-Westville (for Indians in 1961). At the same time the University College of Fort Hare, which had been affiliated to Rhodes University, was reconstituted and assigned to the Minister of Bantu Education (Ajayi et al. 1990, p.33). These university colleges were not only segregated along racial lines with Whites being prohibited from attending, but also along ethnic lines with members of one ethnic group not being permitted to enrol at an institution established for another ethnic group. This point is interesting as it influenced the kinds of research done in different institutions in one way or another, as will be elaborated in the last two chapters of this thesis.

In order to maintain high standards, students of the Black university colleges wrote the examinations of the University of South Africa. All these colleges subsequently became fully-fledged universities, more or less ten years after their original inception (RSA DNE, 1974; Coetzee & Geggus, 1980; Behr 1963;).

In 1978, the Medical University of Southern Africa (MEDUNSA) was established at Garankuwa near Pretoria for training Blacks in medicine, dentistry and veterinary science. At the height of the apartheid era, universities were also established in each of the 'independent' states: the University of Transkei (UNITRA), originally a branch of the University of Fort Hare, became independent in 1977, the University of Bophuthatswana (UNIBO; since renamed University of the Northwest) was created in 1979, and the University of Venda in 1981. In the same year, Vista University, providing contact tuition for urban Blacks at seven campuses as well as distance education, particularly for the large number of under-qualified teachers,



was established with its head office in Pretoria (Dreijmanis 1988 p.19; Khotseng, 1989, p.57).

### **2.3.6 Resistance to the Segregation of Higher Education**

Resistance to the segregation of higher education, especially from students' movements and staff at the 'liberal' and the historically Black universities, characterized the 1960s and 1970s. Since the late 1970s, organizations like the Urban Foundation and the South African Institute of Race Relations also applied increasing pressure on the government to modify policies on Black higher education, e.g. by placing all universities under a single department, by granting greater autonomy to Black institutions, and by making greater provision for Black technical education (Badat, 199,1 p.78). In the early 1980s, admission policies were relaxed and since that time White universities have been permitted to enroll Black students (Davies, 1994, p.256).

In 1996 South Africa had 21 universities, more or less half of which are typified as historically White universities (HWUs) and the others as historically Black universities (HBUs). In 1990, 48 per cent of the total South African student population were Whites (50 338), 39 per cent (40 899) were Blacks , 9 per cent (8 695) and 4 per cent (4 370) were Asians and Coloureds respectively (Ferreira, 1992, p.30). The university sector is the largest sector in South African higher education, both in terms of student numbers and resources (Moja, Cloete & Smit, 1995, p.90).

## 2.4 TECHNIKONS AND THEIR TRANSFORMATION INTO UNIVERSITIES OF TECHNOLOGY

Although this study does not include any university of technology in its sample, a discussion of higher education without including a brief overview of the University of Technology is simply an injustice to the history of higher education in South Africa. This section, therefore, briefly traces the historical evolution of the technikons up until they turned to Universities of Technology. Maserumule (2005 p. 14) asserts that the restructuring of the institutional landscape of higher education in South Africa saw the change of the word that describes the type of institution of learning in the tertiary sector whose instructional programmes are career focused and hands-on in their approaches to education - 'technikon' - to universities of technology.

The universities of technology's direct pedigrees – technikons - can be traced to the latter part of the 19<sup>th</sup> century with the advent of mines and railways whose requirements for the caliber of workforce were people with technical skills. Training centers with a technical orientation, known as technical colleges, were a direct result of the demand in the early years of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. Some of the technical colleges were declared to be places of higher education by the 1923 Higher Education Act (Act 30 of 1923). A perpetual shortage of skilled and high level personnel to meet the demands of commerce and industry gave birth to the advanced Technical Education Act (Act 40 of 1967). From this act a new type of institution that was midway between technical college and a university and was called College for Advanced Technical Education (CATE) and located in the higher education sector, was formed (Raju, 2004). In the late 1970s, government adopted an amendment act (Act 43 of 1979) that saw CATE change to technikon (Maserumule, 2005, p. 15). The name was formed as a result of a coinage of a Greek word 'techne', meaning ingenuity, dexterity or skill, and the Afrikaans word 'kon' whose English equivalent is 'could' and implies the ability to do something.

Legislation which afforded Technikons autonomous status in line with that of universities, and redefined the kind of education they would provide was adopted in 1983. "Further steps designed to raise the status of the Technikons were the promulgation of legislation to bring about closer liaison with the universities through the Universities and Technikons Advisory Council Act, 1983 (Act 99 of 1983), and the creation of machinery for the recognition for degree purposes by universities of courses passed at a technikon" (Behr 1988:14). The Technikon Act (Act 125 of 1993) provided for relative autonomy for technikons, including the promulgation of own statutes for individual technikons, the appointment of staff, and the principal to have sole discretion over the institution concerned. Since 1994 technikons have been allowed to introduce degree courses (NCHE TGG, 1996, p.20). It would seem therefore that significant academic drift is evident among these institutions.

This type of education was, like university education, subject to segregation by the government. In addition to the seven residential technikons for Whites, one correspondence technikon served all population groups. Two technikons were established particularly for Blacks and one each for Coloureds and Indians (Dreijmanis, 1988, pp.19 20). In 1996 there were 15 technikons in South Africa, but student numbers at Technikons were only about half those of universities (114 071 compared to 318 965 in 1992).

## **2.5 KEY DEVELOPMENTS OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN POST- 1994 ERA**

### **2.5.1 Changes in the South African Higher Education sector**

Whereas the primary and secondary educational sectors are relatively more affordable and, as a result, more accessible to the masses, high fees and stringent entrance requirements of the tertiary education sector create an exclusive scenario. Even with government subsidies/grants, the tuition fees and living costs for full-time students at most tertiary institutions seem exorbitant to the disadvantaged population, whose members are struggling just to make ends meet (Osin, 1998).

Despite the above deterrents, the tertiary education system in South Africa, which traditionally consisted of universities and Technikons, has for years delivered a vast pool of human resources to feed the professional job market. Universities, however, were perceived by the general public to have a more academic, theoretical and research-oriented focus, whilst Technikons were perceived to have a more practical and career-focused approach to Higher Education (Department of Education, 2002, p.3). In addition, the entrance requirements (e.g. subjects required and M-Scores) of universities had always been relatively higher than those of Technikons, resulting in the popular perception that university qualifications were more difficult to obtain than technikon qualifications.

The Higher Education system inherited from the previous apartheid regime was designed mainly to produce white, predominantly male, educational privilege, and black, predominantly female, subordination in all spheres of South African society (Badat, 2005). The system was fragmented and institutions were differentiated along the lines of race and ethnicity. Although the black population group was serviced by separate “historically black” tertiary institutions offering university programmes, the standard and status of these qualifications were

somehow always perceived as inferior to those of the advantaged “historically white” institutions (Department of Education, 2002, p.3). Considerably smaller government subsidies, mismanagement of university funds, sub-standard curricula, student rioting and the lack of study material and lectures in their mother tongue were some of the main reasons why these institutions did not enjoy the same credibility as the historically advantaged institutions in the South African market place.

White, male South Africans currently dominate the academic labour force and knowledge production arena, the professions and high-level occupations while black, female students are evidently under-represented in certain fields and at postgraduate level (Badat, 2005). The present situation provides compelling testimonies to this pre-1994 history. Based on the European model of Higher Education, South African tertiary institutions have been cultivated to strive towards first-world university functionality. This culture has supported the elitist and exclusive nature of academic advancement to such an extent that the historically disadvantaged institutions have been falling further and further behind in their pursuit of sustainability (The World Bank, 2000,p.10). The disadvantaged institutions became the “hotbeds of student resistance” (Department of Education, 2002, p.1) during the Apartheid era. The perceptions of historically advantaged and disadvantaged institutions differed substantially as far as their student recruitment, entrance and degree-fulfilling requirements, resource generation and utilization and general management were concerned. It is believed that the Apartheid government did not deem the empowerment of the disadvantaged institutions to be a high priority for economic growth. Instead, it focused intensively on the outputs from the “historically white” institutions, continuously increasing the quality/output gap amongst the advantaged and disadvantaged institutions. Major changes to remedy these imbalances were inevitable.

### **2.5.1.1 Impact of change of Government**

With the change of government in 1994 to that of a democratic regime, the reigning African National Congress (ANC) promptly made the remodelling of the educational system in South Africa one of its main priorities. One way of doing this was to explore the possibilities of mergers, incorporations, regional co-operation and the rationalization of strategies for dealing with the remaining effects of inequality and meeting the challenge of developing sustainable tertiary institutions (Badat, 2005). All aspects of the South African Higher Education sector needed to be re-evaluated and restructured to accommodate the diverse population and affinity groups clamouring for its services. Key policies, processes and products (as summed-up in table 2.1 - see appendix 1) were therefore initiated by the Department of Education to bring about institutional redress in post-Apartheid South Africa.

The most fundamental proposed changes were spelt out in the Government Notice of June 2002. The Minister of Education announced in the Notice the extent of restructuring and processes needing to be followed in achieving the visionary objectives for eliminating non-functionality, mismanagement and inequality throughout the South African tertiary educational system. This announcement was received with mixed emotions from the relevant stakeholders, as some institutions welcomed the proposed changes, while others (mostly previously advantaged institutions) perceived it as decisions that were based purely on a political ideology (Goldman, 2005). What led to the perplexity of the announcement was whilst most of the proposed changes suggested mergers and incorporations between similar types of institutions (i.e., universities with universities and Technikons with Technikons), a change the required two different types (with regard to academic offering and foci) of institutions (i.e. universities and Technikons) to merge to form a new-concept institution, namely a 'comprehensive university', for which no official definition existed at the time in the SAHES (Grobbelaar, 2003). However, the tertiary institutions that were

subsidised by the South African government have had no other choice than to abide by the entering into “forced marriages”. Table 2.2 provides a summary of all the restructuring changes that have been implemented in the South African Higher Education sector between 2004 and 2005 with regard to incorporations and mergers.

Table 2.1: Restructuring of the South African Higher Education sector

**Institutional incorporations – 2004**

Incorporation of East London Campus of Rhodes University with the University of Fort Hare (1 January 2004)
Incorporation of the School of Dentistry of the University of Stellenbosch with the University of the Western Cape (1 January 2004)
Incorporation of the Port Elizabeth Campus of Vista University with the University of Port Elizabeth (2 January 2004)
Incorporation of the East Rand and Soweto Campuses of Vista University with the Rand Afrikaans University (2 January 2004)
Incorporation of the Sebokeng Campus of Vista with the North West University (2 January 2004)
Incorporation of the Mamelodi Campus of Vista with the University of Pretoria (2 January 2004)
Incorporation of the Bloemfontein Campus of Vista University with the University of the Free State (2 January 2004)
Incorporation of the Welkom Campus of Vista University with the Technikon Free State

**Institutional mergers -2004**

<b>New institution</b>	<b>Old institutions merged</b>
University of KwaZulu-Natal	The University of Natal and the University of Durban-Westville (1 January 2004)
North West University	The Potchefstroom University of Christian Higher Education and the University of the North West (1 January 2004)
University of South Africa	The Technikon SA and University of South Africa (1 January 2004)

Tshwane University of Technology	The Technikon Northern Gauteng, Technikon North-West and Technikon Pretoria (1 January 2004)
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### Institutional mergers – 2005

New institution	Old institutions merged
Cape Peninsula University of Technology	Cape Technikon and Peninsula Technikon (1 January 2005)
Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University	University of Port Elizabeth and Port Elizabeth Technikon (1 January 2005)
University of Johannesburg	Rand Afrikaans University and Technikon Witwatersrand (1 January 2005)
University of Limpopo	University of the North and the Medical University of Southern Africa (1 January 2005)
Walter Sisulu University for Technology and Science, Eastern Cape	University of Transkei, the Border Technikon and the Eastern Cape Technikon (1 July 2005)

### Institutional name changes

New name	Old name
Central University of Technology, Free State	Technikon Free State
Vaal University of Technology	Vaal Triangle Technikon
Durban Institute of Technology	Natal Technikon

When looking at a corporate merger, the decision to merge is based mainly on a fiscal ideology and whether there is a willingness on both sides to enter into the “marriage”. The global trend of corporate mergers, in terms of which the philosophy of “bigger is better” (Kay, 2002) is subscribed to, cannot be applied automatically to Higher Educational models. A bigger market share does not necessarily guarantee higher standards or better functionality in tertiary institutions (Bundy, 2002). It is vital, therefore, that the process of change should occur with thorough strategic planning and careful implementation, not only to nurture and develop the loyalty of existing internal and external clients (students, alumni, corporate donors and staff, etc.) but at the same time to attract and



engage a high-quality, life-long customer for the transformed institution (Emery, Kramer & Tian, 2001).

It is worth noting here that none of the institutions that I am examining were involved in mergers, only an incorporation of the School of Dentistry of the University of Stellenbosch with the University of the Western Cape occurred. Therefore, in principle, the restructuring of higher education did not affect the three universities I am looking at.

## **2.6 HOW THE HISTORY OF HIGHER EDUCATION SHAPED THE THREE UNIVERSITIES AND THEIR INSTITUTIONAL CULTURES**

### **2.6.1 University of Cape Town**

The University of Cape- Town, is a historically white English medium university because of the history of English merchant class that settled in Cape Town. Both colonialism and apartheid shaped the white English-speaking 'Anglophone' liberal nature of UCT. Racial desegregation of student bodies in historically white universities in South Africa started in a few universities including UCT. As a result of this liberalism, and medium of instruction, UCT has become the University of Choice nationally and internationally and that is reflected in both quantity and variety of research done at UCT. It has the most research with the most variety (Erbmann, n.d.).

### **2.6.2 Stellenbosch University**

Stellenbosch University is located in Stellenbosch- a university town situated about 50 kilometres from Cape Town. The Dutch Reformed Church founded its second parish in Stellenbosch as early as 1685 and they made a beginning with regular school instruction and it is because of this that SU is predominantly an Afrikaans medium university, especially at undergraduate and honours course

level even today. However, students are allowed to write their assignments, tests and examinations in both English and Afrikaans. It is noteworthy that Xhosa is not one of the languages that students can write assignments in. According to the current language profile of the university, 60% of its students state Afrikaans as their home language, 32% have English as their home language, whilst only 1.6% of students have Xhosa as their home language (Coetzee & Geggus, 1980). To be noted is the assumption that Black students who attend in the University are Xhosa speakers ignoring the fact that Black students from other ethnic group also attended Stellenbosch University due to the prestige it carries. Stellenbosch does not only accommodate White Afrikaners students but Black students from Namibia, where Afrikaans is dominant, attend there, and other S.A students from Afrikaans dominant schools attend in Stellenbosch. SU is still, however, predominantly a white Afrikaner institution and the black population is very minimal. SUN is one of the very few tertiary institutions in South Africa that is still offering tuition in Afrikaans hence the language policy is still an on-going issue for the university. Because of its medium of instruction, SU is held with very high regard by the Afrikaner community and it is considered a central pillar of Afrikaner life. The conservative, Afrikaans, Nationalist-supporting character of Stellenbosch persists even today amidst a lot of criticism (Coetzee & Geggus, 1980).

### **2.6.3 University of the Western Cape**

Historically UCT and SUN above, have primarily served the white community although in different levels and for different reasons. A history of creative struggle against oppression, discrimination and disadvantage paints itself in the literature of the University of Western Cape. This university was founded in 1959 as a university college and its key concerns were access, equity and quality in higher education. The establishment of the college were results of extensive practical engagement in helping the historically marginalised people participate fully in the economy of the nation. Parliament of South Africa adopted legislation

establishing the university college of the Western Cape as a constituent college of the University of South Africa for people classified as 'coloured' in 1959. In 1960, the first group of 166 students were enrolled (Horrell, 1963). The students in this college were offered limited training for lower to middle level workforce. Regardless of the fact that it is widely known and accepted that UWC reacted against apartheid and aligned itself with the struggle as a progressive university, I find it to not be necessarily true the literature clearly states that Black students were taken as secondary in all 3 universities-symbol of racism-although UWC always act as if they fought for Black African students also, the reality is that it is not true and that is identified by the dominance of Coloureds in the campus-the same with UCT&SUN where the number if English and Afrikaans students have to be dominant intentionally during the intake of students-UWC is the same although it would like to be seen differently. This is evident in the type of research being produced in all the three universities; black culture/language is always being researched as opposed to white Afrikaans or English culture. This shows an element of superiority complex for the researchers who rather see a problem with other Black African cultures besides theirs. Even the black students just collude with the research culture. More recently, however, higher education policies have contributed to creating greater diversity in terms or language and race on each campus (Alexander, 2002).

## **2.7 CONCLUSION**

The various higher education institutions in South Africa have through the years acquired different 'reputations', either because of belonging to a particular group, or as individual institutions. These reputations were acquired through the political stances that institutions took, and also on account of institutional ethos and mission. In addition to the obvious division between universities and technikons, lines of division also run along race (historically White institutions vs. historically Black institutions), language (English-medium institutions vs. Afrikaans-medium institutions) and political

inclination. Research in the different universities is also influenced by the backgrounds as discussed in the last two chapters.

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

#### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

The purpose of this research was to give a descriptive analysis of issues and trends in MEd and PhD educational research done with regard to Language and Race issues in South Africa during the period ranging from 1995 to 2004 in some universities in the Western Cape region, namely University of Cape Town, University of the Western Cape and the University of Stellenbosch. Chapter 2 outlined the history of education in South Africa. This chapter explores the theoretical framework underpinning this study. Social constructionism is used as an overall theoretical framework in this study.

#### **3.2. SOCIAL CONSTRUCTIONISM AS A THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

In this study I problematise the choice of the types and areas of research done by postgraduate students in three universities in language and race. I argue that the choices maybe based on alterable social constructs that are situated in the history and culture of South Africa. According to Burr (2003), language is considered by social constructionists as being central to social identity formation. This means that language carries ideology and positionality. In South Africa, and probably in other places too, language and race cannot be divorced, as from the history of South Africa it can clearly be seen how these categories are associated with particular power interests. Policies around race and class have served these interests; for example Miller's policy of Anglicization, the promotion of Afrikaans from the 1920s, and the language policy of post-1994. Thus language and race are not neutral descriptive categories but rather socially constructed and

contextually shaped; hence the stance taken in this study is one of social constructionism.

Social constructionism as a lens of looking at the world believes that central to the human experience are history, culture and language (Willig, 2008). Lock and Strong (2010) are also of the view that social constructionism is an epistemology that looks at the way knowledge is created through seeking to understand social actions and processes and thus the formation of social constructs. I am looking at revealing what postgraduates choose to study in language and race issues through using this lens.

Burr (1995) puts forth four key assumptions that characterise social constructionism. The first one is the idea that in social constructionism a critical stance is taken for the knowledge people have that is normally taken for granted. This assumption proposes that people should be critical of the idea that the world as they see it is natural and that people should question the basis of the view or the way in which that knowledge was constructed.

The second assumption, which is the one that influenced my choice of the theoretical framework for this study, is the acknowledgement that the way the world is known is constructed by history and the culture (Burr, 1995).

The third assumption is that our knowledge of the world is sustained by our social processes. This assumption sees social interaction as very important in the construction and understanding of knowledge (Burr, 1995). This assumption also contributed to me choosing Social Constructionism as my framework as I am interested in knowing whether being a student in one university, such as UWC with its particular history and student body, necessarily makes one do a different type of research from a student who is at UCT or SU.

The fourth assumption posits that knowledge and social interaction are dependent on one another. It is through this interdependence that knowledge of the world is constructed and as a result these constructions inform actions of people in the world. Due to the fact that there are a myriad of ways in which people act daily, there are also a great number of ways in which the activities can be interpreted, and as a result, scholars working within the social constructionist framework look into the multiple ways in which phenomena are constructed (Burr, 1995; Denzin and Lincoln, 2000). This study is one such attempt which intends to look at different ways of engaging and interpreting research done in higher education.

Social constructionism is thus a useful theoretical lens for my study because it acknowledges that social circumstances surrounding the individual may influence the individual. The choice of this theory is also based on the fact that it has the ability to allow for multiple constructions, in this case choices of research, and that it is also socio-culturally and historically located. While it could have been possible to use other frameworks, social constructionism was the most appropriate as I consider research to be embedded in social systems that are developed and determined by social factors (especially history, culture and language) and by the meanings attributed to them by different groups. In this case I argue that the political ideology and circumstances in the period under study could have influenced the type and areas of research that postgraduate students embarked on. The same issues could be interpreted differently depending on which university one was enrolled in. I explore the research through this lens as a means of understanding how interpretations and interactions amongst the three universities influence and eventually shape their final attitude towards issues of language and race. Social constructionism provides scope for an analysis of the research done in race and language in the three universities and it also provides ways in which these constructions can be invoked or contested and the implications thereof.

### **3.2.1 Social Constructionism in this Study**

This study has been fully guided by social constructionism as a theoretical framework. Firstly I used the framework in conceptualizing race as social constructionism is one of the contemporary traditions used by researchers globally. According to Malt 1995, explaining reasons of dividing the world and finding some categories as natural and others not is one of the most important challenges facing psychology of categorization and differentiation in the case of this study. Psychology usually makes use of two kinds of causes namely the nature of human cognition and the nature of the world itself. In this case I exposed the fact that the Black race is seen as inferior and not worthy of higher education hence access of Black Africans in all the three universities is seen as secondary while Whites and Coloureds are prioritized using the social constructionist lens.

In this study I first followed the Bur's (1995) first assumption that in social constructionism a critical stance is taken for the knowledge people has that is normally taken for granted. This assumption proposes that people should be critical of the idea that the world as they see it is natural and that people should question the basis of the view or the way in which that knowledge was constructed. Guided by this assumption I question why in most cases it is the Black race or language that is under scrutiny. In particular I alluded to the fact that Blacks are being made the subjects for study which stamps historical idea of colonialism and apartheid that suggests racial superiority of whites in the one extreme and black inferiority in the other.

I also used the second assumption by acknowledging that the types of research produced in the different universities can be traced back to the history and culture of the individual universities. In the University of Cape Town, for instance, there are no theses written in Afrikaans.



This study regards race and language as social constructions, defined by human beings and given meaning in the context of community and society. These constructions are sometimes fluid and change according to the context. For instance, UWC publicises that it caters for black students while in actual fact the term Black is inclusive of coloureds and the reality is that Black Africans are not sufficiently catered for.

### **3.3 South African Language-in-education Policies**

The current language policy in South African teaching and learning institutions is primarily founded on the 1994 language in education policy. With the demise of apartheid and the advent of democracy in 1994, the new government promulgated the post-apartheid Language-in-Education Policy (LiEP), the final version of which was legislated in 1997 (DoE 1997). Through this LiEP, the Department of Education (DoE), in line with the country's constitution, recognized eleven South African languages as media through which teaching and learning could be conducted. The languages are English, Afrikaans, IsiZulu, IsiXhosa, IsiNdebele, SeSotho, Setswana, SiSwati, Tshivenda, Xitsonga and SeSotho sa Lebowa. These eleven languages had already been recognised as the country's official languages by the government, all of them supposed to have equal agency. This move effectively made the South African LiEP the most multilingual state policy in the world (Paxton, 2009).

With such a wide range of languages, the policy encourages the practice of multilingualism; in this case, in order to increase learners' access to education. In essence, the policy promotes "proficiency in two or more languages and the use of the mother tongue for instruction alongside a second or third language in an additive multilingual mode" (Govender, 2009, p. 1). Additive multilingualism is thus the guiding principle of language in both schools and tertiary education. It should be noted though that the implementation of this policy has not necessarily

been in tandem with the intentions of the policy, as English has continued to be associated with access to, especially, economic empowerment.

The Council of Higher Education (CHE), using the LiEP as a framework, formulated the Language Policy for Higher Education which was announced in 2002 (Govender, 2009). With additive multilingualism as the guiding principle, the universities were then expected to indicate how they would draw up their own language policies and how these would be implemented. This policy was further reinforced with the recommendation that all higher education institutions would identify “an indigenous African language of choice for initial development as medium of instruction” (Govender, 2009, p.2).

### **3.3.1 Language-in-education Planning**

The new Language-in-education Planning (Leap), like many transitional policies, was in reaction to the apartheid language in education policy. It should be noted, though, that the apartheid language policies were enacted within the context of apartheid and its priorities. In fact, since the colonial era, successive governments had put in place language in education policies that tallied with collective government priorities.

According to Barkhuizen and Gough (1996, p. 453), “language-in-education planning in South Africa is composed of two interrelated domains: decisions about languages taught as subjects and decisions about languages used as media of instruction (or ‘languages of learning’)”. It should be noted that most of the formal and informal debates on language-in education policy in South Africa have been in reference to the latter and rarely do critics engage in the issue of languages taught as subjects. Such an approach can be argued to only lead to an incomplete understanding of language issues in South Africa. Therefore this

literature review considers both language as a school subject and language as a medium of instruction. The medium of instruction is alternately referred to as the language of learning and teaching (LOLT).

### **3.4 COLONIAL LANGUAGE-IN-EDUCATION POLICY**

Since the colonization of South Africa by the Dutch and the English in the seventeenth century, respective governments have conceptualized issues of language in their own particular and not necessarily uniform ways. However, this discussion will start on South Africa in the twentieth century since that is when university education began to take shape in the country. Control of the country had been, at particular times, contested by colonial powers and this led in extreme cases to military conflict.

The ultimate defeat of the Afrikaners in the second Anglo-Boer War (now referred to as the South African War, 1899-1902) was significant in terms of South African language policy in general and language-in-education policy in particular. In the battle for colonial supremacy, language was one of the major means employed by the English to ensure Afrikaner subjugation even as the country entered the Union era. Alexander (2003, p. 8) explains how Lord Milner, the British High Commissioner appointed to administer the defeated Boer Republics, introduced “a punitive Anglicisation policy, directed in the first instance at the white Afrikaans-speaking community throughout the territory that became the Union of South Africa in 1910”.

This does not mean that English became the only official language. According to Granville et al (1997), English and Dutch were the official languages. Only in 1925 did Afrikaans succeed in replacing Dutch as the official language. Thus began the policy of colonial bilingualism through which all white South Africans

were expected to learn both English and Afrikaans as school subjects. However this did not make the two subjects equal as English carried more educational capital than Afrikaans, as a result of Milner's Anglicanisation policy.

Another reason was the status of English as an international language and its association with economic wealth and opportunity in South Africa. Still, Afrikaans continued to witness some growth with the increased growth of Afrikaner nationalism. It should be noted that although Afrikaans already existed as a written language by the 1900s, there was a conscious effort by the Union government to rapidly make material resources in Afrikaans available such that it became the fastest-growing language in the world in the first half of the twentieth century, when some languages worldwide were facing extinction.

While all people classified as white had to be bilingual, there was a "benign neglect" of indigenous African languages (Alexander, 2003, p. 10). Language was a tool for power and supremacy and, at this point in time, the Africans were the least threat to political power. As explained above, the real power lines were drawn between the English and the Afrikaners. Therefore it was not really obligatory for all people classified as black to learn a second language.

### **3.4.1 African vs official language**

However, there was a simultaneous lack of production of material in African languages. Nevertheless, the ability to speak English and Afrikaans would be an advantage when seeking a job and for communication; thus black people had to learn either English or Afrikaans for economic and administrative reasons for the sake of career prospects. What the colonial language-in-education policy entailed for the African populace is that they would learn their mother tongue as school subjects, but they had to adopt especially English as a medium of instruction.

Still, little effort was expended in developing the language capacity of the people classified as black in colonial South Africa.

What one can conclude regarding the pre-apartheid language-in-education policy is that, while it was bilingual, it could be additive only to the English speakers. English speakers would learn Afrikaans as a school subject but there was no need for Afrikaans to eclipse English. It was a different case though for the Afrikaans speakers and the African people. Through Milner's Anglicanisation policy, both groups had to go through a system of subtractive bilingualism where their own language would suffer at the expense of English. The Afrikaans speakers though were still afforded the right to use their mother tongue as the language of instruction. For the African people, the subtractive nature of the colonial bilingual system was worse since they had to learn in their mother tongue for initial literacy, but would later make the transition to either English or Afrikaans. This language-in-education set the tone for the apartheid language policy with the effective end of English colonization and the rise of the National Party in 1948 (Erasmus, 2003; Granville, 1997).

### **3.5 APARTHEID ERA LANGUAGE-IN-EDUCATION POLICY**

It is evident that the colonial language-in-education policies would lead to grumbling and solidarity of the apparently disadvantaged racial groups in South Africa. Following their ignominious defeat in the Anglo-Boer War and their subsequent losses (from land to administration), the Afrikaans speaking South Africans regarded all state policies – the language-in-education policy included – with indignation. Thus, the National Party takeover of government in 1948 quickly resulted in efforts to elevate Afrikaner culture and consciousness. The government hoped to achieve this, partly by engaging in what Alexander (2002, p. 13) describes as a “grotesque attempt of the white nationalist leadership to

Afrikanerise South Africa". This move was aimed to go a long way in diminishing the dominant position which English had assumed in South African language policy through the efforts of Milner.

The apartheid language-in-education policy was founded on the "mother-tongue principle" (Barkhuizen & Gough, 1996, p. 454). This principle was in direct correlation to the basic ideological position of the National Party whereby "separate development" was to be promoted. Basically, through pseudo-scientific racial anthropology, the racial and ethnic classifications were to have strong boundaries such that each classified group would lead a life that did not, at least theoretically, interfere with that of another. Thus, in a way, the government recognised and took advantage of the richness of South Africa's diversity. Regarding the issue of language, this diversity "was used as an instrument of control, oppression and exploitation" and therefore it was being "perversely celebrated" (Webb, 2002, p. 2). Therefore, the apartheid language-in-education policy should be considered more as ideological than as educational. For instance, it was on the grounds of such a policy that having separate learning institutions for separate ethnic groupings could be justified. In other words, no one would have to bother attending a school wherein the language of instruction was not their mother tongue. However, the expenditure on each ethnicity's education system was grossly unequal and mirrored the group's classification in the racial and ethnic hierarchy of South Africa.

### **3.5.1 Divisive nature of Apartheid**

The divisive nature of the apartheid language-in-education policy was manifested even amongst the white South Africans, in spite of them being at the top of the apartheid racial hierarchy. Although all people classified as white had to study both English and Afrikaans as school subjects, the medium of instruction could be one of the two. This was in essence a case of additive bilingualism if it is looked at from a language as subject point of view. From a language as medium

of instruction point of view, this could be viewed as a form of multilingualism. Thus, the privileged racial group in the apartheid system ended up divided amongst itself when it came to issues of language.

For the people classified as black South Africans, the results were more telling. Granville et al (1997, p. 18), argue thus:

The medium policy was a powerful political move for two reasons. Firstly, it stopped the widespread use of English as LOLT in the black mission schools. Secondly, it divided African people along apartheid lines of language and ethnicity.

This policy was reinforced by the Bantu Education Act of 1953 which effectively pronounced education for the Africans inferior. While colonial policy had depicted a form of “benign neglect”, the apartheid policy showed malevolent interest. The Bantu Education Act was also crucial in terms of the conceptualization of race and ethnicity in relation to education during the apartheid education and this will be discussed later. Suffice to say that this “blatantly inferior and humiliating curriculum was being mediated through the indigenous languages” (Alexander, 2002, p. 56). While the African people had to study English and Afrikaans as school subjects, it was imperative that they study in their mother tongue. As a result, they were learning three languages at school and, given the limitations of Bantu Education, it meant that learners’ development in all three languages became stunted. As a result, the mother tongue language-in-education policy would be of great utility when it came to excluding Africans from university education. Exclusion of blacks from higher education was espoused in Hendrik Verwoerd’s claim that there was no need for Africans to get a higher education when there would be no prospects for them to get jobs after all, hence black

people had to be educated “in accordance with their opportunities in life” (Erasmus, Swanepoel, Van Wyk & Schenk, 2003, p. 49).

In spite of the Afrikanerisation endeavor by the National Party to push for the use of Afrikaans, the hegemony of English remained virtually intact. A drastic step was therefore announced whereby Afrikaans would be the medium of instruction in all black schools in 1976. But from black learners the response towards the policy was not positive.

According to Alexander (2002, p. 14), “In their eyes, Verwoerdism came to have the same enemy status as Milnerism had had for Afrikaners at the beginning of the 20th century”. The language-in-education policy became central to the Soweto uprising of 1976 with learners boycotting classes demanding the withdrawal of the language policy, amongst other issues (Barkhuizen & Gough, 1996). While this case was not necessarily about language in higher education, it had a huge bearing on black learners’ prospects for qualification into tertiary institutions. In addition, as Alexander (2001) argues, such a move on an already weak Bantu Education curriculum with poor funding would hamper all-round linguistic development of the learners. The uprisings culminated in compromises on both sides, with the government agreeing to do away with Afrikaans as a mandatory medium of instruction for non-Afrikaans mother-tongue students. In addition, mother tongue education would only be compulsory in the first three grades of primary school. What were the “compromises” on the other side? However, for the white learners, Afrikaans remained a compulsory subject which English speakers had to pass in order to be enrolled at university (Granville et al, 1997). Such a scenario was the case when apartheid ended in 1990.

It can be argued thus far that the language-in-education policy of the apartheid government was not necessarily uniform from 1948 to 1990. It was based on the mother-tongue principle, but then it was also bilingual, largely in the form of



subtractive bilingualism. Language was used as one of the vehicles through which separatist ideologies were imposed on the people of South Africa. Mother tongue education, in spite of its weaknesses, was eye-opening such that during its practice, according to Alexander (2002), the matric results went up positively. This has become, in a way, a basis for the present-day academics' calls for the use of mother-tongue instruction at all levels of education.

### **3.6 POST-APARTHEID LANGUAGE-IN-EDUCATION POLICY**

The end of apartheid marked the dawn of a new education system, and thus a new language-in-education policy. One of the main features of the new curriculum and legislative policies is that it encourages multilingualism. Officially, the country has eleven official languages. Just as all these languages are recognized by the constitution as official, so are they recognized by the language-in-education policy. Thus learners from primary to tertiary education thus have a right to be educated in a language of their own. The trends in post-apartheid language in education policy have already been adumbrated in the first section of this chapter.

As has already been pointed out, the South African multilingual policy for many years was proving to be rather symbolic as there was no evidence of committed implementation. In justification of this stall in implementation, scholars such as Mesthrie (2008) have argued that the development of multilingual glossaries in African languages is a complex, if not impractical and ambitious process. However, there have been growing calls for the quick implementation of multilingualism. Paxton (2009, p. 345) maintains that translating discipline-specific terms should not be put on hold any longer since

...it happens inevitably both inside and outside our university classrooms as multilingual university students, in peer learning groups, code switch from English to their primary languages in order to better understand new concepts.

The argument here is that only when multilingualism is implemented will students gain the 'linguistic capital' necessary for the realisation of their full educational potential.

Of late, there is some evidence of efforts to make use of alternative languages other than just Afrikaans and English. In 2006, the then Minister of Education, Naledi Pandor, reported that higher education institutions were responding positively with the introduction of at least one compulsory module for a selected African language which is usually the most used in the province (Govender, 2009). This, it is hoped, will increase the rate of bilingualism. Such a change can then become a driving force behind using code-switching or an African mother tongue as a way of clarifying issues in a language better understood by the students.

### **3.7 RACE AND HIGHER EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA**

According to Seekings (2007, p. 3), the relationship between race and class in South Africa is now very much weaker than in the pre-1994 period. He argues that overall, race remains very important in cultural and social terms, but no longer structures economic advantage and disadvantage. In the past, right from colonial times, one's race could ultimately determine their class. Similarly, one's race could determine the type of education policy one was subjected to and the

type of institution one could enroll into. There is still a strong correlation between race and class. Although there is now a small black middle class, most poor and working class people are black.

A common misconception amongst some South Africans is that racism started with the advent of apartheid in 1948. However, it should be emphasized that issues of race and racial discrimination have deep origins and were only strengthened with the use of Social Darwinist theories to create hierarchies of humans thus proving which race was fitter to run and manage their space (Dubouw, 1995).

The early twentieth century witnessed the growth of the eugenics movement worldwide and the turn to pseudo-science to justify racial classification (Norrgard, 2008). Although Adolf Hitler's Nazi Germany was the most notorious case of pseudo-scientific racism, South Africa was not left out. In South Africa, this prejudice then manifested itself in the form of the policy of apartheid. Education was just but one aspect of the South African fabric that was affected by apartheid. Up to today, the higher education institutions of South Africa are still engaged in labors to undo the damage inflicted on education by the apartheid policies.

### **3.8 APARTHEID, EDUCATION AND RACE**

I have already explained how the apartheid system had a major influence on the language-in-education policy, and that even before the inception of apartheid, race was already a factor in the construction of personal identity, language policies and class. However, it was during the apartheid era that the racial

distinctions became more pronounced in education. Universities would cater for a particular racially classified population as a means to promote separate development and educating each South African according to the opportunities that life would offer them afterwards. To explain the manifestation of this trend, Naidoo (2004, p. 461) notes:

The dominant tier consisted of white English-medium universities that were set up in the colonial era for the British community. In 1959, under apartheid laws, these institutions were designated exclusively for white students. These universities were research intensive, internationally recognized and offered high-status postgraduate programmes. In the intermediate tier were the Afrikaans-medium universities, also designated white, which were set up by the Afrikaans community. Universities that were set up for the different groups of black South Africans were in the subordinate tier. These institutions were poorly resourced, had almost no research infrastructure and offered low level of study such as diplomas. It explains how race was conceptualized to the extent of influencing higher education policies in South Africa. It is evident that race was inextricably linked to language in the learning institutions.

Without necessarily discarding Naidoo's (2004) argument, I contend that race was not always theorized uniformly throughout the apartheid era. In the early days of apartheid one could only be classified to be either native, Coloured or white according to the Population Registration Act of 1950. These different racial groups were defined as follows:

- 'Coloured person' means a person who is not a white person or a native;

- 'native' means a person who in fact is or is generally accepted as a member of any aboriginal race or tribe of Africa;
- 'white person' means a person who in appearance obviously is, or who is generally accepted as a white person, but does not include a person who, although in appearance obviously a white person, is generally accepted as a Coloured person (Population Registration Act, Act 30, 1950). Indians were also later added and categorized as a separate racial group.

These classifications, ambiguous as they were, operated as the basic racial taxonomy until 1984 when there was a need for them to be rethought according to circumstances. The differences between the racial groups were increased as apartheid came under increased pressure from within and without. The government decided to introduce the tricameral parliamentary system in order to appease the Coloureds and the Indians who were apparently joining forces with the blacks to fight apartheid. The government used the racial differences to further divide and rule the South Africans.

Accordingly, education was rearranged according to race. This happened from the 1950s (Bantu Education Act 1953) but was further developed and refined, where institutions received government funding according to the racial hierarchy. Thus, white institutions received the highest amount of funding while the Indians were second, coloureds third, and blacks at the bottom of the hierarchy. For example, in terms of per capita education expenditure, in 1982-3, for every R1 spent on a black African child, R3.40 was spent on a Coloured child, R4.86 for an Indian child, and R8.27 for a white child (Christie 1991). Because of this, black institutions had poorer facilities, the least qualified educators and poorer expenditure per student. According to Alexander (2001), the difference in standards was so stark that the system got to a point whereby black students would not access certain universities, not necessarily because they were black,

but they even lacked the requisite skills due to the fact that they underwent an inferior education system at school. Therefore the conceptualization of race was manifested in both basic and also higher education, as Naidoo (2004) pointed out. It is because of the changing conceptualization of race that Loveman (1999) explains race to serve “strategic purposes of coalition building by those in power”.

### **3.9 EDUCATION AND RACE IN THE POST-APARTHEID PERIOD**

It would be naïve to assume that the advent of democracy in 1994 resulted in the demise of race issues in South African education in general and higher education in particular. While the democratic government has pushed for transformation in the institutions, change cannot take place in an instant; rather it is a protracted process. One explanation for the continuation of race issues, according to Seekings (2007), is that there remains a strong use of apartheid racial classification even in the post-apartheid era. For the sake of transformation, it is still official to classify South Africans according to apartheid categories, which the current government had always argued to be based on pseudo-science. Fiske & Ladd (2004, p. x) argue that the advantage of continuing to use the clearly delineated apartheid racial classifications is that they “can provide a firm basis for the evaluation of the movement towards racial equity”. While this is a practical argument, Loveman (1999) argues that the conceptualization of race should only be done with reference to the historical context.

The Higher Education Quality Committee (HEQC) has adopted the government’s view of race which is based on the apartheid classification. For instance, the HEQC audits noted that Stellenbosch University is still predominantly an Afrikaans-medium university continuing with their old tradition (HEQC to

Stellenbosch University, 2007). The use of Afrikaans as a medium of instruction has contributed significantly to Stellenbosch's exclusive nature, and students who would rather learn in English are not keen to enroll. While Afrikaans is spoken by a wide range of races in the Western Cape, it is important to note that Coloured people, many of whom speak Afrikaans, prefer to go to English medium universities.

Another example is the University of Cape Town which the HEQC audit team argued needed to work harder to increase the pace of the transformation of their demographic make-up. There is evidence that by 1980, in spite of the government policy of separate education, UCT had begun enrolling non-whites. In that same year, out of a total of 10 506 students, 9 332 were white and 71 were black (Marcum, p. 171). These were barely impressive statistics, but it has to be considered that this was against government policy. Up to present-day, the demographic make-up of the university has not fully impressed the government. Evidently a lot of the students categorized as Africans were not South African and this trend gave a false impression about UCT's transformation in giving access to South Africans of all demographics (HEQC to the University of Cape Town, 2006). The case of UCT demonstrates a limitation in the argument that the use of Afrikaans is the reason why Stellenbosch has not seen quick transformation. UCT uses English as a medium of instruction but enrolment of black South Africans has proven to be low. One can thus conclude that a myriad of factors contribute to slow racial transformation in South African universities in the post-apartheid era.

### **3.10 CONCLUSION**

This chapter mapped out the trends that have been developing in South African Education, especially with regards to language, race and research priorities. The analysis started at the turn of the twentieth century with full cognisance that the

first quarter of that century witnessed the establishment of many of South Africa's universities. I explained how policies of language in higher education have been influenced by policies in basic education and how the latter has in turn been informed by general government ideology and policy. I also argued that these policies have not necessarily been uniform, even seemingly under one regime or era. Therefore this chapter shows that language in education policies have been more for political expediency than needs of the general populace. Even today the multilingual policy has been tabled symbolically, but practically, the reality of the hegemony that English has held over other languages in South Africa over the past centuries is still intact.



## **CHAPTER 4**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter describes and explains the methodology deployed in this study and the details which informed the choice of methods deployed in this study. This research was conducted in order to provide a descriptive analysis of issues and trends in Master of Education (MEd) and Philosophical Doctorate (PhD) research on language and race in educational research in South Africa. The period of interest in this study ranges from 1995 to 2004. The reason for the time frame is dependent on the fact that the Postgraduate Project in Educational Research (PPER) database, which this study draws data from, only includes information from that period.

The previous chapter was a presentation of literature reviewed, much of which informed the current study methodologically. This chapter covers the aspects of research design, research questions and objectives, data collection, documents as a source of data, sampling and sampling techniques, data analysis, rigour in the study, ethical considerations, limitations of the study and the summary.

#### **4.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM**

The paradigm adopted in this study is interpretive and within a critical framework. It is interpretive because the study sought to understand and describe meaningful social action in the form of research theses, and, among other things, it is aimed at giving a description of how a group's meaning system is generated and sustained (Neuman, 2000). This study is not only interpretive but also

extends to being critical. According to Henning et al (2005), adopting a critical lens in research has a one-to-one correspondence with questioning the process of constructing the world by means of multiple perspectives, which is typical of an interpretivist framework. The critical framework maintains that some relationships in the world are more powerful than others; it also posits that some theorists enjoy more status than others. "...some 'intellectual currency' is worth more than others" (Henning et al. 2005, p. 23). Neuman adds that a critical approach smashes myths and empowers people to change society radically due to the fact that human beings are creative and adaptive with unrealised potential trapped by illusion and exploitation.

#### **4.3 RESEARCH APPROACH**

According to Polit and Hungler (1999, p.155), research design is a guiding framework, or an outline, for conducting a study in such a way that maximises control over factors that could interfere with the validity of the research results. It is therefore a researcher's overall plan for answering the research questions at hand.

A mixed method of enquiry was adopted in this study. According to Creswell (2003, p. 6), "a mixed research design is a general type of research that includes quantitative and qualitative research data, techniques and methods". This method involves research that uses mixed data (numbers and text) and additional means (statistics and text analysis). A mixed method study uses both deductive and inductive scientific method, has multiple forms of data collecting and produces eclectic and pragmatic reports. This study was conducted using a survey.

This study is divided into two phases, the first being quantitative in nature because the aim was to establish and quantify trends in postgraduate

educational research in language and race in the Western Cape over a ten year period. The second step is qualitative in nature because the aim is to provide a narrative report of what has been studied in language and race studies. It must be mentioned, however, that I found myself moving backwards and forwards between quantitative and qualitative methods not necessarily in a smooth progression from one to the other. Creswell (2003) further adds that mixed research is based on the complementarity of results generated from different types of research methods. This research does not miss any available data. A quantitative component of a mixed research study assumes the usage of deductive scientific method while a qualitative component assumes inductive scientific method.

#### **4.3.1 Research Design**

##### **The sites and sampling**

The first step in sampling was to systematically extract data that was relevant to the study in terms of its objectives. Data from the three universities in the Western Cape - University of Western Cape, University of Cape Town, and the University of Stellenbosch - were extracted from the database using the university names as search words, then from this newly formed database which comprised of entries, new search/key words, namely Language and Race were used to gather data for the study as a second step. Not much data came out and I was a bit suspicious of the outcome. I then went back to the database containing all the information from the three universities, then went through each and every title reading it and picking it if it had anything to do with either language or race issues. I ended up with a new database made of entries.

#### **4.4 SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

The objectives of this study were to:

(1) Reveal the main concerns in language and race research done by MEd and PhD students in South Africa, in the decade immediately following the introduction of democratic governance.

(2) Reveal the methodological approaches to knowledge generation in educational research on language and race

#### **4.5 POPULATIONS AND SAMPLE SIZE AND DATA COLLECTION**

The current study used secondary data from the database established by the P.P.E.R. This database comprises information about research in education done in eleven universities in South Africa and the data is stored in Excel spreadsheets. It has an archive of over 2340 bound extracts from theses. The bound extracts are made of sections that were copied, which included the title page, and the acknowledgements page - this helped in trying to determine the gender of the author in which they would thank either their husbands or wives. It also included the abstract which would provide insight about the research process and the findings of the study. The methodology and the concluding chapter were the other sections that were copied and they would help in determining the trend on the choice of methodologies and data collection methods. All this information was transferred into an end-note database for consolidation, portability and user friendliness. The information captured into the database included call number, year of publication, gender, title, and key words.

#### **4.6 DOCUMENTS AS A SOURCE OF DATA**

Documents, in the form of postgraduate theses (PhD and Masters theses and dissertations) were used as sources of data in this study. These documents provided valuable information and insights into the intricacies of studies in language and race in South Africa. Informed by Deyes (1999), I used documents because compared with data obtained from interviews, data gathered from documents are unlikely to suffer memory decay or distortion, not to mention the difficulty one would have to go through trying to locate the researchers from that era.

However, like any other method of data collection, document analysis has its limitations. These would require a researcher to clearly state the ways of ensuring rigour in the process of data analysis and presentation. Oelrich (2002) also states that the document may be limited in the amount of relevant information it holds for the researcher and that the researcher may be vulnerable to the biased opinions of the author with little chance of questioning those. Although document analysis is widely used by researchers, it is quite often integrated with other methods to provide additional data or to validate data from other sources. Thus, limiting data collection methods to document analysis may have left some questions unanswered. Some of these are identified in the final chapter in this thesis. Nevertheless, it is imperative that a researcher explicitly explains the way rigour will be ensured in the study. I provide the rigour for this study in 4.11 below. What follows now is how I sampled for this study.

#### **4.7 SAMPLING TECHNIQUE**

Because, as stated in the problem statement, no known study of this nature has been carried out specifically on Language and Race issues, it is imperative that the qualitative part of the enquiry in the mixed method approach that has been

adopted in this study should be relatively strong. The insights acquired from this qualitative enquiry depend more on “the information richness and the analytical capabilities of the researcher” (McMillan & Schumacher 1993 p.382) than on how large the research sample is. The understanding is that a few cases studied in depth can yield many insights into the phenomenon under investigation. To achieve this, the researcher needs to do purposeful sampling of information-rich key informants, groups, places or events.

Social researchers, including those doing research in education, have been using two types of sampling techniques (Horn, 2012; McMillan and Schumacher, 2001). The first is known as probability sampling. Probability sampling, as the name suggests, is based on the idea that the participants or events that are chosen as the sample are chosen because the researcher has some notion of the probability that these will be representative of a cross-section of the participants or events in the whole population being studied. The second one is known as non-probability and is conducted without such knowledge about whether those included in the sample are representative of the overall population. The crucial and defining characteristic of non-probability sampling in whatever form it takes is that the choice of participants or events to be included in the sample is definitely not a random selection (McMillan and Schumacher, 2001).

In non-probability sampling there is definitely a purpose for selecting particular participants or events regardless of whether or not they are representative. Horn (2012, p. 106) defines purposive sampling as “a non-probability method in which the selected cases are related to the purpose of the study”. According to McMillan & Schumacher (2006, p. 319) “samples are chosen because they are likely to be knowledgeable and informative about the phenomenon the researcher is investigating”. Thus using a purposive sample is useful for obtaining the vital and most applicable information needed. It is for this reason that purposive sampling was used to gather data in this study.

## 4.8 DATA ANALYSIS

This study adopted content analysis as an approach to analysis of the data following Henning's suggestion that content analysis is the main analytical tool used to capture data from documents (Henning, 2005). According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007, p.491) "content analysis is a strategy that examines words or phrases within a wide range of texts, including books, book chapters, essays, interviews and speeches as well as informal conversation and headlines". They add that by examining the presence or repetition of certain words and phrases in these texts, a researcher is able to make inferences about the philosophical assumptions of a writer, a written piece, the audience for which a piece is written, and even the culture and time in which the text is embedded. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2001, p.155), content analysis is defined as "a detailed and systematic examination of the contents of a particular body of material for the purpose of identifying patterns, themes, or biases". The identified themes, patterns, and biases that emerge from the theses were described and compared from institution to institution to describe what is prevalent. The comparative aspect is an influence from Guimond (2006) who asserts that much of the knowledge about ourselves, and about the world in which we live, is based on a process of social comparison. Content analysis is therefore suitable for this study because I analysed the topics and phrases used in abstracts of theses, and observed frequencies of researched issues and methodologies used. A comparative analysis of the three universities is also done as the last stage of the process.

The use of content analysis can be traced from a study of mass communications in the 1950s by White and Marsh (2006), where researchers would make inferences based on quantified analysis of recurring, easily identifiable aspects of text content, using the basic communications model of sender→message→receiver. Anderson and Arsenault (1998) also state that content analysis can describe the relative frequency of certain topics as well as

evaluate bias, prejudice or propaganda in the text. Content analysis reveals the focus of the individual author and describes patterns and trends in the text. The procedure in content analysis involves categorising, comparing and drawing conclusions from the text.

According to Palmquist (1993), in order to conduct a content analysis on a text, one has to code the text, or break it down, into manageable categories on a variety of levels and then examine it using one of content analysis' basic methods: conceptual analysis or relational analysis (Busha and Harter, 1980; Palmquist (1993). Of these two types, I chose to use the relational analysis method because I am more interested in the relationships between the elements of the data than the elements themselves (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). That is, I want to see the frequencies of different issues and the methodologies that were used in the research done by postgraduates.

#### **4.8.1 Relational Analysis**

Various steps of relational analysis, as indicated by Palmquist (1993, cited in Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007, p. 493) were followed:

- Identify the question: this study addresses the question of what it is that has been studied by postgraduate students as presented in the problem statement.
- Choose the sample(s) for analysis: the three universities in the Western Cape have been chosen as a sample in this study as shown in research questions.
- Determine the type of analysis: content analysis has been chosen as the most appropriate type of analysis as justified in research questions.
- Reduce the text to categories and code for word patterns: done in chapter 5.
- Explore the strength, sign, and direction of relationships: this has been done in chapters 5 and 6.
- Code the relationships: also done in chapters 5 and 6.



- Map out the representations: representations have been mapped out throughout chapter 5 which presents and interprets the data.

As shown above, when data is gathered, the relevant material needs to be analyzed for it to be informative. Since this study is primarily interested in trends, the first step of the analysis was to analyse the data according to pre-prepared categories, namely identity number, gender of the author, the title of the thesis, year of publication, whether it is a doctoral or masters research, and the language in which the thesis is written and the methodology employed in the study for each university. The data was tabulated in terms of the frequency of each characteristic found in the corpus. Microsoft Excel statistical analysis was performed on the frequencies or percentages obtained to determine the differences that exist in research questions. Tabulations and statistical analysis to interpret the data was then used. The next step was to identify instances where there were no pre-prepared categories, and then employ the bottom up approach to coding; meaning new categories were added as informed by the data. The last stage was to give a comparative analysis of the three universities and then draw conclusions and present my hypotheses for further research on the subjects.

#### **4.9 RIGOUR IN THE STUDY**

For research results to be credible, mechanisms of quality control need to be built into the research process. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007) indicate that a researcher needs to understand that documents are social, selective and contextual products which should not just be accepted as they are but need to be interrogated and interpreted. As such, in this study, caution was valued as I read the theses to consider ambiguity and polyvalence of some words and phrases. For example, I considered the example given by Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007, p. 490):

.....what does the word 'school' mean: a building; a group of people; a particular movement of artists (e.g. the impressionist school); a noun; a verb (to drill, to induct, to educate, to train, to control, to attend an institution)...

In analysing the content, I read each thesis title and abstract several times to understand the context in which phrases were used before inferring. In some instances I had to go to the actual theses to read methodology chapters for further understanding. Reading within a text means identifying the cultural codes that structure an author's work (Giroux, 1998). I then interpreted the content of the titles, abstracts and some parts of the theses. Interpretation means reading a text along with a variety of diverse interpretations that represent a second commentary on the text. That is, analyse a text within a "network of relations with other texts and institutional practices" so as to make available "the whole intertextual system of relations that connects one text to others" (Scholes, 1985, pp.27, 30). Having done category definition and themes, I asked two of my colleagues to read and allocate theses under those categories to see if they would categorize them same way I had done. These categories and themes were based on the items I was looking for, that is, each study's purpose, research question, context, methods and methodology, the researcher and participants, Language and Race conceptualisation. My reviewers were also given those categories, with which I was able to cross check against mine. This also involved discussions with my colleague's until we were able to come to common decisions about categories.

#### **4.10 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS**

As this study utilised documents produced by human beings in the form of theses, ethical considerations are automatically called for. First, ethical clearance to conduct the study was secured from the University of KwaZulu-Natal by the

PPER team. Because this study is within PPER, the same ethical clearance was used for this study (see appendix 1). That means I was responsible to adhere to the ethical standards applied for in PPER, namely honesty with the institutions by disclosing the purpose of the research, and not naming and shaming institutions used as participants in the study. I also got permission from the project management to use the data for my thesis.

#### **4.11 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

In planning research, difficult decisions have to be made regardless of the fact that these lead to limitations. In the current study, one limitation is the fact that some education research is not located in education and the PPER database is comprised of research done in education only. A wealth of information could be left out and the outcome of the study may paint a picture that is not necessarily true; for instance, it may suggest that not much research is done with regards to race issues and education while a great deal of such research may be housed in multicultural studies in social sciences.

#### **4.12 CONCLUSION**

In conclusion, chapter 4 has provided a discussion of how the study was conducted in an attempt to answer the research question. To this end, the chapter detailed the study's research process underpinnings, including data collection, sample selection and stratification. The next chapter is a presentation of the data.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS**

#### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

The previous chapter mapped out the tools and procedures I used to gather and process the data for this study. This study recognizes language and race issues as important and interconnected in South Africa and analysed research trends in educational research through a descriptive analysis by using the PPER database from 1995-2004.

The purpose of this research, therefore, was to give a descriptive analysis of issues and trends in MEd and PhD research on Language and race in education in South Africa. It analyzed theses and dissertations produced from 1995 to 2004 from the three universities, namely University of Cape Town, University of Stellenbosch and the University of the Western Cape. It employed content analysis of the available secondary data such as titles of the theses, the approaches and paradigms used derived from the content of the theses, as well as the keywords or subject headings provided for these materials by the libraries or the information centers. The limited number of theses produced - only amounting to 26 theses and dissertations, but with a wide range of keywords and subject term headings - were reduced to broad terms based on the Library of Congress Subject Headings List.

Data were analyzed using frequency counts, percentages, and mode where applicable. These were then presented in the form of tables, charts and/or graphs whenever applicable to further help the readers absorb the data being presented. Since there are only a few theses and dissertations available for trend analysis, the MS Excel trendline function was used to show whether there is a positive or negative trend.

## 5.2 OBJECTIVE 1

### Concerns in Language and Race Research done by MEd and PhD Students in South Africa, in the Decade immediately Following the Introduction of Democratic Governance.

#### 5.2.1 Research Activities of the UCT, SU and UWC on Language and Race Education from 1995 to 2004

Table 5.1 shows the number of theses and dissertations produced in the three universities included in the study from 1995 to 2004. However, 1995 and 1998 were excluded from the table because there were no education theses and dissertations produced in these universities on language and race. It can only be inferred that there were no students interested in doing research education and race education and its related concepts. Other reasons could not be disclosed as this was not part of the data gathering conducted.

Table 5.1: Number of education theses produced on language and race per year per university

University	1996	1997	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	Total
UCT		1	3	4	3		3	2	16
US			1		1	1	1	1	5
UWC	1						1	3	5
Total	1	1	4	4	4	1	5	6	26

Most research comes from UCT as seen also in Table 1, while the other two universities have the same number of theses and dissertations produced pertaining to Language and Race Education from 1995 to 2004. This shows that the students in UCT were more interested in the topic on Language and Race Education as evidenced by the number of theses produced (N=16). This, however, does not show that the students in the two other universities were not interested in the topic; there may be other reasons such as better research

opportunities in the other fields or that Language and Race Education was not so popular for graduate theses. Another reason, as claimed by Alexander (2001), could be that the control on the topics discussed and encouraged for research rests on the faculty members who decide the structure of the program of study in the respective courses.

Table 5.2 shows the proportion of theses and dissertations produced on language and race education in the three universities from 1995 to 1999. It is clear from the table that only one or two research studies were produced on the topic. This is probably due to the research thrusts of the universities as seen in their university websites. UCT strives for interdisciplinary and multi-faceted research collaboration and this thrust is powered by the four instruments for collaboration: National Centres of Excellence; National Research Chairs; Institutional Signature Themes; and Peer Accredited Research Groupings ([www.researchoffice.uct.ac.za/research\\_information/policies/uct\\_research23/10/2008](http://www.researchoffice.uct.ac.za/research_information/policies/uct_research23/10/2008)).

The education department is one of the national centres of excellence, which means that they have appropriate funding and support, but even this does not seem to be enough to motivate the students to work on purely educational research themes relating to language and race education. Still, even with the national issues on language and race education, the prevailing factors for the production of research still lie in the interests of the students, the expertise and availability of the advisers and, of course, the available resources which the researcher can exploit. For UWC, there are at most 14 researches produced each year and these are distributed among the many courses offered at the University. This shows there are still a few researches completed and consequently few graduates and post graduate courses produced.

Table 5.2: Proportion of Language and Race Education Theses and Dissertations with all the other research topics per University from 1995 to 1999

YEAR	UWC		SUN		UCT		Overall	
	All Topics	Language and Race Education	All Topics	Language and Race Education	All Topics	Language and Race Education	All Topics	Language and Race Education
1995	11	0	25	0	12	0	48	0
1996	14	1	25	0	12	0	51	1
1997	11	0	25	0	11	1	47	1
1998	9	0	20	0	19	0	48	0
1999	10	0	8	1	21	3	39	4
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>55</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>75</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>233</b>	<b>6</b>

It is remarkable however that for the 5-year duration of this analysis, there were 233 researches produced from among the universities. However, only 6 of these were on language and race education. The good thing, however, is that the number seems to have increased in the five years especially in the case of UCT where the number of researches rose from 1 to 3 from 1997 to 1999. SU has consistently produced more than 20 researches from 1995 to 1998 but declined from 1999. Since then, there has been an up-down pattern in the production of researches for all the other topics. But they have consistently produced one research on race and language education from 2001 to 2004.

Table 5.3: Proportion of Language and Race Education Theses and Dissertations with all the other research topics per University from 2000 to 2004

YEAR	UWC		SUN		UCT		Total	
	All Topics	Language and Race Education	All Topics	Language and Race Education	All Topics	Language and Race Education	All Topics	Language and Race Education
2000	12	0	19	0	11	4	42	4
2001	12	0	20	1	20	3	52	4
2002	12	0	33	1	24	0	68	1
2003	12	1	29	1	24	3	65	5
2004	28	3	34	1	17	2	64	6
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>76</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>135</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>86</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>297</b>	<b>20</b>

From 2000 to 2004, there was an increase in the research on language and race education and also of the other research topics in the different universities. From a total of 233 researches from 1995 to 1999, there were 297 researches produced from 2000 to 2004 which shows a larger and/or more active graduate and post graduate student cohort. In the first 5 years, UCT dominated both the total number of researches on all topics as well as the researches on language and race education. However for the last 5 years (2000 to 2004), SU has dominated the research in all topics with 135 researches produced, but UCT still has dominance on the topic of language and race education with 12 researches produced. This shows that UCT has more graduate students interested in researching language and race education than the two other universities. Since higher education institutions reflect the context of their society (Blunder, 1977), the topics of the researches produced reflect the extent to which the UCT reflects the political, social and ideological concerns of South Africa. This is in so far as language and race education is concerned. It is quite interesting to note that there are more research outputs with topics on language and race education in UCT while there are only 5 theses for each of the SU and UWC respectively. In a time of improving the conditions of South Africa, the higher education institutions, UCT, SU and UWC respectively, do not somehow share the same objectives as reflected in their research outputs with respect to language and race education.

The chart visually illustrates the share of the universities in the researches on language and race education from 1995 to 2004. The chart evidently shows that the UCT has actively produced the greatest number of researches on the said topic with equal numbers for SU and UWC.



Figure 5.2 shows the trend of the research on language and race education for the three universities from 1995 to 2004. The trendline function of MS Excel was used to determine the trend due to the fact that only a few theses were included in the computation. A positive trend is indicated by a line with an upward incline to the right. A negative trend is indicated by a line with a downward incline to the right. A horizontal line would mean no change perceived.

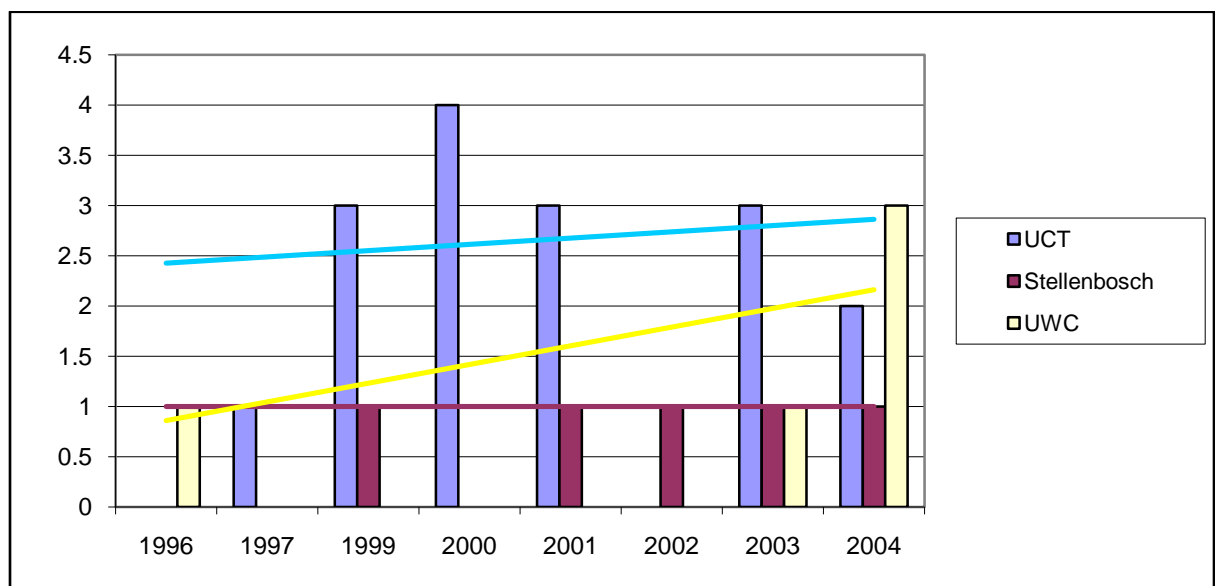


Figure 5.2: Trend of Theses and Dissertations Produced per University

The production of research on language and race education in UCT and UWC show positive trends. There are increased interests in the topic of language and race education in both universities and it is hoped that these research outputs would diversify more into other concerns pertaining to language and race education. Later in the chapter, an analysis of the titles of the researches will show the broad topics to which these fall as well as the more specific topics or sub-topics under these broad topics. It will show the focus of the researches as well as the objects of study of these.

## 5.3 OBJECTIVE 2

### 5.3.1 What are the Paradigmatic and Methodological Approaches to Knowledge Generation in Educational Research on Language and Race?

#### Researches produced per degree

The following table shows the number of researches produced per year per degree from all the universities included in this research. This would show the research activities in the degrees. The greater the number of researches per degree would show that the students who took up these degrees are interested and also concerned with the issues on language and race education in South Africa.

Table 5.4: Degrees that Produced Theses on Language and Race Education from 1995 to 2004

	1996	1997	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	Total
<b>M. Ed</b>	1	1	3		2	2	5	4	18
<b>MA</b>			1		1			1	3
<b>Mphil</b>					1			1	2
<b>M</b>					1				1
<b>D</b>				1		1			2
<b>Total</b>	1	1	4	1	5	3	5	6	26

The greatest number of theses produced on language and race education is of course the degree of Master in Education (M.Ed) (cf Table 5.4). The growth of the research literature in this particular degree with respect to the topic seems to be steady from 1996 to 2004. Although no more than 5 theses were produced each year, the fact that there are students researching on these issues is a show of interest. Unfortunately for those taking up doctoral studies, only two of them produced their dissertation in relation to language and race education.

The following table shows the degrees that produced the theses and in which universities these were produced. The categories are post graduate degrees with sub categories on the specific degrees taken.

Table 5.5: Degrees that Produced Theses and Dissertations on Language and Race Education from 1995 to 2004 per University

	<b>Masters</b>				<b>Doctoral</b>	<b>Total</b>
	<b>M. Ed</b>	<b>MA</b>	<b>M. Phil</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>D</b>	
<b>UCT</b>	12	0	0	1	3	16
<b>SU</b>	2	1	2	0	0	5
<b>UWC</b>	4	1	0	0	0	5
	18	2	2	1	3	26

As seen in the previous tables, the most researches come from UCT. There were 3 dissertations identified that studied language and race education and these also came from UCT (cf. Table 5.5). Looking at the three universities, the degree that focused on the topic was the M.Ed. For all the three universities, the majority of the theses are under the MEd degree as probably they are more focused on educational policies, teaching and learning issues.

The next table shows the paradigms used per university. The type of paradigms used shows the directions of the researches and the thrust, whether these are directed toward building theories, interpreting constructs, changing views and the like (cf Table 5.6). The categories of paradigms identified among the theses included in this study are: interpretive, constructivist, critical and not known.

### 5.3.2 Paradigms used

Table 5.6. Types Paradigms Used Per University

	<b>Interpretive</b>	<b>Constructivist</b>	<b>Critical</b>	<b>Not known</b>	<b>Total</b>
<b>UCT</b>	14	1	0	1	16
<b>UWC</b>	2		2	1	5
<b>US</b>	5				5
<b>Total</b>	21	1	2	2	26

The majority (n=21) of the researches employed the interpretive paradigm. As defined, the interpretive research paradigm attempts to provide an understanding of phenomena within their context (Walsham, 1995), in this case the language and race education in the different situations in South Africa, by determining how the participants or subjects of the research interpret these phenomena. An example of research that used the interpretive research paradigm is *What Do Learners Say and Do When Teaching a Concept of Print in Linguistically Diverse Classrooms?* This paradigm was of course appropriate to the study because the phenomena determined was the experiences of the learners in the situation where they are being taught “a concept of print”. The other situation that further adds to the interpretation of the experiences would be the varying linguistic backgrounds of the students in these classrooms.

There were only two researches that employed the critical research paradigm and these were produced by the students from UWC. The titles are: *Proverbs and Socialization Process of Young Rwandans: A Systematic Functional Linguistics Approach* and *An Evaluation of English Language Teaching in Two Centres for Continuing Education in Rwanda*. Critical research is geared toward challenging existing views or traditions, show tensions and the like. It does not only present data but it shows the data in the light of re-evaluating the status quo (Alvesson & Deetz, 2000). They also further say that the “intention is thereby to contribute to emancipation, for example, to encourage rethinking and the emotional as well as cognitive working through of ideas and identities which are repressive” (p. 9). In the above research, the evaluation of the language teaching may not just be there to describe the current English teaching practices in the two centres, but rather it points out the flaws and calls for the improvement in the existing practice of teaching the language.

It can be observed that there were no researches from the other universities that employed a critical paradigm. This is probably due to the fact that UWC as one of the ‘black’ universities created, its history as a ‘black’ or ‘Coloured’ institution, as

well as its resistance to this ascribed status, shaped its teaching and research concerns and that the students there, specifically those who had memories or who have had vicarious experience on apartheid, may have been fuelled by these in their design of their research because they want change.

The other paradigm, constructive research, was employed by only one research coming from UCT. This research is entitled *Continuous Assessment in the Writing Curriculum Based Study of an Alternative Method for Teaching Writing in a Second Language*.

The following table shows the distribution of the methodologies per year. It can be seen that the constructivist paradigm was used in 1999 while the critical paradigm was used by the two theses in 2004. The interpretive paradigm was used all throughout from 1995 to 2004.

There were two researches whose paradigms are described as not known. These are the paradigms that have not been properly or clearly identified in the theses. Either these were a mix or not readily classified as interpretive, critical or constructive paradigms.

The following table shows which paradigms were used in the researches per year. It will show whether there were changes in the paradigms employed by the researchers or not. However, the analysis can only go as far as describing the trend but not on describing the reasons why there were changes in the paradigms used or why these were the paradigms employed. It can only be inferred that these were probably the most applicable paradigms based on their studies or that these were the paradigms in which their faculty advisors or the researchers themselves were comfortable doing.

Table 5. 7. Types of paradigms used per year

<b>Paradigm</b>	<b>1996</b>	<b>1997</b>	<b>1999</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>2001</b>	<b>2002</b>	<b>2003</b>	<b>2004</b>	<b>Total</b>
<b>Interpretive</b>	1	1	3	1	5	3	5	2	21
<b>Constructivist</b>			1						1
<b>Critical</b>								2	2
<b>Not Known</b>								2	2
<b>Total</b>	1	1	4	1	5	3	5	6	26

The critical research paradigm was used only in 2004 (cf Table 5.7). This can reflect the fact that the students were already more daring in their research because they had already moved from producing research that merely describes and interprets phenomena to producing research that is critical and that aims to challenge and change the existing viewpoints or situations in the educational system in relation to language and race education.

In as much as paradigms are dependent upon the topics and objectives of the research, it can only be concluded also that the topics selected by the researchers are merely descriptive in nature. However, this does not mean that they are not noteworthy to produce contributions for educational and national development and this does not also discount their importance in the research literature.

The next chart shows the trend of the paradigms used from 1995 to 2004. Although on the graph, it shows an up down pattern, there is still a trend of growth in the use of this paradigm.

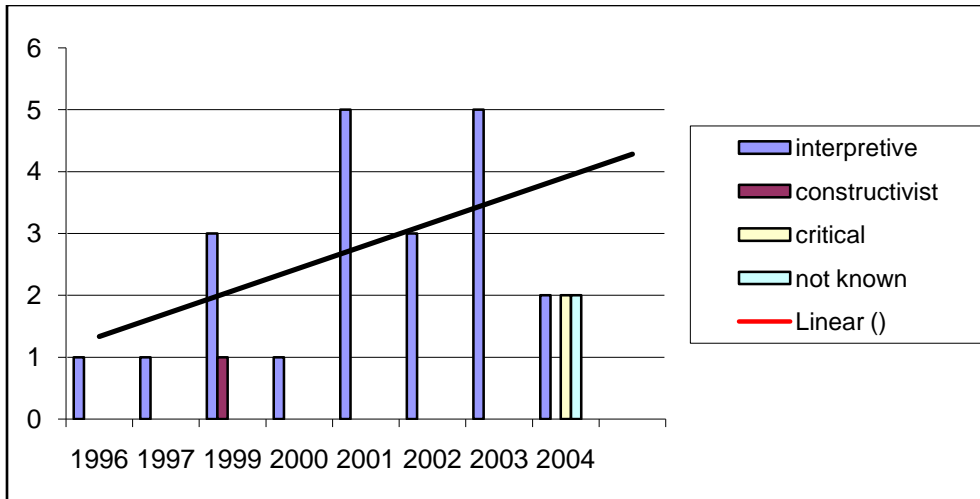


Figure 5.3: Trend of paradigms used from 1995 to 2004

The constructivist, critical and not known paradigms were not included in the trend analysis because there is only one observation per year for each of the three paradigms and it would be futile to compute for a trend.

### 5.3.3 Approaches Used

The next table will deal with the types of approaches used in the theses per university. The approaches identified are as follows: qualitative, quantitative and mixed research methodologies.

Table 5.8: Types of approaches used per university

	UCT	SU	UWC	Total
Qualitative	8	3	4	15
Quantitative	1	1	0	2
Mixed	7	1	1	9
Total	16	5	5	26

For each of the universities, the most popular approach used is the qualitative approach (cf Table 5.8). Next is the mixed approach. UCT and SU have used the quantitative approach but UWC has not. This would show that the researchers as well as their faculty advisors had the propensity toward developing researches with the qualitative approach for theses with the particular topic on language and

race education. Aside from the fact that the qualitative approach may be the most appropriate approach for the topics being studied, this may also be the approach that they are most familiar and comfortable with.

The next table shows the types of approaches used in the theses per year. This shows whether there were popular approaches for a specific period or not.

Table 5.9: Types of approaches used per year

	1996	1997	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	Total
<b>Qualitative</b>	1		3		2		5	4	15
<b>Quantitative</b>						2			2
<b>Mixed</b>		1	1	1	3	1		2	9
<b>Total</b>	1	1	4	1	5	3	5	6	26

Although there are more researches that used the qualitative approach (n=15), the mixed approach has steadily been employed as a research approach. The quantitative is not so much used as there are only two researches that used this approach in 2002 only (cf Table 5.9). It could not be claimed, however, that the qualitative approach was more popular for a particular year or time because there has been a steady flow of research using either qualitative or mixed. It is certain that an exclusive use of the quantitative approach was not as popular as the two. In fact it was used only twice. It could be said that this is a reflection of the fact that in this particular topic, based on the subjects and objects of study, the qualitative approach or mixed approach would be better suited than an exclusive use of the quantitative approach.

Looking at the trend of the approaches used, both qualitative and mixed approaches have positive trend. However, the incline for the trend of the mixed approach is lower. This is because although the mixed approach is used almost every year, the frequency or the number of researches that used the mixed approach per year is only about 1 or 2. The incline for the trend of the qualitative research approach has a steeper slope because even when it is not steadily used yearly, the number of researches employing this approach is usually 3 to 5.



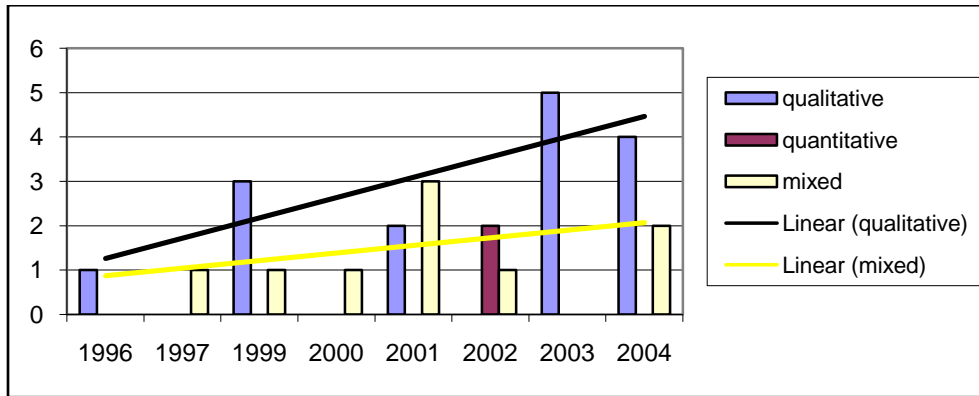


Figure 5.4: Trend of Approach Used

The trend for the quantitative approach was no longer determined because there were only 2 researches that employed the quantitative approach in the same year.

#### 5.4 ANALYSIS BY BROAD TOPIC

The researches were classified according to broad topics to determine which among these were popularly studied. The two broad topics are language education and race education. The classification is done based on the titles of the researches included in the study.

In so far as the samples are concerned, there were only three (3) researches that had had implications of studying race education, although the thesis titles explicitly mentions language for two of them and the rest studied language education. Only one mentioned race specifically. These three researches are:

- *Language Education and National Identity: a Comparative Study of Flemish and Afrikaans L1 Instruction Materials Since 2000.*

- *Toward an Inclusive Language Curriculum Reorienting Textbooks Images and Messages in Respect of Gender.*
- *Race, Culture and Social Work Education in the SA Interregnum - a Contextual Analysis of Attitudes and Practice in the Period 1990-1994.*

This shows that the graduate students who produced theses from 1995 to 2004 had the propensity toward studying language education rather than studying race education issues. Perhaps the more important issue is in fact on how South Africans are learning languages, another language for their second language or English in particular. It should be remembered that during the apartheid era, the whites were not required to learn the languages of the Africans but the Africans were required to learn the white languages. This obviously is a sensitive issue because this was a form of oppression. That is why some of the researches on language education sought to determine whether there were changes in the language teaching and learning situations in South Africa as some of them indicate in their abstracts.

## **5.5 ANALYSIS BY SPECIFIC TOPIC OR BY KEYWORD**

The theses are given keywords or specific topic categories for purposes of retrieval. These topic categories, technically known as subject headings, were based on the Library of Congress Subject Headings (LCSH).

The table below shows the specific topic categories with further sub-topics where applicable. This shows the number of theses that contain or pertain to these said topics. There may be several topics per thesis as the need arises. The topics are as follows: culture, education, gender, language and race. Another topic called place just lists the topics where a place subject heading was used.

Table 5.10: Culture Topics

Topic	Number
Attitudes	2
Culture	1
Identity	1
Morality	1
Multiculturalism	1

The above table shows the specific issues, topics and concerns relating to culture. An example of a research that studied *attitudes* is entitled *The Lived Experiences of Teachers in a Particular Multilingual Context*. This was labelled within the attitudes category because it looks into how the teachers dealt with a particular multilingual context. It was therefore appropriate that this research employed an interpretive paradigm and a qualitative approach. Although it is not the concern of the current study to determine whether the approach and paradigms used were appropriate or not, the inference was provided to put both the paradigm and the approach in the context of the topic.

The next table shows the topics pertaining to education. Since most of the theses fall under the broad topic on language education, and most of these are products of graduate students who took up education courses, it is expected that the majority of the topics or theses produced deal with education.

Table 5.11: Education Topics

Topic	Number
Academic literacy	2
Academic performance	2
Adult education	1
Assessment	3
Curriculum development	1
Educators	1
Examinations	1
Higher education	2

Inclusive education	1
Initial teacher education cultures	1
Initial tertiary education	1
Instruction	1
Learner centred education	1
Learning	1
Literacy	2
Literature education (education, genre theory, multiculturalism)	3
Materials development	4
Reading	1
Rural education	1
Teaching and learning practices	1
Theorists (Vygotsky)	1
Urban education	1

Although there are only 26 theses included, these deal with a multitude of topics within them (cf Table 5.11). Those theses dealing with education are spread across all of the topics above. The topic most studied as far as the samples are concerned under the topic education is materials development (n=4). These theses have studied how to further improve the teaching of language through visual materials, textbooks and other appropriate materials. Interesting topics also include those that involve the study of attitudes and other factors relating to learners of language and the practices on teaching and learning. This shows the move toward improving the current state of education. By first knowing the status of the education, the teaching and learning process, recommendations on improving these will be more scientific as these are based on the studied phenomena.

It is also interesting to note that the topics studied under education cover various specific topics like assessment, curriculum development, literacy and the like. It is also good to note that even with the small number of researches produced, the topics are not at all that similar or saturated.

Gender is another broad topic but there was only one research that dealt with gender issues and this is the thesis entitled *Toward an Inclusive Language Curriculum Reorienting Textbooks Images and Messages in Respect of Gender*. Gender issues are also related to cultural and racial issues. This thesis related language issues on the representation of gender in existing textbooks. This shows again a move toward changing the existing views as presented in the images in textbooks. However, this made use of an interpretive research paradigm rather than a critical one. This was classified under gender and not under culture because it deserves full recognition that the graduate students in South Africa recognize that there are still changes that need to be implemented to change their culture – not just in the government sector but also in the education sector.

Another topic is on language, and the specific topics that fall under this are presented in the following table. This also included the number of theses that studied these issues related to language. Most of the theses that fall under the language topic deal with multilingualism and learning a second language. This reflects the concerns of the education sector on improving the language situation of the different countries like Rwanda and Namibia as specified in the titles of the two researches on language development. Since apartheid happened in the recent past, South African curriculum is still very much concerned with language issues such that the focus of their papers are on developing language acquisition, learning and teaching concerns.

Table 5.12: Language Topics

Topic	Number
Bilingualism	1
Codes switching	1
English language	2
First language—Afrikaans	1
Home language	1
Learning theory	4
Language development	1
Language of learning and teaching	4
Language practices performance	1
Multiculturalism	2
Multilingualism	5
Pedagogy	1
Policy	2
Second language	4

The most studied topics under language are language learning theories (n=4), language of learning and teaching or LOLT (4), multilingualism (n=5) and second language (n=4) (cf Table 5.12). An example of a thesis on language is *Bilingual Education and Learning: The Case of some Xhosa Speaking Learners in Cape Town, South Africa*. This thesis examined the language acquisition of Xhosa speakers in Cape Town. One of the issues on language acquisition, not only in South Africa, is whether to teach a second language in the mother tongue and whether to use the mother tongue in teaching other subjects. These issues were part of the studies categorized under the topic “language”. This shows that there were graduate students who were concerned with policy developments, curricular improvements, as well as improving the teaching and learning processes on language learning, in the period studied.

## 5.6 CONCLUSION

Data were analyzed using frequency counts, percentages, and mode where applicable and the following was observed. Theses on language and race education comprise only a small fraction of the total researches produced from the UCT, SU and UWC. UCT has produced the most researches on language and race education. There is a positive trend in the researches produced on

language and race education in UCT and SU but not in UWC. The degree that produced the most theses on language and race education is Master of Education. The most common methodology used is the interpretive methodology and it also has a positive trend. The most common approach is the qualitative approach but the mixed approach was used steadily almost every year, giving these two a positive trend with the former having a steeper incline than the latter. A full discussion of the conclusion follows in the next chapter.

## **CHAPTER 6**

### **CONCLUSION AND WAY FORWARD**

#### **6.1 INTRODUCTION**

The discussion and research engaged here above has centred not just on the relationship between language and race in South Africa and in general, but also on how the relationship between these dimensions is ever in a state of flux. This is an assumption that would initiate questions concerning MEd and PhD research on language and race in education in South Africa (cf Table 3 for details). The period studied is the decade stretching between 1995 and 2004 and the research focused on three of universities in the Western Cape Region. The universities from which the most research was generated were the University of Cape Town, followed by the University of Western Cape and Stellenbosch University. As this concluding discussion here will demonstrate, the selected study subject and the approach taken has yielded valuable findings but would simultaneously light the way to yet more profound and focused future research.

#### **6.2 SOCIAL CONSTRUCTIONISM**

One of the compelling findings of this research is confirmation of the use of social constructionism as a theoretical lens for understanding the phenomena governing the intersection of so many different forces (Burr, 1995). The collision of culture, politics, ethnicity and education are accounted for by a theoretical model that attaches particular value to the questions at the centre of this research. This proved extremely useful for understanding the significance of linguistic power structures. Social constructionism dictates, for the purposes of this research, how language has the potential to be a deeply powerful instrument when wielded in relation to political, social or hierarchical interests. Distinct power



structures are implicated in the nuances of linguistic communication, from the selection of words to the semantics of context; from the seemingly simple colloquialisms which reflect cultural in-groups and out-groups to the complex interactions between differing linguistic traditions; from the imposition of a set of normative cultural terminologies to the construction of meanings centred on certain inherencies within a culture. The social constructionism lens demonstrates that much is at stake in the way our public officials, educators, world leaders, celebrities and peers speak to one another and through forms of mass communication. At its most basic level, this theoretical model succeeds in allowing us to evaluate power as a function of linguistic characteristics within a culture. Therefore, it is implied through this theoretical lens that political, economic and social realities do share a close relationship with linguistic traditions. Moreover, we can deduce through a focus on Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) that individuals and organizations in roles of power or leadership will tend to project specific uses of the language which carry meanings that are both explicit and implied (Burr, 1995).

Another reason that social constructionism would prove particularly well-suited to the aims of this study is the inherency of its flexibility. Social constructionism is denoted by the claim that society, culture and even our view of history will be altered by the flux of time. None of these is to be seen as a constant entity, nor is any to be viewed as having been created in a vacuum. This would apply with considerable value to the emphasis on the Western Cape region's higher education system, which has undergone dramatic changes in just two decades that are both a reflection of the imposition of apartheid for so long and an indication of how conditions are now changing to adjust to its remission. One of the more important justifications for the use of social constructionism in reference to my chosen subject of study is the degree to which this calls for the examination of societies through a prism of social, humanitarian, ethnic or ethical progress. These assumptions are confirmed in the present research, which finds

that the discourse on language, power and society in South African higher education is on a progressive trajectory in many ways.

By the same token, social constructionism provides a valuable light to shine on the claims of many institutionalized forces still in existence in South Africa. To this extent, certain findings encountered in the research demonstrate the importance of regarding sociological trends in South Africa with careful scrutiny. It is compelling to note that the implications of apartheid are far from eliminated from South African society. Its stamp remains visible on the institutions that relate to higher education. Chief among these, our research touches on the Higher Education Quality Committee (HEQC) which tracks patterns and population trends in the area of higher education. For example, it is confounding to note the HEQC's continuing use of racial and linguistic categories established during apartheid in order to identify demographic patterns at different universities. This reflects the persistence of certain impression-forming uses of language and terminology in the public space as a way of maintaining some of the separations and power distinctions that are a vestige of apartheid. It denotes that language may be a powerful instrument and further illustrates that the removal of the cultural effects of racial segregation, especially in institutional contexts such as the system of higher learning, will frequently lag behind the transition of general policy.

That said, I found that more generally, the tenor at the educational institutions themselves is directed toward progress. As we consider the research questions driving the research, I begin to notice this thrust.

### **6.3 REFLECTIONS ON THE OBJECTIVES**

Indeed, this trajectory is emphasized by social constructionism and targeted by the research questions from which the study was designed and directed. Here,

the overarching objective of the research was to determine and analyse that which MEd and PhD students have been researching in relation to language and race in South Africa during the period 1995-2004 (cf Table 5.2). The research revealed that there does appear to be a direct connection between the current push toward greater recognition of language and power dynamics, but that this is both modest and distinguished to specific universities in our study (cf Table 5.3). For instance, the findings here would demonstrate that UCT is a university where there appears to be a pointed interest in measuring and further examining the changes occurring in the area of language and race (cf Table 5.3).

An array of study subjects appear to at least generally touch on the subject at the centre of our discussion (Seekings & Nattrass, 2006). For instance, researches identified by the study tend to answer a sub question in our research concerning the main concerns in language and race research done by MEd and PhD students in South Africa in the decade immediately following the introduction of democratic governance (Seekings & Nattrass, 2006). Here, we find that a concise answer to this question brings teaching, pedagogy, education and the role of English into closer view. The studies examined were conducted predominantly in English, so it is not surprising that we found a particular focus on English education rather than on linguistics in a more general sense or with application to a different linguistic tradition (Seekings & Nattrass, 2006). Therefore English plays a major role still in directing the topical focus and the ideological orientation of many of the researches considered.

With consideration to the latter, the research found quite a bit less progressively-driven research than anticipated (Seekings & Nattrass, 2006). The current research shows a specific rise in the topical focus on race and language following the end of apartheid—reaching a high point from the years 2000 to 2004—demonstrating clearly some practical and ideological progress on the subject (cf Table 5.4). However, the relative scarcity of focus on this subject as opposed to the diverse range of additional subjects covered by graduate writers

is further highlighted by the approach taken in much of the existing research. To consider another sub question driving the research, it is noted that the methodological approaches to knowledge generation in educational research on language and race are often not critical in nature (cf. Figure 5.3).

Indeed, of all the studies considered, I found that no more than two of these adopted a critical research process in their approach (Seekings & Nattrass, 2006). This means that few of the researches encountered seemed to intend to challenge existing conditions (Seekings & Nattrass, 2006). This is an indication that there is some outright contentedness among all races, classes and linguistic traditions throughout education. I am inclined to view this as a demonstration that, just as feared, the research imperatives driving many students seem to reinforce existing sociological agendas. By failing to challenge the status quo, the general body of MEd and PhD researches produced in the last decade in the Western Cape Region is seen through a social constructionism lens as being tied to persistent cultural, political and historical distortions (cf. Table 5.4). More emphasis, this suggests, is required on challenging existing perceptions and approaches to race and language in South Africa.

#### **6.4 TRENDS IN RESEARCH PRIORITIES**

Currently, the HSRC is just one of the more than 10 statutory research agencies set up by government legislation, and it receives government funding. It is involved in the promotion of higher education research (CHET overview, 2003, p 8). Depending on their interests, the research agencies are involved in either policy or academic research. Policy research was dominant in the 1990s with the curriculum policy changes that were being introduced. Some of the organisations involved in policy research include the Centre for Education Policy Development, Evaluation and Management in Johannesburg, Education Policy Units at a number of universities, the Education Foundation and the Joint Education Trust (Fiske & Ladd, p. xi).

Such structures have been incorporated into the National Research Foundation (NRF) which was established through the NRF Act of 1997 (Kamper, 2004). The NRF identifies particular areas of focus and for educational research the focus is on “‘Education and the challenges for change’ and, within it, seven provisional research issues have been set, covering themes such as restructuring in higher education and further education and training; science, technology and mathematics education; language issues and literacy, and HIV/AIDS in education” (Kamper, 2004, p. 233). The role of the NRF is crucial when it comes to funding for projects, because projects that do not fall into its focus area are not eligible for funding. However, Kamper (2004) argues that the role of the NRF should not be overrated since there is evidence of post-graduate researchers not consciously working within the prescribed focus area. This is where the current study comes in. The problem which this research seeks to address is the absence of an overview of what postgraduate educational research is being and has been undertaken in South Africa, especially on diversity issues such as language and race.

Another factor in the determination of focus areas, and one which is both related to and independent of government national priorities, is the effect of globalisation. Alexander (2001, p. 3) notes with concern that with the end of apartheid, the expectation was that universities would have the prerogative to decide “whom to teach, what to teach, how to teach and who should teach”. In this case, “the danger no longer comes from outside the walls of the university, in the guise of the racist apartheid state” but rather from programme and project funders. These seemingly innocuous and well intended institutions are becoming more and more corporate and powerful. Thus the leaders of universities will not necessarily have to be accountable to the government but to the corporate world, turning the institutions into “market universities” (Alexander, 2001, p. 4).

What the trends in research priorities show is that total academic freedom has never been realized, even with the advent of democracy. The leaders have always been accountable to a higher control force which they can only decide to ignore with the consequence of consistent criticism or lack of funding. For example, the HEQC report criticized “UCT’s conception of academic freedom which precludes the institution’s central administration from becoming involved in issues of curriculum and pedagogy, and, therefore, does not create the space for a more centralised management of the quality of teaching and learning in a way that advances institutional objectives (HEQC to the University of Cape Town, 2006 p. 19).

## **6.5 CONCLUSION**

This thesis was intended to firstly reveal the main concerns in language and race research done by MEd and PhD students in South Africa, in the decade immediately following the introduction of democratic governance. And the second objective was to reveal the paradigmatic and methodological approaches to knowledge generation in educational research on language and race.

Based on the data gathered, the following conclusions were derived:

Theses on language and race education comprise only a small fraction of the total researches produced from UCT, SU and UWC. UCT has produced the most researches on language and race education. There is a positive trend in the researches produced on language and race education in UCT and SU but not in UWC. The degree that produces the most theses on language and race education is Master of Education. The most common methodology used is the interpretive methodology and it also has a positive trend. The most common

approach is the qualitative approach but the mixed approach was used steadily almost every year, giving these two a positive trend with the former having a steeper incline than the latter.

Additionally, the most common broad topic studied is the language education topic while there were only three theses on race education. There were specific topics based on the Library of Congress Subject Headings (LC) identified whereby these theses were categorized or classified, and these were culture, education, gender, language and race. The sub-topics within the specific topics revealed a thin spread of the theses, in other words, these topics are not yet saturated. However, there were multiple theses that dealt with the teaching of language and the learning of language but in different contexts and different subjects.

Lastly, the titles were also analyzed to reveal the inherent goals and sentiments of the theses produced. All these theses signify the move toward improving the education and status of South Africa.

## **6.6 AREAS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH:**

As a preliminary study on this subject, the intention of the current research endeavor was to cast as wide a net as possible in attempting to understand and report on patterns in research in South African graduate studies programs. The reason for this was to help identify areas which are due for closer examination. This was the reason for the use of the mixed method of research, in which both qualitative and quantitative methods were used to deliver a more nuanced and varied understanding of the scope of the research problem. To an extent that we may now reflect upon, however, it seems apparent that the mixed methods approach which was appropriate for this initial study is less suited to more focused studies which might be motivated from these findings.

### **6.6.1 Research Approaches**

This is because the quantitative approach conducted here yielded only 26 theses and dissertations that met with any of the keyword conditions correlated to race and linguistics. This denotes an extremely modest sample size, suggesting that quantifying the diffuse claims on any given subject made amongst these researches would carry few identifiable patterns and very little meaning in terms of their shared perspective. In any case, these denote far too small a sample through which to make any far-reaching arguments about the focal point or set of mutual values driving the decade's generation of graduate students. Though this is an important finding in and of itself, it demonstrates that future studies in this area may be best served by the nuanced and thick verbal descriptions specifically enabled by qualitative research.

By training a more direct focus on the identification of relevant research theses from the whole of South Africa rather than simply from the Western Cape region, and by more critically examining these studies rather than simply quantifying them according to topical focus, it may be possible to gain a more informed understanding of the way this last decade's generation of graduate students has come to view the relationship between race and linguistics. Using this approach, it is also expected that certain implications of social constructionism would become more valuable, particularly as a critical examination of research on a chronological basis might reveal a trend toward certain views or ideologies within the subject of discussion.

### **6.6.2 Comparative Discussion**

To this point, it may also be considered that the research in question would be served well by using a point of comparison. A positive control comparison might be achieved through a shift in the approach taken to chronology. Though research is presented to confirm that the dismantling of apartheid would produce



changes in our educational institutions, it is also an overarching belief expressed in our research that certain cultural features of apartheid remain intact. A comparative discussion on the focus of graduate researchers in the decade before the repeal of apartheid might help to better highlight the manner in which the qualitative content of research in the decade following its repeal has or has not shifted to reflect critical change or a progressive social construction.

Finally, further study can be considered that, in direct contrast both to this research and to suggestions cited directly here above, would narrow its focus in order to produce greater detail in one of our more fertile areas of consideration. The present study finds that while research on the relationship between language and race has been somewhat scarce across the large sample of institutions studies, UCT does seem to have a mounting tradition of interest in the subject. The 16 researches produced on Language and Race education here suggest that for reasons which may relate to geography, attending demographics, academic focus or the makeup of its staff, the student body has shown greater interest in this subject than at other universities.

A compelling study to be drawn from this research might be one which seeks to determine why this university reflects a greater interest in a field which—our initial hypothesis suggests—might have made significant scholastic gains throughout South African higher education. While this would not prove true, UCT does offer some positive cause to believe that there are definitive imperatives that can be stimulated in order to drive more extensive discussion on the subject. This might also allow for a contextualized discussion on the validity and reliability of critical research and the experimental process as it pertains to questions of race, language and power.

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## APPENDICES

### APPENDIX 1

Table 2.1: Key Higher Education policy initiatives, processes and products, 1994-2003 (adapted from Badat, 2005)

Initiative/Process	Event/Activity/Product	Outcome
Policy development by the ANC and ANC-supporting formations	Policy proposals development by the Union of Democratic University Staff Associations, Education Policy Unit (University of Western Cape) and other Formations  ANC 1994 policy statement on Higher Education	Feed into ANC policy development  Establishes principles and values for further policy development
Establishment in 1995 of National Commission on Higher Education (NCHE) to investigate all aspects of HE and make policy recommendations	Publication in 1996 of report, A Framework for Transformation	NCHE Report feeds into Ministry of Education policy and legislative development processes
Ministry initiatives in 1997 to develop Green Paper on HE, White Paper on HE and legislation	Release of Green Paper  Release and adoption of Education White Paper 3: A Programme for the Transformation of Higher Education  Release of a Bill on Higher Education and eventual adoption of the Higher Education Act, No. 101 of 1997	Green Paper feeds into White Paper  White Paper feeds into the Higher Education Act  New legal framework for HE and Act shapes Ministry regulations
Public call for	Establishment of the	CHE undertakes

nominations to the CHE (1998)	CHE to advise (on request and proactively) the Minister on all matters related to HE, to undertake quality assurance activities through the HEQC, to report annually to Parliament on the state of HE, to monitor achievement of policy goals, to convene an annual consultative conference of national stakeholders and to contribute to HE development through publications and conferences	an expanding range of activities related to its mandate through a secretariat of 35 persons
National and Institutional initiatives around planning (1998 onwards)	Development by Ministry of Institutional planning guidelines	Development by institutions of strategic and three-year institutional plans
Ministry initiative to develop new goal-oriented funding policy framework (1998 onwards)	Development by ministry of draft funding of draft funding policy framework documents  Publication by Ministry in 2001 of discussion document. Funding of Public Higher Education: A New Framework  Ministry seeks advice from CHE on equalization of C values in subsidy formula	Public response and work towards a final funding policy  CHE advises to equalize and Ministry accepts advice
Requirement for HE qualifications to be registered on National Qualifications Framework (NQF) and for	Extensive curriculum and programme restructuring	All HE qualifications on an interim basis registered on NQF and developed in outcomes-based format

programmes to be restructured in outcomes-based format (1997 onwards)		
Ministry initiatives around private Higher Education (1998 onwards)	<p>Development of guidelines and manuals for registration of private HE providers</p> <p>Amendment in 2000 and 2001 to the Higher Education Act</p> <p>Development of draft regulations for registration of private HE providers</p>	<p>Registration of all private providers of HE</p> <p>New regulatory framework for private HE through regulation of April 2003</p>
Requirement that all new HE programmes be accredited as condition of provision and public funding support (1998 onwards)	Development of interim frameworks, process, criteria and structures for the accreditation of programmes	<p>Processing and decision-making on new programmes by HEQC;</p> <p>processing and decision-making on re-accreditation of conditionally registered programmes of private HE Institutions</p>
Initiative to institute national quality assurance (1999 onwards)	<p>Work towards establishment of infrastructure for HEQC and the launch of HEQC</p> <p>Development of policy framework for quality assurance in HE</p> <p>Work towards new system, criteria, process, guidelines and manuals for programme accreditation</p>	<p>HEQC formally launched in 2000</p> <p>Release of draft and final policy founding document on quality assurance</p> <p>Release of accreditation framework discussion document</p>

	<p>Work to establish system of self-evaluations and institutional audits</p> <p>Quality promotion and capacity-building initiatives</p> <p>Project to develop processes and criteria of reviewing Master of Business Administration programmes</p> <p>Project on research quality assurance</p>	<p>Release of Institutional Audit Framework discussion document &amp; thereafter criteria for institutional audits</p> <p>One-day visits to all public HE institutions and sample of private institutions</p> <p>Institution of pilot audits of two public and one private institution in late 2003-04</p> <p>Formation of national HEQC Quality Assurance Managers Forum</p> <p>Training of Audit Chairs and panel members, of programme evaluators and HEQC staff</p> <p>Launch of re-accreditation of about 50 MBA programmes at 24 institutions</p> <p>Development of frameworks and criteria for quality assurance of research</p>
Initiative in 1998 to	Passing of the National	Funds support

consolidate and extend financial aid to needy students	Students Financial Aid Scheme Act of 1999	about 200 000 needy undergraduate students
Initiative in 1999 to develop new academic policy for structure, duration, nomenclature of qualifications and programmes	CHE production in 2001 of a new academic policy for programmes and qualifications in Higher Education discussion document	Public comment and steps towards finalization of new academic policy in 2003
Initiatives to bring colleges (education, agricultural and nursing) into the national Higher Education system (1998 onwards)	Task team to effect incorporation of all education colleges into universities and Technikons  Task teams to examine agricultural and nursing colleges	No more independent colleges of education – incorporated into universities and Technikons  Reports produced – no final decisions on future
Initiatives on restructuring institutional landscape (shape and size) of HE (1999 onwards) beginning with Ministry request to CHE to provide advice	Release of CHE report: Towards a New Higher Education Landscape: Meeting the Equity, Quality and Social Development Imperatives of South Africa in the Twenty-First Century (2000)  Bill to amend Higher Education Act in 2001 to give the Minister power to set scope of provision by public and private institutions  Ministry responds to CHE report through new policy document in 2001	Extensive debate generated around proposals and restructuring  Amendment approved by Parliament  Ministry releases its National Plan for Higher Education (2001) – sets participation targets, initiates mergers of some institutions and establishes a National Working Group (NWG) to

	<p>NWG releases report (2002) The Restructuring of the Higher Education System in South Africa – proposes to reduce current 36 institutions through mergers, though with no loss of provision sites</p> <p>Ministry considers public submissions and CHE advice and submits proposals on institutional restructuring for Cabinet approval</p>	<p>advise on further restructuring</p> <p>Ministry releases its own proposal on institutional restructuring and requests advice of CHE and public comments</p> <p>Cabinet approves Ministry proposals to reduce the 36 public institutions to 23 through mergers and incorporations. A new ‘comprehensive’ institution created through the mergers of a university and a technikon</p> <p>Ministry processes submissions and releases for comment its proposed qualification and programme mixes and niche areas for institutions</p>
Initiative in 2000 around language policy for HE	<p>CHE produces policy advice report for Minister in 2001</p> <p>Minister appoints a group to report on use of Afrikaans language in Higher Education</p>	Ministry releases language policy for Higher Education, based essentially on CHE advice
Initiative around reviewing the NQF	Ministries of Education and Labour establish a	Ministries’ decisions awaited

in HE (2001)	<p>study team to review the NQF in education</p> <p>CHE and various HE actors mobilize for major changes in the implementation of the NQF in HE</p>	
Ministry request to CHE for advice on various aspects of the provision of distance education in HE	CHE establishes a task team comprising national and international specialists to commission investigations on a range of issues	CHE advice to Ministry in late 2003
<p>Ministry request to CHE for advice on the nomenclature of proposed comprehensive institutions</p> <p>Ministry requests to CHE for advice on the criteria and conditions for institutions to use the terms 'university', 'Technikon', 'College' and to offer/award degrees and postgraduate qualifications</p>	<p>CHE advises Minister</p> <p>CHE establishes project under auspices of its Shape and Size Standing Committee</p>	<p>Ministry accepts advice that all comprehensive institutions should provisionally be called universities and that final decisions should await the results of its investigation</p> <p>CHE advice to the Ministry in late 2003</p>
Ministry request to CHE for advice on the General Agreement on Trade and Services and HE and claims made on South Africa by four countries	CHE initiates debate through its journal, <i>Kagisano</i> , commissions work and convenes a national seminar	CHE advises the Ministry in Mid-2003



### 3: ETHICAL CLEARANCE APPLICATION

**UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL  
ETHICAL CLEARANCE APPLICATION FORM  
(HUMAN AND SOCIAL SCIENCES)**

**Inquiries:  
Ms Phumelele Ximba  
Tel: 260 3587  
Email: [ximbap@ukzn.ac.za](mailto:ximbap@ukzn.ac.za)**

**PLEASE NOTE THAT THE FORM MUST BE COMPLETED IN TYPED SCRIPT;  
HANDWRITTEN APPLICATIONS WILL NOT BE CONSIDERED**

**SECTION 1: PERSONAL DETAILS**

- 1.1 Full Name & Surname of Applicant:** Robert Balfour  
**1.2 Title (Ms/ Mr/ Mrs/ Dr/ Professor etc):** Prof  
**1.3 Student Number** (where applicable) :  
**Staff Number** (where applicable) : \_\_\_\_\_  
**1.4 School** : School of Language, Literacies,  
Media & Drama Education  
**1.5 Faculty** : Education  
**1.6 Campus** : Edgewood  
**1.7 Existing Qualifications** :  
**1.8 Proposed Qualification for Project** :  
(where applicable)

**2. Contact Details**

Tel. No. : 031 260 3138  
Cell. No. :  
e-mail : balfourr@ukzn.ac.za  
Postal address (in the case of students  
and external applicants) :

**3. SUPERVISOR/ PROJECT LEADER DETAILS**

<b>NAME</b>	<b>TELEPHONE NO.</b>	<b>EMAIL</b>	<b>DEPARTMENT / INSTITUTION</b>	<b>QUALIFICATIONS</b>
3.1 Professor Robert Balfour	031 260 3138	balfourr@ukzn.ac.za	Language, Literacies, Media & Drama Education	PhD

3.2 Professor Relebohile Moletsane	031 260 1024	<a href="mailto:Moletsaner@ukzn.ac.za">Moletsaner@ukzn.ac.za</a>	Post-Graduate Studies and Research	PhD
3.3 Dr Peter Rule	033 260 6187	<a href="mailto:rulep@ukzn.ac.za">rulep@ukzn.ac.za</a>	Adult and Higher Education	PhD
3.4 Dr J. Karlsson	031 260 1398	<a href="mailto:karlsson@ukzn.ac.za">karlsson@ukzn.ac.za</a>	Education, Leadership, Management and Policy Studies	PhD
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NAME	TELEPHONE NO.	EMAIL	DEPARTMENT / INSTITUTION	QUALIFICATIONS
3.4 Thabisile Nkambule	0734935098	thabzeni@yahoo.com	UKZN	M Phil.
3.5 Primmithi Naidoo	0724930280	primn@webmail.co.za	UKZN	M Ed.
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3.7 Serufe Molefe	0722455112	serufemolefe@hotmail.com	UKZN	B Ed Hons
3.8 Nomanesi Madiya	0837689908	nomanesi@mweb.co.za	UKZN	B Ed Hons
3.9 Liile Lekena	0786658690	liilel@yahoo.co.uk	UKZN	B A Hons

## APPENDIX 4: PROJECT BRIEF LETTER FOR DEANS



### UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

Faculty of Education  
Edgewood Campus  
Private Bag x03  
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Prof. L Moletsane  
Thabisile Nkambule  
Primmithi Naidoo  
Brenda Davey  
Dr P Rule

Prof. RJ Balfour  
Serufe Molefe  
Liile Lekena  
Nomanesi Madiya

16 April, 2007

Dear Prof (TYPE NAME HERE),

#### **Project on Postgraduate Education Research in South Africa: 1995-2004**

We are writing to introduce the Postgraduate Project in Education Research to you, and to seek your cooperation and help in this initiative funded by the Ford Foundation and the University of KwaZulu-Natal. One of the purposes of this Project is to list, categorise, and analyse ten years of Masters and Doctoral dissertations (1995 – 2004) in education research at ten different universities in South Africa. The institutions selected for research are as follows (in alphabetical order):

Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (Eastern Cape)  
Stellenbosch University (Western Cape)  
University of Cape Town (Western Cape)  
University of Fort Hare (Eastern Cape)  
University of the Free State (Orange Free State)  
University of Johannesburg (Gauteng)  
University of KwaZulu-Natal (KwaZulu-Natal)  
University of the North-West (Limpopo)  
University of the Western Cape (Western Cape)  
University of the Witwatersrand (Gauteng)

The selected HEIs have been chosen on the basis of regional location and a history of education research.

Our Project is headed by a team of academics (Professors Robert Balfour, Lebo Moletsane and Dr Peter Rule). We will be using the resources at the University of KwaZulu-Natal to house materials and support the team in an analysis of the research done at the above mentioned HEIs.

We are seeking the assistance of library personnel, your Faculty or School of Education, and administrators in accessing lists of theses. We would also like to visit your institution to interview supervisors willing to participate in this study. In this regard we would sincerely appreciate your formal permission to visit your Faculty/ School in the course of 2007 and to read and copy theses in the library.

We would be grateful if you could write to us concerning formal permission and we undertake also to be touch with you telephonically in the near future. An executive summary of the Project is attached for information. We would be grateful if you could distribute this to colleagues and discuss the Project with them. We welcome queries and participation.

Yours sincerely,

Professor Robert Balfour for the PPER Team

## APPENDIX: 5: PROJECT BRIEF LETTER FOR LIBRARIES



**UNIVERSITY OF  
KWAZULU-NATAL**

Ashley, 3605  
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+27(0)31 260 3480 (Module Administrator)  
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Richmond Roads)  
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Prof. L Moletsane  
Thabisile Nkambule  
Primmithi Naidoo  
Brenda Davey  
Dr P Rule

Prof. RJ Balfour  
Serufe Molefe  
Liile Lekena  
Nomanesi Madiya

16 April, 2007

Dear Librarian,

### **Project on Postgraduate Education Research in South Africa: 1995-2004**

We are writing to introduce the Postgraduate Project in Education Research to you, and to seek your co-operation and help in this initiative funded by the Ford Foundation and the University of KwaZulu-Natal. One of the purposes of this Project is to list, categorise, and analyse ten years of Masters and Doctoral dissertations (1995 – 2004) in education research at ten different universities in South Africa. The institutions selected for research are as follows (in alphabetical order):

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University of Johannesburg (Gauteng)  
University of KwaZulu-Natal (KwaZulu-Natal)  
University of the North-West (Limpopo)  
University of the Western Cape (Western Cape)  
University of the Witwatersrand (Gauteng)

As part of the field study, we are seeking the assistance of library personnel, and administrators in accessing lists of theses. In this regard we would sincerely appreciate your permission to visit your Library in the course of 2007 to read and copy theses. We will be in telephonic contact with you shortly.

Yours sincerely,

Professor Robert Balfour for the PPER Team

## APPENDIX: 6: PROJECT BRIEF LETTER FOR SUPERVISOR



Faculty of Education  
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Prof. L Moletsane  
Thabisile Nkambule  
Primmithi Naidoo  
Brenda Davey  
Dr P Rule

Prof. RJ Balfour  
Serufe Molefe  
Liile Lekena  
Nomanesi Madiya

16 April, 2007

Dear Prof SUPERVISOR,

### **Project on Postgraduate Education Research in South Africa: 1995-2004**

We are writing to introduce the Postgraduate Project in Education Research to you, and to seek your co-operation and help in this initiative funded by the Ford Foundation and the University of KwaZulu-Natal. One of the purposes of this Project is to list, categorise, and analyse ten years of Masters and Doctoral dissertations (1995 – 2004) in education research at ten different universities in South Africa. The institutions selected for research are as follows (in alphabetical order) as well as contact details of PPER team members co-ordinating the visit to the HEI.

Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (Eastern Cape) – Primmithi Naidoo (072 493 02 80)

Stellenbosch University (Western Cape) – Brenda Davey (084 55 35 35 1)

University of Cape Town (Western Cape) – Brenda Davey (084 55 35 35 1)

University of Fort Hare (Eastern Cape) – Primmithi Naidoo (072 493 02 80)

University of the Free State (Orange Free State) – Primmithi Naidoo (072 493 02 80)

University of Johannesburg (Gauteng) – Thabisile Nkambule (073 493 50 98)

University of KwaZulu-Natal (KwaZulu-Natal) – Liile Lekena (078 66 58 690)

University of the North-West (Limpopo) – Thabisile Nkambule (073 493 50 98)

University of the Western Cape (Western Cape) – Brenda Davey (084 55 35 35 1)

University of the Witwatersrand (Gauteng) – Thabisile Nkambule (073 493 50 98)

The selected HEIs have been chosen on the basis of regional location and a history of education research. As part of the field study, we would also like to visit your institution to interview supervisors willing to participate in this study.

Our Project is headed by a team of academics (Professors Robert Balfour, Lebo Moletsane and Dr Peter Rule). We will be using the resources at the University of KwaZulu-Natal to house materials and support the team in the analysis of research and development carried out between 1995 – 2004 at the above-mentioned universities, which includes your HEI.

We would be grateful if you could fill in the write to us concerning formal permission. Alternatively, you may wish to fill in the Declaration (attached) and return it in the SASE. We undertake also to be touch with you telephonically in the near future. An executive summary of the Project is attached for your information.

We welcome queries and participation, and look forward to hearing from you at your earliest convenience.

Yours sincerely,

Professor Robert Balfour for the PPER Team



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<sup>i</sup> Parts of this thesis were published as follows: **Lekena**, Liile L. Knowledge Generation in South African Higher Education. *Problems of Education in the 21st Century*; 2011, Vol. 30, p47.