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# DISSERTATION

Titel der Dissertation

## **Terminology Policies and Communication for Social Change:**

**Promoting Linguistic Diversity and Terminology in South Africa.**

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### **Ethics Declaration**

I declare that the enclosed work reports on original research.

All the sources that I used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references. I further declare that I have not submitted the work or parts of the work for assessment or examination in any country of the world. The enclosed work is identical in form and content with the work assessed by the assessors.

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Signature Anja Drame

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## Acronyms and Abbreviations

ACALAN	African Academy of Languages
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
ANC	African National Congress
AU	African Union (formerly OAU)
AVU	African Virtual University
BBC	British Broadcasting Corporation
BMZ	Bundesministerium für Wirtschaftliche Zusammenarbeit und Entwicklung
BP	British Petroleum
CD Rom	Compact Disc Read-Only Memory
CDC	Centre for Disease Control
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
DAC	Department of Arts and Culture (of the Republic of South Africa)
DFID	Department of International Development
Dol	Diffusion of Innovations
DPISA	Department of Public Service and Administration
EAFT	European Association for Terminology
EC	European Commission
E-E	Entertainment-Education
ELM	Elaboration Likelihood Model
EU	European Union
FAO	United Nations Food and Agricultural Organization
FIT	International Federation of Translators
HIV	Human Immune Deficiency Virus
HLT	Human Language Technology
ICASA	Independent Communication Authority of South Africa
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
Infoterm	International Information Centre for Terminology
ISO	International Organization for Standardization

ISO/TC 37	International Organization for Standardization, Technical Committee 37 “Terminology and other language and content resources”
MDDA	Media Development and Diversity Agency
MOST	Management of Social Transformation Programme of UNESCO
MRC	Medical Research Council
NGO	Non-governmental Organization
NLB	National Language Boards
NLS	National Language Service
NLU	National Lexicography Units
OAU	Organization of African Unity
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
PanSALB	Pan South African Language Board
PASA	Publishers Association of South Africa
PLC	Provincial Language Committee
PR	Public Relations
ROI	Return on Investment
RTL	Radio Télévision Libre des Milles Collines
SABC	South African Broadcasting Corporation
SABS	South African Bureau of Standards
SAPA	South African Press Association
SME	Small and Medium Enterprise
SMS	Short Message Service
SOCMOB	Social Mobilization
StanSA	Standards South Africa
SWOT	Strengths Weaknesses Opportunities Threats
T&E	Translation and Editing Directorate (of NLS)
TCS	Terminology Coordination Section
TermNet	International Network for Terminology
TISSA	Telephone Interpreting Service for South Africa
TV	Television
UK	United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland
UN	United Nations

UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNDPI	United Nations Department of Public Information
UNESCAP	United Nations Economic and Social Commission on Asia and the Pacific
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Emergency Fund
UNIDO	United Nations Industrial Development Organization
UNIFEM	United Nations Development Fund for Women
UNISA	University of South Africa
UNODC	United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime
US	United States of America
WHO	World Health Organization
WIPO	World Intellectual Property Organization
WSIS	World Summit on the Information Society

## **Introduction**

### **Background**

The present study examines the question whether general principles from the field of development communication can be, and have been, applied in the communication about the terminology policy of South Africa. Such communication includes general awareness-raising through the mass media and other media, as well as targeted information about the policy, and promotion of terminology tools, sources, services and products.

The decision to choose this research topic is the result of my observation of many deficiencies, unused channels and missed opportunities. From 2003 to 2005, I was involved in a project sponsored by the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), which should capture my interest and stimulate my curiosity for the years to come and ended in the decision to dedicate my doctoral research to it. The project was the compilation of the *Guidelines for Terminology Policies*. I was privileged to contribute as one of the coordinators, authors and editors. My background in sociolinguistics and language planning in Africa caused the special interest in this topic. The *Guidelines*, as it was known in short, were the first of their kind in the field of terminology planning research. They focussed less on the technicalities of the terminology planning proper, as this has been the subject of much other scientific attention before. Rather, it described the pragmatic environment, in which the planning takes place, as a management process. It therefore focused only insofar on the linguistic and cognitive perspective as is necessary to describe the characteristics of it, and correctly place the subject in its context. More importantly, the *Guidelines* made external factors like society, economy, political administration and management their topic, and thus examined the issue from a new and different angle.

Compiling the *Guidelines* was in many aspects a painstaking process; but it was well worth the effort, because it became an oft-cited, translated and used

document within the terminology planning community. The timing was perhaps right, since it preceded only briefly the recent renaissance of scientific interest in the field. The *Guidelines* are an immensely condensed description of the policy-making process, which does not leave much opportunity for the research of details. The idea was, to develop certain parts and strands further in the future.

I found that one common problem in terminology work was mentioned repeatedly, yet just marginally, in the *Guidelines*. I now increasingly felt that this was an important issue and deserved more attention than it was given before. This issue was campaigning and awareness-raising, or the communication of the topic terminology to the various stakeholders, who ought to have an interest or should anyhow be informed.

One problem, many terminologists or translators encounter in their daily work, is that they are experts who have much knowledge about how to improve terminology management in the organization, but little about how to transfer this knowledge to those, who are not as informed, and even less interested in the details. One of their greatest, yet most diffuse difficulties is to persuade and convince co-workers, managers, subject specialists and other stakeholders to follow their suggestions, to allot more money to terminology development and management, and to back up the terminologist with more authority to put the terminology policy into action. Along the same lines, another related problem that was frequently reported by language planners, was that efforts and products are often ignored by the target users (i.e. the members of a language community) and, in turn, the interest and engagement of authorities and politicians waning to the end of less and less funding for the language development.

According to the suggestions from the UNESCO *Guidelines*, one important measure to improve the situation is the development and implementation of a terminology policy. It is my major hypothesis in this thesis that the policy-making process is most of all an act of communication. Communication planning thus takes a much more important role within the terminology policy process. It must be directed from bottom-up, to bring the topic of terminology to the political or

management agenda, as well as top-down, to ensure support and involvement from those who are supposed to benefit and to contribute to it. To my knowledge, the present study is the first to examine the terminology policy-making process as a management problem from the angle of social change communication.

## **Problem Statement**

A problem that is often expressed by terminologists working in administration, organizations or companies, is that terminology is perceived by their colleagues as “too abstract”, “too boring”, “too complicated to explain”, “too expensive and long-term oriented and with too little tangible results”, etc. Terminologists often feel left alone, and unable to transfer their message to decision makers and “users”. Although this may be true, terminology is certainly not the only domain with this problem. The fields of health and law, for example, display similar characteristics of being stigmatised as coarse, incomprehensible or boring subjects of limited general interest, and therefore being difficult to communicate and promote.

Yet, especially the health sector has been originator of some of the most successful campaigns over the last decades. Impressive results have been achieved for example in the case of the “*Quit smoking!*” campaign. Only a few decades ago, everybody was allowed to smoke everywhere, and they did. Even in television talk shows it was not uncommon to light up cigarettes. Hardly anybody found it problematic or annoying to sit in a group with smokers. Smoking was popular, fashionable and widespread. And it even had a strong lobby in the tobacco industry. The warning voices were conveniently overheard, even though scientific results already showed the dangers of smoking. Today, the picture has changed completely - and across cultures. Obviously, times and *Zeitgeist* have played a card in this, but the reason why smoking is so stigmatised today is foremost the result of constant, vehement and targeted communication.

Health communication is a much-studied field. The more research I conducted, the more examples I found (e.g. wearing seat belts, healthy living and nutrition), as well as the scientific theories that had been developed upon these cases. There exists a rich scientific tradition in the fields of social and communication science. Most prominent among the vast literature is the known *Diffusion of Innovation (DoI)* theory by Roger Everett. In five editions developed and published over the last 40 years, the theory has been evolved to respond to most criticism and the obvious and dramatic changes in the communicative environment over that period. *DoI* argues that policies (and hence terminology policies) are technologies, but with special features that distinguish them from other technologies. Chapter 3 of this study examines the theory and its criticism and its applicability to the area of terminology policies.

Due to the lack of case studies in terminology policies it would be impossible and unscientific to attempt generalization. For this reason, the aim of this work is to examine one example, South Africa, and how principles of social change communication theory and practice have been employed to promote linguistic diversity through terminology, and vice versa, to implant terms in the official languages in society to improve communication and knowledge transfer.

The choice of South Africa for conducting the case study was made for the following reasons:

- The existence of an official and relatively new language policy, yet advanced enough for a founded evaluation
- A multilingual context, comprising of languages of almost every type of de-facto status in society
- The country's growing economic importance on the African continent as well as globally, being an important factor for the emergence of national industries and foreign investment - a precondition for the study of corporate terminology policies

- Pressing developmental factors (health, poverty, education) contributing to the need for information and communication in local languages
- A tendency towards the use of English as main medium for scientific/technical, educational and economic communication, and massive domain-loss in a previously privileged language (Afrikaans), plus insufficient mastering of English as lingua franca in the majority of the population
- The researcher's in-depth knowledge of the country as well as close cooperation ties with the nation's extensive scientific, governmental and monitoring infrastructure

South Africa is a relatively young democracy which has a modern and elaborate language policy. Active terminology planning is exercised within a sophisticated national and international infrastructure. In addition, numerous private initiatives, e.g. at universities, the industry, the mass media and professional associations take place. Most of them are not centrally coordinated, some even being carried out in nearly complete isolation from other initiatives.

Terminology planning in South Africa means also dealing with a high degree of diversity. Nine out of the eleven official languages can be considered as "classical" terminology planning subjects, as they are indigenous African languages which have not been used in official domains and central economy during colonial rule. During the peak of Apartheid, their use was encouraged, yet restricted to the several Bantustans. Hence, today they require massive corpus planning efforts to bring them on par with the two better developed official languages.

South Africa's language policy also includes English and Afrikaans, the former only official languages during Apartheid. Both of them started out from relatively equal footing after the socio-political transformation of the country. Both used to be well-developed languages, used in all areas of professional life, but increasingly, they are facing a different fate in the new society. South Africa's

Constitution (Act No. 108, 1996, Section 6) determines the equity of all linguistic communities, including sign language, further minority and heritage languages. The official status for 11 languages implies certain obligations for their use in administration. The Constitution thus creates the political basis for the national language policy framework and, implied in this document of 2004, the national terminology policy. A complex infrastructure of national and provincial language services as well as additional private initiatives and collaboration on the international scene exists, or was newly established, to provide for the constitutional implementation. Chapter 4 includes a detailed analysis of South Africa's history and language policy and socio-political environment.

The *Pan South African Language Board (PanSALB)* was enacted to monitor this process and to collect and process any complaints concerning cases of unconstitutional action. In its function as a policy-enacting and monitoring body it oversees the policy implementation in all areas, and was actively involved in its development. The organization's *Communication Department* is taking care of awareness-raising on the linguistic rights of all citizens. The *National Language Service (NLS)* is the other major national terminology planning body. As a *Chief Directorate* it is a division of the *Department of Arts and Culture of the Republic of South Africa*. Its main function is in assisting governmental institutions with translating documents into and from all the official languages. The *NLS* also consults other departments in their terminology work, maintains the *National Termbase* and works on assignment upon requests from external organizations. It also has the mandate to answer terminology-related questions from individuals. Both institutions, and the debate about the overlap of respective mandates and rivalry are also described in Chapter 4.

It is important to present new, debated or standardized terminology to its potential users in a form - as well as through media - that are most relevant and easiest accessible for them. Terminologies need embedding in relevant content, which in turn requires a deep understanding about diversity of a society and the willingness by government actors to network, and redistribute resources. The educational sector and the mass media play a crucial role in the dissemination.

Cooperation with the education sector typically occurs via collaboration with other governmental departments (e.g. the Department of Education). However, there are plenty of alternative educational methods and activities that do not have to be neglected and are therefore of major importance for this study. Approaches like theatre, entertainment-education and others are therefore subject of the present study. The focus lies clearly on the use of mass media and digital media as being tools with the perhaps greatest potential to reach a broad range of diverse citizens in South Africa. Therefore, cooperation of terminology planners with media creators like publishers, radio stations and, increasingly, web content and other Information and Communication Technology providers are essential, as I will try to demonstrate.

The study was guided by the following research questions:

- 1) What are the current impact and the reciprocal role of media and terminology policy in South Africa?
- 2) How can different media be utilized as tools to advocate, implement and popularize terminology policy and its products?
- 3) What is the mutual benefit both actors – language planning organization and media – can expect from such cooperation, e.g.
  - financial incentives through government funds for language development,
  - higher commercial payout through better address of population majority,
  - higher user rates of Information and Communication Technologies,
  - increased knowledge transfer for the benefit of general societal development and education
  - status of languages rising
  - better implantation and acceptance of terminology?

4) How do media in their different forms serve as information sources to the people of South Africa in their diversity, e.g.

- rural-urban,
- youth-elders,
- Anglophone-indigenous,
- literate-illiterate,
- poor-wealthy,
- gender, HIV, cultures, etc.?

5) How can communication strategies from other application fields (e.g. health communication campaigns) be effectively adapted and used for terminology planning purposes?

6) Which kind of partnerships have been established between language planning institutions and the media (television, radio, production companies, publishing houses, theatre groups) in South Africa to promote the country's terminology and language policy?

### **Assumptions, Hypothesis**

The following assumptions guide the dissertation:

- Existing media are not employed to their full potential for use in the implementation of terminology policies in South Africa.
- The understanding of the importance of taking into account diversity issues such as gender, education, physical abilities, age, income sector, profession and geopolitical situation to create an environment of holistic diffusion is particularly lacking.

- At the same time, there is also a greater demand for participatory approaches and interactive involvement of the people to create some sort of ownership.

Traditional methods like disseminating wordlists - which sometimes are the only channel used by terminologists in South Africa are still useful tools; however, they must be regarded as one in many distribution channels. Embedding the information into local stories and topics that are relevant to the target group is crucial.

### **Research approach**

This dissertation is divided into three major parts which all are inter-connected by the attempt to answer the research questions and prove the assumptions stated above. An introductory chapter shows the interconnectedness of terminology, language and society. Chapter 2 is based on the study that has been done in the compilation of the UNESCO *Guidelines for Terminology Policies*. The process described there is examined in further detail with the aim to

- a) demonstrate that terminology policy-making is a complex management process rather than a strictly straight, chronologic, arguments-based and linear top-down process.
- b) Within this management process highlighting phases and actions that are communication-intensive and can therefore assisted by a communication strategy.

Justification of the relevance for communication planning is the topic of the subsequent Chapter 3. In this chapter, an analysis of dominant and contradicting paradigms is made in order to lay down their applicability on the terminology policy process. On the basis of these theories the development of a communication strategy is described. In concluding the chapter a model for a

communication plan for terminology policies is proposed by describing the underlying success factors for such a campaign.

Chapter 4 aims at connecting the previous chapters and apply the theoretical arguments on the real example of promoting linguistic diversity through terminology policy in the Republic of South Africa. A historical overview of linguistic issues helps understand the complex social, psychological, geopolitical and economical factors that have an impact on language behaviour and attitudes in the country. South Africa's modern and sophisticated language and terminology policy is described to understand the contemporary political environment. A further point that has to be considered in order to plan a communication campaign for terminology policies in a diverse country such as South Africa is its media infrastructure and culture. Special emphasis is therefore placed on the detailed description of this sector. Some good practice examples underscore how such communication could take place or be coupled with effectively.

The methodology I used was primarily an analysis of theories and case studies from sociology and communication science in order to derive my assumptions from a sound theoretical basis. Most importantly, it is based on the works of Roger Everett and the *Diffusion of Innovation* theory that was developed and refined by him. Another major source is Silvio Waisbord, a communication scientist who has published extensively on social change communication. Waisbord was consultant to organizations like the *World Health Organization* to design their awareness campaigns.

Primarily due to the lack of empirical data, the study is qualitative rather than quantitative. This analysis was coupled with interviews and informal talks with terminologists from various countries and, wherever possible, with South African language professionals and scientists over the period of 2006 to 2009. In a few instances I could rely on previous information collected in the course of research for my thesis for the degree of *Magistra Artium* in 2000 - 2001. This information was insofar helpful, as it revealed the situation, attitude and general "climate"

from about a decade ago. Not much information about this time is readily available today, because most of my informants from then are not in office any longer for various reasons.

My case study is primarily based on statistical data to draw a correct picture of the diversity of the South African society and media landscape. Most information was therefore taken from census data, Annual Reports and yearbooks. My original plan to visit the Pan South African Language Board and the National Language Service for observation, document analysis, face-to-face interviews and informal talks had to be shelved, partly due to failure of obtaining admission to the premises and partly due to staff fluctuation in the organizations. I was, however, able to reactivate “old” and establish new informal contact to staff members and could find answers to most of my questions in this way. I further managed to interview per e-mail spokespersons for the *Soul City* project who also provided me with countless valuable information. For the rest, I had to rely on information that was available in the World Wide Web.

Some notes on the choice and use language in the study: The original intent had foreseen that I undertake the study as a *Cotutelle de thèse* (binational doctoral project) of the University of Vienna with a South African university. Unfortunately this plan had to be given up later. Since I had already started drafting, and in view of a wider distribution after publication, the decision was made to stick with the English medium despite the fact that both my reviewers would have been able to read German.

Unlike in the United States and other English speaking countries, where it is used as a euphemism for Blacks, the term *Coloured* in the South African context refers strictly to individuals of mixed racial origin (e.g. White-African, White-Malay) rather than to the Black South Africans. I follow this convention in this study.

The use of names for the South African languages differs from study to study. Some authors refer to the languages by their indigenous names (including prefixes) while others use the English names. In this document I use the English

names for the sake of consistency, clarity and simplicity without any valuating implication or intention, i.e. Xhosa instead of isiXhosa, Tswana instead of Setswana, Venda instead of Tshivenda).

The term *Bantu* has a very negative connotation in the South African context as a pejorative reference of the Black South Africans used by the ruling White elite. Nevertheless, *Bantu language* is an established term in anthropology and linguistics for a group of people and languages. The stem *-ntu* in this language group refers to “person/people” and does not imply any such pejorative connotation. I use the term in this study in the pure linguistic sense and meaning.

### **Justification and aim of the study**

It was the aim of the study to get a better insight into the use of public relations methods and strategies and the media for the purpose of communicating terminology issues. Such insight can help terminologists understand the role of mass and personal media and how they can be more effectively employed to assist in the development and implementation of policies related to terminology issues. Of the personal media, especially the role of Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) was interesting for me. Up to this day, most of Africa is characterized by low access rates to these modern technologies, and in particular the use of so-called new generation or Web 2.0 applications in Africa lags behind other regions in the world. But this may change in the near future with the development of standards and software, targeted to African audiences, the advent of new broadband cables to connect the continent and, perhaps most importantly, with the rapid penetration of mobile technology to even the remotest places. As it is the case in much of Asia and Western societies already, more and more content will be made available for ICT applications, and is likely to redefine and partly replace the significance of the traditional mass media. At the same time they can help strengthen the position and authority of terminology experts within an organization or community.

On the basis of this research we may be able to draw conclusions, which can become recommendations for how to develop a communication plan that is best suited to the requirements and context of any given terminology policy. The knowledge, derived from the research conducted by myself and a number of fellow researchers over the past three years, has already been applied in the development of the *International Standard IS 29383 “Terminology Policies – Development and Implementation”*. Work on this standard has started parallel to the present study in 2006. The document will be published in 2010. The author, who has also been the project leader of this standard project, could benefit in turn from feedback and input received from all experts of different cultural and professional backgrounds who have been contributing to this work.

## **1 Communication and development**

This thesis deals with different aspects of communication. In its first instance it takes the perspective of communication studies and examines methods and strategies for the communication and distribution of an “idea” which is expressed as a policy, with the intent to change behaviour in order to bring about social change and – ideally – positive development. Such communication occurs in different ways: as personal communication, via the mass media and most recently web-based social media. The communication strategies examined here focus particularly on the role of mass and interpersonal media. But in its very substance the subject of this study is also communication because the policy which should be communicated concerns languages and in particular terminology, i.e. communication for special purposes. Hence, this study is in some ways a metastudy on communication: how to communicate effectively about communication. The study therefore is highly interdisciplinary and cuts across a variety of subject fields which may take different angles and viewpoints. And communication is closely and inseparately connected with development as will be demonstrated below.

It is therefore necessary to give an overview of some of these points of connection that are in some way or the other addressed by this research. This overview does not attempt to be exhaustive and can impossibly be so. However, it will give insight into the very specific angle from which the approach of the study originates. It is hoped that this overview is a help to the reader to follow the basic argumentation this study is rooted in and related to, and the perspective taken.

There is a reciprocal and mutual relation between communication, language and development. Development is expressed in different aspects (see Chapter 1.2). It can be measured in the achievement of democratic values through the empowerment of the citizen to participate in the shaping of society. It can also be measured in the accumulation of economic wealth, rising living standards, high

live expectancy and literacy, as well as low crime rates. Human rights, and in particular linguistic rights and the rights of minorities play a further role in societal development. Education and knowledge transfer are crucial in the achievement of these. The creation of knowledge societies of great diversity, and the bridging of divides within these societies have been recognized as development indicators in recent years.

All of this relates back to communication. Communication is a basic feature of human beings. It serves not only the transmission of information but plays a more primal, subconscious role as means to transmit basic emotions such as affection, fear, and desperation. Language is the most common and important medium of communication. However, language – either written or oral - is not the only way we communicate. Non-linguistic communication includes gestures, mimics, audio-visual impulses like smiling or crying, screaming, body postures, or graphic representation of information, like warning symbols or traffic signs. However, communication, to be successful, requires a sender, a message and a receiver, and these have to cooperate well. An “understanding” of the “meaning” is the prerequisite for any communication or else it can not be called by that name. The fact that communication, and in particular such communication which concerns a defined and limited subject-field, goes well beyond linguistic matters, is the concern of terminology science (see also Chapter 2).

Therefore, communication has become one of the central topics in most of today’s modern societies. It concerns policy makers and market-places, highly complex intelligence operations and psychological manipulation and propaganda as well as the most fundamental everyday issues, such as health care and nutrition. It also has repercussions on the labour market. It has caused the emergence of new professional fields such as knowledge and information management and localization, and it has transformed “traditional” language and knowledge professions like translation, (language) education, as well as the trade of information in the media. The field is highly interdisciplinary and includes aspects of philosophy and scientific theory, neuro-biology, sociology and politics,

linguistics, the arts, science communication, information and communication technologies.

This study aims to examine reciprocity, interdependencies and opportunities between politics and administration, communication and sociolinguistics, focussing on society and people as the users and recipients of terminology policies and their implementation, and hence crucial and important stakeholders. In the process of consolidating these groups and their interaction such factors as diversity management, media studies, translation, education and literacy, campaigning and communication for development and social change are considered, but domain communication in general is concerned, because communication often takes place about specialised topics.

Most studies on the role of mass media on democratization and development in a society largely ignore the importance of linguistic diversity for communication (e.g. ÖSFK 2007, Deane/Parks 2006, Zachary 2007). Others, like Bessette 2004, state only briefly that linguistic diversity may be a problem. A few studies, however, dedicate more than just marginal mentioning to the challenge of multilingualism (e.g. Mefalopoulus 2008). This is curious and puzzling in a sector that is primarily concerned with information and how it is transferred from a sender to reach a particular audience. Especially in complex and diverse sociolinguistic situations the issue is sometimes neglected in favour of dominant languages and linguistic monocultures. It appears to catch interest only when politics mingles and tries to use the mass media as propaganda tools.

### **1.1 Freedom of expression, propaganda and manipulation**

In modern societies, traditional oral face-to-face communication has lost importance in proportion to the use of electronic media, which reach larger numbers of people and audiences in far away places. However, it still is a major means of communication in many rural and developing communities.

The media assume a double function. They are often regarded as the “fourth power” in societies, besides executive, legislative and judicial power (ÖSFK 2007). Their power is derived from its capacity to directly and indirectly influence the public and political opinion, or what the people, the economy and politics think about a certain issue. It is therefore regarded as one of the most powerful tools for political control. News executives therefore have enormous impact on how news, trends and world events are covered and reported to the masses of people worldwide. These have in common a variety of backgrounds and experiences and are characterized by a great diversity. Therefore these media executives, referred to in the following short as the media, have a responsibility about how they contribute in the promotion of development.

The responsibility of journalists, editors and other mass media executives in times of war and political turmoil has been the focus of many debates. A number of recent occasions have prompted the discussion anew and have put the double function of media and the dangers connected with their power and authority in the limelight. As examples may serve how the mass media themselves were manipulated and in turn manipulated their audiences, knowingly or unwittingly during the two Gulf Wars. During the first Gulf War in the early 1990s a media policy strictly regulated what kind of message is to be transmitted and the army supplied the media that were denied access to the region with video material that was faked, as was later found out (ÖSFK 2007, Kellner 1992). The second war in the region, prompted by the attacks of 11 September 2001 in the US, was following a strategy that was seemingly the opposite of the former, but nevertheless as deceptive, if not even more manipulative. The embedding of a few selected journalists of selected media providers created an impression of authenticity and first-hand experience for uncritical audience. In combination with fear mongering and political propaganda a great part of the society was successfully made believe that what they saw was the full and complete truth and reality. What many never knew was how cunningly they were deceived by this strategy. Journalists who received permission to join the troops were carefully selected, licences only guaranteed to certain media players, the reporters had to undergo ideological and other training. The material and reports were censored

before they were aired and self-censorship was strongly encouraged in view of the renewal of their permission to follow the front-line fighting. Information that was issued from the front was often so strongly filtered. Thus the media themselves were subject to manipulation through the careful observation and use of the way they function. The media have become propaganda tools for the armies and war farers on both sides of the conflict. However, in the case of the United States as a proclaimed democracy and the land of eternal freedom, stronger journalistic ethics would have been expected

(Kellner, Douglas

<http://www.gseis.ucla.edu/faculty/kellner/essays/911terrorspectaclemedia.pdf>,

2009-08-19/ ÖSFK 2007) .

A second example of the intrinsic power of the mass media concerns Africa, a context that seems worlds apart from the industrialised, wealthy and otherwise “developed” United States. It demonstrates that the power of media, if used in a targeted way, is not confined on specific contexts. The example is Rwanda and the occasion is the genocide that took place there in 1994 (see also Chapter 4.4.4.1).

Broadcast media are most influential in both the developed countries as well as in countries of the Third World. They are used for mobilization, opinion shaping and propaganda (Evusa 2005, Thompson 2007, ÖSFK 2007). Although print media today may have less power to activate and mobilize people, due to their limited reach and due to the greater authenticity that is attributed to visual and audio messages, their role is still significant. Although only a fraction of the population may have the opportunity to be exposed to written messages for economic or literacy reasons, newspapers, especially those regarded as authoritative because they are close to the ruling elites or other powers are the major source of information for broadcast media. They are so-called key media (*Leitmedien* in German), who dictate largely which news items and opinions make it into the broadcast news.

The digital media, especially mobile media gain increasingly in importance to mobilize populations in regions like Africa. They are employed to promote candidates in presidential elections as happened in Kenya<sup>1</sup>, or they are used to direct orders to henchmen even in societies in which anarchic circumstances make other forms of mass communication impossible, like in Somalia, where Islamists mobilize and instruct their followers via pre-paid mobile phones (see BBC report <http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/africa/7932316.stm> 2009-03-17).

In the debate about the power to manipulate public opinion, the question of freedom of expression, one of the Human Rights declared by the United Nations about 60 years ago, and the freedom of the press, laid down in most national constitutions, is central. Privatization of media does not automatically ensure pluralistic and free press, especially not in countries where large segments of the economy are state owned, as for example in Russia, or media companies are owned by a few powerful families with links to politics, like in Italy. State ownership has its supporters, too, since it has greater potential to ensure that minority issues, views of the diverse and multilingual parts of society are respected and covered. Many countries have mixed strategies of private ownership or management and public regulation, like in the case with the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) (Islam 2002). In African countries like Kenya, state ownership predominates, and efforts to privatization are slow (Evusa 2005). South African media, as it will be shown in detail in Chapter 4, media are in part state owned, in part privately owned and considered generally as being relatively free.

In political communication, for the successful creation or implementation of a public sphere in the sense of Habermas, communication and information transfer in the language(s) of discourse in a society is prerequisite. Democracy, by

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<sup>1</sup> The election of opposition leader Mwai Kibaki in Kenya in 2003 was partly due to high voters' mobilization via text messaging (SMS). The employed technique that led to the electoral success was here a combination of making use of modern and widespread media, customized messages (language), and the principles of social networking, as the messages contained the request to distribute it further to 10 friends. This strategy was very popular and ultimately listed as one of the reasons that lead to government change (Evusa 2005).

definition, implies and requires an informed public, regardless of the degree of participation in the different ideologies. Not only is an uninformed public not able to contribute meaningfully to the political discussion, and, thus remains powerless. It is also a danger to democracy in two ways: Uninformed citizens and such, who are not able to use the information to create knowledge, are prone to manipulation, and democracy based on such a foundation is a mockery of that title. Peoples who are this easily manipulated are prone to become players in terrorism and counterterrorism – a recent, and global, threat, which spreads beyond certain regions. People, according to Habermas, are well equipped and able to contribute to the public sphere and public opinion. That is, as long as they have the opportunity to do so. Despite a current trend to neglect or avoid public discussion and political debate in many societies (like for example Germany) the so-called voter's paradox is described by Habermas – a deeply rooted trust in democratic principles and the relevance of a single voice (Habermas 2006).

The selection of particular media to reach certain segments of society is an effective means. In Africa, the use of print media or the Internet implies that the only educated urban elites are reached, to the disadvantage of the majority of the people. This can have a desired effect when specific attitudes should be created, corruption fostered or election manipulated. The use of language may follow similar goals. It is a means of communication, but also one of exclusion of certain ethnic or social segments. Language can thus be an instrument for inclusion and exclusion to the political processes of a nation. It hence has the ability to contribute to the overall development and empowerment of the people.

Summarizing, it can be said that evidence is strong that the mass media, potentially are the most important tools to inform a large number of people, and therefore empower them to make informed choices and enable them to equally gain access to public services and programmes. This way the media contribute to democratization and socio-economic development of a nation. For the purpose of this study it can be concluded that they are an instrument in the implementation of governmental policies, and thus can be utilized to popularize and disseminate products and services with regard of language and terminology

planning. The latter mainly concerns specialized media, but also specialized reporting in the mass media, e.g. health education programmes, political analysis, technical reports or sports events.

The introduction of ICT as such has little direct influence on governance, despite the expansion of information it potentially can make available to citizens. ICT need to be accompanied by policies regulating and addressing circumstances such as literacy, economic status, geographical location, language, educational attainment, gender, etc., which allow citizens to utilize this technology. Other factors limiting use of ICT especially in developing countries include access rates and information literacy that contrast with high browsing costs. Language use and the lack of relevant content also restrict widespread use. In some autocratic societies, like China, Pakistan or Thailand, fears of government control of Internet and reprisals against dissidents weakens ICTs full potential. Sometimes they even occur with compliance of commercial groups<sup>2</sup>.

Welsh linguist David Crystal, in his introductory speech on the occasion of the 10<sup>th</sup> Linguapax congress in Barcelona 2004, stressed the important role the media, or rather the different types of media – mass media as well as other media, have in the campaign for multilingualism. In his view, the issue of language is still a far too rare topic in the media. His comparison with other campaigns, mainly concerning environmental issues, shows that the success in awareness creating is in close connection with the representation in the media. He therefore pleads to make language an issue of the media in the most creative way for the preservation of linguistic diversity (Crystal 2004).

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<sup>2</sup> China's infamous Great Firewall foresees close control over Internet content by numerous special officials and sites featuring certain content that is deemed in controversy with state politics are temporarily or permanently shut down. Some Western companies who were seeking market entry were forced or agreed to comply with restricting content or even reporting on the creators of such content to the officials. Such practices are regarded unethical and against democratic principles in more liberal societies. The case of Yahoo sparked international debate and uproar. Certain channels that promote free expression, like Wikipedia can not be accessed in China. Similarly, the countries of Pakistan and Thailand made headlines recently for shutting down YouTube Websites because it featured dissent content (BBC report "Pakistan blocks YouTube from 25 February 2008).

In the discussion about the use of languages in the media, opinions polarize. Analysing them we need to distinguish the type of media and the target audience reached by it. Print media usually are more restricted in their language policy because the addition of further languages or even publication in more than one language is usually very expensive. Mainstream media therefore tend to be conservatively monolingual, except in a few rare cases where strong language policies and legal regulations hold them responsible or mandate them to do otherwise. In comparison, broadcasting media can afford to be more creative in their language use. However, there tend to be linguistic preferences as well, which are governed either by licence requirements, sponsor preferences or perceived popularity of language choice.

The lack of content that is relevant for the community was identified as one of the major reasons why still so many Africans are hesitant to make use of the Internet, even when they have access to it, with the exception perhaps of mobile phones (Evusa 2005). Relevant content can be defined both in the use of local languages and in the covered topics. In order to adequately address rural populations, illiterate people, farmers and traders, different age and gender groups, content has to be produced locally, by the people for the people. A number of programmes and initiatives have been called to action by UNESCO and others to facilitate and foster local content productions both for broadcast media and the Internet. Especially the establishment of the *Communication and Information (CI) Sector* in 1990 and, thereunder, its *Information for All Programme (IFAP)* are worth noting. IFAP was founded by UNESCO member governments in the year 2000 in response to the increasing demand and necessity to grant access to information not only to the developed countries but also to the lesser developed societies. These programmes aimed to help them to keep pace with the rapid developments and to bridge the Digital Divide as good as possible. The three priorities of IFAP are *Information Literacy, Ethical, legal and societal implications of ICTs and Preservation of Information*.

The general themes of the Communication and Information Sector of UNESCO are

- Access to Information
- Capacity Building
- Content Development
- Freedom of Expression
- Media Development
- Memory of the World.

(Source: UNESCO CI Website <http://portal.unesco.org/ci/en>)

Terminology plays a crucial role for most of these themes, but is perhaps most significant in the field *Content Development*.

## **1.2 Development**

To examine the relation between communication and development is a necessary first step to elaborate what is meant with development in this research. The term development has a quite broad understanding in the different subject fields and therefore lacks a universally agreed definition for all of them. The term development often refers to a progression from one state to another. In most cases the progression is from a simpler state to a more complex one, although it could also happen vice versa.

1. In its reading of *international or societal development* the term is commonly used in a broad manner in the context of human and societal development. In many instances it refers to the improvement of quality of life, economy, governance, human rights, democracy, gender equality or environment. Regardless of the angle, one aspect that characterizes development issues and separates them from their other activities is the aspect of sustainability. This feature separates issues related to development from others in the programmes of institutions and organizations. While many funding and non-governmental organizations also have programmes in disaster relief or emergency management, these activities are not necessarily under the viewpoint of creating

sustainable improvement of the status quo. Development has therefore a long-term perspective (Soubotina 2004, pp.7).

2. In a *biological sense* development describes the change and progression of human individuals over the course of their lifespan. It includes not only physical, but also social, emotional, intellectual change (ibid.).

Both readings of development are in many facets interrelated since societies consist of individuals. The United Nations, for example, increasingly emphasize human development to achieve societal or international development. And societal development is often measured in individual development terms, like the increase in life expectancy, access to health information and services, economical wealth and income as a prerequisite of individual choice, the eradication of illiteracy, and universal access to quality education up to academic or vocational level, political and economical freedom. Reference to development furthermore often implies the reference to democratic values (ibid.).

### **1.3 Linguistic human rights and the language of choice**

Beyond pure functionality as media of communication, languages are also emotional subjects. They, like little else apart from religion perhaps, are used to define a person's identity. This role was described already in the Hebrew Bible in the known Shibboleth analogy, by which members of different communities were distinguished by linguistic parameters (the presence or absence of a phoneme)<sup>3</sup>. But even more ancient scriptures from Indo-Aryan culture with classical Sanskrit and believe in the transcendental power of the holy syllables and mantras, or

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<sup>3</sup> "If an Ephraimite attempted to pass himself off as a friend, the Gileadites would make him pronounce the word Shibboleth -- Hebrew for "flooding stream." Each Ephraimite victim, ignorant of his comrades' fate, would lapse into his dialect, in which initial sh sounds were pronounced s, yielding "Sibboleth." And that was the last word he ever spoke." (Excerpt from Macrone 1998, p.91-92)

later, Islam with the Arabic of the Qur'an (Koran) as the language of the prophet and therefore revered as holy and the highest ideal, attribute to language the ability to communicate with the Divine.

Languages have been used and misused by the powerful and power-seekers ever since the earliest recorded history. "Divide and rule" is a principle that was applied in most eras and societies. And many wars have been fought in the name of language, culture or religion. In reversion of this rule, modern nation building regarded language as a unifying element and stress was laid on harmonization.

In Africa, the European conquerors handled and utilized languages in different ways for their purposes. While French policy of assimilation aimed at adding new people to the mother nation France, the English preferred to keep Africans out of their business and instead took the effort to learn their languages (Reh/Heine 1982). The latter would appear the more constructive to form African identities and in view of the indigenous languages. Unfortunately, it went along with strategically placed triggering of ethnic sentiments, which prevented by and large a strong Pan-African self-consciousness. Other efforts to promote African languages were undertaken to import European values more efficiently and effectively to the "barbarians", and sufficed mainly to convey foreign concepts rather than enabling the creation of indigenous ones (Rubin/Jernudd 1971, Gadelii 1999, Antia 2000, Wright 2004).

The question of language is implicated in almost all human rights. Furthermore, to report on human rights abuses or to improve the human rights situation, communication and language play fundamental roles. Quite often, ruling classes try to prevent free flow of information and the forming of a public opinion on democratic and human rights matters.

The *Clearing House for Linguistic Rights Portal Phase 1 (1994-2003)* of UNESCO's MOST<sup>4</sup> programme lists the most important legislations, policies and other guiding documents regarding linguistic human rights. The most relevant language rights standards are based on International Human Rights Law and the protection of minority groups. It therefore provides the basic reference for the development of principles for good governance in terms of multicultural and linguistic diversity as well as for the prevention and solving of ethnolinguistic conflict (<http://www.unesco.org/most/ln2int.htm>).

The most important conventions and declarations include the *UNESCO Constitution (1945)* and the *Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948)*. More specific in scope, the *International Labour Organization Convention No. 169 (1989)*, the *Declaration on the Rights of Persons Belonging to National or Ethnic, Religious and Linguistic Minorities (1992)*, the *Draft Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples (1993)*, the *Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (1995)* and the *Declaration and Integrated Framework of Action on Education for Peace, Human Rights and Democracy (1995)* all have language-related clauses. The *Universal Declaration on Cultural Diversity (2001)* and the *African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990)* also acknowledge the basic right to maintain ethnic and cultural preferences in private and public life. One important document responding to the increasing importance of digital media is *UNESCO's Recommendation on the Promotion and Use of Multilingualism and Universal Access to Cyberspace (Draft in 2001, adopted by UNESCO General Conference in 2003)*. Pertaining to the situation in Africa one of the most groundbreaking declarations was issued in 1997 by the *Intergovernmental Conference of Ministers on Language Policy in Africa* in Harare (Harare Declaration 1997).

Theories on the role of languages and terminology, and proper policies governing their use, status and distribution are backed by studies published by the International Organizations. In particular UNESCO has been publishing

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<sup>4</sup> MOST = Management of Social Transformations Programme

numerous papers and studies by renowned institutions and experts, who affirm the importance of mother-tongue education, freedom of expression, media and broadcasting policies, and local content production.

The International Organization for Standardization (ISO) supports the fact of standard terminology as a fundamental element in standardization and consent as such:

To be able to arrive at consent upon an issue, which is standardization, first of all the terminology has to be standardized and defined. Only this way it can be assured that everybody involved is talking about the same thing and has the same understanding.

*“Even though ISO uses the term it does not offer a definition, which is interesting when one considers ISO's passion for defining things; leave a couple of words unattended for five minutes in an ISO office and you'll find that someone has defined them as a term.”*

(PC Update, magazine of the Melbourne PC User Group, Australia, November 2000, [www.melbpc.org.au/pcupdate/.../2011article9.htm](http://www.melbpc.org.au/pcupdate/.../2011article9.htm), accessed 2009-08-19)

The institutions of the European Union (EU), for instance the European Commission and the European Parliament, from early on have stressed the diverse and multilingual character of the European continent. An ever increasing number of languages have received official recognition, as did the issue of minority languages in the reading of smaller languages or lesser used languages<sup>5</sup>. Accordingly, a large budget was allocated to various programmes promoting multilingualism, as well as a sophisticated and sometimes excessive

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<sup>5</sup> The use of the term minority language can be problematic as it is frequently used with different readings, often to the exclusion of other readings. It can refer to a language that used by a minority of speakers in a political unit (e.g. a country). What is a minority in one country may be a majority in another and have a different political status there, and vice versa. Furthermore, a dominant language of a nation may be a minority language of a community of migrants in others, where it has no official status or cultural roots. In different situations and contexts the problem of minority languages requires different approaches. It is therefore usually insufficient to regard minority languages without a clear definition of what is referred to in a certain context.

infrastructure of translators, interpreters and terminologists. These programmes included *MLIS (Multilingual Information Society)* and the *eContent* (and later *eContentPlus*) programme. Likewise, in recent years, programmes like *Information & Communication Technologies* had foci on content and inclusion. Special programmes offering grant for conference interpreters by the Directorate General for Interpretation also facilitate a multilingual scientific and political dialogue (see [http://ec.europa.eu/grants/index\\_en.htm#info](http://ec.europa.eu/grants/index_en.htm#info), accessed 2009-07-24). In January 2007 a commissioner was appointed who is responsible solely for multilingual issues. Romanian citizen Leonard Orban was the first person to assume this position. But also under other Directorate General, like Education and Culture, special programme lines on multilingualism were pronounced (see [http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/education\\_culture/index\\_en.htm](http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/education_culture/index_en.htm), accessed 2009-07-24).

The EU has adopted a special commitment to minority languages and regional languages promotion in the European Charter of Fundamental Rights, Article 22 ([http://ec.europa.eu/education/languages/languages-of-europe/doc139\\_en.htm](http://ec.europa.eu/education/languages/languages-of-europe/doc139_en.htm), accessed 2009-07-24). As most recent at the time of finalizing this study, the European Commission had published a policy document in September 2008 on promoting multilingualism throughout its areas of activities (see [http://ec.europa.eu/education/languages/news/news2853\\_en.htm](http://ec.europa.eu/education/languages/news/news2853_en.htm), accessed 2009-07-24)

Supported by the EU and UNESCO, the African Academy of Languages (ACALAN) was founded in 2000. The organization cultivates and maintains working relations to the Organisation for African Unity (the former OAU), which is the African counterpart to the EU. Its mission includes the revalorization and empowering of African languages to increase their status in African nations (see ACALAN mission statement, <http://www.acalan.org/eng/aboutacalan/missionvision.php>, accessed 2008-02-22). ACALAN's role as a catalyst for language policies in favour of the indigenous African languages was prompted by the dominant role of the European languages, notably English, French and Portuguese for official communication at national and regional level. Despite the intention of promoting African languages

for the use as official languages of the OAU as early as 1963, this statement has so far largely failed to be put into action, with the exception of Kiswahili<sup>6</sup>.

Two other United Nations organizations that display an increasing interest in terminology policies and awareness of the importance of communication in the indigenous languages are the World Health Organization (WHO) and the Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO). Both employ translation and terminology staff, like most UN organizations, they maintain extensive multilingual terminology databases. The increased awareness concerns the problem that in emergency situations such as epidemics and natural disasters, communication between scientists and experts across the globe, as well as the transmission of data and information between the institutions at grassroots level and research institutes and governing agencies are still not working adequately. Moreover, regular communication and reporting are essential even in routine work to prevent disasters before they emerge and also to improve living conditions of people.

In their *Handbook for Peacekeeping Operations*, the United Nations (UN) stress more than once the importance of using local languages in multiple ways and across the media to inform the people in post-traumatic societies about the role of the United Nations in their country and democratic and conflict management values. They strongly advise their staff in peacekeeping missions to make use of a variety of media from radio via websites to community outreach programmes in the local languages to connect with those who are otherwise easily reached. United Nation's High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) has recognized the potential danger and conflict prone situation in refugee camps where often traumatized people of different cultural and linguistic backgrounds have to coexist in cramped confines under difficult circumstances. Not only in the reconciliation process after conflicts, such as genocide and war, communication and dialogue, are the most crucial activity. Also documentation and registration of

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<sup>6</sup> The O.A.U. in article XXIX of its 1963 Charter states that "the working languages of the Organization and all its institutions shall be, if possible, African languages" (see also ACALAN Mission statement)

the refugees, information about organizational topics, health care services and schooling for future generations make the preoccupation with languages and the availability of terminology imperative. Along the same lines, the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) recommends in their *UN Anti-Corruption Toolkit 2004* repeatedly the use of local languages and lists best practice examples in this accord (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime 2004).

#### **1.4 Knowledge societies and the Digital Divide**

Called the World Summit of the Information Society (WSIS), two international conferences that were sponsored by the United Nations, took place in Geneva and Tunis in the years 2003 and 2005 respectively. Their aim was to search for solutions to bridge the *Digital Divide*. A number of key findings resulting from the conferences concerned content in local languages. All findings were later translated into various *Action Lines*. Representatives from intergovernmental organizations like the World Health Organization, civil society organizations and companies were invited to contribute to the debate and new partnerships were formed.

*“In collaboration with Cisco Systems, the WHO’s Health Academy is a novel approach to improving health through information technology.” [...] “The Health Academy’s mission is to demystify medical and public health practices and to make the knowledge of health specialists available to all citizens of the world...in a language that users can understand taking into account cultural sensitivities.” (Report on the WSIS Stocktaking, 2005: 28).*

Among the commitments, which are attempted to be achieved by 2015 were the encouragement to develop local language content and to put into place systems to facilitate the presence and use of all world languages<sup>7</sup> on the Internet. The general outlook received good prospects for the development of technical

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<sup>7</sup> in the UNESCO-counting of 6000 and more existing languages

conditions like scripts, encoding, multilingual domain names. However, prospects for the use of local content in the Internet were extremely poor. This part therefore poses the real challenge and shows that there is still a long way to go (WSIS Executive Secretariat 2005).

The term *Digital Divide* reportedly appeared first in the early 1990s in reports on the different use of technology by different income groups, genders, etc. (Robinson 2003). It entered popular use a few years later, shortly after the World Wide Web was launched and changed the world of communication forever. Its new meaning of division between technology rich countries and nations and those whose access to ICT was severely restricted, was established along the lines of the World Summit of the Information Society. In the race for the United States presidency in 2000, the bridging of the *Digital Divide* was topicalized by the democrat candidate Al Gore, known for his engagement in social and ecological issues. Some experts still attribute the term to the Clinton-Gore administration, although there are strong doubts about this origin (Gunkel 2003).

Broadly speaking, *Digital Divide* refers to the noticeable gap that exists between those who use Internet and other multimedia devices for communication, and those who do not. Initially the term was used in technical contexts only and referred to ownership of or access to ICT. In recent times increasing emphasis has been put on sociological issues like local content and information literacy, rather than on hardware issues only. This was connected to the rapid increase of availability of cheaper technology and the good prospect for the overcoming of technical hurdles to accommodate the different languages (Sehrt, UN chronicle Number 4/2003).

The Oxford English Dictionary 2008 thus defines the *Digital Divide* as:

*“The gulf between those who have ready access to current digital technology and those who do not; the perceived social or educational inequality resulting from this.”*

Experiments like the much publicised *Hole-in-the-Wall* project in India and other regions show how ICT learning and, along with it, development of technological concepts and even terms, can successfully happen in a natural way from bottom-up within societies rather than being imported from outside. In this project, computers with a few basic programmes and Internet access were provided in stationary, free-to-use terminals to poorly educated slum dwellers in Indian cities. No explanation or tuition was offered. The people were simply exposed to the technology and left alone with it. It was the researchers' aim to find out whether the technology would be used by the people, and if so, by whom and in which way. Would people be able to learn on their own how to make the technology work for them and how long would it take them to create or lose interest. *Hole-in-the-Wall* was primarily conceived as an experiment on minimally invasive education, but its findings offer interesting insight also for terminology planning: While the software interface that was used in the experiment was in English and the users had little or no mastery in that language, they were still able to learn the functionality of the device. Moreover, not knowing the proper ICT terms in English, they made up their own, local terms. An often cited example concerns the hour glass that appears while the machine is processing. This icon, whose concept was obviously not very familiar to the local users was termed "damru" or "Shiva's drum", in an exemplary case of localization of both the concept and the term (see interview with Sugata Mitra <http://www.greenstar.org/butterflies/Hole-in-the-Wall.htm>, accessed 2009-03-17).

More recently, it was re-recognized that the *Digital Divide* does not only exist between rich and poor nations, but rather that a second divide cuts across societies and national entities and separates the educated elites and well-off from the poor, the urban population from the rural, the old from the young and modern, and once again, women from men. Experts therefore speak of the *Dual Digital Divide*, which exists on both sides of the traditional divide, as Canadian researchers have found in the late 1990s (Reddick 2000, Evusa 2005). Thus a return has taken place to the original meaning of the term *Digital Divide*.

An increasing number of mainly young people turn to technology to meet their communication demands, and spend more of their income on technical devices. In developing countries with poor telecommunication infrastructures, mobile service sales experience an unexpected momentum. However, the first glimpse hides the fact that for the larger part of these societies the situation is still different. Especially in urban slum settlements and rural areas, poor connectivity and electricity, security concerns and cultural restrictions prevent universal access.

Those who have the opportunity to use existing technology in telecentres and Internet cafes, often look in vain for content that is relevant for their daily lives and available in a language they master well. Language is often a restricting factor for their active participation in Web 2.0 applications like discussion forums, blogs, or other online networks which have the potential to become valuable interactive media for local content production. Even in Western societies, the predominance of English used to be – and still is for many minority communities, or even the audio or visually impaired – a major hindrance for effective use of the possibilities of the Web. The provision of relevant, locally produced audiovisual content, for illiterate population is also not used to an extent as to be regarded as communication tool suitable for direct use. There are signs that this may change soon. Recently, the popular Social Networking Service *Facebook*<sup>TM</sup> launched its Swahili version in an attempt to attract the growing target market of approximately 170 million speakers of this language in Africa and abroad.

Given the costs involved for surfing the Internet in Internet cafes and even subsidized telecentres, there is little wonder that Internet use has not succeeded in reaching large parts of the population. The Internet is still a typical Western gadget, not only in terms of language use. In its essence it has been envisioned for egalitarian contexts, a tool that is open for everyone to share, and based on written language. As Margreet van Doodewaard explains in her essay on the use of knowledge sharing tools in Africa, these values are not as dominant there as they are in the North.

*“...African communities [...] tend to have a more hierarchical, formal and oral knowledge sharing tradition. Quite a few scholars argue that this will hamper the use of the Internet in knowledge sharing by African people.”*

(Van Doodewaard 2007)

But the *Hole-in-the-Wall* project and other related studies also offer new insight in which ways ICT work best in different societies and cultures – through a thoroughly participatory approach rather than the unaltered import of technology and knowledge from one culture to the other.

### **1.5 Education and literacy**

Language is the major means of human communication. It is also the medium for teaching and transferring specialized knowledge in subject communication. Such communication often concerns experts in the respective field, but it would be a mistake to limit the importance or the angle to expert-expert communication. Terminology plays a much more present, yet subtle, role in the daily life of every citizen. It all starts at home at early ages. Children are born into a specific cultural and linguistic setting and its first verbal communication takes place in the language - or languages - of their parents, their community, and neighbouring communities. Children, as well as adults, are designed to be multilingual, and former claims that multilingualism is bad for the overall development of a personality are no longer scientific state-of-the-art.

It has long been recognized by educationalists – and supported by newer insights in neuroscience - that a child learns best, when it is able to learn in a language he or she masters well and feels at home in (Bühmann/Trudell 2008). This does not necessarily have to be his or her mother tongue, which might not be synonymous with the first language learned. It might not even be the first language at all, as languages learned later in life can become dominant. The situation is particularly complex in contexts of migration or metropolitan settings. In addition to improved learning and knowledge creation, children develop a

natural feeling for the adequacy of a language that he or she uses as medium of instruction throughout education. The learning of second or third languages further helps the child to develop an understanding of language structures and foster individual bi- or multilingualism. India was first to develop the three language formula for her education policy, briefly after independence. Germany and other European states recently emphatically promote the concept of an “adopted language”, where a student, in addition to a large lingua franca like English chooses another – either a neighbouring language or other – and becomes familiar with that language and culture. In either case implementation is difficult and handled differently in different locations.

Strictly implemented language policies have often proven to be hindrances for successful tuition, since in many cases they do not correspond to the actual linguistic situation. In cases where the majority of students or teachers speak a language other than what the policy dictates, often code switching takes place successfully (Chick 2002). This applies to basic literacy learning, science tuition and the procession of complex relations and contexts as well as the learning of further languages.

It applies also - and in particular - to adult literacy education, and the prevention of secondary illiteracy. In this instance the key to success is the provision of relevant and adequate reading material for the students, which in most cases means covering topics regarded as corresponding to daily life of the students and in a language they are familiar with. Adult literacy classes often take place parallel to work life and busy daily routines, which makes it harder for them to learn during evening classes.

Terminology plays a crucial role in this respect. In language communities which lack a proper stock of standardized and popularized (or widely known and accepted and used) terminology, code switching or synonymous use of competing terms in one or more languages is likely to be the choice, rather than the consistent use of another language as medium of instruction. This factor is important when confronted with arguments why tuition in indigenous languages

should be neglected in favour of English or French. Standardizing terminology is a major constituting factor in preparation of the development of teaching material for special subjects as well as for adult literacy, especially in the prevention of secondary illiteracy and the promotion of functional literacy, where relevant, local, often specialised content plays an important role (ibid.).

In addition to these general applications of language and terminology for individual development, there exist a number of language-based professions, evolving from the societal necessity to communicate across cultural, political, physical, educational or linguistic borders. These professions include translators and interpreters, terminologists, localization and ICT experts, journalists (especially scientific or analytic journalists), technical documentation professionals, language planners, public relations professionals.

The mass media have been used in education from early on. Traditional media include text books, maps and charts, reports, specialized newspapers, magazines, etc. But also ICT were soon employed for the purpose of training and education.

Educational programmes have been broadcast first in the US via radio transmission, in special cooperation between universities and broadcasters. Later, also television programmes were designed with educational content packaged in entertainment programmes, documentaries, televised debates and discussion forums on special topics. Interactive parts increased over time, mainly in the form of letters, call-ins or e-mails. Distance education over radio waves and mail correspondence became the major form of tuition in the most remote parts of the world, like the Australian outback. The potential of digital media for interactive learning was recognized and made use of early. E-learning became a new way to teach and learn. This new form enabled greater mobility and proved valuable in distance learning and to communicate with remote areas (UNESCO 2003, Evusa 2005, Salawu 2006).

With programmes like the African Virtual University (AVU, <http://www.avu.org>), a satellite-based distance education programme, designed in 1995 by the World Bank, it was envisaged to provide Sub-Saharan countries with university education in science and engineering, credit/continuing education programs, and remedial instruction. In a network of over 50 national partners and universities the distribution of ICT was promoted in the region.

The University of South Africa (UNISA, <http://www.unisa.ac.za>), Africa's premier distance education and corresponding university is another such example. Major points of criticism concerning such endeavours are the involved costs and impracticability for the students. The media of tuition also play an important role. At AVU the media of instruction are English, French and Portuguese, and UNISA largely employs English, although other African languages are promoted in special programmes and the university has a language policy in line with the government language policy.

## **1.6 Economic and political development, democracy and peace**

It is widely known that only a very small percentage of the world's nation-states are linguistically homogeneous. Even if their borders in the past may have been drawn once along linguistic lines – or, vice versa, their linguistic varieties had been harmonized and standardized to create a linguistically confined nation - these would no longer be valid due to migration, globalization and other largely socio-economic factors (Sager 1985).

Multilingualism appears in different intensity and enjoys different treatment in global comparison. It seems paradox that countries with the largest numbers of ethno-linguistic groups have the least financial possibilities to actively intervene in this regard. This contributes to the predominating idea in many Western societies that only countries with a very small number of languages can be economically strong. While this notion is not completely unfounded, and the number of languages does play a role in this regard, some may argue that

globalization with its favouritism of the English language will turn around, or has already started to do so and those who are prepared to deal with diversity will be the winners of the approaching new world order. This may be seen as the underlying motto of the language politics followed by the European Union, and reflecting unisonous UNESCO canon.

Language legislation and implicit language policies have a potentially job-creating power. Regulations and requirements like those implemented in many EU policies (e.g. the Directive 2006/42/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council on machinery of 17 May 2006<sup>8</sup>) increase the volume of material to be translated and therefore create a market and an infrastructure for all sorts of language-related products and services (Infoterm 2005).

This phenomenon is not restricted to developing countries like in Africa, in which the majority of nations follow a neo-colonial policy and retain the languages of the former masters partly due to an inherited minority complex concerning their indigenous languages and partly in need of a better solution. Even economically strong nations like Germany, respected and admired worldwide for excellence in innovation and production, strong export numbers and a record in “offshore” manufacturing is no stranger to the problem. The debate about German as a scientific and domain language is heated both by language purists who fear about cultural decline in “the country poets of philosophers” (*Land der Dichter und Denker*) (Ammon 1998). But also it is fuelled by more pragmatic arguments, such as a constant redefinition in a changing world. Germany is in an advantage position. Standard German has evolved over centuries; it is used and understood by most of the population of Germany, Austria as well as parts of Switzerland, Italy and Belgium. Other neighbouring countries like France, the Netherlands, Denmark and Czech Republic have considerable competence in German as

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<sup>8</sup> The directive makes it obligatory that “...any written or verbal information and warnings must be expressed in an official Community language or languages, which may be determined in accordance with the Treaty by the Member State in which the machinery is placed on the market and/or put into service and may be accompanied, on request, by versions in any other official community language or languages understood by the operators.” (Art. 1.7.1. Information and warnings on the machinery, Directive 2006/42/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council on machinery of 17 May 2006)

foreign languages and the language is present in and quite fit for almost all spheres of life. Even imported movies and soap operas (regardless if their original version is English, French, Spanish or even Hindi) are translated and dubbed, thus sustaining an entire industry.

*“That people speak more than one language may be true, it may also be true that the dominant linguas franca of the former colonial powers are the official language of a country. But that every citizen has at least a rudimentary proficiency in this language is a myth and couldn’t be further from the truth. 30% of African population speaks a European language.”*

(Antia 2000:xxii)

And yet, even German is in a bad situation. English has slowly taken over. But not as the new mother tongue for Germans, mastered well and used eloquently. It rather slowly crept in, taking over every day language and slang, word for word, until new constructs existed, which do not seem to belong to either of their parents. And as if English would be serious enough a problem, German has to learn to adapt to meet new needs caused by other foreign influences. The influx of migrant workers from southern European countries and especially Turkey from the 1950s onwards has changed the German sociocultural environment fundamentally. As the title suggests, the workers were, in line with dominating world view regarded as guest who would work, earn money, and then leave. The reality was not as easy and the large numbers who stayed one, got married and established families has changed the German demographic landscape in the long term. And the ignorance by German politics has partly contributed to a society with a large, and largely unknown, Turkish population, who does not speak German well enough to feel they have the same chances than their German country-people. Australian linguist Michael Clyne, among others, therefore raise the question of the urgency of a new language policy for Germany (Clyne 2006).

The benefits of addressing linguistic diversity have been recognized by some of the global economic players. Notably some globally operating ICT companies like Microsoft, Siemens, IBM, SAP, were the first to recognize the economic potential and *Return on Investment* of addressing target markets in their language, and thus serve their needs better than a competitor in the same field (Drame 2008).

Market segments and marketing placement play important roles here. Sales numbers are more speaking than pure reason and linguistic arguments. A company has to make profit or it will disappear. Charity and societal development are not their business. In some cases, however, a symbiosis has been created that could be to the mutual benefit for all involved. This symbiosis is expressed in public-private partnerships, like *Microsoft's Language Programme*. For this Microsoft® provides the software, workflow and methodology as well as its prestigious name, and teams up with national and educational authorities in smaller language communities. The goal is to mobilize native speakers or language professionals of this community to develop and provide the terminology the company needs to localize their software. This reduces the company's cost for language development to an absolute minimum. On the other hand, language authorities and the entire language community benefits from the unusual marketing opportunities for their products, from new and innovative ways of project management and the overall exposure along with the display of relevance as a sign for status, immediate applicability, and modernity they often struggle with in their daily work (Drame 2008)<sup>9</sup>.

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<sup>9</sup> See Microsoft <http://members.microsoft.com/wincg/home.aspx?langid=1054> as an example for successful public-private partnerships in the localization of their products.

## 2 Terminology policies

### 2.1 Research on terminology planning and policies – Infoterm and beyond

In order to develop communication strategies for a policy it is necessary to have a thorough understanding of the environment in which they exist and in the principles that guide the policy-making process. This chapter analyses this process of developing and implementing a terminology policy and places it into a framework of planning, governance that is derived from sociological research as well as its sociolinguistic and socioterminological background. Since the focus is on the development of a communication plan, highly communicative activities and phases are identified.

Historically, terminology planning has often been regarded from the point of view of language planning. Its function to expand and develop the lexicon of a language has been regarded by many authors as being part of the corpus planning or elaboration aspect of linguistic engineering or language planning. Antia, after analysing different language planning models, notes that terminology work is typically regarded as a response to challenges posed in the implementation of a new code (Antia 2000:10) in different domains and communicative situations. Lack of terminology in a language may cause speakers to choose another, better equipped one. Hence, terminology planning is from a certain stage in language planning one of the most critical success factors in language planning (Fishman 1983:107ff). Francophone tradition of terminology has also awarded much research on the topic under the title of *L'aménagement linguistique*, in particular in the contexts of francophone Canada and the former French colonies (Corbeil 1980, Diki-Kidiri 2000).

Through organizations like RIFAL (*Réseau international francophone d'aménagement linguistique*), or before that, RINT (1986-2000, *Réseau international de néologie et de terminologie/ International Network for Neology and Terminology*) the primary goal of terminology work for language planning and the development and cultivation of the French language is pursued. Some

attention is given to research of the parallel terminological development of partner languages in the former French and Belgian colonies in the southern hemisphere. The francophone tradition is also characterized by a strong emphasis on campaigns for the continuation of French traditions in the motherland as well as the francophone countries and regions worldwide. RIFAL is funded by the *Agence intergouvernementale de la francophonie* (AIF) in Paris (Molitor 2004:132). However, there is a perceived and real threat by increased status and popularity of the English language, and French is losing ground steadily. The reasons for this are either economical or political. In former Indochina, especially Cambodia and Laos, English is growing in popularity ever since the early 1990s, mainly because it is perceived as language of international trade and globalization (see also <http://www.iht.com/articles/1993/10/16/lang.php>, accessed 2009-03-08). In 2008 the Rwandan government decided to switch the entire education system from formerly French to English. This follows a series of steps directing Rwanda away from the Francophonie towards the British Commonwealth which follows partly the attempt to bring Rwanda closer to its Anglophone neighbours in the East African economic community and commerce with South Africa and partly the result of strong discontentment between the country and France regarding the 1994 genocide in which the latter played a defining role. English was made one of the country's official languages (besides French and Kinyarwanda) directly after the end of that conflict (Source: <http://www.guardian.co.uk/world/2008/oct/14/rwanda-france>, accessed 2009-03-08).

Besides the French-speaking region, important contribution to this field also originates in the Nordic countries. Terminology research tradition in the Nordic countries reaches back to the early 20<sup>th</sup> century. Most terminology activities were connected to the work of specialized or professional organizations. The Nordic countries, which, besides the Scandinavian countries of Sweden, Norway and Denmark, also include Finland and Iceland, are driven by different objectives. Sweden, for example, is home of the largest terminology organization in the region and focuses stronger on terminology work in the industry-related sense while Denmark emphasizes computational issues. In Iceland and Norway

linguistic cultivation and language planning goals are dominating. Through the foundation of Nordterm in 1976 cooperation, mutual inspiration and cross-fertilizing between the languages, harmonization of concepts and areas of specialization was attempted as well as a more effective and cohesive lobbying and cooperation concerning Nordic terminology at the international level (Picht 1999).

Attempts to locate literature on terminology planning from the position of terminology science has brought about a number of articles and papers, some of which by the International Information Centre for Terminology (Infoterm). Because the present study is based mainly on the research tradition by Infoterm which ultimately led to the publication of the UNESCO Guidelines for terminology policies and an International Standard on the development and implementation of terminology policies, it is felt worthwhile to give a chronological overview of some of the most important studies undertaken or supported by Infoterm. This overview is by no means comprehensive. Terminology planning has been topic to language planning and is treated as such in many further publications and studies. It should demonstrate, however, the shift from the linguistic viewpoint to a more general or subject-or application-related approach in terminology planning and thus serve as an example of the historical development of research in this field.

**1986**

Felber, H.

Guidelines on national terminology planning policy in developing countries and countries with not developed terminology work (Infoterm 20-86)

Also published in: the Arab Standardization and Metrology Organization (ASMO); the Arab League Educational, Cultural and Scientific Organization (ALECSO), The National Institute for Standardization and Industrial Property Tunisia (INNORPI).

Paper at the Conference on Arab Cooperation in Terminology, Tunis July, 1986

**1989**

Infoterm

Consultation workshop in Vienna, 31 May-1 July 1989

Results published in Guidelines for a national terminology planning policy  
(Infoterm 12-98en)

**1990**

Galinski, Christian

TKE 90 - Section 9. Knowledge transfer to/from countries with languages using non-European scripts (Infoterm 16-90en)

Budin, Gerhard

The role of terminology planning in International science & technology planning policies (Infoterm 18-90en)

Also published in the conference proceedings of the International Conference on Terminology Planning, Kuala Lumpur, November 1990, by Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka 1993

Felber, H.

Terminology planning - a strategic tool for terminology development, regulation and dissemination (Infoterm 19-90en)

Krommer-Benz, M.

Guidelines for terminology planning in developing countries

International Conference on Terminology Planning, Kuala Lumpur, November 1990

**1991**

Galinski, C.; Budin, G.; Krommer-Benz, M.; Manu, A.

Terminologieplanung und Wissensindustrien (Infoterm 13-91de)

**1992**

International Conference on Terminology Science and Terminology Planning.  
Riga, 17-19 August 1992. IITF publication.

**1993**

Galinski, C.; Lerat, P.

French Language Planning in the French Speaking World.

Budin, Gerhard

Language Planning and Terminology Planning - Theories and Practical  
Strategies (Infoterm 6-93)

Also published in: Draskau, J.; Picht H. (eds.) International Conference on  
Terminology Science and Terminology Planning. Riga, 17-19 August 1992,  
International IITF-Workshop Theoretical Issues of Terminology Science. Riga,  
19-20 August 1992. Vienna: TermNet, 1994, p.85-93 (IITF series, 4)

Budin, Gerhard

Practical Issues in Multilingual Terminology Planning. In: Kruger, Alet (ed.). New  
Perspectives on teaching translators and interpreters in South Africa.

Proceedings of an international conference, March 1993. Pretoria: University of  
Pretoria, 1994, S. 111-119 (Infoterm 8-93en)

**1994**

Galinski, Christian

Fachsprachen- und Terminologiepolitik in Europa (Infoterm 14-94de)

Also published in: Grinsted, A.; Madsen, B.N. (eds.). Festschrift til Gert Engel i  
anledning af hans 70 års fødselsdag. Frederiksberg: Samfundslitteratur, 1994,  
p.248-265

**1999**

Galinski, Christian; Budin Gerhard; de V. Cluver, A.D.

Terminologieplanung und Sprachplanung

<p>In: Hoffmann, L.; Kalverkämper, H.; Wiegand, H.E. (eds.).          Fachsprachen/Languages for Special Purposes. Ein internationales Handbuch zur Fachsprachenforschung und Terminologiewissenschaft. 2. Halbband, Berlin/New York: de Gruyter, 1999, S. 2207-2215</p> <p><b>2000</b>          Antia, Bassegy E.          Terminology and Language Planning: An alternative framework of discourse and practice. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: J.Benjamins</p> <p><b>2005</b>          Infoterm (ed.)          Guidelines for Terminology Policies. Formulating and implementing terminology policy in language communities (UNESCO document). With contributions from an international group of experts, e.g. Gerhard Budin, Sue Ellen Wright, Mariëtta Alberts, Bassegy Antia. Paris: UNESCO</p>
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*Table 2.1 Overview of terminology planning research within the Infoterm network*

The early documents dealing with terminology planning and policy are characterized by a strong focus on national terminology planning activities in developing countries. The process was seen unanimously as special language planning and thus part and parcel of linguistic planning activities of a country, in spite of asserting their intention to general applicability. Especially the documents by Felber focus strongly on terminology science and methodology and take almost no notice on socio-political influences. In these studies, failures are attributed predominately to a lack of resources (Felber 1986:27). However, as Montviloff argues, the problem is not so much the absence of funding but the lacking ability to ensure ongoing commitment of political supporters (Montviloff 1999:115). This view is supported by the management-oriented approach that is assumed in the present study.

Parallel to developments in language planning roughly a decade before a descriptive analysis of the status-quo in developing nations was the subject of Infoterm's further research into the issue. After a Workshop 1989 in Vienna with participants from different countries Terminology Planning Guidelines have been published. Unlike the *UNESCO Guidelines for Terminology Policies* of 2005, these guidelines are less a manual which outline a methodology for the policy-making process but rather of requirements and issues that may be subject of terminology planning and must therefore not be confused. The distinction between reference to *Terminology Planning* and *Terminology Policies* respectively, is therefore relevant in this study.

The *UNESCO Guidelines for Terminology Policies* that were published in 2005 depart from previous studies in the sense that, for the first time, they describe in such detail the pragmatic environment of terminology planning as a crucial factor. While Felber (1986) already lists steps necessary for policy-making, these are (a) primarily informed by the traditional planning paradigm and (b) focussing more of topics to be covered than on the policy-making itself. In the Infoterm study of 2005 focusses on the interaction between the terminology expert as policy-maker and the non-expert decision-maker, e.g. government or management. Most previous studies had ignored the interaction between the two parties. Some recognized their mutual dependency but regarded it as out of the control of the experts to influence political decisions regarding terminology planning (Felber 1986). By introducing a policy-making workflow and various stakeholders, the UNESCO Guidelines pioneered in demonstrating these factors to be actively controllable. It was claimed that they can be positively affected through right and purposeful planning and good management. The terminology expert's influence on their own role and position is a more pro-active one. And with this a set of new skills is required of them.

This new viewpoint of the expert who has the opportunity of being involved in decision-making processes has been met with interest by terminologists of various organizations that deal with language planning, or else have an active interest in terminology management or planning to support their performance. A

number of seminars, publications and other activities followed. Most notably among these were perhaps those taking place within the framework of the European Association for Terminology (EAFT), like the *Round Table and Workshop on Terminology Policies* in 2006, and the *Special Seminar on Terminology Planning and Minority Languages* 2007. Experts from the EAFT and the *Agence Intergouvernementale de la Francophonie (AIF)* are also involved in projects of the *Working Group 4 "Socioterminology" of Technical Committee 37 Terminology and other language and content resources of the International Organization for Standardization (ISO/TC 37/SC 1/WG 4)*. In this working group, in 2006 a project was registered under the standard number 29383, to develop a methodology standard for terminology policy development and implementation.

This enhanced recent interest also reflects the new status that is given to terminology as a central factor in mono- or multilingual specialized communication in the wake of globalization, market interconnectedness, and the development of modern information and communication technology (ICT).

It was the intent of the UNESCO Guidelines to suggest a practical methodology for the formulation and implementation of terminology policies which can be applied across the sometimes vastly different cultural, socioeconomic and administrative environments. This methodology is meant to enable the terminologist to pick activities and know-how as she or he thinks fit for a situation.

## **2.2 Introduction to policy-making - Definitions, explanations and users**

### **2.2.1 Good governance, planning and policies – introduction and overview**

Language and terminology planners have very different and sometimes rather vague ideas of what is meant with planning and policies. In the following section I will therefore elaborate on what I mean when I speak of terminology policies and terminology planning in this study and thus drawing closer to a common understanding of the concept.

The question of how terminology planning and terminology management activities can or should be “regulated” or “ruled” and the fact that a more or less large number of different people are involved in these activities, indicate the close relation with the concepts of *management* or *governance*. While management is often heard in the business environment, others will relate it more to the aspect of *governance* and *good governance*. These are therefore important concepts to be analysed regarding their relevance to terminology policies. From a management point of view, it is useful to take a closer look at different types of planning, how they differ from each other, and – again - what it means for the case of terminology policies. Finally, it is crucial to take a look at how policy studies define the process, how policies are related to management, and how the view of this field has changed in recent years.

#### **2.2.1.1 Good governance**

*Good governance* is a term that is often encountered in connection with development studies and the Intergovernmental Organizations. According to the *United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (UNESCAP)*, donor institutions like the *World Bank* increasingly base their financial help and loans on reforms in compliance with the principle of *good governance*, because its counterpart *bad governance* is now widely regarded as

the cause for many failed foreign aid and development projects and the root of evil in society.

However, the principle can be applied to policy-making in general. Moreover, the perception of whether or not *good governance* is taking place in a concrete case has a vital impact upon acceptance and successful implementation of a policy. *Governance* itself is not a new concept although its use in developmental politics is relatively recent.<sup>10</sup> It refers to

*“...the process of decision-making and the process by which decisions are implemented (or not implemented). Governance can be used in several contexts such as corporate governance, international governance, national governance and local governance.”*

(UNESCAP 2007)

*Governance* puts special emphasis on the analysis of stakeholders, or actors that have an impact on the policy, such as decision-making and implementation as well as infrastructures set in place during the policy process.

*Good governance* is a normative interpretation, usually based on the *World Bank's* definition of *governance*<sup>11</sup>. Organizations such as the *OECD* developed from this basis their own, wider or narrower, definitions and set of rules (Adam 2000). *Good governance* is an ideal which is difficult to achieve in its totality. However, actions must be taken to work towards this ideal to ensure sustainable development; in other words, it is the duty of any *governance* to enable *good governance*. According to *UNESCAP* *good governance* is characterized by eight features<sup>12</sup>.

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<sup>10</sup> The term *governance* was brought to wider attention in the World Bank report “Sub-Sahara Africa. From crisis to sustainable growth. A long-term perspective study”. Washington, DC 1989, p. 60

<sup>11</sup> *ibid*

<sup>12</sup> In contrast to *UNESCAP's* eight characteristics, only four are named by *OECD* and *UNDP* while the catalogue issued by the German Bundesministerium für wirtschaftliche Zusammenarbeit (BMZ) used in German developing work uses five criteria

These features are

*1 Participatory:* Either direct or indirect (through legitimate intermediate representatives) participation without any discrimination. This principle requires free access to unbiased information for the society at large and thus demands warranty of the human rights of freedom of expression and association as well as an organized civil society.

*2 Consensus oriented:* Good governance requires mediation of the different stakeholder interests to reach a broad consensus in order to ensure the policy serves the best interest of the whole community.

(UNESCAP 2007)

Terminology policies depend on a large number of stakeholders from different departments, sectors or communities who will be either passively affected by the policy or have a very specific or concrete active interest in it. It is therefore crucial to enable and empower all these groups to participate in the entire process (see Chapter 2.3.3)



Figure 2.1: UNESCAP characteristics of good governance (UNESCAP 2007)

*3 Accountable:* All policy-making institutions, public or private, must at all times be accountable to the public through its institutional stakeholders (general those who are affected by the decisions). Who these stakeholders are is determined by the special environment and type of policy. (ibid.)

For the terminology policy process this is a crucial point. Terminology planning and policies are typically designed by experts in the field of linguistics, sometimes after undergoing high quality education, but not always. Experts tend to regard a problem from their perspective only and lose sight of the real needs and requirements of those who are the beneficiaries of their work. What seems trivial is often a matter of the “know-do-gap” between what the policy maker knows is the ideal procedure and how s/he behaves in response to the circumstances. Subconscious reactions as avoidance strategies may occur (see Chapter 2.2.1.3)

*4 Transparent:* The policy process is conducted in a manner which follows rules and regulations and can be traced, accessed and monitored freely by all stakeholders. It also means that enough information is provided and that it is provided in easily understandable forms and media.

*5 Responsive:* Stakeholder demands and needs are responded to and served within a reasonable timeframe. (ibid.)

An open, inviting environment in which the changes that will come along with the new terminology policy are well communicated, debated and adapted accordingly helps to create a climate of trust, ownership and a positive attitude towards the new policy (see Chapter 2).

*6 Effective and efficient:* All employed processes produce results that meet the needs of society while making the best (sustainable, environmentally friendly, economic) use of resources at their disposal. (ibid.)

A policy is most successful if it is adapted to the environment in which it is to take place. Therefore solutions that work in some place can not simply and easily be transferred to another without changes. Most importantly a policy should make use of existing infrastructure, legislation, customs and resources in order to sustain (see Chapter 2.3.6)

*7 Inclusive:* Non-discriminatory decisions are taken which enable all groups of a society or community to improve or maintain their well-being.

This point is addressed as soon as a truly inclusive stakeholder involvement is achieved. Yet, it still can happen that grievances remain unaddressed or claims and criticism is ignored or brushed aside by the policy-makers. This may result in a perceived discrimination by those affected and hence lead to negative attitudes. Furthermore, on-the-surface participatory and consensus-driven policy-making still has large potential to hidden discrimination when opinions of minority groups are refused to be taken into serious account, are overruled without proper assessment, or are discouraged from the beginning. More so, there may be a strong, long-standing, history-caused feeling of inferiority among members of some minority groups so that their active participation can not be taken for granted automatically. Instead, it has to be actively encouraged by the policy-maker.

*8 Following the rule of law:* Requires fair legal frameworks that are enforced impartially as well as full protection of human rights, particularly those of minorities. This requires independent, non-corruptive monitoring (ibid.).

This last principle is a reminder to respect legal regulations and not to allow any form of corruption (e.g. by external providers of services or products), not allow for administrative “short-cuts” which are against the law or harmful to any part of society or the organization. Terminologists may feel in a marginal, unobserved place within these. Therefore they might find it easy to circumvent the law, sometimes even without knowing it or feeling they are doing something illegal. An extra amount of caution and adherence to the regulation is important.

Applying these principles can benefit all policy-making initiatives, irrespective of whether they take place in a public or private environment. The policy process described in Chapter 2 is based on the above principles.

Terminology policies are not developed in a political vacuum or even closed system. They are depending heavily on their political environment. The management approach adopted in this study is based on a democratic foundation. A discourse-based terminology management in response to a communication problem (see 2.2.3.2) must be based on the above principles in order to function. Terminology use can only in very few circumstances, which require strict regulation, be prescribed or forced upon the users. And even in such circumstances (e.g. in risk communication) the users first have to agree that (and why) this is necessary, and measures must be taken to prevent non-abidance. Consensus furthermore has to be frequently re-negotiated. Therefore the policy process described in this chapter is designed on the basis of these principles of *good governance*. Communication campaigns, if employed correctly and thoroughly, have the potential to support this.

### **2.2.1.2 From project planning to strategic planning**

Definitions for the concept of *planning* abound. A large corpus of literature from different domains suggests a variety of definitions and seeks to explore its

essence. For example, Merriam Webster Online Dictionary defines planning as an

*“act or process of making or carrying out plans; specifically: the establishment of goals, policies, and procedures for a social or economic unit”.*

<http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/planning>

(accessed 2008-10-11)

A Canadian forestry publication offers the following:

*[Planning] “is an activity devoted to clearly identifying, defining, and determining courses of action, before their initiation, necessary to achieve predetermined goals and objectives.”*

<http://www.forrex.org/publications/FORREXSeries/fs15.pdf>

(accessed 2008-10-11)

In essence, the concept of planning comprises two major points: the achievement of a goal and the central direction of its activity. Planning is a fundamental act of management. It is a cognitive activity which includes predetermination and anticipation of future events and reactions upon particular actions, based on past experiences and under special consideration of time and socio-cultural environment. This can be done either individually or in a group through discussions and exchange of experiences. Planning also includes the formal procedures used in such an endeavor, like the creation of documents, diagrams, or meetings to discuss the important issues to be addressed, the objectives to be met, and the strategy to be followed.

Planning is complex. It can take different forms which require different skills. Which type of planning is employed is determined by the level on which the planning takes place. So while strategic planning takes place on the strategic

level of an organization, planning can also be undertaken on the activity or project level or on the organizational level (Shapiro 2005a). Taking a brief look at the different planning types will show that all of them are applied in policy-making.

1) *Project planning* is part of project management. It describes the phase of the project management process, which focuses on the definition of concrete activities and the work needed to complete each task within a single project. It is the purpose of project planning to create a project plan that which can be used by the controller or project manager to track its progress. Since a project can not be foreseen in its entirety from the start, project planning happens primarily before project start but adjustments in the project plan also occur along the learning process during the entire project.

2) *Action planning* is as well part of, as follow-up, of a strategic plan. It refers to the implementation of a strategy in order to achieve the broader goals and objectives. Action planning is a medium-term process (2-4 years). It guides the day-to-day activities of an organisation or project in order to realize its strategic plan. It is the process of planning what needs to be done, when it needs to be done, by whom it needs to be done, and what resources or inputs are necessary to do it. Action plans form the basis for the establishment of business plans, especially when its purpose is a funding proposal, or a loan application, or to get others to “buy into” the process or project in some way (Shapiro 2005a:11).

Most action plans consist of the following elements:

- a statement of what must be achieved (the results of the strategic planning process);
- establishment of the steps that have to be followed to reach this objective;
- rough time schedule for each step (“when”);
- assignment of personell (“who”);
- allocation of the resources that are needed.

An action planning process results in a practical plan which enables an organization to resource and carry forward the steps needed to achieve its objective(s) and contribute to its long-term goal (Shapiro 2005c). Action plans often serve as checklists as an evaluation tool to test progress on the way to achieve the strategic objective. Thus, action plans are essential means if progress has to be reported to decision-makers, controllers, donors, etc.

Result Area:			
Activity	Time frame (begin by, complete by)	Responsible person	Costs/ inputs

Table 2.2 Basic model of an action plan (Shapiro 2005c)

Both action planning and strategic planning are central processes in policy-making and implementation. Action planning focusses to a far bigger degree on details, while strategic planning has “the big picture” in view. They are therefore very different, almost antipodal processes which require different skills and thinking.

In both, the complexity increases with the growing environment, the scope of the objectives, and the novelty of the process. This often goes hand-in-hand with greater resistance, bigger financial investment and longer transition periods. In any case, no matter how small the frame, these two planning processes need careful realization from the early start as they form the fundament on which all further steps are based and the overall success (or failure) is built up.

3) *Strategic planning* differs from action planning in that it deliberately is not concerned with details of the realisation. To quote Shapiro in her *Planning Toolkit*, stating that

*[a] “strategy is an overall approach, based on an understanding of the broader context”*

(Shapiro 2005a:9)

Strategic planning is large-scale planning for the long-term goals and objectives of an organization, the way future actions are directed towards. This distinguishes strategic planning from all other planning processes. Strategic plans typically look approximately 5 or more years into the future. Action plans need such strategies to be based on in order to determine which actions are employed in which way. Strategic planning is planning in a macro sense while action planning and project planning are micro-planning activities.

In strategic planning, questions concerning the attitude, objectives and mission of an organization are addressed either in general, or in view of a particular problem. These can be an organization’s or a country’s attitude towards diversity issues like minorities, linguistic groups, or economic development and innovation; or it can be a company’s strategy towards social responsibility, customer relations, etc. It describes a general path an organization is to follow on a certain issue.

In its characteristic of setting goals, strategic planning is very close to policy. However, strategic planning includes the identification of critical issues which have to be responded to, a rough allocation of resources and a formulation of a set of logical and creative steps to reach this goal. Thorough strategic planning is the basis for the establishment of immediate objectives and action plans. A strategic plan is not necessarily rigid and binding. In this point it may also differ from policies. It sets parameters for future actions. The general link between policy and planning is not uncontroversial and the question remains, of whether or not policies are in fact consequences of planning (Lincoln Allison, Political Dictionary, retrieved from <http://www.answers.com/topic/planning>, 2008-10-11).

### 2.2.1.3 Policy – a complex process

A clear distinctive line between policy and planning is indeed not easy to draw. It is somewhat of a “hen and egg” discussion. The difficult task is to predict what comes first: Is policy part of planning to initiate change or harmonization of efforts, or is planning what follows once a policy has been accepted and which aims to put policy into action? According to Cullingworth,

*“Planning is a purposive process in which goals are set, and policies elaborated to implement them.”*

(Cullingworth 1997:5)

Collins English Dictionary 1998 defines policy as

*“a definite course or method of action selected from among alternatives and in the light of given conditions to guide and determine present and future decisions”.*

Merriam Webster Online Dictionary follows Collins and adds

*“a high-level overall plan embracing the general goals and acceptable procedures especially of a governmental body”*

(<http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/policy>[1], accessed 2008-10-11]

From these definitions it becomes obvious that policies are both commitments to a medium or long-term goal and guides for action to attain them. While most policies are formal records of aims, aspirations or decisions it would be wrong to regard *laissez-faire* approaches as the absence of a policy. It might indeed be a policy not to have a policy.

Most definitions are either kept very broad, like the above, or focussing narrowly on a certain type of policy. A reason for this may be that almost each

professional sector develops policies of some sort, and most have to define for themselves how this policy should look like, what its scope should comprise. One widely held fundamental premise is that any system and service will perform better and more efficiently when it is governed by a policy. Resources will be allocated more targeted and results better utilized.

In political and administrative science the policy cycle is a concept that has been developed by analyzing large numbers of policies. It is based on the assumption that policy-making, under normal circumstances, takes place over several different, more or less subsequent, phases (see Figure 2.3).

- Recognition and definition of a problem
- Agenda setting
- Policy formulation & decision-making
- Policy implementation
- Policy evaluation and decision to continue or terminate

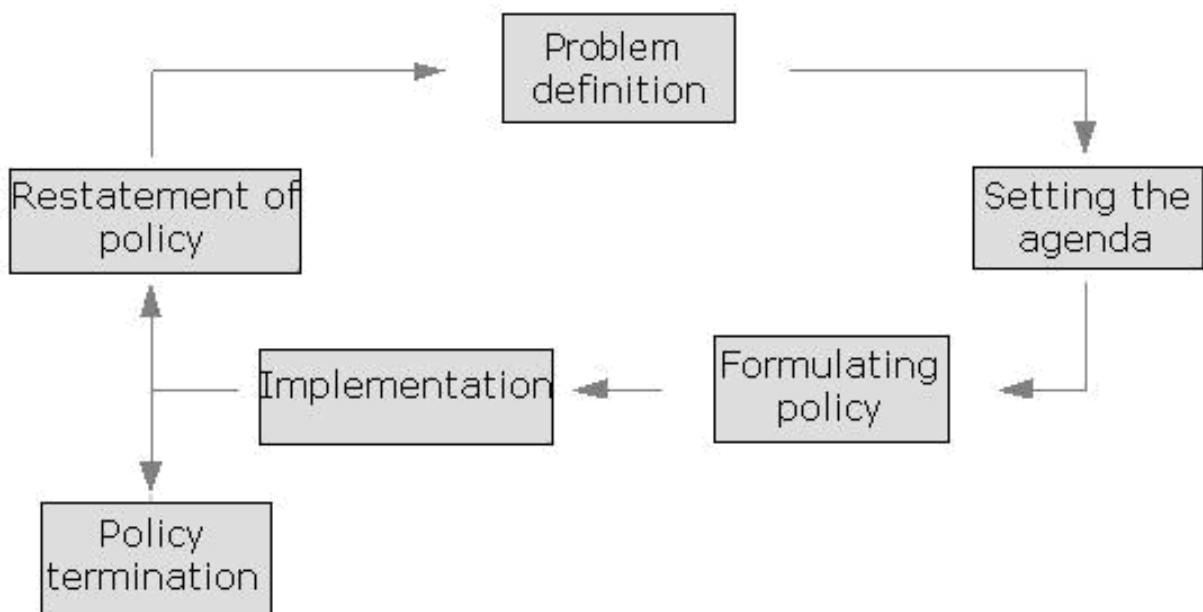


Figure 2.2 Model of a linear policy cycle ([http://www.dadalos.org/politik\\_int/politik/policy-zyklus.htm](http://www.dadalos.org/politik_int/politik/policy-zyklus.htm), accessed 2008-10-11)

For a public policy the scenario this could look as follows: The public becomes aware of an issue as a problem and, because of demands being made by certain groups and dominant values in society, this problem is defined as a problem on which action needs to be taken (*problem definition*). This problem then becomes part of the political decision-making agenda, which means that a decision has to be made as to *who* will deal with the problem *when* and in *what form* (*agenda setting*). Then, accompanied by lobbying and political argument, the process of formulating the political position takes place within the set of rules laid down by the individual political system and by its protagonists. This process ends with the presentation of an authoritative assignment of value in form of a law, a provision or a program (*policy creation*). This policy is then given its final structure during the implementation process involving sub-ordinate political and administrative protagonists (*implementation*). The results and effects of these policy and implementation decisions finally create political reactions of either a positive or negative nature, which, in turn, are also implemented politically, and which lead to the continuation, change or end of the policy (*restatement of policy, policy termination*). This scenario describes the so-called linear or common-sense model and leads to the following conclusions<sup>13</sup>.

- 1) It suggests that policy making is, although a networking process in which different interest groups are involved is still a top-down process, taken care of entirely by a ruling entity and with little responsibility of the people;
- 2) Policy-making is a linear and reason-driven driven process in which steps follow in a subsequent manner and build up on each other. Policy makers approach issues rationally and carefully consider all relevant information;
- 3) Policy-making is a highly motivated and official process, which is in the interest of decision makers and takes a high priority and leads to a tangible and regulative product (a law, a provision, a program);
- 4) Policies regardless of scope and extent of change are covered by this model;

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<sup>13</sup> see also Müller/Schumann [http://www.dadalos.org/politik\\_int/politik/policy-zyklus.htm](http://www.dadalos.org/politik_int/politik/policy-zyklus.htm), 2009-09-21

5) Implementation and monitoring/evaluation are fully-fledged parts of the policy process.

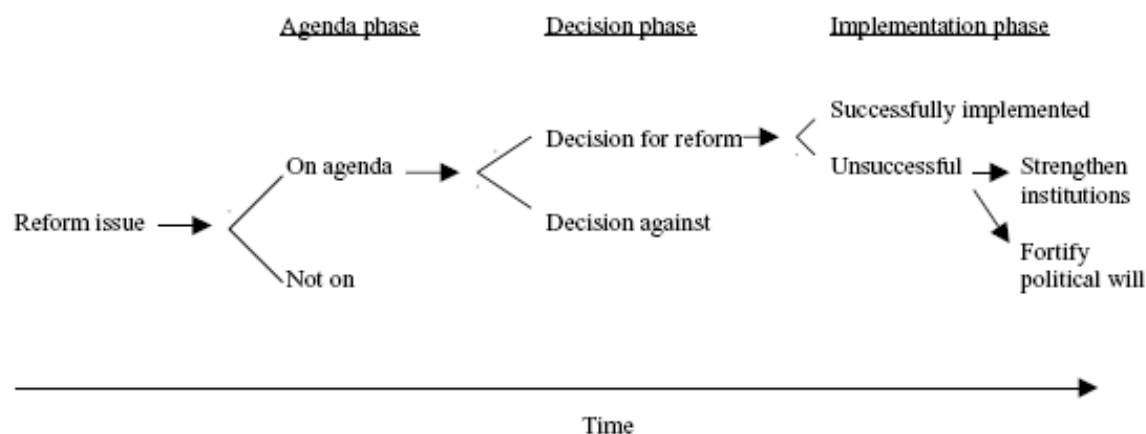


Figure 2.3 Linear model or common-sense model (Grindle and Thomas, quoted in Sutton 1999:9)

Political science offers another model which focusses to a greater extent on descriptiveness and is used in political education. This model shows policy-making as an endless chain of decisions that attempts to resolve present and future problems in society.

The alternative model that Müller and Schumann propose below consists of six phases:

“1st phase: The public become aware of an issue as a *problem*. Thus, because of demands being made by certain civic and political groups, a latent problem in society is transformed into a political problem, which in turn provokes politics into action.

2nd phase: This political problem leads to *disagreement and argument* between different political and civic groups.

3rd phase: The problem is transformed into a political and administrative *decision* whereby no decision can also be regarded as a decision.

4th phase: This decision is eventually given firm *structure by subordinate political and administrative players, by civic groups and organizations and by individuals.*

5th phase: The decision, the implementation of the decision and the result and effects of the decision are then evaluated, resulting, finally, in *reactions* of either a positive or negative nature.

6th phase: These reactions, in turn, are also implemented politically leading to a *continuation*, alteration or conclusion of the problem (...).”

(Federal Centre for Political Education 1994:21-24, quoted on [http://www.dadalos.org/politik\\_int/politik/phasenmodell.htm](http://www.dadalos.org/politik_int/politik/phasenmodell.htm))

This model demonstrates that the policy-making process is far more complex and dynamic in a democratic environment, which by nature demands that positions and decisions are in constant need of correction and revision, and that new solutions must be continually sought. Better than the linear model, it allows for the integration and description of communication strategies and awareness campaigns.

Rebecca Sutton argues that policy-making is a far more chaotic process than the linear model or the policy cycle suggest. She argues that the importance of interest and power groups who do not necessarily work in one direction or toward a common goal is often underestimated when these models are applied. She also describes a number of alternative models. One of these is the *incrementalist model*, a descriptive model which maintains that policy-makers look only at a small number of alternatives when dealing with a problem and tend to choose the option that differs only marginally from existing policies. This emphasizes the preference of consensus in decision-making as opposed to finding the optimal but perhaps more controversial solution. This model is based on two very important change management principles: smaller changes are more readily accepted and major changes occur through a series of small steps. The *incrementalist model* foresees the continued correction of mistakes along the process. (Sutton 1999:10)

The *Federal Centre for Political Education Germany (Bundeszentrale für politische Bildung)* stresses the danger that is inherent in the linear model. They argue that it is counterproductive to democratic processes in that it leads to dramatic misconceptions and fails to stimulate participatory activism in society. This in turn leads to indifference towards collectivist and constant approaches to reach innovation and the search for simple solutions as offered by extremists.

(Müller/Schumann 2000,

[http://www.dadalos.org/politik\\_int/politik/phasenmodell.htm](http://www.dadalos.org/politik_int/politik/phasenmodell.htm), 2009-08-21).

Like the *UNESCO Guidelines for Terminology Policies*, I adopt a mixed model, or a simplified alternative model for the description of the terminology policy process. The reason for this is that it is flexible and open enough to cater for different types of policies while at the same time being simple enough to be a reliable instrument for empirical analyses or in contrastive studies of different systems.

For a policy-maker, the linear or rational model bears the danger of wrongly estimating what is required to get to a positive decision and continued support by assuming that decision-makers follow the same line of reasoning about a problem. Through familiarizing with the way decision-making is handled in the particular situation and by generally being aware of its complexity, the policy-maker is able to design the strategy accordingly and responsive to the situation.

Policies can take on several forms. Most frequent is the concept of policy as a legally binding, written statement by a government or ruling party. But policies do not only appear in the form of legislation. Hill distinguishes between primary and secondary documentation. Primary documentation are conventional documents, which correlate to the public notion of policy. Besides these documents, policies can take a number of other forms, e.g. speeches or texts issued by officials or ministers, which can appear on their or their party's websites or in newspaper articles or can be uttered during official addresses or press conferences. These forms which do not take the conventional form are called secondary policies (Hill 1994).

In commercial and non-commercial organizations the situation is different. Policies, like a company's *Equal Opportunity Policy*, or action plans concerning social responsibility are typically statements outlined in annual reports, on the Website, in commercials and advertisements, certification documents and other forms. Other issues, such as the use of language and formalities or the employment of flat or steep hierarchies, are often just silent agreements of old conventions or unwritten or common rules. In other words, they are the organization's social norms.

An organization's overall policy on a certain topic can consist of a multitude of chronologically or sectorially scattered action lines and statements. Stand-alone, all-encompassing policies are rare. This is not surprising, considering that many policy areas are interdisciplinary or span various departments. However, it is problematic when this fragmentation becomes contradictory or counteractive. It is then prone to misinterpretation and provides incomplete and disambiguate information. The ultimate goal in such situations would therefore be harmonization, or the integration into a complete and comprehensive strategic framework.

This diversity can be summarized the following way:

*“Policies may be developed at the organizational or institutional level (micropolicies) or at the national, regional or international level (macropolicies). Policies are embodied in so-called policy instruments. These can be of the following kinds: legal instruments (constitution, parliamentary act, laws, regulations, international treaties, etc., professional instruments (codes of conduct, professional ethics, etc.) and cultural instruments (customs, beliefs, traditions, social values, etc.)”*

(Montviloff 1999:7)

### **2.2.2 What is a terminology policy?**

Few people can spontaneously name a particular example for a terminology policy. One of the most often asked – and unanswered – question is that of the typical features, and typology of terminology policies. What is restrictive in answering this question is its prevailing diversity. Firstly, the role and status terminology planning and management have in an organization or language community is quite diverse, and in many areas radically evolving and changing constantly, making it difficult to find reliable and stable data. Terminology policies can be found on all levels and in nearly all organizational structures. Furthermore, it is determined by many economic and socio-cultural factors, like

- political ideology and governance structures (democratic governance v. dictatorship);
- administrative culture (flat v. steep hierarchies);
- socio-economic development (financial and political priorities);
- tradition (background in certain scientific or cultural schools or traditions)

Terminology is a cross-cutting, horizontal issue, which has an impact on all scientific, technical and other domains. In most cases a terminology policy is often handled individually by each of these domains according to its own demands and rules. As mentioned earlier, stand-alone terminologies are very rare. More frequently they are implied in broader policy statements of the parent organization. Or, in other cases, formal statements are embedded in related broad legislation. In a national context a mix of all these forms is also possible (Montviloff 1999:25).

Being embedded in other policies and domains they are not always formulated explicitly, but are likely to be established customs, experiences and subconsciously followed norms. Trial and error have led to best practice models which are followed without ever being officially approved. They therefore do not exist in written form, let alone as some sort of legally binding document.

Principally, any conscious decision regarding the handling of the resource terminology can be considered as terminology policies. Even a statement like “we do not care about terminology” would theoretically classify for a policy, too.

Reliable empirical studies will only possible once research criteria have been established on the basis of this diversity. To date these are still lacking and I have to refer to the working definition and classification offered in the *UNESCO Guidelines for Terminology Policies*, according to which a (national) terminology policy is a

*”strategy aiming at developing or regulating emerging and existing terminologies for an array of purposes”.* (Infoterm 2005:4)

This refers to the evident need for different types of terminological data for different user groups. Or even within the same user group different purposes and applications may require very different degrees of complexity and detail. For this reason it is advisable to conceive the terminology policy non-exclusive (regarding multilingual, multimodal and multimedia issues) (ibid.).

In many cases terminology policies are developed either as crisis management measure, after some severe problem was caused by terminological inadequacies. These cases, while one may argue the motivation, are still lucky cases for the terminologist as a policy-maker and change agent since they ensure enhanced attention and a more open reception and positive attitude towards the policy proposal. From the viewpoint of the *Diffusion of Innovation* theory, a strong need precedes the innovation.

Unfortunately, one can not conclude from these examples that lessons are learnt by managements and other social leaders and applied BEFORE such an acute need emerges. Such terminology policies that are developed in anticipation of possible future needs are called *preventive innovation*. Motivation is weak in these cases as it is not sure whether the investment in the innovation will benefit

the organization or community or, in other words, there will be a return on investment (Rogers 2003: 176).

Any terminology policy is likely to address one or more of the following issues:

- the development of terminological products, like resources and repositories as well as services. The latter includes generation, collecting and standardization of terminology, the availability of necessary human resources, technology and facilities;
- the rights and restrictions of access to terminological products;
- the dissemination of information about available resources to potential users and contributors.

This key issue indicates the important role of awareness campaigns not only in the policy-making but as an area to be regulated by the policy. The dissemination of information makes a communication plan, which initiates and coordinates public relations and marketing activities a fundamental necessity and may call for the creation of infrastructure and manpower.

Terminology policies may also promote the use of terminology, a topic that is sometimes called implantation. Raising awareness on how to find, to access, and to correctly utilize products, services and tools, through training courses and learning material play an important role here, as do marketing strategies such as jingles, videos, trinkets and newspaper clips. Such strategies provide the potential users not only with information they need, but at the same time improve perception among them concerning the value and benefits of using the new infrastructure, services or tools.

## 2.2.3 Language and terminology planning – same but different?

### 2.2.3.1 Language planning

There are numerous case studies on language planning, and many of these also stress the role of terminology. The development of the specialized lexicon has been part and parcel of language planning models from early on and is still largely regarded as an important part of many language planning initiatives. This view is limiting the role and functions of terminology, and represents only one of the perspectives under which terminology planning can be seen today. Terminology planning is strongly influenced by language planning. In the South Africa of the past decade, language planning was the primary objective of terminology planning. Therefore, I will begin with summarizing the thorough analysis of language planning models and their treatment of terminology planning by Bassey Antia (Antia 2000) as well as a study on the relation between the two by Gerhard Budin and Christian Galinski (Galinski, Budin, de V Cluver 1999).

Designation and definitions of language planning have long been discussed in the scientific community. What is known today as language planning goes back to Einar Haugen. In attempts to refine the term, it has also been labelled *glottopolitics*, *language engineering*, *language management/aménagement linguistique*, *language development* to name only a few, depending on whatever trends or schools of thought were followed. Definitions are also manifold. Karam (1974), for example, described language planning as the management of linguistic innovation. After a comparison of 12 different definitions, each of which viewing the field from a different angle or perspective, and thus restricting it in one way or the other, Robert L. Cooper came up with a broad and non-restrictive definition in 1989. In his view, language planning can neither be claimed as an activity solely handled by governments or other special societal groups. Neither can a *one-size-fits-all* methodology be applied, but rather a mixture of methods and approaches can properly describe language planning in its variety (Cooper 1989).

*“Language planning refers to deliberate efforts to influence the behaviour of others with respect to the acquisition, structure, or functional allocation of their language codes”.*

Cooper 1989,  
quoted in Galinski, Budin, de V. Cluver 1999: 2207

Language planning as an independent scientific discipline has not emerged before the 1960s. One of the earliest studies, Rubin and Jernudd’s *Can language be planned?* (Rubin/Jernudd 1971) takes into account its interdisciplinary nature, and highlights the state of the art of that decade, featuring contributions from economics, law and social sciences besides linguistic studies. Through the study of cases they attempted to provide a basis for a general theory.

The emergence of language planning as a scientific discipline coincides with the newly acquired or received independence of many former colonies in the Third World in the 1950s and 60s, and an apparent need for mechanisms concerning language policies as a requirement for, and instrument of nation building. These efforts included the development of national, endogenous languages<sup>14</sup>, to be used as media of communication in administration, education, mass communication, political propaganda, etc. These efforts, unlike natural language development, were aimed towards a speedy overhaul in order to make up for decades or even centuries of negligence and oppression. In most cases the idea of catching up in terms of socio-economic development as an indirect result of language development might have played a role as well.

Language policies are in fact a characteristic feature of the modern nation-state. The need for nation-building and integration as well as a more intimate interaction between state and citizens created the necessity, and possibility, for governmental regulation regarding language-related behaviour. Moreover, the role of language as a powerful political symbol is also a recent development. This

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<sup>14</sup> For a definition of endoglossic language policies in Africa see Reh/Heine 1981.

does not mean that it is a new concept. Even in archaic societies language was used symbolically. Mauro Tosco describes the example of the Dhaasanac tribe in Kenya, who used the language of its neighbours, the Turkana, for singing their war songs. Citing Brenzinger, he also gives evidence of deliberate, conscious decisions regarding language in African societies long before independence and modern nation-building: As a result of a public meeting of the entire tribe of the Yaaku people of Central Kenya in the early 1930s, the decision was made to give up their traditional Cushitic language in favour of the Maa language which belongs to the Nilotic language family. This decision was of course not done at random, but rather out of very pragmatic reasons. The Maa language was already used as a lingua franca in the region for a certain time (Tosco 2003).

In line with changing world politics and shifting global loyalties during the era of *Cold War*, the methods applied in language planning varied tremendously with the ideological loyalties of the new ruling political powers. The new discipline sought to analyse different possible problems and methods in order to arrive at general valid properties and theories which would be adequate for application in any context<sup>15</sup>.

I have mentioned before that the term language planning goes back to Einar Haugen, whose classic model, based on the Norwegian language situation, has been very influential. Haugen's model comprises of two by two dimensions: the view of language according to norm and function as well as planning process evaluation according to society and language.

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<sup>15</sup> See Fishman, Ferguson, Das Gupta (eds.) 1968

	Norm	Function
Society	(1) Selection	(3) Implementation
Language	(2) Codification	(4) Elaboration

*Table 2.3 Haugen's model of language planning*

Over the years, Joshua Fishman, Joan Rubin and other language planning experts have challenged this basic model by trying to amend and add to it. However, Haugen always defended the comprehensiveness and inclusiveness of his original scheme (Cobarrubias/Fishman 1983). He furthermore rejected any proposals to limit language planning to government actions.

The various language planning models mirror to a large extent the trends in general policy-making and planning models. Antia observes, that

*“In their barest essentials, many issues in language planning theory have arisen from a ventilation of one or the other subdivision in language planning” (...)* *“or of the entire process. Issues that have been quite prominent in the literature include: the auspices of, or authorisation for, language planning, degree of preparation for the process (as witnessed by, among others, cost-benefit valuations), the sequence of planning stages, the agents of planning, its ideological nexus or the particularistic directions in which it is pulled, the different environments in which it is concluded, the nature of the products, evaluation, etc.”*

(Antia 2000:2)

Kloss was the first to use the division of activities into *corpus planning* and *status planning* in 1969. At a later point this was broadened further by adding *acquisition planning* to it. Status planning hereby refers to the designation of the official status a language has, either in society at large or in certain domains, communities of use or other sub-groups of this society. Further, it includes creation of the necessary premises to ensure the language can fulfil the requirements according to its designated status.

Corpus planning refers to the development and standardization of a language as such, i.e. its corpus. Depending on the language, corpus planning may include standardization of grammar, orthography, selection of a standard variety, choice or creation of a writing system, or assembling of a literary corpus. In recent years language technologies have penetrated ever further into linguistic communities and linguistic areas. These technologies support and foster corpus planning, vice versa their application for communicative purposes has to be taken into consideration, too, which means questions like Unicode-representation of its sounds and letters, word segmentation rules for computational linguistics, phonetics for speech recognition, among others. Language planning therefore increasingly also means making languages fit for their “digital life”.

On the one hand, corpus planning is a prerequisite to obtain an official status, on the other hand, once a language has received a status, this often has positive implications on work concerning its corpus, too. The two areas of status and corpus planning therefore are mutually interdependent and often inseparably interwoven.

Acquisition planning has been added later in acknowledgement of the demands of an increasingly multilingual society - traditionally or due to migration - and the question of second and foreign language learning, choice of the medium of instruction in education and domain-related and vocational training (Antia 2000:4).

A great area of interest in language planning is concerned with the development, expansion and standardization of the specialized lexicon. This area marks the

overlapping field with terminology planning, which will be analysed more detailed in the following part of the thesis.

Language planning serves the purpose of developing a language to a functional medium for specialized communication, and, with this, as a symbol for scientific or technological development of a nation or community. Furthermore, if a language lacks the means to be used in a domain or application it will be replaced by another, either more adequate or easily available language.

Antia observes a gradually growing criticism in the 1980s concerning the language planning paradigm of what is called the *Rational Model*, and which dominated discourse for two decades (Rubin 1983: 330). The *Rational Model* was criticised by scholars for similar reasons as the linear model in policy studies, namely in that it focuses too narrowly on public actors and neglects the immense power of private or individual non-governmental stakeholders. It was furthermore criticised for separating planners from implementers and from target groups. This is the model (called also *Canonical Model* or *Ideal Planning Model*) that was described extensively in *Can language be planned?* Its major criticism is based on the fact that it limits all decision-making on language planning to politics and a centralized government without taking into account the influence and less organized actions undertaken by individuals and non-government stakeholders. It led to a shift in paradigm in language planning theory that is regarded state of the art in many countries today.

From these arguments the *Alternative Planning Model* has been developed. This model, whose advocates included scientists like Bamgbose, Karam, Alishjahbana, Khubchandani, Brann, and Okonkwo, takes into account the above mentioned issues by admitting the role of prominent public figures, the mass media, different ministries and language planning agencies play especially in the implementation of a language policy, but stops short of recognizing an overall decentralized approach and language planning in other than national contexts. The focus on national language planning is not surprising, considering the major driving forces behind most research in the early language planning days.

Nevertheless it is an indicator of the general paradigm shift towards greater autonomy and decentralization. Not only do the actors in the *Alternative Planning Model* implement government decisions, but they also undertake initiatives of their own design (Antia 2000).

Antia observes a clear paradigm shift in the work of Jernudd. Together with Neustupný he moves away from the idea of language planning towards what he calls language management. This paradigm shift is marked by two major hypotheses. The first of these concerns authorization and workflow. While in the old language planning theory a central authority (e.g. a government or agency authorized by a government, language management takes into account the criticism of the *Rational Model* with regard of other than central planning initiatives, which can be designed and implemented uncoordinatedly and by individuals or professional associations, and have a much greater impact on language behaviour than any government action. The second point of the language management model is that any action to be taken, with regard to a language, must be determined in discourse as a direct response of a communication problem. Language management is

*“a process through which particular people are given the authority to find and suggest systematic and rigorous solutions to problems of language potentially or actually encountered by members of their community”.*

(Jernudd 1991, quoted in Antia 2000: 8)

While Antia embraces this departure, he voices scepticism with regard to the renunciation altogether of the term language planning in favour of *management*. He takes issue in particular with the fact that language planning is still listed as a type of language management in Jernudd. Antia argues that this would imply that a new, parallel model exists alongside the traditional model instead of a reform of the old model taking place. As a proof for a true reform of the traditional language planning he lists some research and situation-bound or grassroot language planning examples from West Africa (Antia 2000: 3-9).

Considering the case of South Africa, I am hesitant in subscribing to the idea of a full reform of language planning. For me the question arising from this debate, whether there has indeed taken place a reform in language or terminology planning towards greater decentralization, or whether government is still the major planning actor, is not easy to be answered. From observation I suggest that mixed types with elements from both models can be found at varying degrees in the different language communities or nations.

South Africa, at the one hand, has a sophisticated central and government-initiated terminology planning infrastructure, including national and provincial language boards, lexicography units, etc. On the other hand, additional terminology planning is taking place to a great extent in private initiatives, the mass media, and associations. By far not all of these coordinate their actions with these central authorities. Yet, they are powerful parallel structures.

The question of who plans terminology has been asked by Antia, and he follows suggestions by Neustupný that developing countries typically follow the traditional policy approach whereas in most developed nations a cultivation approach can be observed (Antia 2000:15). Obviously, this can not be generalized and has to remain incomplete, unless we would consider countries like Canada among the developing ones. Both approaches influence each other and a strong governmental policy along with economic development may be a catalyst for stronger cultivation. However, this requires a rigorous, strong and flexible policy that is able to adapt and change, in order to succeed. If indeed a true and full reform would have taken place, the language (and terminology) plan would foresee coordination mechanisms for private initiatives.

### **2.2.3.2 Terminology planning**

Terminology planning as a separate discipline or research field is even younger than language planning and much less studied. Among the first papers and documents to explicitly mention *terminology planning* or *terminology policy*, are a

small number of Infoterm documents, notably by Felber, Budin, Galinski and Krommer-Benz<sup>16</sup>. While many articles on language planning recognize the prominent role of terminology FOR language planning, the above mentioned studies propagate separate treatment of terminology planning wherever applicable, on the basis of experiences and developments from terminology science. The early studies argue in particular in favour of assigning additional financial and human resources to the development of scientific or technological terminology.

In their publication *Terminologieplanung und Sprachplanung*, the authors introduce the concept of communication planning as an umbrella covering both language and terminology planning. Both activities are regarded as related but separate, and striving for the same goal, the improvement of communication. The study outlines the area in which language and terminology planning overlap, and which requires separate research and handling, independent from either language planning and terminology. This is the area on which this thesis focuses. Apart from this area language and terminology planning are displayed as two distinctive fields with their own target groups, requirements and methods (Galinski/Budin/de V Cluver 1999).

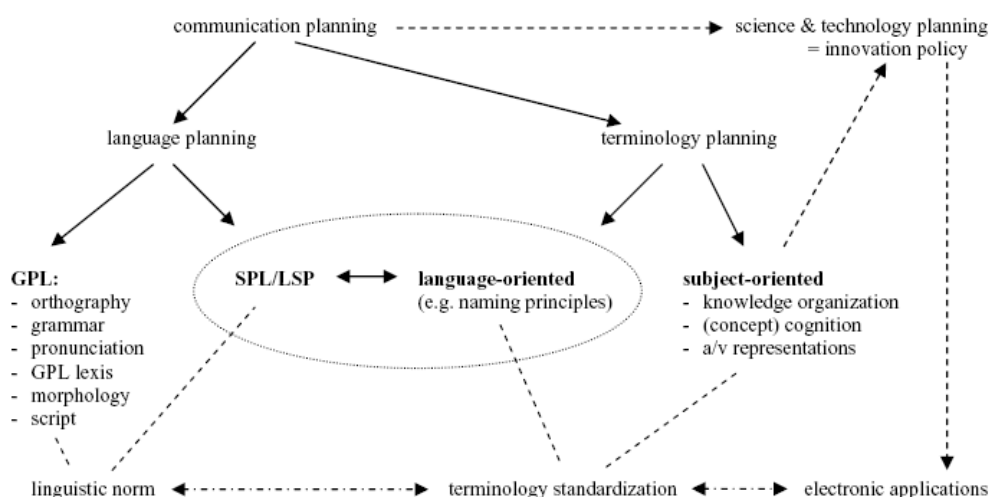


Figure 2.4 Overview of some communication planning concepts (Galinski/Budin/de V Cluver, 1999)

<sup>16</sup> also see overview in Chapter 2.1

The model can thus be simplified and at the same time show its interconnectivity with other applications and policy fields. In reality the network character is far more complex than pictured here but for the sake of clarity I have decided to highlight the graphical representation of further interdependencies, and restrict myself to mentioning them.

Unlike language planning, whose goal is the development and implantation of a language at large for a particular use in society or parts thereof, terminology planning is primarily concerned with the improvement of communication within a domain or community of use. Terminology planning is a management process which is goal-oriented. Therefore the main aim of terminology planning is to make specialized, or subject-field communication clearer, more comprehensive, and less cumbersome and ambiguous. It regards this matter entirely independent of the status of any particular language and does not aim to to develop it further or uplift it as such. Furthermore, terminology planning also covers areas which are not directly linked to language planning. These are for instance the fields of knowledge organization or cognition, which relate to a subject field rather than to a language.

However, the connection to language planning is still immense. Firstly, domain communication happens primarily via language. Concepts can be represented in very different modes. Sometimes, especially in the natural sciences, more than one form of representation can occur in parallel. Which one is used, depends on the application and context. In the vast majority, though, they are represented linguistically. Or, from perspective of a corpus planner, Fishman (1983: 109) notes that *“the lion’s share of corpus planning is certainly terminological”*. Secondly, from the perspective of subject-field communication, terminology planning can not only be monolingual, concerning a particular language as in language planning, but multilingual from the start. This characteristic reflects the difference in the objectives of both fields and the object to be developed. In language planning it is a language and in terminology planning a domain (Infoterm 2005). Thirdly, terminology planning of a domain or community of use

can be completely independent or even in opposition to a national language policy. One reason could be international legislation superseding it, like in the example of air traffic and aircraft maintenance communication and documentation. Another reason may be tradition, with the example of the use of Latin and Greek in the biosciences. Humanities and social sciences typically are the most likely subject fields to be in accordance with, reacting to, or reflecting language policies.

The aspect of terminology planning that includes non-verbal and non-linguistic elements, like audiovisual signals or even tactile or haptic representations of concepts, is not subject of this dissertation. The differentiation between terminology planning and language planning is largely a matter of different perspectives and priorities. Priorities are subject to frequent change and sustainable terminology planning in itself is a complex matter and adheres to its own rules. All the above arguments speak in favour of independent policies regarding terminology rather than treating terminology as isolated components, embedded in other policies. Such a singular policy is more flexible, manageable, and can better integrate with language, information, development, and other policies and adjust to changing environments, needs and situations. Language planning is not the only field with the tendency to limit terminology to its own cause and needs. Budin observes that many subject fields view terminology planning as natural part of their discipline alone without recognizing its much more complex potential. They are thus restricting terminology planning to their domain and claim universality of their own approach (Budin 1993a).

On the basis of the graph by Galinski, Budin and de V Cluver and for the purpose of this study I propose the following visual representation of the interrelation between the fields.

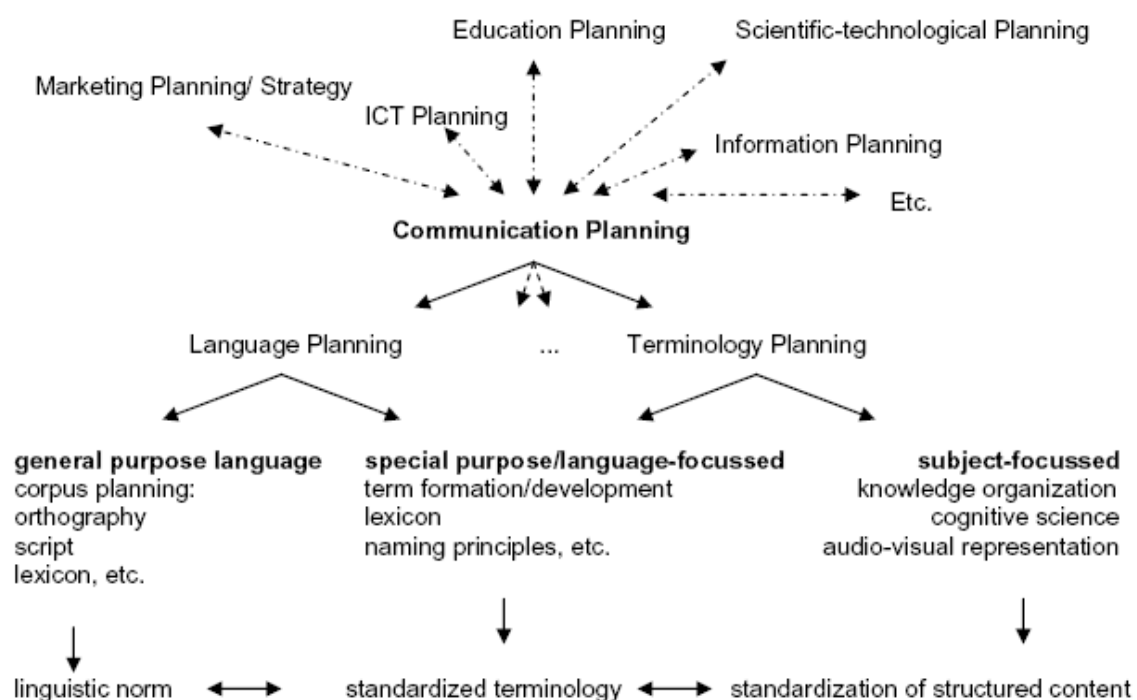


Figure 2.5 Communication planning in context (revised version of table 2.4)

The coordination of terminology policies with other strategic areas and policies concerning general development of a nation (or an organization for that matter) is of crucial importance. Terminology is an integral part in all development fields from education to economy, arts and culture to health. Adding a terminology policy to these sectors can support and improve their primary activities. With their increasing interconnectivity harmonization in the use of resources, the management of data and workflow may become the key issue for their successful operation. Overlapping may take place in particular with information policies. According to Montviloff, the

*“goal of a national policy on information is to attain access to and optimal utilization of the specialized and professional knowledge, the scientific, technical, social and economic information and expertise generated and/or available”*

(Montviloff 1990:12)

### 2.2.3.3 Terminology standardization and harmonization

It is necessary to look again at the different levels in which terminologies are created, standardized, and used. Inside a scientific or technological community, terminology is a product that is created by specialists in the wake of an innovation (Sager 1985). But before it becomes established within a user community, it undergoes a full process of negotiation and consensus building on various levels, first within the department of its creation, later within the greater structures (the faculty, scientific peer groups, user groups, etc.). It is thus already a social construct when it enters its first database or is translated for the first time. This social acceptance process does not end here, but rather increases in its complexity during its lifespan. This process is not necessarily linear and can, depending of the subject-field, be socio-politically influenced. Sociolinguistic and psychological factors which have an impact on the acceptance of terms in communities or the larger society were described in the past mainly in view of their efficiency, rationality or economy, beauty and clarity (Antia 2000: 11). These studies are not quite satisfying as they do not fully explain why some terms are accepted by speakers while others are not. To date we are still lacking exhaustive scientifically consolidated findings which explain statistics on term implantation<sup>17</sup>. Fishman was among the first to lament the strict view of terminology as part of corpus, the lexicon, and linguistics. He already recognized the important influence of sociocultural factors on terminology.

*“It is a devastating mistake to assume that corpus planning merely requires the interplay and coordination of linguistic expertise and technological expertise, devastating certainly if one’s goal is not merely to do corpus planning (i.e. not merely to create a nomenclature in chemistry, or in some other modern technological area) but to have it accepted (i.e. to have it liked, learned and used). If the latter is our goal (and anything less strikes me as a travesty), the cultural expertise in all its ramifications is called for as well).”* (Fishman 1983, quoted in Antia 2000:12)

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<sup>17</sup> A Ph.D study by Helena Ní Ghearrain about term implantation and acceptance of computer terminology in Irish is currently in preparation, but to date unpublished.

It is important to remember furthermore that we can not speak about “a terminology”, but rather that in a complex world, many different terminologies exist. These depend, among others, on the abstraction level of the producer, the level of the recipient and the circumstance of communication (context, pragmatics). Different levels of abstraction have been described by Lothar Hoffmann in *Kommunikationsmittel Fachsprache* (Hoffmann 1985).

As a communication tool, terminology depends on opportunity and occasion (of communication), goal (of the producer), recognition and interpretation (of the recipient). Terminology can be used both for the transfer of knowledge as well as for the enforcement of exclusiveness of a specialist or a social group. The latter is common in domains like military or intelligence communication as well as in framing political communication, or language groups in general, e.g. in *Hlonipha*, referring to special terminology that is exclusively known to, and used by initiated female members in the Xhosa society in South Africa<sup>18</sup>. Moreover, terminology and politics are closely related, a subject fields are directly related to politics, either for funding or because they are governed by law. Even though there should be a separation between science and politics, terminology always underlies influence by political ideologies and/or public opinion.

The field of socioterminology<sup>19</sup>, which is rooted in francophone tradition of France and French-speaking Canada, has taken a cue in such statements, even though it originated from traditional terminology science rather than language planning. It departs from the assumption of terminology being part of linguistics rather than a field on its own. Major points of early socioterminology are a more descriptive approach to terminology use in society. It argues strongly against standardization (of language, of which terminology is part) which it considers as impossible due to its constant change, as well as natural inclination towards polysemy and synonymy. A less radical variant of socioterminology has been developed further in Scandinavia, in particular by Johan Myking, Toft and others (Cabr  Castellv 

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<sup>18</sup> See Chapter 4.1

<sup>19</sup> See Chapter 2.1

2003). Key works on socioterminology include Gaudin 1990, Boulanger 1995, and Temmermann 2000. In recent years it has been introduced to a wider international community of research and practice via international standardization<sup>20</sup>. The field has had some influence on how social factors are considered, even though the socioterminological claim that terminology is a linguistic, unstandardizable, and uncategorizable phenomenon is still much debated.

One of the major arguments of socioterminology is the controversy among linguists and terminologists as to the extent of acceptable standardization and harmonization of language. Standardization is the common way of terminology planning in most Western language groups. Terms are created by professional communities, scientists, developers in a de-centralized way. Consensus-finding on acceptability takes place via standardization.

The extent of standardization that is required in technical communication depends again on the domain or the pragmatic environment of its use. It is necessary in this regard to make some differentiations between language standardization, which creates a standard language, terminology standardization and harmonization. These processes serve different purposes and follow completely different rules.

According to the International Organization for Standardization (ISO), international standardization is

*“the process of producing consensus agreements between national delegations representing all the economic stakeholders concerned - suppliers, users, government regulators and other interest groups, such as consumers on specifications and criteria to be applied consistently in the classification of*

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<sup>20</sup> ISO/TR 22134 Practical guidelines for socioterminology was published in 2007 and proposes guidelines for socioterminology principles, methods and vocabularies ([http://www.iso.org/iso/iso\\_catalogue/catalogue\\_tc/catalogue\\_detail.htm?csnumber=36143](http://www.iso.org/iso/iso_catalogue/catalogue_tc/catalogue_detail.htm?csnumber=36143), accessed 2008-09-29)

*materials, manufacture and supply of products, testing and analysis, terminology and in the provision of services.”*

(2006-09-27 <http://www.iso.org/iso/en/aboutiso/introduction/index.html>)

This definition outlines the most prominent features of standardization:

- Documented agreements
- Consensus-driven
- Inclusive (all stakeholders)
- Promoting conformity for enhanced interoperability and exchange
- Generally voluntary (unless incorporated into national legislation)<sup>21</sup>.

Standards thus provide reference-frameworks for the application between producers, suppliers and users for the improvement of technology and knowledge transfer and thus facilitating trade, scientific-technological and socio-economic development and consumer-protection. It is driven by economical and ecological reasons. The ISO definition suggests that terminology standardization plays an important role in standardization in general. It acknowledges the fact that no standardization is possible unless the underlying terminology has been agreed upon in the first place.

Terminology standardization itself is distinguished into the standardization of the methodology and principles of terminology work (horizontal standardization) and the standardization of the terminology for the specific subject fields (vertical standardization). These are two different, but interrelated activities. The former are technical standards, established by terminology experts, linguists, language planners, translation professionals and other experts in terminology science and applications and forms the basis for the latter. This “vertical” terminology standardization includes to a very limited extent the active cooperation of

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<sup>21</sup> With exception of standards by the European Committee of Standardization (CEN) which overrule national standardization and are thus binding for users once they accept to use standards at all.

language specialists. It is rather the product of subject specialists of the respective discipline. The specific and varying requirements of these disciplines are subject for the development of methodology standards.

Standardization itself has seen a development from the standardization of products towards methodologies and procedural standards, with the purpose of creating consistency in the work procedures for standardizers and to foster interoperability (technical and semantic) between different systems used in different organizations, projects and environments. Service standards, designed for their use in industry certification are another future direction of standards that has already started.

Another distinction has to be made between *de-facto* and *de-jure* standards. *De jure* standards are produced by a standard or other official body, whereas *de facto* standards are established by market share, meaning that once a technology becomes dominant, it becomes the *de facto* standard (including its terminology) in this field. This is mainly the case in very new and innovative fields in which the originator often takes the dominant role until competitors appear (The Pavel [http://www.btb.termiumplus.gc.ca/didacticiel\\_tutorial/english/lesson1/index\\_e.html](http://www.btb.termiumplus.gc.ca/didacticiel_tutorial/english/lesson1/index_e.html), accessed 2009-08-24).

Terminology standards are generally *de jure* standards. Their establishment almost always involves a choice among competing terms. Several factors may influence this choice. These are mostly informed by linguistic arguments, like

- Economy (term is less cumbersome or shorter than another);
- Precision/clarity (term has greater transparency than another);
- Appropriateness (term has negative/political connotation).

(Infoterm 2005)

Socioterminology, as described above, offers further arguments from a socio-cultural perspective.

Terminology standardization can take place in different environments. Besides on an international level, it is part of regional and national standards. Furthermore, terminology can be standardized on the professional level. This is not to be confused with the *de facto* standards of market leaders above. Rather these are standards established by professional associations or consortia to ensure consistency of terminology in the particular market segment. Such agreements between major market players are dominant in innovative fields or in fast-developing domains which require adequately fast consensus-reaching procedures. They often form the basis for *de jure* standards later on.

Unlike terminology standardization, which is mainly interested in written language and thus requires a certain degree of stability in the basic language, language standardization has to deal with completely different aspects. The aim of language standardization is the creation of a standard language, or the imposing of a particular variety of this language as a standard. While terminology standardization takes place within professional communities, language standardization concerns the entire speech community. Standard languages are institutionalized and usually associated with prestige. They cut across regional differences by providing a unified means of communication in mass media, economy, education and administration. They do this through the establishment of a standardized orthography and spelling rules (Infoterm 2005).

For terminology planning it can be useful and even necessary to be aware of the standard language as well as non-standardized varieties of that language in search for neologisms or in the standardization of terms. Standardized terminology is the prerequisite for exact and unambiguous communication among subject specialists of equal or different levels of abstractness, between subject specialists and laypeople as well as in the transfer of knowledge across linguistic borders, i.e. through translation and interpreting. The need for exactness in communication varies dramatically between domains. Whereas in social sciences too much standardization can have restrictive consequences, they are dominant in highly technologically domains or natural sciences. In risk-

communication terminology can be strictly standardized to the extent of creating controlled languages with respect to grammar, syntax and terminology.

In language planning jargon, harmonization is often used synonymously with unification, which is a process that aims at constructing one common language from its varieties. This is usually done by either using forms that are common to all of the variants in a group or that of the economically or linguistically dominant variant. This process is the one which most critics mean when they attack standardization as a manipulation of the natural diversity. Since it usually implies the demonstration of power of one variant over another and leads, at least at the surface, to the eradication of the “inferior” variant, it is a very sensitive and politicized issue. Unification in language planning is a purely economically-inspired concept. It argues in for drastically reduced costs, human resources and time. Its supporters argue that harmonization is a natural process in language development and that there is a tendency for harmonization in all languages, as there is a universal tendency to order in each chaos as a response to stimulants. They ignore largely the socio-cultural component of language and that unification poses a threat to the perceived (and therefore very real) identity of communities as such, and is therefore bound to fail in any democratic and sensitized contexts.

For terminology planning in the name of language development and terminology standardization, harmonization plays a crucial role. Different than in general language planning, the emotional aspect is not quite as fierce in terminology, though it would be wrong to ignore it. Since terminology is interested in written language, principles of harmonization can be applied here without having an instant general impact on the language community at large. Harmonizing sentiments are also perceivable in terminology standardizations within subject-fields in the promotion and use of internationalisms as well as in the field of Interlinguistics.

Characteristics of a scientific or technological special language can be quite different from that of general language. It can, for instance, either draw its influence from other linguistic communities, or does not comply with linguistic

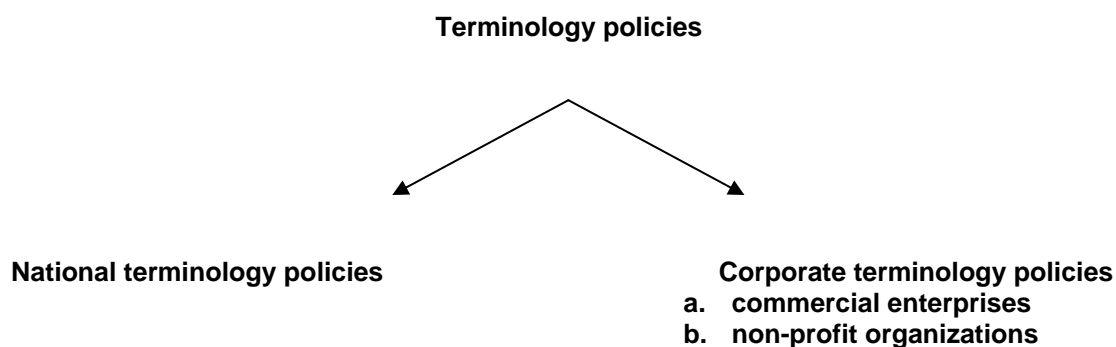
rules but rather with rules governing cognitive science-theoretical customs of that subject field. Terminology planning has a clear political implication wherever it meets language purist tendencies, ethnic sentiments or nationalism. A large number of linguistic groups<sup>22</sup> have strong lobbies and terminology planning, i.e. the choice of a term over another for standardization, is often politically informed rather than following Tauli's postulates. It is not only the lesser used languages, which are concerned, but also seemingly strong national languages. A prominent example is the South Asian Tamil, a Dravidian language with official status in the Indian state of Tamil Nadu, in Sri Lanka, and in Singapore. Language purism is often an indication for a perceived threat of the linguistic community by another, dominant neighbour or hegemonial power. In the case of Catalan these are Spanish and English. In Tamil much effort would be taken to find a Dravidian equivalent. In the event of non-availability of a Dravidian-based term, the choice is likely to be rather an English loan than one of Sanskrit origin, such as Hindi (M.S. Thirumalai 2001).

#### **2.2.4 Terminology planning for different communities**

The *UNESCO Guidelines for Terminology Policies* propose to classify terminology policies according to the environment in which they take place into national and corporate terminology policies. The latter category is subdivided into for-profit and non-profit scenarios. This division is useful for a number of reasons. The non-profit sector, much stronger than the for-profit sector, is characterized and driven by the need for consensus-building and inclusiveness, as well as less authority by its managers. Funding is another issue which makes this distinction helpful for the policy discussion. Non-profit organizations often have to adhere to a mandate which requires them not to engage in commercial activities. This can have a direct impact on strategic issues like ensuring sustainability of a terminology planning policy (Silverman/Taliento 2006). Generally the two sectors require completely different management styles.

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<sup>22</sup> E.g. Catalan and Basque in Spain



*Figure 2.6 Terminology policy types*

This distinction follows the argumentation of modern theories of language planning as outlined above. It also takes into account that terminology planning takes place in a decentralized way as a response on potential or actual problems in domain communication, which in their totality all have a more or less prominent impact on the overall terminology situation in a language and/or a domain.

The general policy process has similar stages in all the above planning situations, although not all in similar intensity. The major differences concern the complexity and coverage. However, none of them can itself claim homogeneity as each individual context is very different and there may be more similarities between national and corporate policy-making within a cultural context than between two nations of very different cultural contexts. Moreover, management styles vary drastically and so it is thinkable that policy-making in a small company resembles more that of a similar small NGO whereas a large multi-national company might be closer to processes in nations or communities than they are to another enterprise. Not all the times, therefore, a clear distinction is possible.

### **2.3 Policy processes for terminology planning**

After outlining the argument of terminology planning being in many cases a management and discourse-driven task, the rest of this chapter now describes a

prototypical policy-making process. In full awareness of the complexity of the process and the fact that the chronological linearity described hereunder can only show an idealistic model and aims primarily at highlighting typical phases that occur.

Policy-making as a management task is closely connected with different kinds of communication activities, which serve different goals. Awareness-raising and communication planning are intrinsic parts of policy-making, which is all about communicating an idea and getting ideological and financial support to put it into practice.

As the topic of this study is to demonstrate that communication campaigns can, and indeed should, be taking place throughout the entire policy process, I will highlight such opportunities and explain the kind of communication (lobbying, awareness raising, knowledge brokering, etc.). Communication activities for awareness-raising take different forms. Within a campaign they are employed in variation and targeted to different situations. They include personal communication and communication via different types of media.

### **2.3.1 The terminologist in policy-making processes**

Policy-making takes place at different levels within a society or community. And it assumes a different role and function at each level. In analogy, awareness-raising campaigns generally lead into two opposite directions from the point-of view of the policy-maker: bottom-up, as part of lobbying to secure support of the policy from decision-makers, and top-down, in form of advocacy, by acquainting the public, or users with the need for a policy, in order to eliminate hostility and indifference towards the policy.

We may assume that the initial impulse for terminology planning does not come from the top-decision-makers or politicians. Neither does it – in the majority of cases - originate in the broad masses of speakers of a language or any other

system. Rather it is promoted by a certain fraction of this system with expert knowledge in the field or at least an enhanced awareness of existing shortcomings as well as an interest in a change of the status-quo. This fraction may either be an individual or a group of people who work in both directions towards official recognition and implementation of the envisaged change.

How much non-governmental initiative is allowed or possible depends on various factors in different cultures, like those expressed by Geert Hofstede<sup>TM</sup> in his Cultural Dimensions<sup>TM23</sup>, and how well developed the overall infrastructure is for the facilitation of the policy-making.

We can nonetheless assume that, at different degrees, policy-making is primarily a management activity. A central and often pro-active role within this activity is assumed by terminologists and other language experts. He or she is often the first person to recognize a need within a system – often due to networking contacts outside of this system. Policy-maker in this study, therefore, refers to a person or organization, who or which assists and facilitates decision-making by providing the necessary status-quo analysis and knowledge generation as well as a risk assessment and the preparation of policy options. It is usually a special interest group within a professional or societal community. While, in this chapter, I will refer to this entity mainly as *policy-maker*, in the next chapter my perspective will shift a bit stronger towards communication and I will more frequently use the term *change agent* to demonstrate and stress the specific role this individual or organization takes. The terminologist takes a central role in that his or her responsibilities and target groups are directed towards audiences at different levels. His or her role is defined in the preparation and formulation, the “making of” a policy and therefore in the facilitation and implementation of change in behaviour and decision concerning the adoption or rejection of a terminology policy of a variety of target addressees (Rogers 2003: 365pp.). Depending on the perspective, therefore, he or she must be regarded as well as

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<sup>23</sup> for instance the degree of individualism, existing power distances, uncertainty avoidance, etc. (<http://www.geert-hofstede.com>, accessed 2009-08-24)

*policy-maker as/or change agent (or change agency if a department or organization rather than an individual is referred to)*<sup>24</sup>.

For terminology policies this distinction can not always be made in such a rigid clarity because quite often the policy-maker and change-agent are one and the same person or group. This person shifts roles frequently during the process, acting at times as one or the other of the above as well as an expert in terminology. Prior to the authorization of the policy by the decision-maker he or she primarily acts as policy-maker by developing and preparing the final new policy. In parallel but especially as soon as the policy is adopted by the organization or government the role becomes increasingly that of a change agent who lays the ground for change through lobbying activities and advocacy. At the same time he or she remains a policy-maker insofar as that the policy itself requires monitoring and constant evaluation. Thus is the double-function of the terminologist and his or her team. Especially in non-profit organizations personal and financial resources are often restricted so the task may be the responsibility of a very small number of people, or even a one-person-job.

At present, research on terminology policies can not draw on empirical data. Information on terminology policies is scattered and not well organized. Due to its great distribution over different professional and societal settings, from public institutions to professional associations, universities and others, and the different forms it can take, there exists no comprehensive classification or typology of policies which could be used as a starting point to collect necessary data.

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<sup>24</sup> Sometimes a difference is made between a change agent and a change agency in that the change agency is equalled with an organization that has developed the product or policy and wants it to be implemented. The change agent is employed by this agency to take care of this implementation. He or she is responsible for creating a need for change in those who are ignorant or unaware of it, and to assist them in the implementation of this change once this awareness is created until this is no longer necessary and reaches a sufficient degree of sustainability. The change agent therefore stands between the two parties the authority/decision-maker and the target user (ibid: 400).

### **2.3.2 Understanding successful policies**

Before taking a closer look at phases which are likely to occur during the development and implementation of policies, it is worthwhile to examine some principles that determine successful policies in a democratic environment.

One of the reasons why many policies concerning languages have turned out disappointing for linguists and language enthusiasts is that they do not enough take into account the economic and political environment in which policies are embedded. This is a pragmatic field which is intrinsically connected with any policy and therefore needs special consideration. Neglecting it can lead to a distorted evaluation of policy success, in that wrong conclusions may cause disastrous decisions concerning measures to be taken to correct it.

In a study, which was partly financed by the Pan South African Language Board, linguistics professor Laurence Wright attempts the switching of perspective from that of a language planner to a decision-maker's point of view. Its special implications for South Africa and its language policy are described in detail in Chapter 4. The principle economic considerations of decision-makers and sponsors are unfamiliar in language planning literature and appear rather provocative. However, switching perspectives enables the terminology planner to more clearly understand which steps are essential to convince decision-makers to continue their support, while at the same time maintaining realistic expectations of what can be achieved and where the limitations are (Wright 2002).

Wright evaluates language planning achievements in South Africa and critically points out shortcomings and misconceptions of the current course. According to his study, the first point policy-makers need be realistic about is the status of a language and terminology policy for a decision-maker. Language and terminology experts usually and rightly tend to view their area of expertise as critical and most important. After all, they have the insight and expertise into the problems of their domain. However, as experts they are often not able or willing

to understand the point of view of decision-makers, who are responsible to approve and pay for these activities. They are laypeople, and moreover, it is their job to decide from a large selection of different suggestions which actions are likely to be the most beneficial within a certain set time and financial frame (ibid.).

Language and terminology policies are medium to long-term strategies, often of an intangible nature. They are usually not concerning any so-called “hot politics” topics. “Hot politics” refers to issues and questions that require instant action and immediate budget to perceptively, measurably solve an acute and urgent problem. Obviously, medium to long-term policies are less strategically important. On the contrary: these policies secure sustainability and stability in future. With their strategic and sometimes visionary focus they have the inherent ability to anticipate and prevent future conflict before it arises. In this respect most experts would probably agree that it would be more sensible to put funds in prevention rather than into crisis management. Why are they so often neglected in budget allocation then? First of all, they generally are not. There is normally no point why a decision-maker should ignore a well argued case. However, the number of projects that need funding usually exceeds the available resources and a choice has to be made between them. The terminology policy is in fierce competition for limited budget with policy-proposals from other fields. The first problem, therefore, is a reasonable, fact-based argumentation in preparation of the policy proposal.

The second problem is that decision-makers have to review their decisions from time to time, usually at the end of a financial year or a governance term, prior to elections. And, in order to renew arguments for a continuation of their support, they want to see measurable results. Such results should be able to demonstrate impressive progress and, at the same time, show the need for continuation. These are difficult to come by for terminology planners, either due to the long-term orientation or to the intangibility of achievements. Successful terminology planning and management is difficult to measure, unless, certain milestones are set in the policy from the beginning.

Wright offers an explanation for the way, in which competing proposals end on the desks of those people who have a limited amount of money to distribute and no expert knowledge of terminology or language. Proposals that succeed are such, which have the quality and potential to convince them of their worthiness. They can do so, he argues, by displaying that they are able to achieve their clearly defined goals within a certain, manageable time frame and within the allocated budget. They must also have the potential to demonstrate tangible results and achievements, which benefit the entire community. This alone is not an easy task, considering the above quoted nature of language and terminology problems. It adds to the challenge that the anticipated results achieved by the proposed policy have to beat those of the competing policies. A policy-proposal stating something as general as that it “will improve communication and therefore save money” might be successful in the first round, but will have difficulties in an evaluation to prove its success, and hence to be continued (ibid.).

Another major hurdle Wright identifies is that the departments in charge of terminology and language issues usually do not belong to the most powerful and well-funded ones. This applies to governmental departments as the Department of Arts and Culture in South Africa as well as to intra-company departments such as translation or localization departments or technical communication. Being “weak” departments in the sense of that they usually represent soft, intangible goals; they need to make use of allies to push through their points. These departments have to find ways to display enhanced urgency. And they have to employ strategies to increase visibility and pressure. In other words, they have to make their long-term perspective one that requires immediate action. It can do so through lobbying, through mobilizing the masses, or at least key persons. Such strategies are described in greater details below and have to be part and parcel of any policy process. It is obvious that the media have to be employed extensively in elaborate and well-planned campaigns.

However, even though Wright is clear about what is needed for policies to receive sustainable funding, he is realistic in his assessment of the success rate. In the most fortunate cases, such as in South Africa, he argues, a minimum

budget and a reluctant attitude is the best that can be expected by decision-makers. He argues that even very strong policy proposals in terms of the above cited qualities of success-rate, return-on-investment etc. are likely to receive less actual funding combined with assured ideological support, in the light of so many burning issues in a society. But instead of resignation and putting doubt on the overall usefulness of language policies, especially interventionist ones, he recommends an optimistic viewpoint. While success might not break through at a given moment, any sign of support should be received gratefully and used well to keep on the work on the policy implementation. One day the circumstances might be more favourable, the pressure and the demand might be big enough. And by then it is essential that policy-makers are ready to face the challenge that a foundation is secured that enables quick tangible results in the second phase, and therefore a degree of sustainability and success can be achieved (Wright 2002: 172).

In depicting that policy-making is not, or at at least not only, a rational, linear activity and describing approaches to policy-making from five subject fields, Sutton stresses how important it is to keep in mind additional rationales and motivators. Among others she lists the following that bear special applicability on our case:

- “A new groundbreaking piece of research is completed which defines a problem and clarifies appropriate courses of action to remedy it.
- There are good links between and within agencies whereby lessons learned from practical experience can be shared and acted upon.
- A person in authority has a particular interest in a certain issue and as a result those around him/her are influenced to work on it and develop policy in that area.
- Events are timed in such a way that a person who is particular interested in pushing forward an agenda is working at a time when a powerful political authority has reason to be interested in the same agenda.

- A situation develops which is represented in a widely accepted scenario or narrative as a “crisis”, requiring rapid and dramatic action to avoid catastrophe.
- There is a dominant epistemic community, a particular influential group that has close links with policy-makers, and forces an issue on to the agenda and shapes policy-making.
- An organization and the individuals within it are open-minded and consider it important to adapt to new ideas from the external world, rather than seeing these as a threat.
- There is an individual or a group of people who have an idea for a new policy direction. These “change agents” carry the idea forward, explaining it to others and building consensus towards the new position.
- There is a network of people around the “change agents” who will respond to them and help them carry the process forward.
- Policy-making and implementing bodies have sufficient authority to push a new policy through even if it is not widely supported.
- There is the required motivation and energy to use and mobilise these resources to achieve the goals of a policy innovation.”

(Sutton 1999:31)

Remembering them and addressing any of them adequately can have a more direct and positive impact than following strict methodologies step by step. In this sense the process outlined below, and based on the *UNESCO Guidelines for Terminology Policies* (and they in turn on Montviloff’s detailed description of information policy-making of 1990) are to be regarded as a tool box for the policy-maker, the rest has to be left to his or her creativity, ability and stamina. Some of these points can have a positive impact on policy formulation and authorization. However, they may be unsuitable to be kept up in later stages of ensuring ongoing operation, continued funding etc. Describing the terminology scenario in a holistic, multifaceted way and from a global point of view or even

several ones from different stakeholders' perspectives will lead towards a mixed approach that could prove the most versatile.

A *Force Field Analysis* can help assist to choose the most pressing or risky areas that need special attention. A Force Field Analysis helps determine the driving as well as the restraining forces on a change issue, which all policies are essentially. These forces are visualized in the form of a diagram. The basic premise in such an analysis is that any issue is held in equilibrium at any given point. This equilibrium is kept up by a set of opposing stronger and weaker forces. If change in this equilibrium is to take place then a change in these forces has to take place first. Either this is done "by accident" (in crises) or anticipated by design of the policy-maker. In policy-making the forces can be persons, attitudes, habits or customs which have an impact on the envisaged change. If the driving forces on a policy-issue are stronger than the restraining forces, then change is likely to happen. Force Field Analysis is used to assist Stakeholder Analysis (see Chapter 2.3.2)

### **2.3.3 Terminology policy-making: Phase 1 – Preparation**

Policy-making should be discourse-driven and based on facts (Jernudd 1997, Jernudd 2001). Since it is the aim of a policy to positively alter or sustain a status quo, this has to be described and recorded in the first place. For terminology policy-making this includes a careful assessment of the situation as it is experienced and, derived from this assessment, anticipated problems which a policy aims to avoid or cure. Official support or at least official encouragement is particularly vital for the success of the actual implementation and should therefore be obtained right from the start.

Such a thorough preparation is already a powerful awareness-raising tool in two senses. First of all there is the the study results featuring exact numbers and facts as well as examples and story-telling on best and worst-case scenarios. This study, or parts thereof, is a comprehensive tool for media campaigns to

raise awareness for deficits among the society, as well as for lobbying and awareness-raising bottom-up. Experienced communication problems may have not been recognized or attributed to these deficits by the non-expert and awareness could be raised in this regard some time before the work on the policy-formulation begins.

Secondly, the process of information-gathering itself can be used as a promotional tour to point the attention of stakeholders to problems, and winning support and maybe collaboration for the policy. For this, the information gathering needs to go beyond desktop research to identify stakeholders, describe infrastructure and read studies. Preferredly, it involves interviews, visits in organizations, research institutes or departments, the organization of workshops or conferences, or discussion forums in the internet or intranet. Furthermore it should already include extensive networking with external actors. With these are meant supporters, who may be no direct stakeholders, but can be either from other subject fields but known to be supportive of a terminology policy or they may be experts from other countries, other language communities, diaspora groups, foreign organizations, etc.

Awareness of the role of terminology as an indispensable part of scientific and technical information and the need of a policy to regulate the planning or management of it should be gradually built up. Awareness raising is nothing else than terminology's promotion as a common resource which has an important market value, and is capable of serving the language community's social, cultural and economic development.

Clarity is needed at this point concerning the use of the terms advocacy and lobbying. As mentioned earlier, awareness-raising is mostly directed both bottom-up and top-down from the perspective of the terminologist as policy-maker. Advocacy herein refers to top-down awareness-raising, and communication of the role of terminology (or a terminology product as such) to the broad basis of its users. These can include all employees in a company, all sectors and the entire network of an intergovernmental organization worldwide,

all professionals and subject-field experts of a domain within a language community, depending on the policy itself and its context. Lobbying is the reversed process to advocacy, directed from bottom-up. In lobbying an interest group is seeking to obtain official support from political decision-makers for their cause. Interest groups in the case of terminology policies may be the terminology department of a company, a language-planning agency or educational or scientific institutions. Any stakeholder qualifies as such.

Although lobbying has a somewhat negative connotation and the suspicion of potential corruption and intransparent politics and advocacy is often connected with propaganda and manipulation, both activities are necessary in all policy-making (Sayers 2006:54). They mutually influence, cross-fertilize and amplify one another. Advocacy campaigns which manage to raise enough support on the basis or grassroots-level have the power to be instrument in successful lobbying. Vice versa, successful lobbying may end in authoritative political support which in turn may be catalyst to create awareness and obtain support among the users at grassroots-level.

The *UNESCO Guidelines for Terminology Policies* suggest in particular an assessment of

*“the state-of-the-art of SPL development in the language community, as well as in existing and potential expert communities, of the SPL’s impact on or interaction with other policies and strategies and of the attitudes of the language community in general towards language and terminology.*

*This assessment should identify major stakeholders and determine any societal or psychological barriers and obstacles. Other tangible and non-tangible aspects, or problems to be overcome, have to be identified. The assessment should also include an analysis of direct and indirect benefits and of the estimated costs implied in the formulation and implementation of the terminology policy. Furthermore, the goals and scope of the terminology policy as well as options for its realization should be clearly*

*outlined in order to fully assess the situation so that valid conclusions can be drawn. This process could also take the form of, or include, a case study.*

*The initial preparation should also include a survey of the regulatory or policy framework with regards to information (constitutional or common law, statutory controls, enacted statutes, guidelines, decrees, etc.). It may be useful to show any overlapping inconsistencies or contradictions in current legal regulations and policies as well as any intended positive contribution to the overall policy framework.” (Infoterm 2005:23)*

How detailed the suggested draft of a policy, which could be broad statements of areas which should be regulated by a policy, or even advanced formulations, is dependent on the complexity of the situation, the extent of change that might be necessary. Furthermore, the stakeholder analysis and the awareness campaign can give valuable recommendations on how this issue. If during the assessment phase strong or controversial sentiments are obvious, or indications of a desire to get involved in the development of a policy, then these should be seriously considered and have an influence on the form and intensity of the later consultation process.

Chapter 4.1.1 of the *UNESCO Guidelines for Terminology Policies* recommends that the documents which are the result of the situational analysis which took place in the preparatory phase are formulated *“in a concise and easily understood way in order to ensure clear understanding on the part of all stakeholders and decision makers.”* (Infoterm 2005:24). In other words, what is referred to here is also known as knowledge brokering in policy science. Knowledge brokering is a concept often used in connection with evidence-based policy-making<sup>25</sup>. It recognizes the fact that scientific and other findings which should form the basis of an ideally informed decision-making sometimes need

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<sup>25</sup> Different models for knowledge brokering have been studied, mainly by research institutes in Canada (IRDC, CHSRF), mainly in connection with positioning Canada as such a knowledge broker between political or cultural systems.

assistance, or translation, in order to lead to the desired goal (i.e. evidence-based policy-making)<sup>26</sup>.

A campaign strategy based on the stakeholder analysis can identify relevant change agents and lay down an action line. It is an essential preparatory tool for any communication strategy as it determines form and intensity of communication with the various stakeholders. It is based on the assumption that not all of them have a similarly strong interest (stake) in an issue, and power to influence the process.

According to a definition by the World Bank, a stakeholder

*“is any entity with a declared or conceivable interest or stake in a policy concern. The range of stakeholders relevant to consider for analysis varies according to the complexity of the reform area targeted and the type of reform proposed and, where the stakeholders are not organized, the incentive to include them. Stakeholders can be of any form, size and capacity. They can be individuals, organizations, or unorganized groups. In most cases, stakeholders fall into one or more of the following categories: international actors (e.g. donors), national or political actors (e.g. legislators, governors), public sector agencies”, “interest groups (e.g. unions, medical associations), commercial/private for-profit, nonprofit organizations (NGOs, foundations), civil society members, and users/consumers.”*

(<http://www1.worldbank.org/publicsector/anticorrupt/PoliticalEconomy/stakeholderanalysis.htm>, accessed 2008-10-09)

This definition describes the universal and principally non-restrictive nature of stakeholders. Any person or organization is potentially a stakeholder in a policy issue. This does not mean that everybody should receive the same kind and extend of attention. This would simply be impossible. Moreover, if stakeholders

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<sup>26</sup> See Chapter 2.3.3 for a detailed description

are treated in an inappropriate way, this has proven to be counterproductive as each stakeholder represents his or her own, or a third party's interest. These interests can be in conflict with one another.

A terminology policy, like any policy, can only be successful if there is a sense of ownership. As the alternative policy models in Chapter 2.2.1.3 suggest, policy success depends often on whether consensus can be reached or not. Often the necessity of consensus can lead to compromises in the proposed actions and hence water down the policy's rigorousness. The importance of a stakeholder analysis as early as possible after the decision to engage in a terminology policy therefore can not be stressed enough.

Business management offers various tools and methodologies to conduct a stakeholder analysis. With the growing adoption of the management approach these are used increasingly in policy-making as well where they help visualizing the roles of policy stakeholders and design adequate treatment for them. The *World Bank* is an example of an organization that put much effort into studies and benchmarking of stakeholder analysis procedures for their work. Numerous detailed reports, presentations and studies have been made publicly available by the organization and these are recommended as additional reading for stakeholder analyses in terminology policy-making. World Bank employed external consultants to carry out some of their more extensive pilot studies. These consultants used advanced software tools<sup>27</sup> to manage the large amount of collected data and re-use these for the design of the policy process.

Principally, these tools are built on the following steps: First, as many stakeholders as possible are identified. Quantity is the desired result at this point. A brainstorming exercise therefore is a valuable method to list a large number of stakeholders. In a second step they are classified according to a grid (graph 1).

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<sup>27</sup> PolicyMaker® and OUTRAGE® are two of the most popular commercial tools. PolicyMaker offers a *Lite* version for free download. The EU has developed a multilingual open source tool called IPM (Interactive Policy Making) that helps conducting surveys and consultations in 23 European languages. Further open source tools by Policy Power Tools have been employed by UN organizations.

Stakeholders are placed according to their anticipated degree of interest in the issue and the power to influence. They will thus fall into one of four sections which each suggest how intense interaction and communication should be.

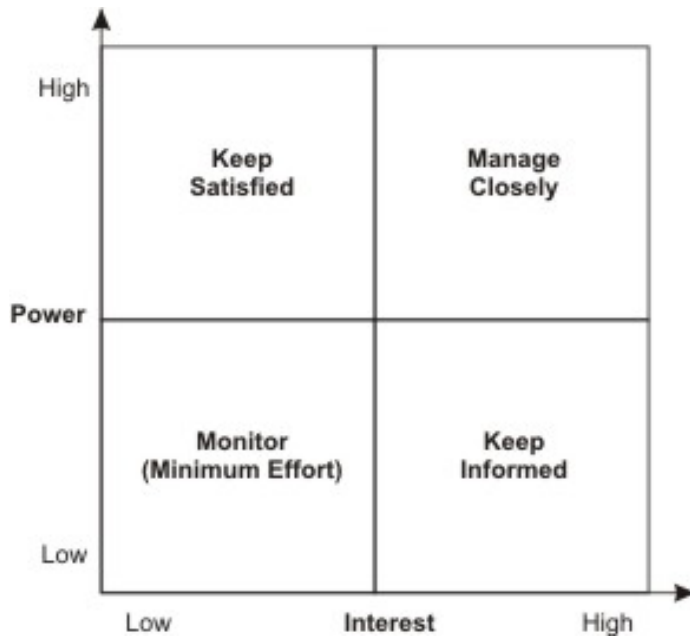


Figure 2.7 Power/interest grid used in stakeholder analyses (Source: [http://www.mindtools.com/pages/article/newPPM\\_07.htm](http://www.mindtools.com/pages/article/newPPM_07.htm), accessed 2009-07-23)

This way an overview can be gained by the policy-maker of how to design its communication strategy and make aware of the high number and diversity of those, who have an interest. It also assists the policy-maker to assess their role and influence realistically. The ultimate goal for this effort would be to win the support of all stakeholders, or at a minimum, to manage their opposition. Since policy-making is a process that normally takes place over a period of up to two or three years, this assessment needs to be reviewed frequently as roles and positions are likely to change during this time.

In a further step their anticipated attitude (positive, negative or indifferent) can be noted as far as possible and known. This is usually done according to a scale. In critical cases and when much resistance is anticipated, it may be helpful to note

likely arguments in order to prepare for how to address them up front. In addition to the classical analysis from business management, clues from Diversity Management, educational studies and psychology can be drawn, to present and target messages for diverse audiences (gender, age, educational background and level of literacy, learning styles, physical ability, and cultural background).

The inclusion of all identified stakeholders, to a degree according to their interest in, and relevance for the policy, and the interaction of these stakeholders is crucial to overcome barriers created by hostility between the groups. It therefore creates the basis for consensus-finding during the consultation process. This process is the key if a policy aims to be participatory. And participation, with a few exceptions, is the key to develop feelings of ownership, and finally acceptance and adherence to the policy. The consultation process is already taking place parallel to the assessment phase and can not always be clearly separated from it. Opinions and recommendations from stakeholders are likely to be submitted at the first interviews already. Even if they are not voiced officially these should be recorded by the policy-maker and influence the policy. For the stakeholders to feel included, involved and their opinion valued it is necessary that all findings are made available to them for information and gather their opinion on the findings as well. This process can also help pinpoint gaps in the assessment. The form this consultation takes is determined by the number and distribution of stakeholders and their preferences, availability of resources and coordination. It should result in some form of consensus among them. It may be a question of speed, efficiency or because it is and less cumbersome (or simply more personal) that the consultation takes place in form of a meeting, a workshop or a conference. If the number of relevant stakeholders is small enough, this procedure ensures that all opinions can be heard and controversial issues can be discussed. Alternatively the consultation can be handled in the form of petitions, interviews, surveys and questionnaires. It is highly unlikely in participatory policy-making that the consultation process will be taking place only once. More likely is a repetition of the process, perhaps in variation of its form and with slightly different participants until final submission.

Awareness-raising activities, like the dissemination of information material, public debates and media campaigns should take place all along this phase to ensure continued interest. It may continually attract new people if carried out continually. The information material should be adapted in a way to address the different stakeholders' interests. Individual charismatic stakeholders could be asked to be interviewed by print, electronic or audiovisual media to voice their standpoint in public. The characteristics of a good awareness campaign and the development of a communication plan are described in Chapter 3.

The reasons and importance of the individual active contribution to the consultations and the possible impact on the final policy deserves to be communicated to attract participants. There is no guarantee for an active stakeholder involvement. Not all stakeholders may regard the policy to be among their top priorities. Others may abstain due to time, lack of self-perceived or real authority or because they simply do not believe in the benefits of a terminology policy to change existing or anticipated deficits. Yet, all stakeholders, regardless of their passive or active contribution, should be kept informed at least to a minimum, throughout the process. Transparent and interactive communication will significantly enhance acceptance of whatever the outcome be.

### **2.3.4 Terminology policy-making: Phase 2 - Formulation**

This second phase builds upon the achievements from the first phase and can take place largely in parallel or in an intensive interaction with the first. Not every policy environment requires all steps to be carried out in detail; they also may be not recognizable as separate, subsequent steps.

During the formulation phase, conclusions from the preparations and consultations carried out earlier or in parallel are transformed into a proposal for a policy which will eventually be submitted to decision-makers for official approval. While a thorough preparation and fact-gathering phase is essential to develop a policy that responds to an actual or anticipated problem or crisis, the

formulation of the proposed policy is no less critical. The difficulty during this phase is the decision of how to present the findings in a way that facilitates a positive decision and at the most suitable timing.

As demonstrated in Chapter 3, persuasion may happen through different channels<sup>28</sup>. One of them is the presentation of arguments and facts about the policy. The decision is likely to be influenced by the relative advantage of the innovation compared with the current practice, its compatibility with the existing culture, infrastructure or values, and the complexity of argumentation and how comprehensive the innovation is presented (Rogers 2003:15pp.).

Knowledge brokering is addressing the problem that terminology expert and decision-maker most often are from different domains, thus “speaking different languages”. It argues for the employment of a middle man, intermediary, or broker to “transact” scientific expertise from the originator or creator to the non-expert, helping the latter to understand the theoretical basis for success or failure. He or she should have a close knowledge of both parties in the brokering process, but be at a certain neutral distance to both of them. This fact distinguishes the knowledge broker from the lobbyist.

Cross-sectoral benchmarking studies suggest knowledge brokering as prominent among major policy-success factors, by acknowledging the important role of ongoing information flow in tailored formats. Other success factors identified in the study by Walter, Nutley and Davies include increased interaction between the parties to create a sense of ownership and institutional as well as emotional support in dealing with change. This support can be reinforced by the involvement of change agent – prominent or otherwise influential individuals or groups - for interaction, guidance and discussion. Lastly, reinforcement through reminders and rewards for collaborative action can be successful (Walter, Nutley, Davies 2005).

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<sup>28</sup> See Chapter 3.3.2 Diffusion of Innovations

Knowledge brokering can be employed in both lobbying and advocacy. In the context of terminology policies, a knowledge broker could be a prominent scientist from any subject field who has a genuine interest, brokering skills and credibility/ authority for the task. The person should be aware of the broad social, political and/or financial implications of terminology. References to examples of best practice from foreign models and experiences are highly valuable in this process; bearing in mind local, cultural, organizational or historical sensitivities. Storytelling should be employed widely in order to highlight the significance of terminology and relate it to the real experiences of the target groups. Although the evidence that speaks in favour of investment in terminology is ample for the expert, as the increasing number of studies on language rights, corporate terminology, and translation and localization initiatives demonstrates, the message often fails to reach those they are supposed to reach. Instead, they are received gratefully merely by those very experts who are already convinced.

But besides transporting facts in a digestible manner to decision-makers, knowledge-brokering has another aim. Facts are generally a great leveler of hierarchy, meaning that they create a situation of advantage through knowledge for the expert over the non-expert. The non-expert in this case is the decision-maker who is usually on top of hierarchy, or at the very least, above the expert. This conflict puts both parties involuntarily in a face-threatening vs. face-saving situation. If the data now are presented rather aggressively by the expert, then it may put the decision-maker in a position of inferiority which carries potential face loss and therefore might not be taken well. It may cause a less than favourable attitude towards the proposal, despite the most convincing arguments presented. The complexity of communicative acts and the roles of sender and recipient have been described exhaustively by Friedemann Schulz von Thun in 1981 in the first volume of "Miteinander reden". Knowledge-brokering is a strategy which could be employed to help avoid or help managing such a situation.

In a terminology policy proposal the limitations of the current situation and the implications this may have on the overall development are presented. Particular focus should be on financial implications when controllers are the target audience.

Conclusions need be drawn about how to address these problems most effectively within a defined budget. Expected results are stressed clearly as well as limitations, or those goals which are not within the scope of the proposal. Steps need be proposed in the form of an implementation and action plan, highlighting and defend initial costs and expected return on investment. Preferably it includes a business model for sustainable operation that includes funding proposals. A simple SWOT analysis can be employed to help clarify objectives and strategies in brief and clearly formulated statement. SWOT stands for Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats, which are the four categories that are evaluated and analyses using this technique. Like Stakeholder and Force-field analysis, SWOT also originates in business management. Based on a stated policy objective the current situation or organizations are evaluated according to whether they are contributive or harmful to the achievement of the objective. Of the four factors, two are “internal”, or inherent in the policy. The other two are “external” factors, presented by the environment that interacts with the policy.

A SWOT analysis is essential in the very early stages of terminology policy-making to determine, whether the goal is attainable at all, and if not, to re-assess the situation. A possible objective could be the implantation and use of standardized indigenous health terminology in the health care sector of a language community. Obviously, this method alone is not likely to lead to a favourable decision concerning the policy. Further arguments are needed in support of the change of the course. But a SWOT analysis can be employed effectively to present the current strengths and weaknesses and demonstrate which concrete steps are proposed to improve the situation. Unreflected use of all analysis tools may cause uncritical reliance, but can, if employed moderately, assist the policy-maker in the strategic planning task.

Internal		External	
Strengths	Weaknesses	Opportunities	Threats
<p>Literacy and education up to secondary level is conducted in the first language of the people and is generally high.</p> <p>Mass media (print and audiovisual) are available and accepted.</p> <p>...</p>	<p>Tertiary and vocational training is depending on foreign language, including training material; hence health/medical terminology is widespread in that language.</p> <p>Attitude towards the use of indigenous terminology in the health sector is low and prestige of using foreign language is high.</p> <p>...</p>	<p>Reform of the educational sector can improve perception of quality of first-language higher education.</p> <p>Private sector ICT, software, and e-learning material development and use in the indigenous language spread.</p> <p>...</p>	<p>Foreign lingua franca gaining status and prestige through its use in the private mass media.</p> <p>Multilingual training material for health care personnel is costly and rare compared to cheaper providing and greater variety of foreign language books.</p> <p>...</p>

*Table 2.4 Example of a SWOT analysis for terminology policy-making in the health sector*

Terminology is an issue that affects most policy sectors and therefore has a horizontal character. Terminology management supports communication, information and documentation activities in almost all of them. Coordination and integration with other policies is therefore likely to become necessary. The relation with language policies has been described earlier in detail. But the developments in the field of communication and information technologies, the interconnectedness and interdependencies of global markets, ever greater

mobility of people of different cultural and linguistic backgrounds as well as customer-oriented legislation have resulted in a greater sensitivity of decision-makers on information and communication activities, which in turn lead to the formulation of national information policies and similar priority fields. Terminology policies are very close to information policies in terms of the topics and fields both of them address. In Montviloff, goals of national information policies include *“access to and optimal utilization of the specialized and professional knowledge, the scientific, technical, social and economic information and expertise generated and/or available within the country and elsewhere in the world”* (Montviloff 1999: 12). Such a goal calls for coordination with a terminology policy.

In private organizations, communication and information activities take place with a view to global target groups and markets, which affect the various departments and subsidiaries. International mergers and acquisitions, and the outsourcing of services worldwide, make harmonization or regulation of contradicting systems a necessity. A terminology policy needs to address this complex network; at least by providing a coordination statement and by closely monitoring changes. A coordination statement will show the link of terminology issues with key development domains and therefore the overall contribution to these. Vice versa, the impact of interrelated policies on the terminology policy is also highlighted.

Terminology policies therefore could face three types of coordination needs: (a) existing elements of the terminology in other policies (e.g. education, language, and information policies), (b) existing policies in interrelated fields which could impact the shape and scope of the terminology policy (e.g. telecommunication policy, scientific-technological or innovation policies), and (c) existing policies covering broad national areas and topics (e.g. copyright laws, human and minority rights). Integration has to be regulated with already existing policies. But also for future policies in all these areas, a coordination mechanism has to be developed. On the one hand the terminology policy can create the necessary infrastructure to coordinate. But this will not be sufficient and continued awareness-raising will assist policy-makers in both fields in creating awareness for, and identifying coordination needs.

The implementation has the task to describe the approach intended for the putting into practice of the policy. Only in rare cases there exists no infrastructure at all to build upon. Almost all policies will include the re-designation, coopting, development and employment of additional infrastructure, human resources and tools. According to the *UNESCO Guidelines for Terminology Policies*,

*“The request for funds for its implementation must be realistically proportionate to the objectives, scope and goals as well as the benefits to be expected.”*

(Infoterm 2005:27)

By designing an implementation plan which outlines such a realistic scenario, together with an action plan presenting priorities and concrete necessary steps, the requested finances, the decision-making, as well as support and acceptance from the stakeholders are facilitated.

Again, awareness-raising activities take place along the lines of this phase of policy-making to foster political will and support, and to create an environment that is receptive for change. Special mentioning was made with regard to knowledge brokering. But continued marketing and PR activities, with media involvement is necessary for advocacy. Communicating the steps and proposed changes of the implementation plan can reduce uncertainty and thus support change management

Successful policy-making, like awareness-raising, is characterized not only by sending the right message to the correct audience and designing the most suitable strategy, but also by selecting and allowing for the right time. Time plays a role in two main regards:

- a) Sufficient time should be allowed for the preparation of the policy, the preliminary analysis and the consensus finding. This is particularly relevant in situations where policy-making starts from little to zero.

- b) Budget and administrative cycles have to be taken into account as decision-making may be delayed or finally ignored when timing is not favourable, e.g. coincides with change of management or government, emergencies, etc.

The presentation of the policy proposal is a crucial communicative act, which requires careful preparation and planning as well as a certain sensitivity concerning timing and prevalent “mood”. Decision-makers are not only non-experts, they often have little time to spend on an issue before making a decision whether or not support will be granted. The document therefore has to be accurate, elaborate and short at the same time. If during the presentation is the first time a decision-maker hears of terminology issue, the arguments have to be either strikingly convincing, or the likelihood of a negative decision rises considerably.

A policy-maker who has prepared the presentation by launching a communication campaign is therefore likely to improve his or her chances for success. Whether or not, and to which extent, *framing* should be employed is a question each policy-maker has to decide upon. While it may be useful not to mention “terminology” too often, a total neglecting of the term can be counter productive, because it will be against true evidence-based policy-making and may cause problems in later evaluations. The presentation should focus on the development sectors that are on top of the political agenda and showcase with the help of facts and numbers how the terminology policy can positively or negatively impact them. If a high enough level of awareness has been created before the policy presentation, then this will be a strong base of support and should be referred to.

Official approval is easier to obtain when the proposal has seen endorsement by senior government officials or middle management. Lobbying and personal communication have a particular importance at this stage because support from these officials can open the doors to final approval as they know internal decision-making procedures best and can assure the proposal gets to the right

hands by the shortest way. They can also help predicting the best possible time. Selecting the most favourable time for the presentation is a bit of a gamble but can be directed as well through careful observation of the political climate. And the climate itself can be influenced through well planned and considerate advocacy and lobbying. The competition with other policies, and administrative terms require careful monitoring.

Whether or not the policy-maker succeeds in winning trust and support by a small number of influential people, who have been identified during the stakeholder analysis therefore can decide on the worth of all preparatory efforts and must not be underestimated (Montviloff 1999:82). Official approval can take place in various forms, either through enactment as a law, through official adoption and mandate by an implementation body, or other kinds of official approval.

### **2.3.5 Terminology policy-making: Phase 3 – Implementation**

The ultimate goal of any policy should be to bring about change of the current, unsatisfying situation. All preparations that have taken place until this point and the success of the official adoption of the policy are incomplete and actually useless if there is no implementation of the new course.

An action plan with concrete steps, measures and priorities, to put into being the policy objectives follows the preparation and decision-making. It is normally based on the implementation plan but much more detailed and a point of reference for evaluation of the progress in the realization of the plan. It can decide on milestones and measurable results as reference for the accompanying monitoring and evaluation. After deciding on an implementation body and the allocation of funds for their operation, the work can begin.

Implementation, in many ways, is the reverse course from what has been done up to this point. This is a phase in which all public relations established in the previous campaigns are put to the test and built-upon. It is a phase that is

characterised by less lobbying work than the phases before, but by enormous amount of advocacy-measures. The base of supporters that has been established up to that point can potentially assist in the following campaign. Depending on their status and role in the respective community, and whether they are an organization, and individual, they will either serve as multipliers, as change agents or as prominent spokesperson.

Personal communication is often the most effective means of spreading the word. Change agents are individuals who have the ability, authority, credibility or charisma, to influence change in an organization or community. They are open and positive towards the proposed change, have typically a great ability to anticipate the future and “see the big picture”, are passionate and can inspire others about an issue. Leading personalities in an organization, company or language community are typical change agents. They need to be identified as such in each individual case and generalizations are not possible. Multipliers are often other organizations that have the potential to increase or magnify change or awareness-raising efforts through mobilization of contacts and dissemination of the message to their network, thus acting as change agents. Such organizations are mostly characterized by high credibility and recognition.

Besides the establishment of infrastructure, the recruitment of human resources, the creation of training opportunities, and other activities laid down by the implementation plan, a crucial goal is the raising of awareness among the users of the new services, products, workflow and technology.

The *UNESCO Guidelines for Terminology Policies* make mentioning of the variety of how the change could be managed in the different circumstances, depending on size and scope. Implementation will be handled either by

- *“One or several departments or (government) institutions;*
- *A committee or other group of people;*

- *An existing external institution or organization which is entrusted with this task;*
- *A newly established institution or organization.”*

(Infoterm 2005:29)

The institutional environment will have an impact on the organization and extensiveness of the campaign. However, organizational size and available funds are not necessarily the sole determining factors of successful campaigns. Even small organizations can, if there is enough awareness of the power of communication and some knowledge of awareness-raising, be quite effective, as numerous known examples of non-governmental organizations' campaigns in various fields demonstrate. They have been studied by communication sciences and are the topic of the following Chapter 3.

More important is the decision on the body/structure/organization that is responsible for carrying out the implementation. As I have argued in chapter 2.3.1 the change agent in terminology issues may be identical with the policy-maker. Even if they are separate entities there is a greater closeness between these two than there is between the change agent and the user group which is supposed to implement the policy. The reason for this is that the former two groups share their positive decision and attitude towards the policy; they are innovative and more venturesome than the large majority of users they are confronted with during this phase and who may have a much more conservative attitude towards innovation.

The change agent may therefore be inclined to keep closer to those few who he or she can be sure of their support and thus miss the goal of reaching the hesitant majority who are the change agent's actual target group. Indeed, it is a well-researched fact that the likeness between change agent and the few early adopters of the policy is by far greater than with the conservative masses and the change agent is regarded by these as alien and therefore suspect. He or she

often differs in lifestyle, cultural background and education from the users. A common remedy is the employment of so-called *aides* who share the same background and culture with the majority target group. The aide assists the change agent to approach this group (Rogers 2003: 373ff).

Constant campaigning using diverse channels, methods, and media may be necessary. It will serve to address the diversity of the users with their different learning styles, physical abilities and other preferences, and the reinforcement of the information through repetition. Even initial high spirit is not likely to keep at a similar high level as the implementation continues. Phases of frustration and disappointment will ebb enthusiasm. Terminology planning is typically a long-term endeavour. Results and success will show only after quite a long period of time, which may not at all be characterized by steady upwards movement. The experience of South African language planning, which I will describe in detail in Chapter 4, is a good example for this. A psychological trick is the definition of measurable milestones as indicators of success and the working towards reaching them. These milestones and small successes should be communicated fiercely to keep the public or stakeholders' interest alive, even in phases of indifference and frustration to avoid these to turn into hostility and rejection.

Reaching the critical mass is an important point to consider during the implementation phase. After reaching a critical mass of adopters, any innovation, like the introduction of new terms, the consultation and contribution of databases or relevant forums (electronical or otherwise) becomes self-sustaining. Earlier and later users re-inforce themselves mutually in their decision to continue, abandon or take up this particular innovation. Communication processes should aim at arriving at this tipping point (Rogers 2003:343). Especially when a terminology policy aims at implanting new terminology in substitution of an undesired older or non-indigenous terminology, reaching the critical mass is essential. The goal of mutual understanding, clarity and unambiguity of the communication requires that communication partners all at least understand the new terms in use. Once a certain threshold is reached and new terms are accepted and used by a certain number of partners it is almost certain that others

will follow the trend and the old term is fully replaced by the new. Vice versa, if the new terminology is adopted by a few members of a system, but fails to reach the necessary critical mass it is likely to be discontinued by the early adopters and thus sooner or later rejected by the system at large.

Sustainability in mind, the educational system is a channel for awareness-raising that is often not regarded as such (Sayers 2006:50). The educational system I refer to, reaches beyond the training of terminologists, translators, lexicographers and other language professionals, but includes other scientific and technical subject fields and stretches across all age levels. The development of training programmes, appropriate learning material and curricula can not only build human capacity for terminology planning and related job descriptions. It is a place to disseminate and implant standardized terminologies, make aware of products, tools and services, and the fundamental problems concerning terminology in the broader sense of its role for successful communication to the following generation. Here, terminology planning overlaps and interacts strongly with educational planning and requires careful coordination. In policy literature it is suggested that the best timing is approximately one year prior to the preparation of a new development plan (Montviloff 1999:20).

For all organizations, companies and government institutions, media relations are critical. Understanding the rules of the mass media, every opportunity for feature articles, interviews should be used gratefully and well prepared. The mass media are not likely to regard a topic like terminology newsworthy at all and will only show an interest if it is embedded in a story that related to their audience and makes it an interesting story for them to read or listen to. To maximise the impact and visibility of a campaign message, sometimes spokespersons of employed. Spokespersons can be either communication professionals whose task it is to make sure a message is delivered in correct form and via appropriate channels using comprehensible language.

To increase visibility, physical and audiovisual marketing cues can be employed, such as free giveaway items. These can be printed with specially designed logos,

slogans, checklists, etc. to highlight multilingualism, corporate language, etc. Celebrity spokespersons<sup>29</sup>, like artists, politicians or sports personalities, appear in social marketing activities<sup>30</sup>. UNICEF was according to own records the first to make use of their popularity half a century ago<sup>31</sup>. Local media or industry personalities can be quite as effective as the big names from showbiz, literature and sports. Regarded in the light of Rogers' Diffusion of Innovation they fall in the category of opinion leaders. Opinion leaders, while being more cosmopolite and in greater contact with change agents and their own peer groups serve as brokers between these two groups in that they help the target audience to identify with them. Unlike change agents (in this case the terminologist or terminology policy-maker) they are perceived as less innovative and "radical". They act strictly within systems norms, are perceived as "one of us" or "one like me", respectively (Rogers 2003: 314).

The Internet and in particular social networks and mobile accessibility offer further communication channels. Web 2.0 applications like Weblogs, Videos and Podcasts, and Wikis can be more easily employed, but their assignment should be planned and coordinated avoid further adding to the information overload of the readers (Sayers 2006:34). Their advantage is that they can be employed independently from editors and mass media commercialism, exactly as desired, using content and language of choice, and typically widely spread and free of charge or licensing fees.

Effective outreach campaigns are planned to address their audience. They are aware of socio-cultural diversity, and designed accordingly. In regions with a low television and Internet density but high availability of radios, the focus may be more on community radio broadcasts. Where there is a high degree of illiteracy,

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<sup>29</sup> also sometimes called goodwill ambassadors

<sup>30</sup> One well-known recent example is the employment of Dutch supermodel Doutzen Kroes, member of the West Frisian minority in the Netherlands as an ambassador and poster girl for the West Frisian language, her mother-tongue. The campaign is called 'Praat mar Frysk' ('Just speak Frisian'). <http://www.praatmarfrysk.nl/> (2008-10-11)

<sup>31</sup> UNICEF was the first of many 'causes' to enlist the help of celebrities. Danny Kaye pioneered the role of Ambassador-at-Large in 1954; it was taken on by Audrey Hepburn and others, building up into the current distinguished roster of international, regional and national goodwill ambassadors. (quoted from [http://www.unicef.org/people/people\\_ambassadors.html](http://www.unicef.org/people/people_ambassadors.html), 2008-10-11)

campaigns may focus on audiovisual media, village theatre, or movie shows in the local languages, flyers and posters in health care or community centres. In ICT dense and technology-savvy regions CDs, Web-programmes, e-mails and text messages (SMS), can be employed effectively. Young audiences or some cultures may find cartoons and stories more appealing than others, and so on.

### **2.3.6 Terminology policy-making: Phase 4 – Creating sustainability**

Implementing a terminology policy can become a significant investment, whose initial costs are often provided by the authority that makes the decision. Creating sustainability for terminology policies implies continued operation for a long period, which is quite necessary considering that it is likely to take some time until the policy bears fruit. Permanent funding by the authority can not be counted upon, as policy-priorities shift, powers change, and controllers are impatient. The question will appear before long regarding the benefit of continuing with the policy. Thorough monitoring and evaluation of the environment helps anticipating socio-political and economic changes before they happen and allow for quick adaption. Monitoring of the policy-implementation and operation helps to be assessed positively.

A business model for sustainable and independent operation can not only help getting official support, but also ensure longevity. It includes plans for long-term funding, operational slimming without being forced to stop work in times of meager finances and even commercial marketing or co-sponsoring. Terminology planning has an inherent job-creating potential, by increasing the market for translators, language services, lexicographers, software-developers and other e-application professionals.

Continued awareness-raising and lobbying activities help to keep attention for the problem up. They can communicate successes and failures alike. Through involving the educational sector as described in Chapter 2.3.4 the basis is laid for cross-generational awareness of the problem. And with capacity building

measures and the establishment of a large network of stakeholders, organizations and information channels, active engagement are fostered.

## **2.4 Summary of the chapter**

In this chapter I attempted to demonstrate that terminology policy-making, like other policy-making, too, is a management task that allows for multi-stakeholder involvement and the inclusion of individual initiatives. I have tried to show the paradigm shift in the regarding of policies and planning from the perspective of policy studies as well as language planning theory.

With reference to the prevalent view of terminology planning as part of language planning, I discussed the mutual impact and overlap between the two fields. Terminology planning as it is treated as an essentially separate issue which can be embedded in various kinds of related policies or strategic frameworks. Being horizontal by nature, it is suggested to regard it separately, in order to better coordinate integration challenges and to reduce complexity. The policy environment has an enormous impact on the form and content of the policy. Therefore it is crucial to thoroughly study and get familiar with it and tailor the final product according to the requirements and rules of it.

Goals and objectives of terminology planning include the improvement of the status, performance and overall situation of a social group or system, like a language community or minority group. They aim at improving the social, educational, environmental or economical situation within that system (e.g. through advancing health communication). In companies or organizations terminology planning may be used to improve customer relations through branding and establishing a consistent company's language, to reduce risk caused by flawed translations or documentation, or managing redundant financial spending in operations as diverse as storage, e-business, marketing and managing mergers with competitors in the same field. In short, the goal of terminology planning is in streamlining and facilitating communication in a large

variety of contexts and for an array of purposes. However, terminology management remains an auxiliary activity and this is precisely its problem. It hardly ever matches with the primary activity of that organization, company or even the major issues of that language community. In this it is comparable to issues concerning anti-smoking, nutrition a certain lifestyle in the promotion of general health, and others. And it remains the duty and the challenge of the terminologist, language practitioner or otherwise policy-maker/change agent to align terminology and its benefits with the overall goals of the system it is to serve. Additional to this challenge is the problem that any tangible benefits or advantages, if they show at all, will only show in the far future. And the tracking back to terminology as the sole or even major contributor to the success is difficult to achieve. The terminology expert is aware of these advantages, and might even have a host of hard facts and expertise from other examples at hand. However convincing these data are, the unpredictability of whether a real, acute need will ever arise is detrimental. There is always a high possibility that the decision-maker will reject because he or she assesses the possibility that a terminology policy will significantly improve the existing situation as too small for an investment.

Concerning awareness-raising and communication this chapter attempted to demonstrate that these processes are omnipresent and fundamental during the entire policy-making and implementation process as well as before and beyond. As a matter of fact, the policy preparations, negotiations and implementation are largely nothing other than complex and sophisticated communication campaigns. Obtaining and obeying at least basic awareness-raising, public relations and marketing knowledge and skills can therefore support the process fundamentally. With the help of a simplified model for policy-development and implementation, based on the model introduced in the *UNESCO Guidelines for Terminology Policies* and additional policy theory the omnipresence and the different goals of communication-requirements are highlighted.

In the following chapter I analyse the academic discourse concerning communication for social change to back up my previous suggestions with theory. In particular I discuss the dichotomy between the two major strands of theory, their possible reconciliation, and their implications on terminology policies. To round up Chapters 2 and 3, I describe the planning of a possible communication strategy for terminology planning. Terminology and language planning typically falls in the category of preventive planning, which means that quite often they are designed to solve an anticipated, possible, but by no means certain future problem. Communication processes are the key to all steps in terminology policy-making.

### **3 Applying development communication principles on terminology policy-making and implementation**

The two fundamental questions that will be answered in this third chapter are

- What is development communication?
- How can development communication applied on policy-making for terminology planning?

To answer these questions I begin with analysing fundamental processes of behavioural change, and communication theories that have been built upon this research from psychology, economics, etc. Concrete strategies and activities can be identified as belonging to either of these theories. It would be too extensive to list and describe them all. For this reason I chose the most appropriate from each theory. All of them are characterized by (a) having been scientifically described, (b) have proven results, and (c) are generally applicable and therefore relevant for the special field of terminology planning. The chapter finishes with a model plan of a communication strategy for terminology.

Policy implementation is a process of change management and innovation. But as I have shown in Chapter 2, communication is not only restricted to the implementation phase. Rather communication strategies are fundamental parts throughout the entire policy process. On the other hand I have demonstrated that policy-making is rarely a linear process and the base for a successful implementation and sustainability is laid long before, during the preparation of the policy. Lobbying is the predominant activity during the formulation and authorization phase. Fragments of the various phases do not necessarily take place subsequently or being based upon each other. They often overlap, interact mutually, take place simultaneously, or not at all.

Evaluation of communication campaigns provides an opportunity to improve future intervention. There exist not many comprehensive studies on the

strategies and effects of terminology campaigns. Usually in terminology campaign evaluations, a single approach is described for the implementation, which often has a strong tilt towards top-down strategies<sup>32</sup>. This might be influenced by the nature of the particular policy. However, it is more likely that these studies simply overlooked other communication processes that played a role in policy implementation or just not viewed the campaign in its complexity. Only the most visible, obvious and dominant was focussed upon.

### **3.1 What is development communication/ communication for social change?**

Development communication is now more than half a century old and has received increasing interest from both the commercial and non-commercial sector. It has evolved from post-war and liberation/de-colonization spirit of the 1950s, an era that was characterized by high hopes and expectations in the potential for the newly independent countries. The concept derived from theories of development and social change. Its ultimate goal is the improvement of the quality of life, and to remove constraints for a more equal participation of the people (Waisbord 2001:1).

Development itself was regarded as following the ideal of (and aiming to become replicas of) their former colonizing nations; as an attempt to reach the state of the developed world. It was equated with Western-model democracy and industrialization, or in statistics like high literacy, as well as low fertility and infant mortality rates. During that time, researchers from social sciences and other disciplines concluded that such a development cannot be reached through mere economics, but through information and knowledge transfer and communication (ibid.)

Development communication, according to Waisbord, has not developed as a uni-linear theory which was developed further, but rather in isolated and

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<sup>32</sup> compare the Kenya television example in Chapter 3.3.4.4

independent actions from various disciplines and geographical areas. Comparing these case studies has led to the conclusion of two major theories, which are not based upon one another, but stemming from two entirely different diagnoses of the causes of underdevelopment. One of these two argues that underdevelopment is predominately caused by a lack of information. The right remedy therefore, so the conclusion, would be to teach and inform people about how to behave right. The other theory claims that underdevelopment results from the fact that there is too little involvement and participation of the beneficiaries who are merely regarded as recipients of decisions, goods, knowledge, etc. The primary solution, hence, would be to increase participation in all aspects of policy and decision-making. However, since both strands did develop largely independent from one another, some sort of a third has developed more recently, which claims that both are right, and therefore seeks to reconcile these two by arguing that good campaigns draw elements from both schools (Morris 2003, Waisbord 2001).

Before introducing some important theories in the light of their relevance for terminology policies, it seems necessary to get some deeper understanding of the psychological mechanisms underlying all change processes in a society. This will help to better understand the current theories which have been developed in most cases on the basis of findings from the fields of psychology and sociology.

### **3.2 Fundamental processes leading to behavioural change**

The development of any intervention strategy that is supposed to lead to attitude change depends on understanding human psychology. Early theories on behavioural change focussed on optimization of information transfer processes. It did, however, not take long to recognize that simply providing information to the people and thus increasing their knowledge of an issue is not sufficient to cause their change of attitude towards it (Briñol/Petty 2006: 81pp.). To be effective, any intervention has to be matched to its environment and based on psychological

and sociological theory. Message tailoring or matching either at individual or group level has proven an effective method to increase the persuasive effects.

### **3.2.1 The Elaboration Likelihood Model**

One of the most influential theories in this respect is the Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) of persuasion, which was developed by Petty and Cacioppo in the mid-1980s. This model recognized the existence of an unlimited number of communication variables. These variables can concern for instance

- Source,
- Message,
- Recipient and
- Context of the communication situation.

For example, the credibility of the source, argumentation within the message, the mood of the recipient, presence of distraction (e.g. anxiety, enthusiasm), and any other of numerous variables, are assumed to have an impact on either success or failure in the change of attitudes and consequently behaviour. This assumption implies that any persuasion attempt has to take into account as many as possible of them. For a campaign to be successful, it needs to be based on a careful analysis of these variables (ibid.).

According to the ELM, the variables have an affect on the

- Amount of thinking,
- Direction of thinking,
- Structural features of thoughts.

Furthermore, they serve as evidence or cues. One of the most fundamental influences that a variable can exert is that it increases the amount of thinking about the theme or topic of a campaign. This means that people more carefully

than before process information related to this topic. Consequently, awareness of a given topic and motivation to think about it increase.

This alone does not yet tell anything about positive or negative attitude towards the campaign message. It simply implies that a topic has been regarded as relevant for this particular individual and thus worth the effort and time of thinking. Research shows that attitude change, which is based on a high amount of thinking, is stronger and more sustainable and predictable than such based on a low amount of thinking (ibid.).

In order to produce long-term and sustainable behavioural change, it is therefore important to stimulate amount and ability of *thinking*, by making the topic relevant to the person who is the receiver of the message. This can happen in different ways: Regarding the message, it can happen through simply by changing the pronouns in a message from impersonal to personal or from third person to second (“you”); or by formulating questions rather than offering pre-stated assertions; or by choosing arguments to which the recipient can easily relate to, and is therefore able to take responsibility for. Regarding the sender of the message, the amount of thinking can be stimulated by increasing the sheer number of senders and ensure their high credibility. Repetitiveness in dissemination is increasing in importance the more complex a message is, regardless of how motivated the recipient might be already. This implies the dissemination of the message through different media to stimulate reception via the different human senses.

The amount of thinking does not allow for any conclusion about positive or negative feelings concerning the message. The impact of the variables can direct both ways - favourable or unfavourable message evaluation. Strong and convincing arguments are not in every case leading automatically to the first. They can stimulate positive attitude as well as they can lead to strong resistance when they are perceived as manipulative by the recipient and install the feeling that they have no choice but be convinced of the argumentation. Any biased thinking, no matter in which direction often reduces the impact of a message.

Unlike amount or direction of thinking, meta-cognitive aspects can be influenced. Petty and Briñol understand therein the confidence of the recipient in his or her own thoughts. This is important because the higher a person's confidence the more likely this person will use its thinking to judge a message and to serve thus as a basis for a change of behaviour. Meta-cognitive processes play a more important role in situations that involve a high amount of thinking. They are influenced by factors such as the number of people who share the same thought, the easiness with which the thought comes to mind and cross-references with other thoughts and its compatibility with credible (and not credible) sources (Briñol/Petty 2006: 81 pp.).

Two ways must be distinguished in which a persuasive action has an impact on recipients. Most campaigns have it as their ultimate goal to stimulate conscious dealing of the recipients with the message. They will therefore design the message in order to foster the amount of thinking by serving with arguments. On this base, the ELM holds that when the likelihood of elaboration (e.g. because of perceived personal relevance) is high, any feature of the persuasion can serve as an argument and any variable can bias the ongoing thinking. However, recipient groups never consist entirely of individuals who all have the same strong motivation to elaborate a message. Moreover, not in all cases this is even wanted. A substantial part of the group has only very limited interest for the message, because the message has no similar direct relevance for every one of its members. However, it would be wrong to neglect this part of the group altogether as it is a fundamental catalyst and has as such an indirect influence on the judgement processes of the rest. Only if all individuals of a target group are accounted for, then the so-called tipping point of behavioural change in society can ever be reached. If the elaboration likelihood therefore is low, variables can determine attitudes by serving as simple cues. In moderate elaboration likelihood context, or when an individual is not certain if a message has any personal relevance an evaluation of all variables may serve as an indication and has thus an impact on the decision about its relevance (ibid.).

Such peripheral ways, although perhaps not very stable, are quite useful for interim and short-term evaluation and for the building-up of a stable “high-elaboration group”. This group is likely to be particularly high in terminology policy campaigns. Terminology always affects different individuals in different ways within a language group or an organization. Individuals can be either specialists with little interest in terminology, or terminologists with a high degree of interest, language enthusiasts or laypeople with little understanding of neither language planning, nor a particular domain. And their group-dynamics and role in the implementation process seems to have been neglected largely in the past. Careful analysis of the group, or the stakeholders, is hence indispensable. Again, the example of a health system in a development context (e.g. in Africa) may help to illustrate the diversity of a typical target group. It could consist of foreign-trained and local doctors, local nurses, temporary, untrained volunteers, semi-educated or illiterate patients (male and female, married and unmarried, different ages), who should be persuaded to use indigenous standardized terminology when talking to each other, educating staff and patients, writing reports, etc.

### **3.2.2 The Diffusion of Innovations Theory (Dol)**

The Diffusion of Innovations Theory, Dol in short, analyses how, why and at which rate new ideas and technology are spread within society, how individuals within an organization receive, adopt, and adapt evidence and policies. This theory thus examines organizational factors that constrain or facilitate implementation. Diffusion refers to the process by which an innovation is communicated through certain channels over time among the members of a social system.

The theory was formalized for the first time in 1962 by Everett M. Rogers' book *Diffusion of Innovations* and has been revised five times since then, taking into account growing knowledge from the field as well as changes in communication technology and culture. In his research he examined the adoption levels over time of hundreds of different innovations. He found an interesting pattern in that

these levels usually take the form of a bell curve. He then divided this classical shape into segments named after a variety of adoption categories. Rogers stated that adopters of any new innovation or idea could be categorized either as innovators, early adopters, early majority, late majority and laggards. The distribution of representatives in these categories is not regular, with few innovators and early adapters and only a few laggards. Most people would be taking their place within the early and late majority groups. His study claims that the readiness to adopt an innovation depends on the degree of awareness, interest, evaluation, trial, and finally adoption. He goes on, describing common characteristics of people from each of the above categories in an attempt to later identify and pointedly address what is perceived their special strengths and weaknesses.

- innovators – venturesome
- early adopters – respect
- early majority – deliberate
- late majority – skeptical
- laggards – traditional

(Rogers 2003:282 pp.)

These categories are to be perceived only for their statistical value. This means that they only relate to a specific innovation and are not meant to describe psychological traits of a person in general. A person hence may be an early adopter concerning a new radical political idea but belong to the category of the late majority when it comes to buying the latest multifunction mobile phone. This is important to mention because some of these categories have been taken over from related research and used for different studies, and lost their original meaning over time. With regard to a society, this model does not statically categorize its members but allows them to drift and change freely within them. The revolutionary insight is that even though it allows greatest flexibility its basic shape (the bell-curve) stays the same. Of course this model can only be applied

to those innovations that have been accepted by a population or society at large at all (Waisbord 2001).

One of the most important results of the Diffusion theory is that, for most members of a social system, the innovation-decision depends heavily on the behaviour of the other members of the system rather than on the innovation itself. People will adopt an innovation if they believe that it will improve their lives. They have thus to believe that the adoption of innovation may be an advantage. But how can they be sure of the benefits? Since the adoption is usually concerned with costs or sacrifices of some sort they will consider the question of its compatibility with the status-quo. A large amount of other uncertainty concerns difficulties and problems in the implementation or the question of how the adoption will be assessed by others – positively or negatively. They may ask questions like “Will adopting have a desired effect on my *face*”? Most people will postpone their decision and watch how the innovation catches on with others before being venturesome themselves. The majority will follow the example of those early adopters whom they perceive as opinion leaders (Rogers 2003).

### **3.3 Theories and tools**

In the following section I will examine the two dominant theories, DoI and Participation, and some of the strategies that can be grouped to either of the two. The models are driven by the wish of communication specialists and campaign experts to find a universal model of change communication which can ensure a maximum success rate and which can be employed in most cultures and circumstances. Although both approaches are still often regarded as contradictory to one another, there are many points in which they overlap and depend upon the other.

### 3.3.1 The Diffusion (or Modernization) Approach

The diffusion model is the older one of the two theories. It was established primarily on the basis of Rogers' *Diffusion of Innovation Theory* of 1962, which in turn has its roots in the modernization theory of the 1950s and 60s (Waisbord 2001: 2). In the diffusion model, the ultimate goal of any campaign according to this early generation of development communication is behavioural change through the overcoming of information deficits. Knowledge transfer would serve as the tool to break cultural bonds and traditional values which prevent developing societies to attain the state of development of the Western world. While the missionary and sometimes patronizing nature of the argumentation has somewhat lessened in recent decades, its major premises are still remaining. The model has been a favourite for campaigns of commercial and non-commercial nature. It is primarily outcome-oriented. Most of the strategies which follow the diffusion approach are designed to be surveyed and measured through quantitative data (Waisbord 2001).

Another standard formulation of the diffusion model is *knowledge-attitudes-practice* (Rogers 2003: 176). Information provides knowledge - knowledge leads to a change in attitudes which in turn impacts on practice, i.e. behavioural change. This formula clearly shows the vertical, top-down nature of the model, which is the major point of criticism. Information is transferred from the knowledgeable to the less knowledgeable who will apply it more or less thoroughly to their own situation. The grade of success depends in a strong sense on how well the recipient can be persuaded by taking into account cultural specifics or through quality of teaching. Many different strategies are employed for this persuasion. Among those studied most thoroughly are

- Social marketing,
- Social mobilization and
- Entertainment-education.

Mass media are employed extensively in diffusion campaigns. However, the benefit of interpersonal interaction has been recognized in revisions of the theory. The mass media's most powerful effect on diffusion is that it disseminates knowledge of innovations rapidly to a large audience. In certain cases it can even lead to attitude change, especially if the attitudes are only weakly held. Interpersonal communication is usually more effective in the formation and change of strongly held attitudes. The mass media have a potential to stimulate such interaction. According to the opinion-leader theory by Katz and Lazarsfeld *"there are two steps in information flow: from the media to opinion leaders, and from the leaders to the masses"* (Waisbord 2001:4).

Which type of opinion leader needs to be addressed depends on the nature of the social system, which, according to Rogers, can be either heterophilous or homophilous. Heterophilous social systems tend to encourage change of system-internal norms. They are characterized by a more positive standing towards interaction between people from different backgrounds and a greater interest in being exposed to new ideas and their opinion leaders are more adventurous. It is easier to introduce innovations through change agents in heterophilous systems. Soon after elite opinion leaders have adopted an innovative idea it is likely to trickle down to the rest of society in some sort of a domino effect.

Homophilous social systems on the other hand, tend toward preservation of their system norms. People and ideas that differ from these norms are perceived as alien and undesirable. In homophilous systems, encouraging the diffusion of an innovation is far more difficult. Change agents must target a much wider group of opinion leaders because innovations are less likely to be embraced enthusiastically. Even so, opinion leaders will be more reluctant to adopt new ideas because they are more likely to be regarded as suspicious and run the risk of dismissal from their position. Change agents must, if possible, communicate to opinion leaders a convincing argument in favour of the innovation, which accentuates the compatibility of the innovation with system norms (Rogers 2003:300ff.).

Rogers theorized that innovations would spread through society in an S-curve, with the few early adopters pioneering in the adopting a new idea, followed gradually along with popularity and the thus created trust by the majority. This process would last as long as the technology or innovation is common and well-known throughout the society. According to his model, easier and less radical ideas as well as cheap technology are likely to take off quickly, while innovations, which aim at long-term goals or greater networking for their optimum (e.g. an online job database), might require a longer time to become established, thus creating a flatter S-curve.

On the basis of these findings, Rogers proposed a five-stage model of the procedure each individual has to go through in order to make a decision in regard of an innovation, given that decisions are neither authoritative nor collective:

1. Knowledge – awareness of existence and function of the innovation
2. Persuasion – forming of a positive or negative attitude toward the innovation
3. Decision – commitment and activities towards the adoption of the innovation
4. Implementation – putting the innovation to use
5. Confirmation – evaluation and ultimate acceptance/rejection of the innovation

(Rogers 2003:168 pp.)

Criticism of this model includes that it over-simplifies the complexity of factors, which have an influence. In particular its one-way approach has been criticized. Furthermore, any interaction and the active role an adaptor plays in the diffusion process, for instance in evaluating and adapting the innovation according to their needs has been largely ignored in the theory. Cultural and other dependencies due to social or natural, or scientific-technological norms do also play no prominent role in the Diffusion of Innovation Theory.

However, despite all criticism, the theory has been proven to be a useful tool when trying to explain how ideas are spread through our society from the media. Rogers' original study is a comprehensive and even-handed treatment and an insightful explanation of the conditions that indicate that an innovation will reach the so-called critical mass of adoption, after which it becomes a self-sustaining process.

To give a well-known example: The findings of the DoI theory has been embraced successfully and wholeheartedly by more or less all of the UN organizations<sup>33</sup> in their decision to establish the role of Goodwill Ambassadors, usually prominent figures of social life such as authors, Nobel laureates, sport stars, entertainers and other celebrities which are of opinion-leading quality and might have an influence on the behaviour of the masses and foment positive attitudes toward their objectives and work.

The focus on mass media came with the increasing penetration of societies with radio and television and their great popularity in all levels. Traditional mass media are characterized by unidirectional communication between a sender and receiver (Waisbord 2001), despite attempts to increase interaction between the two later. Self-revision of the model took place in the 1970s, and from there on the socio-cultural environment in which communication takes place has been regarded as critical. During this time, the focus shifted slowly away from persuasion towards a greater share of participation and process-orientation (ibid).

### **3.3.2 Diffusion of terminology policy innovations**

Analogous to the original motivations of the Diffusion of Innovations theory, the question of why some organizations, companies or language communities adopt terminology policies more readily than others is often pronounced among terminology professionals and scientists. Rogers' theory which, while originating

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<sup>33</sup> UNESCO, UNICEF, WHO, UNHRC, UNDP, UNODC, UNFPA, FAO, UNIFEM, UNIDO all have Goodwill Ambassadors, while for instance UNIDO chose their Goodwill Ambassadors from within their target community, most other UN organizations take up a celebrity approach.

in agriculture, is describing global processes independent from which subject field the innovation in question belongs to may offer a few answers.

One of the most obvious reasons for unsuccessful campaigns is that they are not culturally adequate and do not respond to cultural traditions, beliefs and values of the social system they address. Another reason is that the complexities of communication processes are neglected. Time is an important factor in the diffusion of an innovation. Considering the bell-shaped curve of the adopter categories again, it becomes obvious that the majority adopts only after some time when there is already a certain level of personal evaluation available. Rogers notes that technical details in the persuasion quest are mostly important for the group of early adopters, the pioneers, while the majority of adopters rely almost entirely of subjective peer evaluation for their decision. According to Rogers most innovations take off at an adoption rate of 10-20%, which is the time when interpersonal networks become activated. This has an influence on the choice of media and the general design of a communication campaign. While using mass media and technical details are important stimuli to the few but crucial early adopters, a campaigner must be aware of the fact that the majority of the target audience will not be bothered with these details they are critical for some which in turn may become the necessary critical mass for the majority.

Large global companies with proper terminology management, like Microsoft, IBM and SAP are oft-cited examples for their innovative spirit and consistent embracing of terminology policies for their business processes. Likewise the European Union organizations or Canada are idealised examples for their terminology activities. They are employed frequently to present their cases in international conferences, studies and the media and thus serve as initiators of peer-to-peer networks as described in Dol. Not in all cases this is successful for the interaction is sometimes perceived as too heterophilous.

To be successful, network partners ought to be ideally homophilous in their level of understanding, background, social status. Since communicating an innovation always implies a certain degree of difference between one network partner with

knowledge of the benefits and methods of terminology planning and one without them, the communication is inherently problematic. The more homogenous the further factors, which describe the partners (social, educational, cultural, linguistic background, subject field or market segment, size, etc.) are, the more likely is a positive result of the peer-to-peer interaction concerning the adoption of the policy issue (Rogers 2003:18).

An example for a failed campaign is an international conference that featured well-designed and convincingly argued presentations by representatives of these companies to an audience consisting mainly of language planners from South Africa. These were duly impressed by the striking arguments and economic facts and data by the presenters. But, failing to recognize them as network partners they remained alien to them and did not lead to the desired result. They simply failed to share enough common features and did not “speak the same language”. A realistic assessment of the correct category is therefore fundamental in the design of the appropriate campaign strategy.

According to Dol, terminology policies are *technologies*. A technology is defined as “a design to reduce uncertainty” (ibid., p.13). Terminology policies belong to the category of technology which is dominantly “software”- or information-driven, in contrast to those technologies which consist of hardware and software components, e.g. electronic devices like mobile phones or MP3 devices. As such they are prone to slower adoption rates as their observability is low, which does not facilitate interpersonal communication with peer groups.

From the point of view of a decision-maker the terminology policy is an innovation decision which offers at least some potential benefits. However, the decision-maker is in a situation of uncertainty and it is by no means clear that the adoption of the technology “terminology policy” will be of advantage or “a superior alternative to the previous practice” (ibid.:14). He or she may thus, once enough knowledge about the terminology policy is gained, reach a positive or negative decision either on the basis of the facts which he or she considers beneficial, or, much less knowledge-based, on the subjective opinion of another

person within a network whom he or she trusts enough to be of relevance. The expansion of such networks appears to be very slow in terminology issues.

### **3.3.3 From communication to interaction - The participatory approach**

The participatory approach was in many ways a reaction on the assumptions underlying the Diffusion of Innovation theory. Unlike the diffusion model the proponents of the participation approach promoted not so much a unidirectional information transfer but a multidirectional exchange. Interaction and dialogue are regarded as catalysts for empowerment from the grassroots' level. Less emphasis is put on the outcome, but rather on the process itself that foster empowerment of all participants in the exchange. Empowerment and change is regarded as a bottom-up process, as people are required to evaluate their own situation and to find solutions in response to their own perceived needs and using their own individual, socially and culturally adequate means to achieve these goals. Creating ownership through such dialogue should not only lead to greater acceptance and relevance of measures but also to greater overall sustainability. All interpersonal methods, like group meetings, workshops, localized smaller media (such as community theatre, song and dance) can be grouped among the communication channels that are implemented following this approach. Such activities are usually tailored to the particular local situation, which makes comparison and general theorizing difficult (Figueroa et al. 2002).

The biggest problem concerning the participation model is that despite its popularity and longevity, it has remained a buzzword without a clear definition. This conceptual fuzziness is perhaps one of the reasons for its popularity. It is a vogue expression and funding-attracting label, which is employed by many planners for a wide range of situations without in fact saying much. The concept of participation enjoys backing and support from donor organizations despite lacking pillars by which it can be measured. In fact measurement and evaluation of participation projects usually takes place in the form of qualitative rating based on participant observation. Not only does this disparity make it nearly impossible

to compare participatory with diffusion programmes, but even within the category of participation the concept of how good community participation does exactly look like remains vague.

Acknowledging the lack of a comprehensive definition of participatory communication the members of a special study group, sponsored by the Rockefeller Foundation defined it as

*“a process of public and private dialogue through which people define who they are, what they want and how they can get it.”*

(Figuerola et al. 2002:ii).

This definition highlights the model's major ideal: community dialogue leading to collective action. It also implies that the change is mutual rather than unidirectional as in the diffusion model. Rifkin suggests regarding participation theory as

*“Set of views and activities which reflect a solution to a set of circumstances. The process under which the solutions develop might have some universal characteristics but the solution itself will be local.”*

(Rifkin 1996: 89)

Major criticism concerns exactly that vagueness and the lacking guidelines to achieve the ideal of participation in practice. While the theory has strong principles and arguments, its weakness is in how to translate them into practice in the field, especially in organizational settings. There is no clear indication to how far participation should reach, or whether it should be restricted to only parts of the policy-making process, for instance to the implementation stage. And if so, and the decision-making and other stages are not included, can one still speak about participation theory? Another problem of the participation paradigm is that it leads much more slowly than the diffusion approach to the desired change. For short-term interventions, when quick action is necessary in response of an emergency or crisis this might be indeed problematic.

Proponents of the diffusion paradigm criticise that the role of mass media is not given the attention they deserve concerning their role in behavioural change. It is to say that participatory policy-making is foremost a Western concept, which does not consider that participation might not be culturally adequate or acceptable universally. Individualism, rather than community, is at the core of the participatory approach. For this reason it may not show the same results everywhere or can even be harmful as it can undermine existing hierarchical structures and authority. If regarded dogmatically, the approach bears another danger as it does not allow the choice to NOT participate, and, hence, is intrinsically undemocratic. Furthermore, participation is not necessarily synonymous with equality and consensus. Diversity in societies means also that certain members are more powerful or privileged than others. This fact makes participation prone to power misuse, struggles, and corruption. And decisions that are seemingly reached at in discourse may simply be authoritarian rules in a democratic disguise.

However, the chief criticism is that the participatory paradigm is in fact saying little that is new and that without inherent participatory elements no communication strategy can work. Therefore, most of what participation proponents argue for is just a reiteration of what is practiced anyhow and serves to little more than creating artificial polemics and tensions instead concentrating on how to integrate elements from both paradigms to meet the needs while allowing greatest possible flexibility. Development communication theories should not be either/or-issues. Rather, both approaches have values of their own right (Morris 2003).

### **3.3.3 Reconciliation and convergence of the approaches**

While the polarizing rift between the two approaches has become less deep and impenetrable in recent decades, it still exists. Despite the differences of its origins there have been efforts to reconcile them, firstly and foremost by recognizing the

overarching goal of improving peoples' lives through self-reliance in harmony with the environment.

Most experts, campaigners and donors are willing to accept that the two approaches are not utterly incompatible. The new challenge is now to combine the ideal mix of strategies for each campaign environment. Both camps have gradually approached and adopted a mutual understanding of the merits of each other's principles. There can be no sustainable development if it is not knowledge-based, and vice versa, knowledge transfer can not be successful if its variables processes and exchange are ignored. Both are interdependent of one another (Morris 2003:225-248). Development communication should not be concerned with outcomes only but with processes as well, and empowerment and self-reliance should be prior goal of the agenda. Empowerment processes have a long-term perspective and this fact needs to be taken into recognition in any measuring and programme evaluation. Measuring, however, is not only a problem of participatory campaigns and the debate about standardized success indicators is still open.

One-way communication or information transfer is important, and using mass media has proven very successful. But it needs to be combined with interpersonal communication and exchange. The design of appropriate media programmes to stimulate public debate and the use of digital, multi-sender, multi-receiver media assist in this effort. Computer-literacy training should therefore be integrated part of each campaign. Campaigns should be integrated in existing social structures and cultures and take a holistic approach. They can no longer be seen in isolation of each other lest they will fail eventually. This requires as much top-down as bottom-up activities and a thorough environmental analysis.

The following factors have been identified by Waisbord as future-directed points of convergence.

- The need of political will;
- A tool-kit conception of strategies;

- Integration of “top-down” and “bottom-up” approaches;
- Integration of multimedia and interpersonal communication;
- Personal and environmental approaches should be integrated.

(Waisbord 2001:30pp.)

Success relies on grassroots analysis of needs and methods as well as community involvement in its implementation. And it relies on thorough stakeholder analysis to get a comprehensive grasp on the diversity of the target audience of a campaign (Morris 2003:241 pp.). Both may be regarded as each emphasizing different methods of one and the same approach. The Diffusion of Innovation Theory needs participation as it can ever only serve as a catalyst for dialogue. Vice versa, empowerment without information transfer is impossible. Informed choices are the key for truly useful participatory policy-making. Therefore diffusion and information transfer must be part and parcel of any participatory process. Emphasize might be stronger on either methodology, depending on hierarchical structure of culture, individualist vs. collectivist society. The policy-process described in Chapter 2 incorporates and encourages both, as will be demonstrated in the example campaign plan in Chapter 3.6.

Most campaigns use some combination of strategies, however, not the same combination. This makes it additionally difficult to compare. Strategies vary, depending on:

- Local needs;
- Resources;
- Politics;
- Programme objectives;
- Funding agencies.

Information and Communication Technologies as new means for a well-balanced communication have changed the possibilities and communication behaviour by moving away from a sender-receiver methodology towards multi-sender-

multi-receiver methods in which interaction is possible to a much larger degree and with a broader and more distributed audience (or better interaction group). The mass media, especially radio programmes have undergone massive changes in the last decades. People are now more interested in listening to interactive programmes, like talk shows or phone-ins. This makes it more difficult to convey messages in a traditional diffusion-oriented way as people have a greater choice of what they will listen to and more opinions to choose from. On the other hand this offers innumerable opportunities for those who can use these interactive and inheriting participatory communication methods.

### **3.3.4 Activities and traditions**

In the following section I describe some of the most relevant strategies and methods used in communication campaigns. These methods have been employed successfully in a wide range of domains and by various organizations. Most notable is the great interest and engagement of many of the large Intergovernmental Organizations like the World Health Organization (WHO), the World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO), the World Bank, etc. in using such methods for their various campaigns. The strategies described below can be grouped in either of the two theoretical strands; however, as my proposition follows the argument that a good campaign uses a well-balanced and custom-made mix of both methodologies, my emphasis is less on clustering these activities to either, and more on evaluating their suitability for the application in terminology policy-making.

### **3.3.4.1 Social Marketing – Employing marketing strategies in development and change communication**

*“Social Marketing is the application of management and marketing technologies to pro-social and nonprofit programmes.”*

(Meyer & Dearing, quoted in Waisbord 2001:7)

Social Marketing is one of the more widespread and influential approaches, which borrows ideas from the Diffusion of Innovations Theory. The concept has been used long before its first analytical descriptions in the 1970s. The strategy has its roots in the idea of using marketing and management tools for socially responsible issues. Methods and standard techniques from commercial marketing were recognised as useful tools by the growing number of NGOs to transport socially relevant development messages. Among these techniques is the analysis of consumer behaviour, market segmentation, formative research to maximize the effects of effectiveness of a campaign, etc.

The central premise of Social Marketing is therefore related to this discipline. According to this, it is the goal of an advertising campaign to make the public aware of the existence, the price, and the benefits of specific products. It achieves this goal through a top-down approach aiming at behaviour change through persuasion. The concept was first developed in the United States but later incorporated in most global development programmes. Social Marketing hence did not evolve directly from either diffusion or participatory theory, but rather taken over from the commercial sector with the idea of addressing social problems with these efficient and effective tools (Waisbord 2001:8).

This strategy has been widely used in a number of development programmes in the third world with varying success. Its criticism derives mainly from the often doubtful motives of its sponsors and the effectiveness of their applications. An infamous example is the promotion of milk powder for infant nutrition in a number of Third World countries in the 1960s at the cost of the common breast feeding

practises, which resulted in cases of grave malnutrition due to wrong handling of the powdered milk by the mothers. The programme has often been accused of being biased by sponsors' interests and therefore running contrary to its social development cover.

Critics have argued that Social Marketing, like any marketing is manipulating populations and is interested solely in goals without caring about the means to achieve them, justifying nearly any of them if it leads to a desired outcome. The response of Social Marketing proponents to this criticism was that this strategy is neither inherently good nor bad. Moreover, they argue, the belief that marketing has the ability to trick people in adopting behaviour that is contrary to their moral values is wrong. Therefore such criticism as above is certainly exaggerated and leads only to underestimate the potential social marketing offers by its ability to positioning products and concepts in traditional belief systems. Generally it requires careful research and cultural sensitivity. If a desired behaviour is not present in a society, social marketing will be ineffective (Kotler & Roberto in Waisbord, 2001:9).

#### **3.3.4.2 Social Mobilization**

Social Marketing techniques are not very effective when there is no directly perceived personal interest in the adoption of an innovation, which might be the case if terminology awareness is not high and terminology planning is not perceived as key issue of interest to improve a communication situation, and the role of each individual in this (Waisbord, 2001).

The United Nations Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF), therefore, has adapted this approach in view of greater participation, and has termed this altered approach Social Mobilization (SOCMOB)<sup>34</sup>. Social Mobilization emphasizes community interaction and political coalition building by bringing

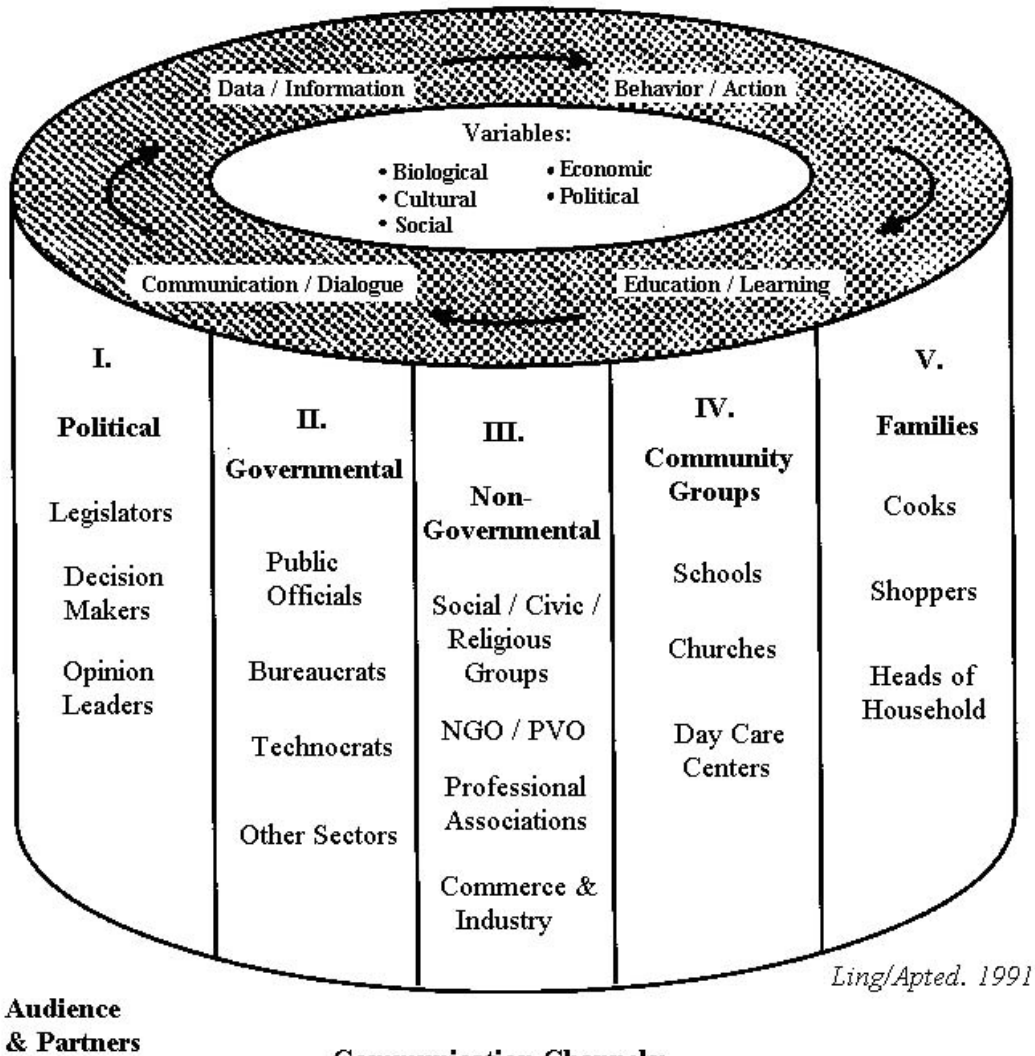
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<sup>34</sup> WHO, a close partner of UNICEF in many programmes has adopted SOCMOB as strategy for health promotion, thus referring to a holistic, participatory approach of the same type.

together all feasible allies and potential stakeholders, regardless of their own interest and perception of a given issue. This approach has the objective of creating ownership and trigger public debate. It is based on mutual benefits and the true and real interest of the partners, as well as a wide and decentralised structure.

Mobilization refers to a process through which community members become aware of a problem, set a priority and decide upon steps for community action. An innovation thus loses the flavour of being alien to the community and brought in from outside of it. The issue becomes part of the community of use, is owned by it. Although components of the process may be everyday practice in many development programs, they tend to be taken up in isolation of one another (ICEC Tulane University Website <http://www.tulane.edu/~icec/socmob.htm>, accessed 2008-10-24).

**Social Mobilization Continuum**  
**An Illustration of Social Groups in Partnership**



*Ling/Apted. 1991*

Figure 3.1 The Social Mobilization Continuum by Ling (Source: ICEC Tulane University Website <http://www.tulane.edu/~icec/socmob.htm>)

### 3.3.4.3 Advocacy and lobbying

One very important activity around the whole policy process is advocacy. Advocacy is an integral part of policy implementation processes in both commercial and non-commercial settings. The World Health Organization (WHO) stresses the importance of advocacy and lobbying in its worldwide programmes, understanding them as

*“activities designed to place” an issue “high on the political/decision-making agenda, foster political will, increase financial and other resources on a sustainable basis.”*

(WHO Advocacy, Communication and Social Mobilization to fight TB)

Advocacy and lobbying they are methods for coalition building and the creation of public engagement. Especially with non-governmental organizations the term “lobbying” has a strong negative connotation (SNAP report, OMB watch <http://www.ombwatch.org/article/articleview/769/1/101>, slide 18 pp., accessed 2008-10-24). However, advocacy or lobbying are both about educating decision-makers about the importance and the necessity of strategic planning of terminology.

The terms advocacy and lobbying are sometimes used synonymously. Although there is a difference in the goal that it is important to understand in this context. Both activities are appeals of an organization on behalf of the people it serves or represents about a certain issue. Both have the aim of educating about this issue and thus improving its status and perceived importance. But while advocacy refers the general activity of campaigning and informing and raising awareness, lobbying refers specifically to advocacy efforts that attempt to influence legislation. Hence, while lobbying is always a type of advocacy, not all types advocacy are lobbying. Advocacy is the process of gaining the power to influence political actions, and exercising it. Lobbying, in most cases, is only successful when it is coupled with other advocacy activities, like keeping the interest of

donors and other stakeholders alive through reports and information about the issue.

#### **3.3.4.4 Entertainment-Education and Media Advocacy**

Entertainment-education is another activity or strategy that has its roots in the diffusion theory. Its scope is the dissemination of development information through the mass media. The concept was originally developed around 1975 in Mexico and has since been used predominately in developing countries. Examples are soap operas and shows which have been aired in countries like India, Pakistan, the Gambia, Mali, etc. In its prototypic variety it takes the form of a soap opera (“telenovela”) that includes social development messages like family planning, literacy and adult education or health issues. One of the first Entertainment-education activities that was scientifically analysed was a 1969 Peruvian telenovela with the title *Simplemente María*. Its story was about a maid who attended sewing classes at night. This telenovela was not initially meant to be an interventionist activity but rather for pure entertainment purposes. It was the first, whose effects on transferring information was studied closely after it became evident that sewing machine sales roared and a virtual sewing-craze broke out especially among poor and migrant women (the same social group as the main protagonist) due to the popularity of the show.

The studies came to at least two important findings: (1) That watching the show was an impulse to the women’s believes in their abilities to self-directed action, and (2) in offering a role model to these women, of whom they were able to learn through observation and imitation. Entertainment-education derives from the idea, that change messages or information are best accepted broadly, if they are presented in an entertaining and un-didactic format. It has since then become a more or less successfully repeated strategy to deliver social messages by combining educational purposes with entertaining methods. Like other strategies deriving from the diffusion theory, Entertainment-education follows a rather unidirectional model of sender-channel-message-receiver and has been criticised

for this, despite its success. The main criticism focuses on the fact that pre-conceived decisions or alien ideals, often derived from Western culture, the lifestyle of the ruling elite, are transported in a top-down manner to the target group.

However, some experts have defended Entertainment-education's potential by stressing that it is not meant to act as a change facilitator on its own, but rather serves as catalyst for interpersonal communication which in turn may lead to an attitude screening and stimulant for those individuals who are anyway predisposed to change (Morris 2003: 231). In this role as stimulant of dialogue, interpersonal communication and stronger participatory principles, Entertainment-education is also sometimes referred to as Media Advocacy.

Like Social Marketing, Entertainment-education can only work well if it is rooted in traditional local culture and morals. A strong identification with the story and the protagonists and the sympathy factor are as crucial to acceptance as is passing a critical review of the storyline's relevance. These critical factors require prior interaction and study of the target group (Waisbord 2001:21pp.).

Although Entertainment-education's prototypical appearances is that of a television or radio show, the concept includes the knowledge transfer through other types of entertainment as well. These can be song, dance, theatre, group games, etc. Which type is used largely depends on the context, culture and technical infrastructure of a society. Especially in these other types of media the distinction between top-down diffusion model and interactive participation-model is often blurred. A contribution, altering and feedback-mechanism is inherent in small-scale direct (face-to-face) entertainment forms.

The great success of especially mobile technology and its frequency even in the poorest areas of the world makes them one of the most valuable new channels for change communication. The Internet has another intrinsic feature: It allows for a wider network of communication partners outside of the close-knit geographical

environment. Such weak ties have been described as being most effective for the spread of new ideas (Rogers 2003: 341).

Entertainment-education is not an entirely unknown strategy in the dissemination of terminology policies. TV and radio shows, especially community radio have been used for the implementation and even discussion of new terminology in various parts of Africa in the past. In his paper of 2005, James Ogola Onyango reports on problems experienced in the implementation of terminology planning products for Kiswahili in Kenya<sup>35</sup>. He describes a number of radio programmes by “Kiswahili enthusiasts”, like Nation FM’s show *Kamusi Changamka*, which ended in September 2005. Up to then the radio station had a primarily national, bilingual outlook (English-Kiswahili). After September 2005 the station was changed to Easy FM with a focus of internationalisation. The use of English as a single medium increased.

*Kamusi Changamka* was broadcast once weekly every Saturday between 06:00 a.m. and 10:00 a.m., prime time for Kenya’s poorer population and lower middle-class, especially women. According to personal communication with an informant who was a high-school student at that time, it was also popular among school children who used it for Kiswahili learning. In one section of the programme some English terms were translated by the presenter of the show or by a guest, and usually referred to an important and authentic event or news story of that week or month. Other contributors of terms could be listeners in form of directing a question to the host. Onyango criticises the programme for lacking clear aims and objectives as well as the controversy and doubtful acceptability of the translations. Since the discussed terms were not patterned on domains logical sequence and references were also lacking due to the special nature of the medium and to the fact that no written records were kept or made available for the interested listener.

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<sup>35</sup> Kiswahili is the national language in most East African countries and enjoys official status in Kenya as well as in neighbouring Tanzania. Despite these similarities and nearly equally widespread Kiswahili proficiency among the citizens in both these countries, the de-facto status and efforts in terminology planning differs greatly, with Tanzania being clearly ahead of Kenya in view of infrastructure and number of projects.

Another show was titled *Lugha Yetu* (our language) and broadcast on Kenya Broadcasting Corporation's National Service, a Kiswahili radio service. In this show Kiswahili scholars met to discuss the Kiswahili equivalent of selected terms from a specific domain or concerning issues of society. As with *Kamusi Changamka* the audience of *Lugha Yetu* has no opportunity to interact. According to Onyango the show was still on-and-off the programme.

Another general and specialized Kiswahili awareness programme with interactive dial-in parts for audience questions which are answered by *Wataalamu wa Studio* (Kiswahili for "experts in the studio") of Royal Media Service's radio station Radio Citizen. The programme helps with terminology problems, explains meanings, translations, correct use, etc. The BBC's weekly 10-minute Kiswahili programme *Makala ya Kiswahili* (Kiswahili article) also covers technical terminology besides general language issues, poems, children's names, etc.

Although these examples from Kenya show a more didactic and scientific approach than the prototypical E-E intervention, or at least a stronger focus on the educational side, I put them in this category because they show similar objectives. The discussion of language issues or the dissemination of standardized terminology can become integral part of just about any TV or radio show. Especially health, legal or risk terminology, to name just the most urgent and obvious, can thus be transferred in a most entertaining way as part of medical soap operas, crime programmes, legal or action thrillers, theme, quiz and music shows or documentaries. Sports events also provide (and in fact are used as such frequently) an opportunity for the implementation of terminology via the mass media as they reach a large number of members from all parts of society. E-E thus offers a broad range of opportunities to popularize the language debate or stimulate discussion among and between laypeople and professionals in a domain (e.g. health care).

### **3.3.4.5 Using the educational sector and capacity building**

The educational sector plays a central and prominent role in fostering behavioural change. Intensifying cooperation with the sector, as well as designing additional capacity building activities, are part of the implementation phase of terminology policies. Including the education sector is also an important awareness-raising method. Capacity building fulfils different tasks and requires careful planning (Sayers 2006:50 pp.). The sector is at the same time an important stakeholder in the policy-process as its development is one of the major objectives to implement and sustainable operation of a terminology policy.

Capacity building aspects will be included in most terminology policies. Capacity building is necessary

- to teach users how to make use of services,
- to train terminologists and subject field specialists to plan and manage terminology, and
- to educate administrative personnel to sustain the infrastructure that is necessary to sustainably operate the terminology policy.

It takes different forms according to the dimension of training necessary for the different users. Subject field specialists need far less knowledge about terminology science than a terminologist, translator and other language professional. However, they need to be skilled in the consultation and maintenance of databases and glossaries, workflow for consultations with terminologists, etc. A journalist may need training on how to access terminological repositories for different domains quickly and reliably by using a variety of media. Establishing which skills are required for a successful implementation and operation of a terminology policy, for which users and how to achieve them, are necessary questions to be answered. Also, to which extend the educational sector and vocational training institutes can be involved to teach a general awareness and required skills, has to be researched and decided upon.

Terminologists do not always and everywhere benefit from tertiary level education or vocational training in this field, even if such a curriculum exists. Many extract their knowledge primarily from conferences, workshops and seminars, in-house training as well as e-learning opportunities tailored to their needs.

On the national and community-level, capacity building often includes the creation of the necessary infrastructure, especially, where no such existed. A ministry or language service may become responsible to conduct training or to oversee the establishment of training activities. This organization is likely to act as a general clearing house for information concerning terminology policy matters and also as networking institution.

Capacity building is not an on/off task but a continuous process which shows results in the long-term. It may be triggered by the policy but not be finished at a certain point. True sustainability of a policy, its evaluation and adaptation to changes can only be achieved through the establishment of an infrastructure and capacity.

Capacity building measures include

- the creation of terminology organizations/ departments/ institutions on national level (public departments);
- national and international non-governmental organizations;
- national, regional and international networking;
- horizontal/ cross-departmental working group or task forces within an organization to take care of terminology problems and questions;
- research programs at universities and research institutes;
- the development of relevant curricula for vocational, subject-field, translators and other education;
- conferences, seminars, workshops;
- industry meetings, public-private partnerships;

- the participation in international programmes and initiatives;
- involvement in standardization activities;
- the development of teaching and key reference material (e-learning programmes, handbooks, databases, glossaries, etc.);
- mentoring.

Capacity building does not only aim at improving the quality of terminology planning and management, but also to familiarize stakeholders with the topic, destigmatization and motivation. It will assist in the provision of new assessment studies and resources for the policy evaluation and revision, and are measurable indicators of implementation success.

### **3.4 Summary: Success and failure factors**

It is difficult to point to universal success and failure factors in a communication campaign. What works in one instance may be totally ineffective under different circumstances. To this date no single standard solution exists concerning the methods employed in development communication and it is not likely to happen soon, nor is it even wished for. The toolbox approach is often propagated. It refers to the idea of custom-fitting a campaign individually by taking out of a kit of analysed and successful methods only those which are adequate for a particular situation, environment and time (Waisbord 2001:31). Figure 3 visualizes this approach and also how communication strategies are an integrated factor of terminology policies.

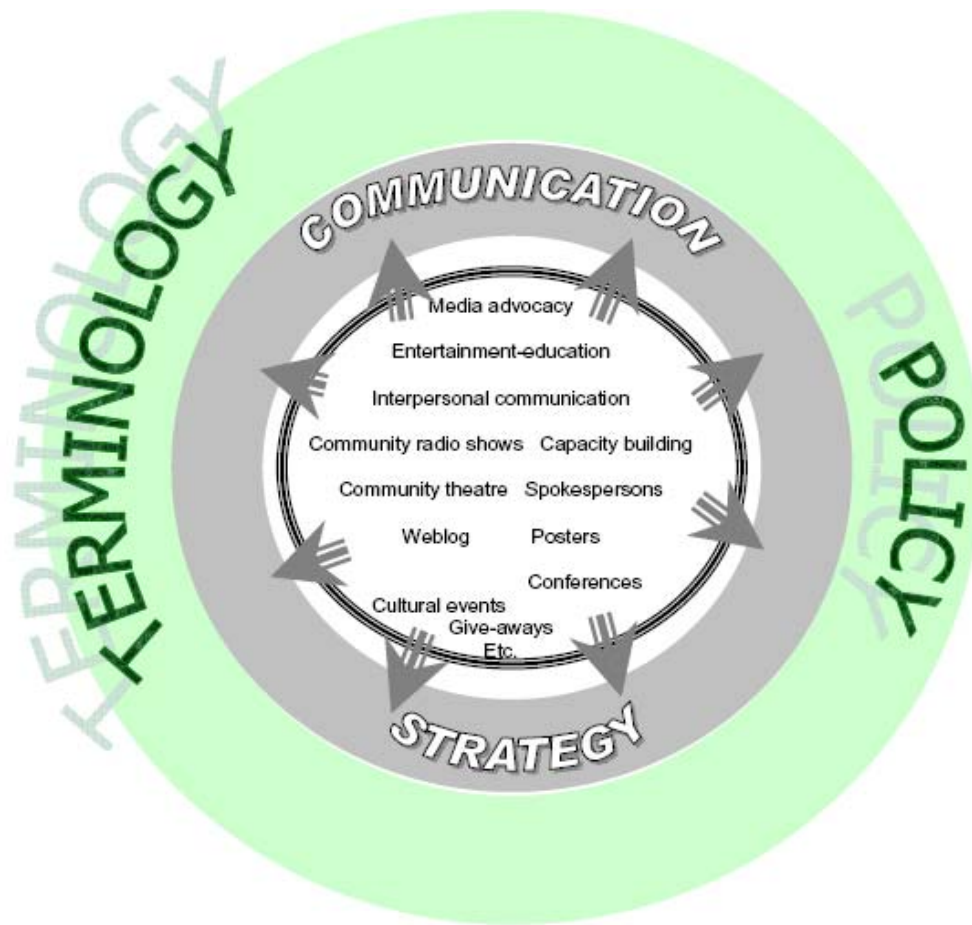


Figure 3.2 “Toolbox”: Various methods are employed in communication strategies in support of terminology policies

The complexity and diversity between cultural and professional communities and within these communities does not allow for a one-size-fits-all solution. From a traditional viewpoint this may appear as a disadvantage. But there is also a positive side to this diversity. Globalization has intensified the trend in which links between different subject fields are explored and interdependencies which have long been neglected are now enjoying enhanced recognition. Network nodes are linked in new and adventurous ways and new paths are explored. This is the new scientific challenge. Communication is often analogous with this development and its inherent cultural and diversity studies and will adapt quickly.

### 3.5 Evaluation of communication campaigns

Measuring success of the communication processes that accompany a terminology policy, we have to consult two types of data which both have an equally strong significance. The most obvious results concerning success or failure of a campaign are produced by *quantitative* measurement. Quantitative data are such which are tangible and can be expressed in numbers. Which quantitative data can be measured in terminology policies depend on the content and scope of the policy itself.

- Rate of adoption of the policy within an organization;
- Number of users/contributors to a database;
- Frequency of use of recommended terminology in documents;
- Number of documents produced following a proposed new workflow and using new technology;
- Economic data that show an increased productivity as a direct result of the implementation of the policy;
- Number of produced, distributed and used dictionaries, books and other terminology products.

It is, however, dangerous to rely only on such quantitative data, since these may show an incomplete and only momentary picture. They may also be deceptive in the way that they tell nothing about sustainability of the policy and the processes involved. For this we need to consult qualitative data as well. Summarizing from the previous two chapters, qualitative data comprise in particular:

- *Appropriateness*: cultural, contextual, geopolitical, socio-cultural, etc.;
- *Broadness/inclusiveness*: stakeholder participation, diversity sensitive/audience segmentation, using multiple communication channels;
- *Comprehensiveness*: networking, integration, participatory approach;
- *Sustainable*: capacity building, creating problem-solving capability and local ownership, community empowerment, lobby for funds;

- *Knowledge-based*: informed, facts and studies, knowledge of the environment/rules and regulations/laws, based on community dialogue/discourse, based on existing social norms.

These conclusions, and in particular the emphasis on being inclusive of the beneficiaries of a policy in the communication process from the beginning, are supported by other research, like SNAP, a multi-year research project on factors that motivate non-profit organizations to engage in policy issues. The SNAP report makes it clear that awareness about the role an individual organization (a stakeholder) can play in forming and implementing a policy is not often high. Almost half the study participants do not regard getting involved in policy as ethical or important. And the reasons for this are primarily due to financial constraints and lacking information and capacity (SNAP report OMB Watch, 2002: <http://www.ombwatch.org/article/articleview/769/1/101>, slide 22 pp., accessed 2008-10-28)

From the above it becomes clear that the following qualitative principles have a close connection to common management principles:

**Creating trust, by appearing**

honest,  
open,  
transparent,  
realistic,  
prepared,  
knowledgeable.

**Creating commitment through**

top-down and bottom-up approaches,  
stakeholder participation,  
lobbying, advocacy,  
ownership,  
cultural sensitiveness.

### **Supplying evidence-based arguments of**

relevance,  
realism,  
embeddedness (vertically and horizontally),  
standards.

### **Motivating through**

incentives and rewards,  
small steps - big success.

### **Being informative through**

awareness campaigns, social marketing,  
omnipresence,  
slow familiarization,  
using different media: mass media, ICT,  
theatre/songs/movies, brochures/leaflets/posters, signs,  
schools, community centres, work places,  
creating forums for discussion.

### **Acting sustainable, by providing**

education, training (vocational, secondary and tertiary),  
capacity building (to staff new infrastructure, to create jobs),  
monitoring/ evaluation/ reviews,  
locally created content,  
authentic, relevant material,  
for it to become a continuing, living process.

The lack of a general campaign theory, as well as of success and failure indicators, can cause wrong campaign evaluation. By looking solely for quantitative outcomes evaluators may overlook qualitative success factors. As with many other behavioural change implementations, terminology policies include both short-term and long-term perspectives and correspond to a diverse and complex environment. Not taking into account campaign dynamics may

therefore lead to use the wrong units of analysis. It may even lead to comparisons between inappropriate strategies or groups. Since the demonstration of success is such a vital component of policy implementation and the evaluation of its success or failure, which in turn may lead to continuation or abandonment of the policy, a sound knowledge and proper analysis of a campaign is so important.

Decision makers and donors expect rapid measurable results. This is understandable since usually the donor community is itself under continuous scrutiny of the general public, especially other stakeholders. Hence, there is a great need to put emphasis on transparency and accountability, but also the ever-existing danger that a policy campaign is underestimated and rated a failure too quickly and for deceptive reasons. Maybe a campaign was indeed a true failure because the objectives have been set wrong, messages have not been exposed widely enough, or were simply too complex or otherwise not acceptable to the recipients. However, the failure could also lie in flawed evaluation due to lack of understanding the objectives, target group and environment of a campaign or the required time span that lead to behavioural change. In the following graph some possible success indicators are visualized according to the various methods and phases in which they are used.

Figure 3.3 tries to match the policy phases described in Chapter 2 with communicative interventions in preparation of a model communication plan for terminology policy-making.

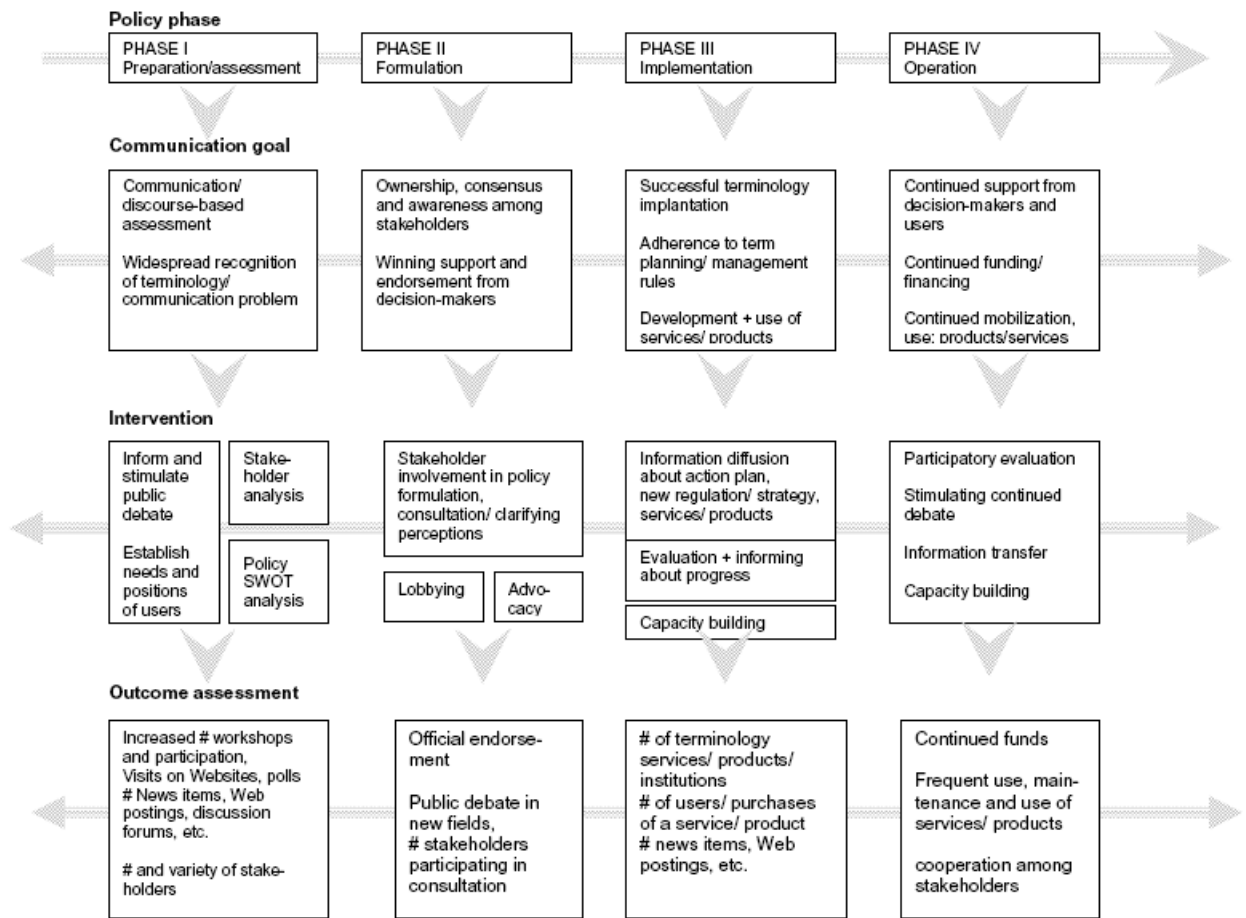


Figure 3.3 Success indicators according to communication methods and policy-making phases

One-to-one matches are difficult to assign and in fact not desired here, because the described diversity of situations and need for a tailored planning prevents such a matching. However, it is necessary to try and measure the success of a communication campaign. For this a set success criteria and communication goals have to be set up, against which we can compare what has been done and achieved in practice. By aligning expected outcomes we have some kind of assessment tool at hand. Measurable outcomes refer to the degree of familiarity with the policy. Such a widespread information spread is achieved especially through the utilization of mass media to reach a large audience and the stimulation of interpersonal communication networks. Adoption rates, like the number of registered users or contributors to a terminological database, partners in a cooperative network of terminology institutions, departments in a company who follow a prescribed methodology, number of studies, research articles published, etc.), also tell about success or failure of a communication campaign.

Such quantifiable outcomes are important evaluation tools but say little about qualitative principles in the design of a campaign which I describe below in a model campaign plan.

### **3.6 Planning an awareness-raising campaign for terminology policies**

Terminology planning needs can be categorized into material needs (infrastructure, access to terminology, information and communication technology, budget, training...) which to address is topic of the terminology policy to be developed. Another need is to communicate the problem - and the solution - properly. The communication strategy as a whole, and its details, need careful planning parallel to the policy-development. Since there can not be a single communication plan for terminology policy making which can be used for all purposes and situations, a methodology is helpful for the planning of a campaign. The following may serve as a model of such a methodology. It can be used also to compare and evaluate past awareness-campaigns against. The proposed methodology is largely based on the communication planning model described by Guy Bessette (Bessette 2004) and adapted to possible terminology planning requirements.

The first and foremost activity to take place during the first phase of the policy process: it is the gathering of information on the communication needs of the community in which terminology planning takes place. This includes answering the following questions:

- Which is my target audience?
- Which is the main problem?
- Which is my message?
- Which communication channels are available and feasible for the terminology policy message?
- Which is the best timing?

These questions should be considered during the information-gathering and stakeholder analysis. Besides gathering data, during this phase the building of mutual trust should be attempted. Trust is essential for successful communication (Bessette 2004:51)

Designing a message (or information, as it is preferred to call in participatory paradigm) is another activity that needs proper planning. An ideal message

- a) addresses emotions and relate to personal situation (story-telling),
- b) is credible (based on facts and statistics, endorsed by reputed persons or organizations),
- c) is precise and informative (not be overloaded with redundant or unnecessary information),
- d) is recognizable (use mascot, patron, celebrity spokesperson), and
- e) is linked to something that is already known and familiar to the audience.

Again, involving a selection of willing stakeholders can help achieve these goals (Sayers 2006:22). A message should be defined by novelty, relevance to the audience and the right timing of its dissemination. A wrongly timed campaign or a message which is not considered relevant for the recipient will lose much of its impact (ibid, 28 pp.).

An audience can be quite diverse, no matter whether it concerns a single organization or an entire language community. While within an organization different gender, age and cultural and professional background influences, how messages are received and responded to, an even larger degree of diversity is involved in terminology planning of an entire society or nation. There, problems like illiteracy, economic disadvantages and disabilities are more pronounced. The principle of selective perception describes how an individual perceives only those innovations and technologies (including policies as acts of communication) which are somehow relevant to their very personal situation and in consistence with own values, beliefs or traditions. Similarly, the principle of selected exposure explains that messages that do not meet these criteria are simply ignored or avoided (Rogers 2003: 171).

After this initial data gathering on audience, existing and traditional communication infrastructure and the problem in question, it is important to become very clear about the objective of the campaign. On the basis of this, concrete actions and tools to be employed can be assigned. In a smaller setting like that of a company or organization it might be better to begin with interpersonal meetings to discuss the issue of terminology, find out how different departments and persons stand towards it before tackling individual groups of stakeholders. Within a language community, the way stakeholders communicate and the type of information they need, is likely to be much more diverse than within a corporation. Each group of stakeholders should therefore be analysed separately before assigning tools and media and activities. As much as possible those tools which are already in existence should be utilized. In language communities which have a great radio penetration but only few newspapers in circulation or libraries in use, it is certainly worthwhile to make preference to target the audience by means of the first over the latter.

Another obvious factor is cost. Both the preparation of a message and the dissemination are costly in terms of working time and material. Again, already existing media and free services (like a company's intranet, Weblogs, etc.) offer a budget choice. However, it is useful to explore seemingly costly alternatives as they might turn out affordable. A certain celebrity might be personally enthusiastic and contribute free of charge, a public broadcaster might have an obligation to report on issues related with terminology. In many cases it is just a question of how to wrap and frame the issue in a current topic to attract more media interest. Obviously, this is not as simple as it sounds. Again, the more stakeholders are involved in the planning of the media campaign the higher the chances for success.

Tools to be used in a communication-campaign can be roughly divided into

1. mass media
2. community media
3. traditional media
4. group media
5. interpersonal

(Bessette 2004:116 pp.)

Mass media include print media, such as newspapers and general or specialized magazines. They reach a large general or topically restricted readership. It is a valuable tool to disseminate and popularize standardized and indigenous terminology but may not be the medium of choice in situations of low literacy rates and less media-savvy regions. Mass media also include radio and television. Both these audiovisual media have a great potential for terminology planning and awareness, as the example from Kenya demonstrated.

Community media may be more influential or easier to cooperate with in developing countries and minority language communities as it may be better able to include local language issues and have a greater relevance to the listeners than the great national stations. However, these have usually a more attractive entertainment programme and therefore enjoy greater popularity. A downside is the comparatively high cost involved in the production and broadcasting of television shows.

Traditional media include art forms like theatre, music and story-telling. These media are particularly relevant to disseminate standard terminology, inform about language rights and terminology services and products in rural areas and development communities.

Posters, brochures, etc., can be regarded as group media according to Bessette's classification. They are often used in social marketing activities to raise awareness on a service, a particular right, or as a reminder to follow a

specific procedure. They can be helpful as reminders, to familiarize with terminology in various languages, to visualize an organizations language policy. They require for a maximum effect a combination with interpersonal communication, workshops and other dialogue. The participatory conceptualization and creation of posters, banners, trinkets, clothes and fabrics, cultural artefacts, slogans<sup>36</sup>, songs, etc. itself enhances awareness and active occupation with the topic of terminology and its many effects and applications while at the same time ensuring a certain degree of involvement, ownership, and appropriateness of the final product. Besides producing artistic and attractive media, it furthermore has a certain entertainment value, which might be appreciated by particular target communities (Sayers 2006:45).

Interpersonal communication tools include discussions, workshops, brainstorming sessions, tele- and videoconferencing, exhibitions and Web-based discussion forums, e-mails, mobile short text messages (SMS), social networks (e.g. LinkedIn™, MySpace™, Orkut™, Facebook™). These are a mix of mass and interpersonal media, bearing features of both types (Rogers 2003: 215). Since they facilitate feedback and dialogue more than mass media, they are classified as interpersonal media. The Internet has a potential ability to link communities and it increasingly replaces traditional mass media like newspapers in some communities. With its development towards a more and more multilingual platform and improved mobile access it becomes relevant also for development communities, and where there is a low landline communication infrastructure. Preferences for the kind of information is accessed in the Internet vary between cultures and age groups. Some cultures have a higher liking for games, videos and other entertainment than others which use it primarily for information retrieval. Internet communication activities should take this into consideration (Sayers 2006: 49 pp.).

Before a large scale campaign is launched it is helpful to pre-test its relevance and impact in a smaller group. This will help improving the content and texts,

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<sup>36</sup> A slogan is a short phrase which is employed repeatedly in various media to increase recognition and memorizing.

possible slogans and pictures, choose the right material and media, and distribution methods and channels as well as feedback possibilities. At the same time partnerships should be established and nurtured. The importance of dealing with the mass media and maintaining good working relations with these contacts are often underestimated.

An important part in the planning of a campaign is to design a strategy of how and when address which individuals. Members of language communities or organizations differ in age, gender, cultural origin, linguistic knowledge, physical abilities, educational background, etc. They also differ in terms of personality, “daringness”, wealth, personal networks, location and other attributes.

In the two previous chapters I have already described the importance of opinion leadership and critical mass for the process of the diffusion and the adoption of a terminology policy message. Getting the right message to the right persons at the right time during a campaign is vital for its success. Identifying opinion leaders is not an easy task and must be carefully planned. As noted they are integrated in the systems norms and are individuals whose opinion is held in high regard, but who other members of the same system can still identify with. Rogers (2003: 319) notes that one of the most common mistakes in campaigns is the wrong choice of opinion leaders. Often, persons are chosen who are too venturesome and innovative, not enough embedded in the norms and therefore suspicious. They resemble more the change agent/terminology expert than the target audience. Another danger is that the opinion leader is overused by the change agent.

*“A change agent may correctly identify the opinion leaders in a system but then concentrate his or her attention so much on these few leaders that they become too innovative in the eyes of their followers or become perceived as overly identified with the change agent. Thus, a change agent can “wear out” the credibility of opinion leaders by making them too innovative.”*

(Rogers 2003:388)

Once identified and persuaded, opinion leaders need to be continually encouraged to continue their work of diffusing the policy message further (ibid: 325). It may be necessary to plan for incentives of financial or non-financial kind to attract early adopters. For the implementation of terminology products playful competitions could be organized - and reported about! They could even be broadcast by mass media or Internet channels if they are attractive to a large enough audience. It is useful to continually hint to the large public that the critical mass is nearly reached. This is particularly helpful when it is difficult for target individuals to observe the adoption rate of the policy within their system.

Systems norms might be more or less encouraging towards innovation, but even within a system there are likely to be slight differences in these norms. In a conservative language community, for example, certain domains and professions are even less or even more conservative than others and, depending on which side is more in line with the attempted policy, this would be the target group of early adopters (ibid: 361).

As an example, a terminology policy favouring indigenous terms over foreign – e.g. English – influences might select the most conservative groups within the respective language community, like conservative nationalist political parties, artists and celebrities or publishers for the diffusion of their policy. Vice versa, a more innovative, change-oriented policy would be targeted at such domains known for an equally or comparably innovative attitude: certain research institutes, mass media channels, globally operating companies and industries. After the change has reached the critical mass within these groups, an important step has been made towards reaching the system-wide tipping point.

The mass media are one of the most powerful allies for awareness-raising. However, their angle, work methods and ethics are a world of its own rules. Messages are often not judged according to their relevance or even correctness, but their newsworthiness. Story-telling potential is crucial to be considered for being broadcast. Messages are edited and changed and sometimes skipped at the very last moment for the emergence of a more thrilling item (Islam 2002).

Dealing with the media can be a frustrating experience for language planners, and NGOs, but they can also be a good channel for any communication campaign. Besides the mass media, partnerships may be relevant with authorities of various fields, celebrities, theatre groups and artists, specialized agencies of different domains with a high degree of relevance to the campaign (e.g. the national health ministry, the World Health Organization, prominent clinics for health terminology related issues).

Each awareness-campaign needs an implementation plan which states actions to be undertaken, a timeline to be followed and, if necessary, a budget plan. It furthermore needs close monitoring and evaluation of its appropriateness, dialogue-stimulating ability and impact. It is useful to employ a variety of media and repeat key message in all of them in order to enforce it.

#### 4 Communicating South Africa's terminology policy

One of the most important statements in the Executive Summary of the *UNESCO Guidelines for Terminology Policies* is that a

*“terminology policy or strategy, especially when conceived and implemented at the national level, needs to take into account highly complex*

- *demographic factors;*
- *cultural, ethno-linguistic and geo-linguistic factors; as well as*
- *socio-psychological factors,*

*which can have an impact on the success of the measures taken. These factors may change over time, a point that must also be taken into account in every ethnic and language community that wants to implement terminology planning for whatever purpose.”*

(Infoterm 2005:i)

In order to correctly evaluate South Africa's efforts and achievements in terms of how well the country does in communicating its language and terminology policy, a thorough analysis of these social, demographic, economic, cultural and political factors is necessary. The driving and restricting forces that influence this young democracy, its diversity and its worldview, can only be understood in the light of the country and its people's troubled history. In this chapter I will answer the question how well South Africa has made use of existing, relevant possibilities in this regard.

The available literature about South Africa's journey from Stone Age societies and pastoralists via an especially brutal and long colonisation period towards one of the most modern democratic societies is immense. Much has also been

written about the nation's progressive and outstanding language policy. The first part of this chapter will therefore give a brief synopsis of this literature.

Its openly embraced diversity is what makes South Africa so attractive for researchers from various disciplines. In many respects South Africa is a microcosm of different global and local issues and agendas. The first post-Apartheid government has not only recognized this challenge, but adopted, uplifted and celebrated it in a style quite similar to the European Union. Like with the latter, there was a socio-political necessity for this: a forcefully encouragement of diversity as remedy against historical injustice and national trauma. Experienced peaceful and equal diversity is the most crucial part of the society's reconciliation process. This may be an explanation why such huge investment has been made in policies that promote and foster the different aspects of diversity. Sociolinguistic equity, aside from its scientifically proven and first-hand experienced benefits<sup>37</sup>, held immense symbolic value. For linguists and language planning scholars from all over the world South Africa's situation after 1994 was an ideal research ground.

To analyse the communication strategy that the country follows for its terminology policy, I am particularly interested in the cooperation of governmental structures and institutions with the mass media. I focus on the Pan South African Language Board (PanSALB) and the National Language Services of the Department of Arts and Culture as representatives for the many other government or non-government organizations in the field<sup>38</sup>.

I answer the following questions:

- Do there exist specific programmes concerning the cooperation between PanSALB and the media?
- Is cooperation officially promoted or informally based on individual enthusiasm and contacts?

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<sup>37</sup> see development of Afrikaans below

<sup>38</sup> notably the the various provincial boards, the Departments of Justice, Education, as well as centres and private or civil society organizations and initiatives

- Does the government provide any special services for media professionals like journalists (e.g. training, databases, and ethical guidelines) to facilitate their work in the official languages?
- What can be concluded about the governmental information strategy concerning linguistic rights, government services and projects?
- Are messages targeted to the audience?
- Which additional media besides the mass media are employed?

South Africa's terminology policy can be communicated in three ways:

1. **Directly**, through disseminating information and raising awareness about linguistic rights and legislation, important projects that are of general interest and special services provided for the people. Advertising, as well as special programmes dedicated to linguistic or terminological questions are frequently employed methods. Also, regularly published columns or broadcast programmes can be utilized. Special public events draw attention of both the media and the people. A well designed communication plan is needed to fully exploit the opportunities.
2. **Indirectly**, through an implanting campaign or "mainstreaming" process of standardized terminology in the various languages. Terminology is used in the mass media, in textbooks and the education system. This requires a close cooperation of the different sectors (government, media, education sector...).
3. By creating **frame conditions** that favour and facilitate the above cooperation and activities. Policies and incentives and, as a priority, a budget are the fundament for successful collaboration.

Media, in particular the mass media need to be closely involved if a far-reaching and broad information campaign is intended. The previous chapters of this study analysed methods, highlighted the role of various media and diversified strategy. The mass media and the educational sector play a crucial role in the process and

have different roles to play – a promoter and user of the terminology policy. Therefore, this chapter will also take a closer look at the education and media sector. I examine how media and educational institutions are employed to promote the multilingual terminology strategy. The major questions, addressed are:

- How is the terminology policy communicated or implemented in the educational sector, especially in tertiary and vocational education?
- Which types of mass media reach which population segment?
- Which languages are represented in the mass media?
- Which importance have specialized content programmes in print and broadcast media?
- Are there special programmes or regular features on language or terminology topics?
- Are there celebrity spokespersons or ambassadors?
- Do broadcast and print media have own terminology collections or style guides? And if yes, do they cooperate with language planning organizations?

By answering these questions it is possible to draw conclusions about how the success factors identified in Chapter 3 are accounted for and where there are deficits in the implementation of South Africa's terminology policy.

#### **4.1 Historical causes and the evolution of South African contemporary society**

South Africa is an ideal case for a variety of reasons. Much has been written about the new democratic nation since Apartheid ended in the early 1990s. The number of scientific articles, studies and other publications abound, especially such, that analyse problems concerning the diversity of society, including multilingualism, e.g. Alberts 1998, Extra/Maarten 1998, Reagan 2001, Bernsten 2001, Drame 2001, Bekker 2003, Reagan 2004, Alexander 2004, Webb 2004,

Alberts 2008. Timothy Reagan calls South Africa a microcosm for language planning/policy issues worldwide (Reagan 2001), for a compelling number of reasons.

Firstly, South Africa shows characteristics of both developing and developed societies. At the one hand it is the economic powerhouse of the entire region and its infrastructure equals in many respects those in Western nations. For first-time visitors, landing in one of the major cities like Johannesburg or Cape Town, South Africa displays more similarities with cities like Sydney or San Francisco than with other African countries. South Africa faces steady immigration of large numbers of economic migrants from her neighbouring countries, similar Southern Europe or the US along the Mexican border. But this is only one side of the coin that is South Africa. And everybody who stays a bit longer will soon face the other side as well, which means frequent power shortages, poverty, high unemployment rates, crime and violence. Serious health problems and bad education, resulting in high illiteracy numbers as well as shortage, due to high turnover rates in well educated professionals (ibid).

Secondly, South Africa is a new democracy that still has to settle in the new world order. The legacy of its ethnic and colonial past and the reconciliation process are still underway and will continue to be so in the near future. Owing not in the least to its charismatic first president and national father figure Nelson Mandela and other personalities like Archbishop Desmond Tutu, a potentially violent-prone transition phase has been carried out by and large peacefully. South Africa has clearly learned from others and is now a much-studied role model herself. It furthermore is host of a degree of diversity similar to most other regions worldwide. In the next part of this chapter an overview of the diverse character, history shall help to get a principal understanding of the concurrent complexities that shape the countries society and politics. An oft-cited example for South Africa's progressive governance is its policy concerning languages and diversity.

Thirdly, practical reasons included many contacts in the professional community of language planners, terminologists and linguists in the country that have been maintained and intensified over almost a decade. These contacts were valuable sources for information and further contacts.

Since the topic of diversity refers to the direct focus of my study I put special emphasize on it.

***!ke e: !xarra l!ke* (/Xam **Diverse people unite, or “Unity in Diversity”**)**

South Africa’s motto also found an inscription in the nation’s coat of arms. *!ke e: xarra ke* means as much as Unity in Diversity in the extinct language of /Xam. It was adopted as the national motto in 2000. The adoption of this motto tells a lot about the attitude of the new South African government towards its society. By choosing an extinct language of the country’s oldest indigenous group, it pays respect to this ethnic group, who, along with their language have been nearly fully absorbed and integrated into present day society. The /Xam belonged to the ethnic group of the Khoesan people, consisting of Khoikhoi (also known as Hottentots) and San, still often better known collectively under the term Bushmen. These archaic herder-gatherers have occupied the region of Southern Africa, from Namibia, Botswana as far north as Angola for many centuries before the first pastoralist Bantu people invaded from the North, the area of present day Cameroon via East Africa about 2000 years ago (Henn 2008).

The Khoesan spoke varieties of languages which inherited characteristic click sounds. German linguists like Wilhelm H.I. Bleek conducted extensive field research about the Khoesan languages. Some of these are still the most valid studies, because many of the Khoesan languages have become extinct since. In some respect the adoption of the /Xam motto therefore pays tribute to both the fate of the original people of South Africa, whose languages have not received any official status in the Constitution; but also to early (German and other) immigrants to Southern Africa who came as missionaries and linguists and left their mark.

The threat to the Khoesan people began with the arrival of the Bantu people from Western Central Africa and with the slow retreat of the former ever further to the South of the continent. The invasion of the Bantu people was not predominately violent, land and space existed in abundance and there was a mutual exchange between the peoples. The Bantu introduced cattle herding and conducted trading with the hunting and gathering Khoesan. In turn they adopted linguistic features from the others. Present day Xhosa and Zulu still feature some of the click sounds, which have been taken over from the Khoesan, albeit only a few of the great variety of clicks (Drame 2001).

The South African Bantu languages constitute the south-eastern branch of that language group, which belongs to the Niger-Congo family of languages. This classification dates back to very early attempts to classify African languages in the mid 19<sup>th</sup> century. One of the prominent features used to distinguish languages belonging to this family is the use of prefixes to classify nouns. The branch further diversifies into four main groups: Nguni, Sotho, Venda and Tsonga, which again each consist of a number of mutually comprehensible languages or dialects (ibid.). Slowly the competition about land grew, and the different life styles led to increasing conflict, in which the Bantu people dominated by sheer number but also because they represented a modern society compared to the archaic lifestyle of the Khoesan.

Before the arrival of the first Europeans in the 17<sup>th</sup> century, South Africa<sup>39</sup> was therefore inhabited by these two major groups; with the Khoesan predominately in the Western and Northern Cape region and the Bantu people further inland and in the East. Each of the two divided itself into various language and dialect groups and clans.

The Europeans made their major debut with the arrival of the Dutch East India Company at the shores of the Western Cape on their way to the riches and wealth of India and Molukka. They found a largely uninhabited land with pleasant

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<sup>39</sup> Ships of the Vereenigde Oostindische Compagnie (VOC) brought the first white settlers in 1650. But even before the first settlers among Jan van Riebeck the Cape region was repeatedly visited by other seafaring nations, notably Portugal, later the French, Dutch and English (Drame 2001).

climate, quite similar to the European, and plenty of food to replenish their stores. The few encounters with local people were largely peaceful, as was the nature of the Khoesan. The Europeans were ensured that it was worthwhile and safe to establish a permanent half-way stop for ships bound to Asia. It did not remain with such a stop and soon the first settlers arrived and more after them, who occupied more and more land. Before long, conflict arose between them and the original inhabitants.

In the early years of the 19<sup>th</sup> century the British settlers in the Cape started their politics of Anglicisation. Being already a great sea power they soon made clear their power claims. The Dutch now had not only African people to fear but also for their sovereignty against the British. A linguistic variety of the Dutch dialect that was introduced by the first settlers<sup>40</sup>, with influences from the languages of African servants and trading partners had evolved by then. This variety slowly developed from a pidgin to a Creole language. It was still informal, unstandardized and without much prestige, often called *Kitchen Dutch* or *The Taal*. Later it should be elevated in status under the name Afrikaans and even become a tool and symbol in rising Afrikaner nationalism against British influence. African languages, apart from being a source for loan words into both English and Dutch/Afrikaans and, being a study field for missionaries who eagerly transcribed, standardized and documented them for their purposes, played no role in the power quarrels between the people who inhabited the region now (Drame 2001:15ff.). The Dutch and English were not the only Indo-European languages that had an influence. Further immigrants brought along northern German dialects, Frisian, and, most prominently, the French, that was imported by Huguenot refugees who came in large numbers and had great impact on South African culture and society.

Early on, from 1658, slaves and indentured labourers were imported from other parts of Africa and Asia, particularly from colonial India. These immigrants, as well as political and religious dissidents brought by the Vereenigde Oostindische Compagnie from the Dutch colony in Indonesia to be banished in South Africa,

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<sup>40</sup> A dialect of Dutch from the broader Amsterdam area was most common, but also other dialects.

added to the linguistic and cultural diversity through Portuguese, Malay, Bengali, Tamil, Hindi/Urdu and Panjabi. As lingua franca among the slaves served in the beginning Portuguese or rather Malay-Portuguese. (Extra/Maartens 1998).

South Africans of Indian origin today have their roots either in these indentured labourers who were brought from many parts of South Asia (incl. Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, India) to the sugarcane plantations in Natal where they, after years of labour were free to either return to their homeland or stay in South Africa as free people. Many chose the latter. Other Indian South Africans are descendants from Indian traders and merchandisers who migrated to Africa following their country people. Indian South Africans today concentrate mainly in KwaZulu Natal, with Durban having the largest Indian population in sub-Saharan Africa. The so-called Cape-Malays are concentrated mainly in the Cape Town area or in the metropolitan city of Johannesburg.

The struggle for Afrikaans against English domination marks an important example for the politization of languages. And it is a good example for successful language and terminology planning. Within relatively few years between the official institutionalising and end of Apartheid (1948 – 1994) Afrikaans grew from a low-status home language to a fully functional official medium, used in education, government and administration as well as in business.

Language policy and planning for Afrikaans started long before Apartheid became official policy in 1948. One of the first regulations was that slaves in the colony would have to speak among themselves and with their masters in Dutch, which was also medium in mission schools. Dutch continued to be regarded as standard language for the first two centuries of white colonisation, while Afrikaans was a spoken dialect and low variety of Dutch only (Cooper 1989, Drame 2001). 1859 the first publication in Afrikaans – or simple Dutch as it was called then - emerged. 1872 a Dutch teacher and missionary demanded the Bible to be translated into Afrikaans after noticing that the Cape Coloureds, a part of society with even less education than the White Dutch, neither understood the Bible in Dutch, nor in English. Afrikaans developed quickly and replaced Dutch

as medium of instruction in schools in 1914 (Drame 2001). Still, Afrikaans was not standardized and served as collective term for all varieties of Dutch that were spoken by the people. From the 1870s on some prominent persons advocated Afrikaans as true medium for the white Afrikaner. Institutionalisation of targeted language planning for Afrikaans started soon after the Anglo-Boer Wars (1899-1922) with the momentum gained by the Afrikaner Nationalist Movement. The first time, Afrikaans was granted official status was along the lines of partial autonomy for the Free State and Transvaal. The *Act of Union* of 1910 granted official status and equity for both English and Dutch (ibid.). But Anglicisation, which started in the early 19<sup>th</sup> century, was promoted radically and successfully. Even many Boers in rural areas preferred to have their children educated in English-medium schools whenever they had the choice. English as language of commerce was a symbol of prestige and economic wealth. At the same time some degree of resentment towards English built among the Boers who saw their cultural identity threatened. This early *taalstryd* (language struggle) was the basis for the language development after 1948.

After the National Party (NP) came to power in 1948, Afrikaans gained momentum rapidly and became subject and symbol for the new power distribution. But not only Afrikaans, the language question in general, as expression of the new political course of diversity and segregation, received much attention. Afrikaans was promoted along all fronts. Numerous educational institutions up to university levels were established, the *Afrikaanse Akademie vir Wetenskap en Kuns* (Afrikaans Academy for Science and Arts) was subsidised and the publication of a multivolume dictionary was pushed forward as well as various concept-based special subject glossaries and dictionaries, and teaching material. Translations of all kinds into Afrikaans were encouraged. By the 1970s Afrikaans was not only one of the two official languages; it was in fact the preferred language in most domains in the country (Reagan 2004). The urgency of terminological standardization of Afrikaans responded to the fact that it had to compete with two well developed scientific languages: English and Dutch. Most Government documents were published in Afrikaans and translated from this language soon after WWII. English speakers were compelled to learn Afrikaans

(Louw 2004). The story of the rising of Afrikaans is one of the very few success stories in the 20<sup>th</sup> century of languages regarding their establishment as real public languages. Alexander lists Bahasa in Indonesia and Malaysia, Hebrew in Israel, Hindi in India and Kiswahili in Tanzania (and the East African region) as further examples in this regard (Alexander 2004).

But Afrikaans also demonstrates impressively how fragile such a position can be if it is based on political power and is in contradiction to societal reality. Afrikaans was regarded by the majority of South Africans as the medium of political oppression and segregation of the people. This majority never regarded Afrikaans as medium of choice for their interaction. Since it never achieved any sense of ownership or otherwise positive relation towards the language, it also never became more than a forced medium for economic interaction. After the end of Apartheid, with the end of these economic demand to further develop or learn Afrikaans (especially in competition with mastering English, which not only had economic but also ideological attractiveness, being the medium of the ANC liberation struggle), it quickly lost its financial fundament. Self-sustainability was only partly achieved and is subject of immense language grievance among its speakers who see the impressive achievements regarding terminology lost or even wilfully destroyed (Louw 2004).

The African languages also received some attention during the Apartheid years, albeit in a different fashion and with a different objective. Already in 1951, the Eiselen Commission recommended the introduction of compulsory and sole tuition in the vernacular languages for Blacks, Coloureds and Asians during the first eight years of schooling. During this time English and Afrikaans were supposed to be subjects. After Standard 8, the medium of instruction was to become either Afrikaans or English. The so-called Bantu Education which was called into action with the first *Bantu Education Act* after 1953, appears to be based on scientific and pedagogical principles. It coincided with the adoption of the principle of mother-tongue education by UNESCO (Bekker 2003). So, on the surface, the Bantu Education Act appeared to be appealing to the International community as well as African nationalism. But it was a weak disguise. The

difference was in the execution and implementation which showed the underlying goal for this policy. Apartheid ideology was based on the Dutch *verzuiling* model which according to Louw (2004) stressed socio-cultural divisions and promoted an extremely pluralistic worldview. Low quality English and Afrikaans tuition as well as restricting any freedom of choice served a policy of segregation and *Divide and Rule*. It also made information flow difficult for Africans and kept chances to climb the economic ladder for them at a minimum. These intentions were obvious, and soon recognized for what they were by the Africans. The policy received strong opposition. Upon growing violent protest, like that of the bloody Soweto uprising in 1976, the *New Bantu Education Act* of 1979 limited vernacular tuition to the first 4 years followed by English (Reagan 2001, Kamwangamalu 2004).

In 1928 the *Advisory Committee on Bantu Studies and Research* was established by the South African Government, which in turn created the *Language Committees* for Sotho, Nguni and Venda, which later became the *Language Boards* for these language groups (Drame 2001, Langtag Report 1996, Ch.2:6). These committees and boards were closely connected to, and administered by, the respective *Bantustans* or *Homelands*, which were created by the government to implement racial and ethnical segregation. Each of these *Homelands* received partial autonomy, according to the principle of *eiesoortigheid* (own-ness) (Louw 2004). There were Language Boards for every language. And since some languages and language groups were represented in more than one *Homeland*<sup>41</sup>, while their administration was strictly isolated, separate language and terminology planning were common, too. This started with different spelling rules and went on to terminology standardization. This arrangement was quite successful in stressing diversity rather than promoting unity. And it was quite in the interest of the ruling elite (Finlayson/Mbululengi, 2002:44).

Over the years of their existence, these Boards changed in infrastructure and function, i.e. the codification, standardization and elaboration of the African

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<sup>41</sup> e.g. Xhosa was medium in the Homelands of Transkei, Ciskei and Bophuthatswana

languages. In 1961 the Sotho Language Board was further split into 3 committees for Northern Sotho, Southern Sotho and Tswana. They were also assigned to different departments, ministries and cabinets of the Union, which also hampered cooperation among each other (Alberts 1998:241f). Terminology planning for the African Languages was under the responsibility of the Department for Bantu Education and only white South Africans and non-L1-speakers were in charge. This practise was strongly criticized. On the other hand, expertise among the L1 speakers was virtually non-existent and not promoted (ibid.).

Afrikaans had for a very long time a strong political lobby and its success was strengthened through a broad base of economical and political wealth as well as ideological support. Most of these, if not all, were missing in the case of the African languages. Simple infrastructural provisions are not sufficient if further support and the socio-economic environment is not also favourable. The divergent past have their impact on linguistic attitudes today. Most complaints received by PanSALB for a long time have been by Afrikaans speakers who saw their language in decline and danger (Source: personal conversation).

In education, African languages have played an unfavoured role for decades. As described above, the *Bantu Education Acts* laid the foundation to their use as sole and compulsory medium of instruction in the lower levels of schooling. Although an infrastructure for terminology planning existed, scarce resources, especially in form of trained professional human capacity as well as a pessimistic outlook as to the future role of the languages made the task difficult, and for large parts in vain. The resulting fact of lacking “useful” terminology, good teaching materials and insufficient teacher qualification and motivation, combined with the awareness that, if higher education could indeed be achieved it would have to be conducted in either Afrikaans or English, contributed not only to a low image of the own language, but also to massive codeswitching in the class rooms. While tuition in missionary schools usually was of a good quality and teachers were L1 speakers of the medium of instruction, the situation declined sharply in governmental schools during the Apartheid years.

Codeswitching is a phenomenon of spoken language that occurs naturally in situations of language contact and language shift. It refers to deliberate or unconscious switching between two languages in a text on the level of sentences whenever felt appropriate in the situation by the speaker (for instance because it demonstrates proficiency in more than one language) or because of a necessity to fill a communicative gap (because of inability to express something in the other language). Sometimes it is even a combination of these two and further reasons. While codeswitching has often been disapproved by educationalists, language purists and policy-makers alike in the past as inferior and harmful for the student's proficiency of either language, it is now regarded in a more forgiving and even positive light as successful means of transferring knowledge and information in multilingual environments (Ferguson 2003). Codeswitching and mixed speech in classrooms was, and still is, used extensively in South Africa to make it easier for the students to understand a concept, but also because the teachers themselves were not sufficiently comfortable in the medium of instruction. In addition to that, codeswitching was used to transfer emotions, like scolding, praising, encouragement, which are usually connected to the L1 of the speech situation.

Codeswitching is not limited to classrooms but rather takes place excessively in all spheres of life, especially in the mass media. On the official country portal Website of South Africa, the phenomenon is described and an example given as follows (*italics* = English, **bold** = Afrikaans):

"I-*Chiefs* isidle nge-referee's optional time, otherwise ngabe ihambe **sleg**.  
**Maar** why benga stopi this system ye-injury time?"

"Chiefs [a local soccer team] have won owing to the referee's optional time, otherwise they could have lost. But why is this system of injury time not phased out?"

(David H. Gough English in South Africa,  
<http://www.cyberserv.co.za/users/~jako/lang/english/esa.htm>, accessed 2009-02-09)

Another example is taken from an online discussion forum hosted by Metro FM, one of South Africa's commercial public and popular radio stations.

"NELISWA SAYS:

mabloggers nikay?yo itechnology emzansi *is powerful* manje maar TD ucinga ukuba *no booze no stress?*,SAYITLIITS *I prefer dat phone too*

MRFKA SAYS:

@ Ruibeka....*where u from RUIBEIKA Malope or whateva ur usersurname is,...cos I think zongiphelekeza to pick my heart pieces, I still know what yu did last summer,Sugar....Metro FM..what makes you black*

@Monty4leah....*uxoshe u Banyana ngale politiki yakho ne ANC, howas ur 6hour exams son?*

MAZAA SAYS:

@KHOC.....*I feel you gal...those times!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!*

KHOC SAYS:

MAZAA NGIYABONGA *4 UNDERSTANDING!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!*

MAZAA SAYS:

@KHOC - *what do you think is he talking about (himself) MRFKA?*

PHILLICIA SAYS:

@Lebop, *ooh my gosh i loved those cartoons, wish dipopo tseo di ka boa. i also loved Gummy Bears,101 Dalmations eish the list is endless.*

MONTY4LEAH SAYS:

**Eish** MRFKA *joe, there's a subject by the acronym AFA.....it gave me kak! Those who are in Financial sciences would*

*understand what the subject entails! It's an open book session chana, but izagushaya mfana!*

MONTY4LEAH SAYS:

*By the way I'm with the North-West University*

RUIBEIKA SAYS:

*Monty4smbd I can't believe u are abusing the university internet...u of all the people?*

*IYOOOOOOOOOOO!!*

MONTY4LEAH SAYS:

***Ag** shame RUIBEIKA, don't be so sure.....At that time of the night, how could I be possibly using the university internet? I attend part time but I surely wouldn't stay the whole night on that campus.....I mean, I got a job to prepare for and I got Leah to satisfy, so please.....don't be so sure!"*

(Source: <http://www.metrofm.co.za/reviews/gadgets/lg-kt610-in-mzansi>, accessed 2009-02-09)

Another problem to have limiting implications on terminology planning is that in some of the official languages an internal struggle impairs the standard variety. Vic Webb describes the problems faced by the speakers of Northern Sotho/ Pedi. Although a standard variety exists this variety is based largely on efforts taken by missionaries in the past century with the result that it reflects a dialect which is spoken in rural areas of the country and therefore is regarded backwards and anachronistic by young urban speakers in the metropolitan areas of Tshwane. Instead, a variety called Pretoria Sotho is the de facto lingua franca in the greater Tshwane/Johannesburg area. Pretoria Sotho is therefore well prepared to become an accepted medium; one, young people identify with. Yet, by being sub-standard, it has a low status in most official areas, including schools, administration, etc. Pretoria Sotho is characterized mainly by lexical changes like

semantic shifts, borrowings, phonological and morphosyntactical adaptations and is otherwise mutually comprehensible with the standard variety (Webb 2004:161 ff.). This creates a dilemma for language planners. However, seen from the perspective of terminology planning, it can be handled – and it should be taken into account.

Similar problems are likely to exist with other languages, too. However, they are not restricted to the Bantu languages. In Afrikaans and even English there exist varieties which are mostly neglected in the Language Plan but nevertheless gain increasing interest from sociolinguistics, like Cape Afrikaans or Black South African English (Bernsten 2001). These are important sources for terminology planning and certainly play a role already in isolated projects (e.g. in mass media and Entertainment-education).

The language question, together with the bleak outlook most students faced, with regard of their education and poverty, led to a high number of drop-outs, and thus a soaring illiteracy statistic among the African population and Coloureds. Even today, the literacy numbers display a large inequity among the races.

Ethnologue lists the numbers as follows.

50% Africans,  
62% 'Coloureds',  
69% Asians,  
99% Whites (1990 WA). (Gordon 2005)

The overall literacy rate, however, is rather high if compared to most other African states (Reagan 2001:53 and Chapter 4.4.2).

The strong role of English in South Africa is an old phenomenon, and not unusual or much different from that in other former British colonies. The difference is mainly that in South Africa a strong resistance from Afrikaans speakers was encountered. While it never had the power to really weaken the status of English, this resistance somewhat balanced the overall language situation. However, in

the background, English grew in strength and built a strong foundation that has its impact even today. The power struggle between the two European languages is to a large part responsible for the current language situation in the country. It is considered by some as being the actual reason for the country's liberal language legislation. According to Louw (2004), the inclusion of 9 indigenous languages in the list of official languages in South Africa's new Constitution was the result from a compromise between the two former official media. And even scholars like Neville Alexander voiced suspicion that the rhetorical multilingual policy was utilized by the new government to push Afrikaans to political margins while , in fact, pursuing a monolingual English-only policy (Alexander 2004). According to their use as tools and weapons in the political power relations, Afrikaans carried the label of White dominance, while English increasingly became symbol of another group: the medium of resistance as well as of international participation. It was the official medium of the African National Congress (ANC). This was partly symbolic, partly due to the fact that many activists had to go into hiding and exile to other British territories, from which they mobilised the masses in South Africa as well as globally.

After the 1994 elections which saw the ANC gaining power, Afrikaans speakers started to fear that their language once again could become a weapon in a battle. This time with a weakened army against an overpowering old "enemy": English. In a foresighted move, Afrikaans managed to avoid instant status loss in favour of the sole dominance of English in the Constitution's language regulation. But to achieve this, it had to give way to a compromise which would leave it weakened. It now had to share its official position with no less than 10 other languages. Afrikaans scholars like Louw regard this move as the final blow to the language, which, as they feel, is left to die a slow death (ibid.). English, in the meantime, benefits double from its legal status as well as from being the global lingua franca of science and trade. In a rising economy such as South Africa with its growing Black middle class and educated elite, it prospers like it does elsewhere, leaving behind the many who are still excluded from entering this elite circle.

## 4.2 Language related legislation in South Africa today

Before I will explore the attitudes and circumstances which led to the overwhelming power of English in South Africa, I shall take a closer look at the de facto language policy of the country that I have mentioned frequently up until here.

Much has been written, since coming into effect of the Constitution with its strong emphasize on the country's diversity and multilingualism. It has been lauded as one of the most modern and progressive Constitutions in the world. It has been strongly doubted that it would be realizable at all by others. As mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, Reagan (2001) describes the nation as a microcosm for language planning issues, which, together with a striking resemblance to developments in the European Union made South Africa a paradise for sociolinguists around the globe. The result was a surge in publications covering the various issues of language planning. I will neither provide with a substrate of all this literature, nor go into too much detail. Rather, I focus my description on those parts which are most relevant or problematic to for terminology planning and policies.

Sector 6 of the Constitution of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996) recognizes 11 official languages. These are (ordered by number of speakers):

Zulu: 9,200,144  
Xhosa: 7,196,118  
Afrikaans: 5,811,547  
Sepedi/Northern Sotho: 3,695,846  
English: 3,457,467  
Tswana: 3,301,774  
Sesotho/Southern Sotho: 3,104,197  
Siswati: 1,013,193  
Xitsonga: 1,756,105

Venda: 876,409

Ndebele: 586,961

(Gordon 2005)

The number of speakers alone says little about its future and other social factors that might play a role. Although statistics have only limited value to tell about language planning and speakers' behaviour or attitude towards their languages, they should be listed here for reasons of completeness:

Total population 42,718,530 (24,100,000 Africans (73.8%), 5,000,000 Whites (14.8%), 2,800,000 'Coloureds' (8.7%), 890,292 Asians (2.7%).

Home language	Black	Coloured	Indian or Asian	White	Total
Afrikaans	0.7%	79.5%	1.7%	59.1%	13.3%
English	0.5%	18.9%	93.8%	39.3%	8.2%
IsiNdebele	2.0%	0.0%	0.3%	0.1%	1.6%
IsiXhosa	22.3%	0.3%	0.1%	0.1%	17.6%
IsiZulu	30.1%	0.3%	0.2%	0.1%	23.8%
Sepedi	11.9%	0.1%	0.0%	0.0%	9.4%
Sesotho	10.0%	0.2%	0.0%	0.0%	7.9%
Setswana	10.3%	0.4%	0.0%	0.1%	8.2%
SiSwati	3.4%	0.1%	0.0%	0.0%	2.7%
Tshivenda	2.9%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	2.3%
Xitsonga	5.6%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	4.4%
Other	0.3%	0.2%	3.8%	1.1%	0.5%
<b>Total</b>	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
	35.42m	3.99m	1.16m	4.29m	44.82m

Figure 4.1 Percentage of speakers of the different languages according to ethnic groups  
(Source: <http://www.southafrica.info/about/people/language.htm>)

This overview of the linguistic diversity of South Africa is completed by the mentioning of South African Sign Language, an independent type of the sign language family, related to British and Irish Sign Language with borrowings from others as well. According to Ethnologue, South African deaf population amounts to 12,100 (including 6,000 Black, 2,000 English white, 2,000 Afrikaans white, 1,200 Coloured, 900 Indian). The country has 43 deaf institutions (ibid). Recently, there is a strong movement to make South African Sign Language a 12<sup>th</sup> official language. This special attention must also be regarded quite progressive. In other parts of the developed world, e.g. the US, the discussion around sign language is still about whether or not it can be regarded a language at all, let alone which official status it should receive (Reagan 2001).

But the definition of diversity does not end at this point. Zulu and Xhosa also have living and practised gender-varieties: Hlonipha. Hlonipha, the respect-language, adopted mainly by married women towards their in-laws concern usually the lexicon of a language and behavioural patterns. Certain terms are replaced by others. Men and children also use Hlonipha, but to a much lesser extend than married women who are expected to use it throughout. Hlonipha therefore plays an important role in terminology planning. The use of Hlonipha is not universal any longer and many women have stopped practising it altogether. What makes it very difficult for terminology planners is that Hlonipha can not easily be standardized. An example for it is that the name of an in-law must be avoided and also all words and phrases that are related, which has an impact on the entire lexicon of each individual woman. As an example, if the mother-in-law's name can be translated to "water", "blood"<sup>42</sup> etc. then this term and all its derivations are taboo.

According to Ethnologue, South Africa is host of 31 languages, 24 of those are living languages, 4 are extinct and 3 are second languages without any mother-tongue speakers (Gordon 2005). These are pidgins such as Camtho which is based primarily on Zulu or Sotho with heavy codeswitching and English and

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<sup>42</sup> African names often bear reference to events taking place around conception or birth of a child, so it is imaginable that a baby born among much blood can have a name which refers to it. However, the example is random and should emphasize the implication such a name can later have on health and medical terminology use of his or her daughter in law.

Afrikaans content morphemes. Another is the now nearly extinct Tsotsitaal (or Flaaitaal). Most prominent and important is perhaps Fanagalo, a trade language, a lingua franca used widely in mining areas and towns of South Africa but is also spoken in the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Namibia, Zambia and Zimbabwe. About 70% of the vocabulary of this pidgin is Zulu-based, 24% English and 6% Afrikaans. Although there are no mother-tongue speakers, the economic value is big enough that Fanagalo dictionaries exist (Gordon 2005).

Furthermore, the constitution recognizes heritage languages, such as a number of Asian languages (Hindi, Urdu, Gujarati, Telugu, Tamil), German, Portuguese, Greek, religious languages such as Arabic, Hebrew and Sanskrit as well as Khoi, Nama, and San languages<sup>43</sup> (Finlayson 2002). With its great variety also of religious groups, we must also add liturgical languages and those purely used for religious purposes, such as Latin, Sanskrit, Pali, etc.

In Figure 4.1 the group of Coloureds takes a prominent position in terms of being speakers of Afrikaans and English as home language. The term Coloured takes a different meaning in South Africa than it does in the US American context, where it used to mean Americans of African origin, as a euphemism for “Blacks”. In South Africa, where the majority of the population is black, Coloured refers to mixed racial people without restriction concerning ethnicity. Generally one part is African, or black, another white or – rarely – Asian. Coloureds played a role in South African society since early in the history of white settlement, as mixed marriages, or at least, sexual relationships were common between white masters and their black slaves or maids. During Apartheid, they as well as Asians, managed to achieve a somewhat better position with greater rights and even the opportunity to limited political participation. The home language of the clear majority of coloureds is Afrikaans – a higher percentage than among the Whites.

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<sup>43</sup> Speakers of Hindi amount to 890,292, Urdu 170,000. Other heritage languages include Angloromani, Eastern Yiddish, Greek (70,000), Gujarati, Hai||om, Hakka Chinese (6,063), Kung-Ekoka (3,500), Portuguese (617,000), Standard German (45,000), Tamil (250,000), Yue Chinese (15,000), workers from nearby countries (2,700,000) (Gordon 2005).

These statistics were a strong argument and part of the reason for the elevation of the status of the language against English from the 1950s on and even earlier.

One prominent feature of the Constitution is its supportiveness and inclusiveness (or non-exclusiveness), while at the same time being pragmatic and economic feasible. Its aim is

*“to ensure individual language right” [...] “and to emphasize symbolically the multilingual and multicultural nature of the society, while at the same time allocating resources in an economically and politically responsible manner.”*

(Reagan 2001:57)

It should ensure that no citizen in the country will have to fear that he or she will again be suppressed on the basis of their cultural and linguistic identity or have to fear that they will be forced again to use a medium they do not want (ibid.).

The language policy is based on sound principles of modern policy making, such as nation-wide consultation, proper evidence-based decision making and stakeholder participation. The large number of consultations conducted, as well as the initiation of the LANGTAG group to examine the linguistic status quo, and requirements for the new language policy, are impressive examples of best practise in this regard.

The National Language Policy Framework (NLPF) is based on these provisions in the Constitutions. Its aim is to put these provisions into concrete action. It was published by the Department of Arts and Culture (DAC), the responsible ministry for language and terminology issues, in 2002 and its implementation plan in April 2003. University of the Western Cape Dean, Stanley Ridge, is among those who criticise the document for being counterproductive to the ideals of a multilingual society as promoted and recognized by the Constitution. Ridge criticises the uninformed and uninspired approach which regards South Africa's multilingualism through a static, backward lens and applies a model of rigid

societal multilingualism on a society that does not conform. Factors like social and economic mobility, individual multilingualism and actual communication practices of the people in different situations and domains are, so Ridge, not subject of the NLPF. Instead, he argues, the plan tries to re-establish a utopian pre-colonial situation of equal (in contrast to equitable, as constitutionally stated) status of the official languages which is in stark contrast to reality and therefore impractical and useless (Ridge 2004). It therefore obscures real achievements and hampers strategies to implement the provisions by the Constitution.

If looked upon closely, the de-facto language policy in South Africa shows the following picture: It appears that, although support is ensured by policy makers, this support seldom translates into budget allocated to language issues. Even in the face of the English hegemony which threatens multilingualism. Lawrence Wright's research<sup>44</sup> draws, despite reinforcing the gloomy predictions regarding the further English dominance, an optimistic picture. He examines the hardships of a mid-to-long-term policy, located in one of the not so powerful departments. Language questions are responsibility of the Department of Arts and Culture, formerly the Department of Arts, Culture, Science and Technology. While not *per se* a "weak" department due to bad management, it is considered weak because it deals mostly with soft, intangible problems of a strategic and long-term reach (Wright 2002). Especially after the breaking away of the Science and Technology Sector, which at least partly had a direct link to burning economic issues, this direction has increased. While the foci of this department are not less important - sometimes even more - they have to compete with a large number of other issues in the annual budget allocation. And they have to convince technocrats and politicians with little background knowledge about such long-term implications of neglect. It is therefore imperative that short-term results, i.e. market value for the African languages are achieved, if for nothing more than to keep these technocrats interested or acquiescing to fund further projects.

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<sup>44</sup> See also Chapter 2.3.2

For this, the policy is examined under the viewpoint of what has been achieved that has a tangible and obvious benefit for the whole country within a certain time-frame and budget. Since language and terminology planning are not only cost-intensive but also long-term and difficult to measure, they face a certain disadvantage. Especially since they have to compete with questions like soaring AIDS statistics with its economic implications of dwindling skilled workforce, housing, unemployment and poverty issues, frequent power failure, pressuring foreign politics (like the Zimbabwe crisis and other African Union duties), hosting international events (like the FIFA Soccer World Cup 2010, which implies the provision of all necessary infrastructure - a large budgetary post), or party-internal power struggles or upcoming elections which usually foster populist spending to attract voters.

The Constitution of South Africa has been formulated to be, at the same time, inclusive and economic feasible. This can have positive and negative consequences, depending on the circumstances. At the very least, it allows for a “strong” or a “weak” reading. While the former would speak in favour of an interventionist language planning with a high corpus planning activity, as has been attempted during the years after ratification in 1996, this changed toward a “weak” reading in the more recent years. The second speaks in favour of natural language planning, with minimal intervention. It is not to be confused with a laissez-faire language policy, nor the application of a social-Darwinist approach. This, according to Wright, may well lead to a natural attitude of “of course we know how important our languages are, but since there is no immediate harm to the country if we continue a laissez-fair attitude, we have to spend our money on other issues first”. And since these decision maker usually belong themselves to the educated elite with high proficiency of English, the problems and consequences resulting from this attitude are less relevant and obvious to them (ibid.).

Nevertheless, so Wright’s conclusion, the language policy of South Africa has to be considered as a success. It provides for meeting the demands of the citizens, whatever they are, while at the same time being open to possible change. While,

so his argumentation, South Africa has to be prepared to live with English as lingua franca for quite a while, multilingualism is kept alive in the background and will be ready to be implemented when demand increases and the economic situation changes. This is not unlikely to happen in the case that the government is forced to communicate to the citizens on grass root level or companies face the need to communicate through their technicians with the customers in their language, more doctors need to communicate with their patients, etc.

In the meantime everything needs to be done to ensure that languages and terminology will keep being an issue in national politics, even with very small budget. A good language and terminology policy recognizes this and acts accordingly by increasing their efforts in this direction. In any case one positive development is the shift from an isolated terminology planning toward a more collaborative, pan-African approach. South African language planners are among the initiators and pioneers in the pan-African language planning followed by the Academy for African Languages (ACALAN). In 2006 the new strategy of ACALAN saw the kick-off of a number of new projects, including a pan-African terminology project (hosted in Dar es Salaam) a lexicography project, African languages in cyberspace, and a Pan-African centre for translation and interpreting (see <http://www.acalan.org>). The ambitious goal of the terminology project is to develop a policy to harmonize terminology across the continent.

#### **4.2.1 Language attitudes and future prospective**

Language attitudes show that English is the absolute language of prestige. In his lecture during *Linguapax* congress in 2004, linguist David Crystal described his conversation with a Johannesburg taxi driver who was conversant in all official South African languages but said of himself he will give everything so his kids can visit an English medium school (Crystal 2004)<sup>45</sup>.

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<sup>45</sup> See <http://www.linguapax.org/congres04/pdf/crystal.pdf>

There is a divergent view about the degree of success of the country's policy from its beginnings in 1994 until today. Based on this evaluation there is also some polemics about the future course it should take. On the one hand, there is the viewpoint held dominantly by sociolinguists and language planning experts, most of whom having participated in the formulation of the National Language Policy and Plan and being part of the LANGTAG (Language planning task group) group of experts. Their opinion echoes those, who fear a decline of democratic principles and linguistic human rights through a real threat of English language hegemony. Among these are prominent language planners like Vic Webb, Neville Alexander and further scientists from their circles. On the other hand, there are a number of scientists who take a view which, on the surface, appears to be more pragmatic. These, e.g. Wright, have – perhaps not surprisingly – an English language background. The polemics are largely about how much intervention can or should be allowed in future to push the African languages (including Afrikaans) into a position that has been provided for by the constitution.

The following is a synopsis after evaluating arguments from optimists and sceptics of the South African language policy:

1. The provision made in the South African Constitution concerning the official languages can be considered well thought through and sufficient because they are inclusive and democratic and invite the right to choose for all citizens without restrictions whichever their choice may be (English, non-standard varieties...)
2. The Constitution furthermore allows, indeed promotes, the creation of a bottom-up infrastructure to take care of the issue independently from governmental structures (after an initial investment). This development is important in the long term, because any language development based on one major sponsor and on currently existing power structures can not be regarded sustainable and profitable.
3. South Africa, more extremely than other nations, face a dominance of the English medium in areas such as the central economy and education,

which is based on a real perceived demand by the population which must not (only) be neglected or dismissed as uninformed “wrong” choice.

4. A slowing down on public spending on the language policy implementation was to be expected and will continue.
5. It is nonetheless imperative to keep on fighting for the rights of ALL South African languages (official or not) in order to create the basis for their renaissance whenever in demand in future. This does not mean that they will suddenly take over important roles in administration and central economy but rather manifest slowly in certain domains, according to real demand by the speakers.
6. To create this market and demand (either as “commodities” or “luxury goods”), activities of advocacy and lobbying, the support of prominent change agents (e.g. artists) as well as creating other fundamental infrastructure (e.g. quality schools, vocational training, jobs) have to be provided, which may take decades of constant, tireless campaigning to achieve.
7. This campaign must be multimedia to reach all segments of the diverse South African society, incl. the physically challenged, illiterate, remote rural population, urban middle-class, immigrants and the youth.
8. Separate, decentralized initiatives, driven by market demands, should be fostered and supported with a view of collaborative work (semantic interoperability on the basis of International standards and know-how).
9. Global conditions and initiatives for this market are favourable and increasing in quality and frequency and should be used, therefore,
10. Cooperation in regional and international organizations and networks should be envisaged (e.g. ACALAN, EU, ISO, Infoterm).
11. Terminology policies should be separated from the general language policy because it can address the above problems in a different approach according to the suggestions above: They should not only outline a general red string and guide, but ensure the fostering of the “cultivation approach” championed by Wright (Wright 2004) based on the theory by Neustupny.

12. Terminology policies that are independent from language policies (but informed by them) have a greater possibility to operate independent from governmental structures and thus have the greater potential to harmonize policies regarding terminology across the socio-political sector (e.g. health policies, information policies, education policies, economic and innovation policies, scientific-technological development policies).

## **4.2.2 Language Planning Institutions**

### **4.2.2.1 The National Language Service**

Two major national institutions govern and coordinate the country's language and terminology policy. The National Language Service (NLS) is a Chief Directorate of the Department of Arts and Culture. Its mandate is the management of linguistic diversity through the provision of language-related services. Among these are translations and editing, terminology planning and Human Language Technology development. The services are provided in all official, plus some foreign languages. The formulation and implementation of South Africa's language and terminology policy was also coordinated by the NLS.

The Chief Directorate is structured into several Directorates, namely

1. Language Planning Directorate
2. Terminology Coordination Section Directorate
3. Human Language Technologies (HTL) Directorate
4. Translation and Editing (T&E) Directorate

Source: DAC Website [http://www.dac.gov.za/chief\\_directorates/language\\_services.htm](http://www.dac.gov.za/chief_directorates/language_services.htm)

(accessed 2009-07-23)

The primary task of the Language Planning Directorate is the development and review of policies and legislation concerning South Africa's languages. It also carries out the national consultation that is part of the policy-making process

through workshops, meetings, conferences and related discourse. In order to implement the national language policy it helps create language units in all government departments, through financial support of capacity building institutions and coordinate research, content development and awareness-raising campaigns. The NLS also promotes provincial and local language policies and assists in their development, monitoring and evaluation.

The Terminology Coordination Section is an important Directorate in support of the implementation of the language policy. The national terminology policy has been developed by this Directorate. A document titled *Guidelines for Terminology Coordination and Management*, directs internal as well as external contributors in procedural aspects, workflow and technology in terminology compilation, standardization and management. Project management, needs assessment and terminology planning methodology are outlined as well as the roles are assigned to the various collaborators in a terminology project.

The Terminology Coordination Section also engages in the compilation and standardization of multilingual glossaries on various topics of national interest. According to the Department of Arts and Culture these include:

- Multilingual ICT
- Multilingual Mathematics
- Multilingual Natural Sciences Nguni
- Multilingual Natural Sciences Sotho
- Multilingual Natural Sciences Tshivenda/Xitsonga
- Multilingual Parliamentary
- Completed Terminology Projects
- Multilingual Mathematics Dictionary Grade R- 6
- Natural Sciences And Technology Grade 4 - 6
- Multilingual Parliamentary/Political Terminology Project
- Information, Communication And Technology (ICT)
- Guidelines For Terminology Coordination And Management

- HIV/AIDS
- School Project: Human, Social, Economic and Management Sciences (HSEMS) Intermediate Phase
- School Project: Natural Sciences and Technology Grade 7-12
- School Project: Mathematics Grade 7-12
- School Project: Life Orientation Intermediate Phase
- School Project: Arts and Culture Intermediate Phase
- Soccer Terms
- Translation-Oriented Terminology Project

Source: DAC Website

[http://www.dac.gov.za/chief\\_directorates/language\\_services.htm](http://www.dac.gov.za/chief_directorates/language_services.htm)

(accessed 2009-07-23)

The Terminology Coordination Section of the National Language Service is hosting the national termbank. The Section also assists other Departments and government bodies in their terminology planning. The list of products is therefore incomplete and shows only a fraction of the work done. The Translation and Editing Directorate's major task is to facilitate communication between the government and the public through translation of official documents, like acts, manuals, notices and regulations. The Human Language Technology Directorate has been established to assist through the development and provision of services and products with regard of language technology. Through technology the quality and effectiveness of translation shall be improved through spellcheckers and machine-aided translation tools. Access to governmental services in all official languages is facilitated through the development of a multilingual telephone-based system that features a simple interface suitable also for illiterate citizens. The Directorate plans to establish a National Centre for HLT which is to become a national hub for related activities

*“through facilitating research, development and capacity building, and by becoming a repository for reusable high-level digitised and annotated text and speech data conforming to international standards”*

(Source: Department of Arts and Culture  
[http://www.dac.gov.za/chief\\_directorates/language\\_services.htm](http://www.dac.gov.za/chief_directorates/language_services.htm),  
accessed 2009-02-17)

#### **4.2.2.2 The Pan South African Language Board**

The Pan South African Language Board (PanSALB) was established to

*“provide for the recognition, implementation and furtherance of multilingualism in the Republic of South Africa; and the development of previously marginalised languages”*

Pan South African Language Board Act No.59 of 1995

The Act of 1995 installed the Board and attributed its mandate and regulated composition and procedure of its work. It was amended in 1999 to take into account changes made necessary among others after enactment of Act 108 of 1996. PanSALB is a as a statutory body in terms of Section 6 of this Act.

The services offered by PanSALB include

- **Translation and Interpreting**

Skills development in translation and development

Technical support to provincial language committees

Monitoring the use of translation and interpreting facilities

- **Linguistics Human Rights and Mediation**

Investigations of linguistic human rights violations

Raising awareness in order to influence and promote multilingualism legal services

Studies into complaints

- **Language in Education**

Research and Development initiate and manage projects

Language in education policy

Promote climate conducive to use all languages in education

- **Standardization and Terminology Development**

Provide technical guidance to National Language Bodies (NLBs)

Set primary standardization processes in place

Set primary terminology development processes in place

- **National Language Bodies**

Needs assessment and promotion of languages

- **National Lexicography Units**

Production of dictionaries

- **Development of literature**

(Source: <http://www.pansalb.org.za/services.html>, 2009-02-17)

PanSALB functions through decentralized structures. These are the nine Provincial Language Committees which assist the provinces in the establishment of their language policies, handle and process complaints concerning language rights abuses. Further, there are 13 National Language Bodies (NLB), one for each official language plus one each for South African Sign Language as well as the Khoe and San languages. NLBs are responsible for terminology planning duties, standardization, research into the respective languages, literature and education. Finally, the 11 National Lexicography Units compile general language dictionaries (Alberts 2008).

The work of PanSALB has not been free from trouble and has been criticised frequently. A news bulletin of March 2007 announced that the Board, struggling with high turnover and low morale of its staff, has addressed Parliament, to which it is accountable, for assistance to fulfil its mandate. As a serious problem was the existing competition for national funds between PanSALB and the NLS. Both institutions have similar mandates concerning the compilation of dictionaries and glossaries in the African languages. For PanSALB this task is handled through the National Lexicography Units<sup>46</sup>.

PanSALB has set out as an independent structure, a unique watchdog institution. However, it is characterized by increasing subordination to governmental structures and decreasing funds. The amendment of the PanSALB Act of 1999 lines PanSALB under DAC governance, much like the National Language Service. However, due to its mandate to monitor, complain and criticize it is more of the “unloved child” (Perry, Timothy, no date).

PanSALB’s success in communicating terminology and language policy can perhaps be measured most easily in tracking its record of language rights complaints. According to Perry (*ibid.*: p.183ff.) and mentioned before in this paper,

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<sup>46</sup> See newspaper article “Struggling Language Board Asks Parliament for Help”, BuaNews March 13, 2007 <http://allafrica.com/stories/200703130716.html>, accessed 2009-02-17

most language rights complaints (88%) in 2001 were recorded from the Afrikaans speaking community. Only 11% of the complaints 2001 were issued by the other linguistic communities. Proportionally this community is relatively small compared with the African language communities. In addition, Afrikaans speakers are comparatively well off in terms of representation of their language. The reason for the un-proportional distribution of complaints must be somewhere else:

- Afrikaans speakers have a greater level of awareness of their linguistic rights;
- The other linguistic communities lack awareness of their rights and the complaining procedure;
- Unlike the Afrikaans speakers, they have a lower level of grievance concerning their languages due to different mentalities;
- The speakers of the previously marginalised languages constitute by majority the still economic underprivileged classes of South African society. Therefore their priorities are set to different issues (housing, unemployment, health).

Has PanSALB failed in fulfilling its mandate of promoting the equitable use of all South African official languages plus Khoesan and Sign Language? In 2000 a survey demonstrated that at least 50% of the citizens considered languages important national policy issues. Especially Venda, Ndebele, Tswana, Pedi and Swati speakers are among those who regarded language issues a top priority (MarkData Sociolinguistic Survey 2000, quoted in Perry p.184). In response to the survey results, the then CEO of PanSALB, Cynthia Marivate handed the task of increased awareness raising and advocacy to the Provincial Language Committees (PLC).

In the effort to raise awareness and diffuse its message PanSALB, its PLCs could learn from the language communities themselves. To reach as many speakers as possible, they could make use of aides and spokespersons with a large degree of authority. Such spokespersons have been employed by linguistic groups themselves. An example is that of the highly respected and authoritative

person of the Northern Sotho Rain Queen Modjadji V. In 1999 she successfully rejected the official switch in referring to *Northern Sotho* or *Sotho sa Leboa* (inclusive, different variants) as *Pedi* (restrictive, refers to a special variant) (ibid. p.186). Influential individuals such as Modjadji V can play an important role in the diffusion of innovation that is a terminology policy issue or product.

By 2006 the overall number of complaints had fallen to a worrisome 15 for the entire year, down from 215 in 2001, 33 in 2004 and 18 in 2005 (PanSALB Annual Reports 2005/06 and 2006/07, Perry PRAESA Occasional Paper, p.161). Less than 500 complaints in total were received by PanSALB during its entire first decade of existence. Of the 15 complaints in 2006 only 2 refer to the African languages in general or Xhosa in particular. One complaint is general in nature and the remaining 12 complaints concern Afrikaans. The general complain concerned the apparent lack of pride in the African languages demonstrated by the Black South African middle class and politicians. PanSALB according to its own report responded by taking the complaint to the relevant parties and by conducting a workshop.

It appears that PanSALB's decision to outsource the campaigning duty to the Provincial Language Committees proved disastrous. In response an investigation was launched into the causes and reasons for the dramatic drop in complaints. The results were not published by the time of writing. The bold and much publicly discussed move by PanSALB's Chief Executive Officer (CEO) to issue a complaint herself might be regarded against this background<sup>47</sup>.

In 2002 PanSALB called to life its annual Multilingualism and Nation Building Awards. The awards are intended to honor individuals and institutions for achievements with regard to promoting multilingualism in the country and raise awareness through a high profile ceremony, attended by around 600 government

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<sup>47</sup> On 19 March 2008 PanSALB's CEO, Ntombenhle Nkosi issued a complaint at Durban's Equality Court with respect to Durban High School teaching her son substandard Zulu (also see 4.4.3.1).

and NGO officials, partners and sponsors (such as Microsoft, MTN and Absa Bank). Award categories include the media, institutes of higher learning, corporations, the public sector and government as well as music and literature. The awards provide a great opportunity to enlist spokespersons and celebrities and to enhance visibility through media coverage. In March 2009 the prize in the category *Education Programme of the Year* was awarded to a highly popular television series in South Africa: the locally produced Soul City. This show and the entire multimedia concept of Soul City is a good example for how multilingualism and diversity can be communicated and is therefore described in greater detail in Chapter 4.4.5. PanSALB and Soul City have a strong collaboration. The two are partners in the *One Love* campaign to reduce multiple concurrent sexual partnership in Southern Africa. *One Love* was initiated by Soul City (<http://www.pansalb.org.za/news.html>, accessed 2009-04-05).

#### **4.2.3 South Africa's terminology policy**

The terminology policy of South Africa is conditioned by its language policy and, in turn, supporting it. The language policy of South Africa demands equity and use of all official languages whenever feasible and indicated. South Africa here follows the approach of functional multilingualism. This approach means that the use of language is determined by the preference and proficiency of the audience or target group, the context and situation. Terminology planning, as I have tried to indicate in the previous sub-chapter is an activity that is primarily the responsibility of the two governmental institutions, the Terminology Coordination Section (TCS) of the National Language Service and PanSALB. In addition, there are a number of external and private initiatives.

In the following paragraph the process, which is currently used in terminology planning by the TCS is described. South Africa makes a clear distinction between terminology work and lexicography, both of which are handled by separate institutions. Given the special condition and urgency for development of the

previously marginalised African languages, terminology work is not carried out in view of general development of either of the official languages, but rather by project and subject-field. Moreover, TCS' major approach is translation-oriented. This means that the following human-labour-intensive workflow is employed:

- Terms of the defined and limited subject field are extracted from a source language corpus, which is in almost all cases English. This process alone is precarious since clear delineation between subject fields is often not possible. Subject-field borders are often blurred, especially in subject fields like HIV/AIDS terminology, health care, sociology, etc. The approach, while justified in view of time and budgetary pressure, is hence problematic.
- After extraction definitions, context notes, example sentences are added before the compilation is handed to subject specialists for validation. The compilation is then translated into the other 10 official languages by the first-language terminologists and again validated by subject specialists conversant in the respective languages.
- After this process another validation and authentication takes place in that the glossaries are sent to PanSALB structures, the National Language Boards. Only after this process the glossaries are published and distributed to the various target users (e.g. parliamentarians in case of parliament terminology, health care institutions for AIDS terminology, etc.). Dissemination occurs either through direct consultation of the national termbank via the DAC intranet or external through the NLS homepage from which glossaries can be downloaded but no database queries be made. Indirect queries via e-mail or telephone are possible but a cumbersome option.

PanSALB's National Lexicography Units publish dictionaries online via the Internet, as print, CD Rom or implemented in Human Language Technology products or in text books, journals and magazines (Source: Powerpoint

presentation by Mariëtta Alberts in Antwerp in November 2006, [http://www.infoterm.info/pdf/activities/Alberts\\_TerminologyPlanninginSouthAfrica.pdf](http://www.infoterm.info/pdf/activities/Alberts_TerminologyPlanninginSouthAfrica.pdf), accessed 2009-03-01). The workflow described here is labour and time intensive and, given the fact that TCS employs merely one terminologist per language, it is questionable if it is as efficient as it could be. What is certain is that the workload is managed only with difficulty by the reduced staff (Alberts 2008 and personal conversation with NLS).

The National Language Service and its Terminology Coordination Section and PanSALB are not the only institutions who carry out terminology planning. Numerous other public and private initiatives are engaged with similar projects. The University of Stellenbosch, for example did some outstanding work in publishing glossaries for sociology and social work in English, Afrikaans and Xhosa. The Universities of KwaZulu Natal and Durban Technical University also engaged in terminology development for health care in Zulu. Some, but not all of these initiatives are in cooperation with the TCS.

Capacity building takes place through the terminologists of TCS in in-house trainings. PanSALB also organizes courses for institutions, like Parliament or tertiary education institutes, like the Universities of Stellenbosch, North West and Pretoria. Furthermore, training initiatives and seminars funded by UNESCO and organized by international specialized organizations like TermNet must be duly mentioned here. These courses have been taking place in, as well as outside South Africa.

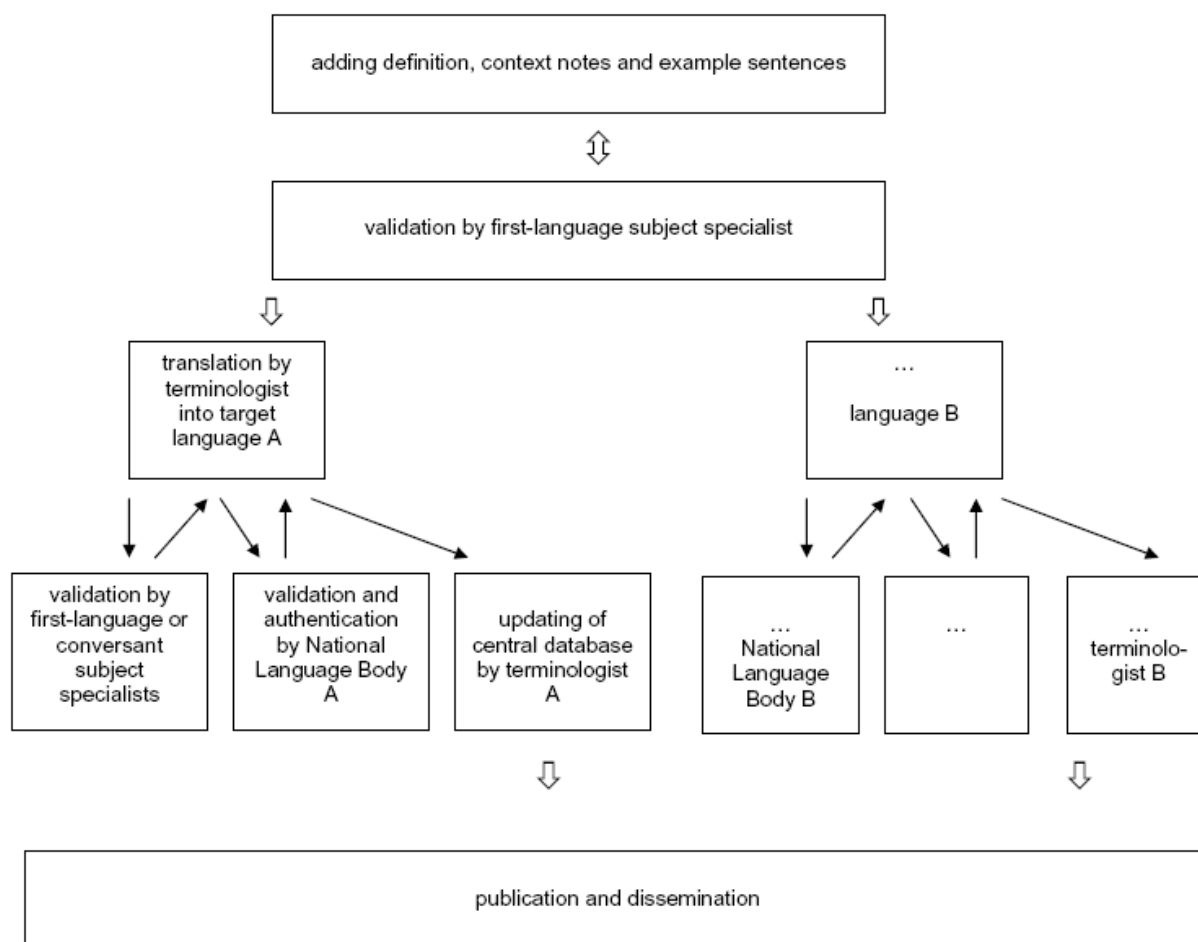


Figure 4.2 Workflow foreseen in governmental terminology planning policy in South Africa (Source: Alberts 2008)

Terminology planning according to terminological principles and methods plays almost no role in the current national terminology policy to generally develop the previously marginalized languages through field research and descriptive documentation of existing terminology in the indigenous African languages. Such work is restricted to lexicography projects with the result that synonymy abounds and much duplication of efforts occurs due to a lack of coordination between terminology planning and lexicography projects (Alberts 2008).

The distribution model currently followed by TCS shows its strengths and weaknesses. The most characterizing and distinguishing feature is that cooperation takes place merely between the different governmental institutions.

The TCS is in contact with the language units in all ministerial departments. TCS offers assistance and advice concerning these departments' terminology development projects and in implementation and dissemination of its own terminology products (mainly hardcover or electronic term lists).

Thought is given on the target users at the beginning of every terminology project. The primary target group is identified as well as the key distributors to these groups. These distributors are almost exclusively other governmental departments. After they have been handed over the lists and glossaries they are trusted to distribute them widely. This is a major shortcoming in the process. The TCS has no direct influence and even knowledge of the distribution process and whether or not the glossaries and term lists reach their target users. This implies also that there is no feedback mechanism about acceptance and usability of the terms by the target users. In fact, the only way to provide feedback is via the Website of the Department of Arts and Culture. This makes valuable and representative contribution and interaction with user communities impossible from the outset. It would require not only access to the Internet and information literacy but also a high degree of terminological awareness to do so (ibid., personal correspondence).

Active and direct cooperation with non-governmental organizations and the establishing of public-private partnerships could be a positive step towards improving this situation, mainstreaming the terms directly and receiving direct feedback. Also it would raise awareness of the work of the TCS in general. However, it needs to be coupled with a stronger representation in public via the different media. There is a good working relationship between the TCS and the mass media, in particularly SABC and active cooperation in a number of terminology projects, most recently the development of soccer terminology in preparation of the Soccer World Cup 2010 which takes place in South Africa and is regarded a national prestige event and has major importance attributed in the country and the entire African continent. To strengthen and more effectively use this cooperation in order to improve terminology planning and the dissemination of information and products would be one of the most important issues to be

undertaken by the Department in the near future. Some reflections on how this could be achieved are developed in Chapters 4.4.4 and 4.4.5 below.

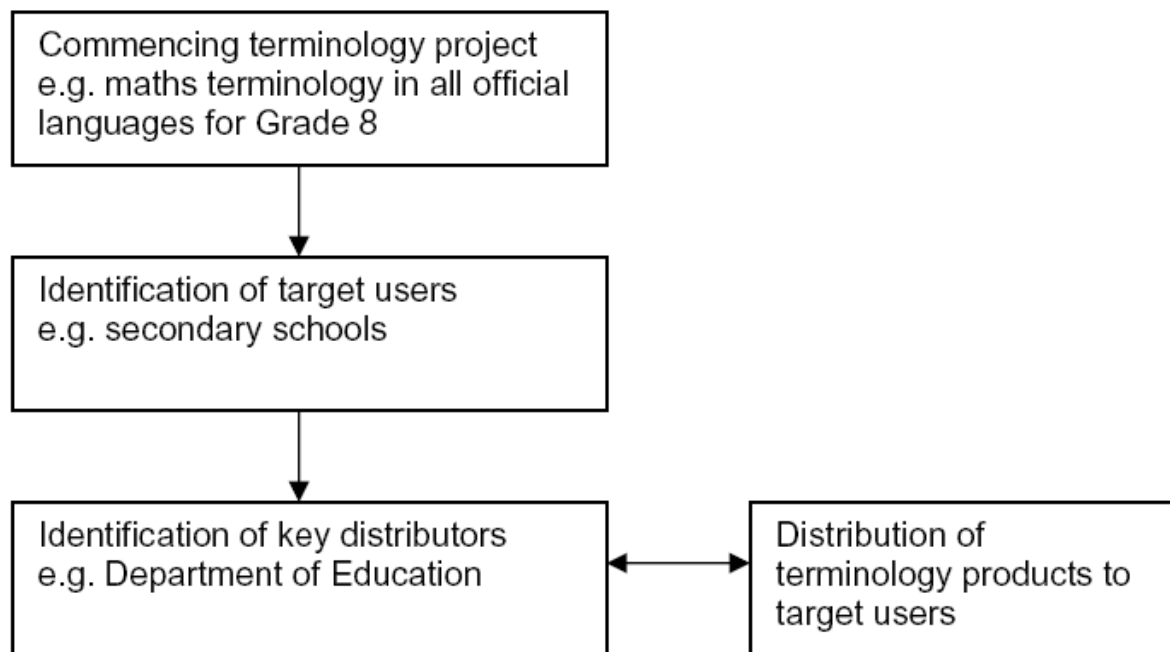


Figure 4.3 Distribution model on the example of maths terminology used by the TCS (Source: interview)

#### 4.2.4 Terminology standardization

Terminology planning can be either descriptive or prescriptive. Early stages of terminology work ideally comprise the inclusive collecting of available terms for existing concepts. There might be borrowings from other languages, loan translations, indigenized terms and other options in parallel for one and the same concept. In the African context, a large number of modern concepts from technology, politics, etc. are introduced from other cultural systems, in particular the Western developed nations. Therefore, English-origin terms in particular are dominant in anglophone and, to a lesser extent, also in francophone and lusophone Africa. Synonymously used terms are common in the African context.

After documentation of the synonyms, prescriptive terminology work takes over in which a choice is made between competing terms. Terminology policies may regulate general guidelines for the selection as well as for the process of recording, documentation, consensus-finding and dissemination. This selection might be influenced by considerations concerning cultural, linguistic or political appropriateness, economy (e.g. brevity, being easy to remember) or precision and transparency (Infoterm 2005:11).

Planning of terminology is almost always connected to standardization. Terminology standardization has two different aspects which are sometimes confused. It comprises on the horizontal axis the standardization of methodology and principles for terminology work and management. Such methodology standards are technical standards which are supposed to facilitate the work of terminologists and ensure reusability and interoperability of the results. On the international level methodology standards on terminology are developed by technical committee 37 of the International Organization for Standardization, or ISO/TC 37. South Africa's national mirror committee SABS TC 37 (formerly StanSA TC 37), part of the South African Bureau of Standards (SABS) has been an active member of ISO/TC 37 since 2002.

Terminology standards are also developed within different domains as a means to enable communication and reduce misunderstanding among experts. Nearly all technical standards, national as well as international, include a fundamental terminology component in which the concepts are defined. It has been recognized by technical standardizers from the various subject fields that only of a common understanding of the concept is given, a standard can be of any use. Therefore standardization and terminology are inseparably connected (Infoterm 2005<sup>48</sup>).

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<sup>48</sup> Also see Drame, Anja. Presentation during Termtrain workshop Pretoria 2006, [http://www.termnet.org/downloads/english/projects/IFAP/pres\\_drame\\_term\\_stand.pdf](http://www.termnet.org/downloads/english/projects/IFAP/pres_drame_term_stand.pdf), accessed 2009-02-28

### 4.3 Educational Sector

Like the mass media (see Ch.4.4), the educational sector is a crucial distribution channel for terminology planning products, especially in higher education and vocational training. Through this sector, terminology can be implanted sustainably in the future generations of subject field experts. Not only this, through teaching methodology and principles, as well as the importance of terminology management, could be introduced to the students from various domains, which can lead to long-term improvement and mainstreaming of the terminology policies.

It is not always easy to make a clear distinction here between education and the mass media. Cooperation with the education sector typically occurs via collaboration with other governmental departments, like the Department of Education. The media sector offers opportunities for alternative educational models like theatre and entertainment education which is of a high significance in a society that is characterized by high illiteracy numbers, lacking infrastructure and overall access to education, especially higher education, which is the most interesting sector for terminology policy planning. Broadcast media, for example have been used in education as from the early 20<sup>th</sup> century. Topics like inhouse trainings and capacity building have been treated in the respective chapters.

South Africa currently has 24 state-funded tertiary institutions as well as hundreds of private institutions. Of the former 11 are universities, 5 are technical universities and 6 are comprehensive institutions (Source: SouthAfrica.info <http://www.southafrica.info/about/education/education.htm>, accessed 2009-02-28). South Africa's higher education sector is characterized by a dominance of the English language. A few universities offer parallel tuition in various official languages, but English clearly dominates. North West University, for example, offers parallel courses held in Afrikaans, English and Setswana while Stellenbosch University is a traditional Afrikaans-medium university, but offers courses in English as well.

#### **4.4 The mass media landscape in South Africa**

In the following chapter I will analyse in detail the media sector in South Africa. A well planned communication campaign is aware of the important role of the mass media and therefore includes close cooperation between these and language planning institutions. In order to evaluate whether the full potential of such cooperation is utilized it is necessary to know where such potential exists and how relevant legislation and policies either foster or impede it. After a general overview of the mass media in South Africa I will examine the two major branches, print and broadcast media. The chapter concludes with interpersonal media, including the Internet and mobile technologies as well as traditional media, like theatre, in their promotion of the terminology policy.

##### **4.4.1 Mass media today - Problems, challenges, achievements**

Journalists, especially those working in a language with terminological insufficiencies or a minority status, often face a serious problem. They have to become translators as well as reporters. And this bears a double challenge because it is also a double responsibility. Journalist ethics demand correctness of information. It also demands working in the interest of the audience or readers. Their messages, reports or articles should be delivered in a way the audience will understand, find interesting and relevant (Byarugaba 1990). Moreover, journalists work under immense time pressure.

Can terminology help them to do a better job or is it just another unnecessary nuisance? This question has to be answered by media professionals every day again and a generalisation is not possible. Too different are the circumstances under which news are communicated. We have to bear in mind how journalists and media work, in order to understand their complex relationship with terminology. In a conference presentation dealing with Irish language in the mass media, a radio reporter tried to give some insight in the particular challenges of their field. It has to be noted that Irish is one of the official working languages in

the European Union and the radio channel she was employed at was an Irish language channel. Ireland has been undertaking many public and private efforts to promote the language and to plan terminology in Irish. Working methods in print and broadcast journalism are fundamentally different. But the basic problem is the same: how to deal with new concepts that come in via newswires which have not yet a standard term in the language of the medium? What about concepts which are not completely new but use different terms synonymously? How to deal with the problem of preference between a standardized term and a popular non-standard term (Ní Ghadhra 2008:57)?

Journalists often find themselves in a position in which they have to coin a term or decide among alternatives which one to use. Another colleague of the same channel may make a different decision and consistency is lost. In the best cases this goes rather unnoticed. In worse cases confusion and irritation arise and, even worse, the news item loses or alters its informational value or cause legal implications for the broadcaster.

One solution is to leave the term in its original form. But this solution may not be the best if it weakens the information or message. Another solution is to maintain and/or consult a database. But this is also not ideal in practice, because the notion of terminology management being a time-consuming process and the notion of the mass media as fast - almost immediate - provider of news is somewhat contradictory. This is unfortunate, since terminology databases have much potential to improve the quality of journalism, while at the same time they assist in popularization of standard terminology and therefore implicitly help to raise the status of the language in question. What therefore happens quite frequently in South African newsrooms is that journalists resort to an explanation of the (often) English term to explain the situation in another language.

While print journalism offers a bit more time to consult databases for right terms, it also has a more lasting impact on the reader who can repeatedly read it. This also hands some of the responsibility for comprehensiveness to the reader who may consult a dictionary. This, however, is not an ideal case of quality journalism.

Broadcast media differ in the fact that radio, unlike television with its visual cues, relies much more on the spoken word. Style is often much more central in print publications than it is in the broadcast media. Audience of the latter wants to be informed and entertained. And, unless the quality of the reporting language is extremely bad, terminological style or choice is less problematic than the first two principles (ibid.).

Proper training for journalists, especially for those working in the community media can be an important step to improve the ways in which journalists deal with terminology. But, paradoxically, quality and poor training appear to be one of the most serious problems media professionals in South Africa are confronted with today, despite the relatively large number of educational institutes. Ten universities and 11 further institutes in South Africa offer courses and curricula for journalists and media professionals. The poor quality concerns to a large degree the linguistic skills as well as the quality of the information and journalistic research. According to the Media Report South Africa media professionals and journalists often lack the most basic journalistic and management skills. Former South African president Thabo Mbeki once noted that the biggest threat to media are less lacking freedom but rather ignorance of journalists to promote freedom and democratic values (Milne/Taylor 2006:12). These views are echoed in public debate (see also 4.4.4.2).

#### **4.4.1.1 Media in society and state**

Mass media assume a double role in society. As transmitter of information and shapers of public opinion they are often recognized as the 4th power in modern democracies, besides the executive (government and police), legislative (parliament) and judicial (court) power. Worldwide one-way traffic of information from North to South is often coupled with information dependence (Reeves 1993). Therefore independent local media are among many nations' priorities.

The mass media are also a communication tool for

- Education

Both broadcast and print media, and increasingly the new media, like the Internet, are used in education. Broadcast media and the Internet play an important role in distance education and e-learning, while the print media have a strong role in the promotion of (adult) literacy as authentic reading material with relevant content. In developing societies, like most of Africa, broadcast, unlike print media are breaking the barriers of illiteracy (Salawu 2006). For terminology planning the media also have an important documentation value. Another function of the mass media is the transmission of cultural heritage for social continuity. They directly or indirectly promote cultural and linguistic values. Therefore, the mass media are also legitimating agents as they openly display the relevance of a language culture.

- Democratization

Citizens can gather information, become part of the political debate via the mass media. This makes them also prone to misuse for manipulation. Censorship (including self-censorship of the media caused through harassment and threats), impeding licenses for media enterprises, and hate speech or propaganda are among the frequently used measures to achieve this. However, these measures can also be used in a positive way, through positive discrimination quota like in South Africa or reinterpreting of propaganda and thus stirring public debate. For all freedom provided, mass media typically need encouragement and incentives from government and infrastructure to care about language policies.

Linguistic diversity in Africa is often regarded as preventive of information transfer. An opposite opinion speaks of the “Tower of Babel Myth” which denies the claim of Africa being home to more than 2000 languages. The supporters of this theory argue that, if the same criteria as linguists use in Africa would be applied to European countries, the tiny Netherlands would speak 20 languages (Kwesi Prah quoted in Alexander 2008:30). The “Tower of Babel Myth” theory

claims that 75%- 85% of Africans speak one of 12 (or 15 respectively) key languages: Fulfulde, Hausa, Yoruba, Igbo, Bambara, Eastern and Western Inter-Lacustrine Bantu, Amharic, Luo, Swahili, Nguni, Sotho/Tswana (three additions Somali/Oromo group, Gur group, Akan group). Language harmonization is seen as the key to manage multilingualism and to develop languages as media and for the use in mass media in addition to community media to reach also smaller languages.

According to the *State of the News Media Report 2005* news editors in South African newsrooms are typically male, well educated and proficient in English. Most of them lack management experience (Milne/Taylor 2006:17). The *Gender and Media Audience Study* of 2004 analyzes media consumption in South Africa, with a special focus on gender differences. The report is also known and often referred to as the *Gender Links Report*. Among the most important findings are:

- Television is the most important source of news, especially for women;
- 21% of men but only 15% refer to newspapers as their primary source of the news;
- 1% of women and 4% of men consult the Internet as source for news;
- Both women and men whose education does not exceed primary level are the predominant audience for news on the radio;
- Short news reports are preferred to any other genre (opinion, documentary, commentary).

(Genderlinks 2004:9)

#### **4.4.1.2 Media regulators and owners**

South Africa' media sector is strictly regulated by a set of laws and a number of government-appointed institutions. The most relevant in connection with language and terminology policies are introduced hereunder.

Besides the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996), which principally ensures the right to freedom of expression (Section 16) and the right to access government information (Section 32), an additional Act has been set to “*promote equality and eliminate unfair discrimination*”. The *Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act 4 of 2000* shall ensure that nothing is legally published, which is purposefully designed to “*cause harm or promote hatred on the basis of race, gender, sex, pregnancy, conscience, belief, culture, language or birth*” (Republic of South Africa 2001, quoted in Milne/Taylor 2006:9). It thus goes a step further and adds culture and language to the list.

The *Independent Communications Authority Act 13 of 2000* lays the foundation for the establishment of the Independent Communication Authority of South Africa (ICASA, <http://www.icasa.org.za>) and its independence from any interference through government or commerce. Nevertheless, ICASA remains a state organ and is thus accountable to the Minister of Communications. The Act furthermore declares the independence of the South African Broadcasting Corporation (SABC), South Africa’s national public broadcaster, which in turn is accountable to ICASA. ICASA regulates and monitors SABC’s adherence to these quota that are part of the licensing conditions. In particular the license quotas for local content have been increased by ICASA over the last years. Any new broadcaster, be it radio or television, has to obtain a license from ICASA first. Such licenses, especially those for television, are linked with strict programming guidelines (ibid.). This is certainly one of the reasons why there is to date only one free-to-air private television channel and the market is dominated by the public broadcaster SABC (ibid.).

In the *South African Broadcasting Act of 1999*, the obligations concerning broadcasting in the official languages are set. Also regulated is the amount of educational programmes and local content that reflects and addresses public interest and South African values. The SABC in particular, being the public broadcaster, has to comply with these regulations.

Besides ICASA, and with a different mandate, the Media Development and Diversity Agency (MDDA, <http://www.mdda.org.za/>) is another influential media regulator. As its name suggests, the organization was established to promote a diverse media landscape, which at one hand reflects the country's diverse population and empowers independent initiatives and start-ups like community media enterprises. It does so through financial support, training, and other assistance. MDDA therefore is to ensure that South Africa's language policy is translated into the media and that legally enshrined linguistic rights are followed, with an implied emphasize on media in the African languages. Section 3 of the *Media Development and Diversity Agency Act of 2002* therefore states that “a key function of the MDDA is to encourage ownership and control of media by historically disadvantaged communities, language and cultural groups” (Milne/Taylor 2006:11).

#### **4.4.2 Media history**

South Africa's print media sector is diverse and can look back on a long history (Milne/Taylor 2006:38). Before the democratic changes of 1994, print media have certainly not been the most adequate and useful media to convey information to the masses in Africa. However, they were the first mass media on the continent and their history deserves special recognition. Aside from South Africans of European descent they were only able to reach a tiny fraction of the African indigenous society: the educated, the urban elite, the influential and powerful. Illiteracy was perhaps the major cause for this, but probably not the only one.

Statistics concerning literacy rates in South Africa vary. The last national census did not explicitly consider literacy rates. Only educational statistics are listed, according to which 2001 71,1% of adult citizens have maximally “some secondary schooling”. Of these, almost 34% have either no schooling at all, or “some primary schooling”. UNICEF lists the total number of adult literates between 2000 and 2005 82%

([http://www.unicef.org/infobycountry/southafrica\\_statistics.html](http://www.unicef.org/infobycountry/southafrica_statistics.html), accessed 2009-02-04). A study, conducted in 2004 by the University of KwaZulu Natal, doubts such numbers and, on the basis of the 2001 census educational statistics arrives at a number of only 32% South Africans aged 15 and above who are able read and write well (Aitchison/Harley 2004). The real number is assumed to be somewhere between these two extreme estimates.

Censorship and restrictions in press freedom were not uncommon during Apartheid, especially during the years of anti-Apartheid struggle (see also International Press Institute 2004 and World Press Freedom Committee, <http://www.wpfc.org/AL1993.html>, accessed 2009-02-04).

With regard to the representation of the African languages in the South African press, trends have shifted over time. Switzer & Switzer (1979:1ff.) divide history between 1830 and 1976 into three phases. The first publications in the African languages, and therefore for an African audience, were published in missionary stations in the 1830s, starting with Bible tracts in Tswana (*Morisa oa Mdemo* – “Shepherd the Good”). The Xhosa serials *Umshumayeli Wendaba* (“Publisher of the News”), published from 1837 to 1841 were an irregular quarterly. The magazine was published by the Wesleyan Methodist Mission Society in Grahamstown. The connection of these publications to the missions is indicative of their religious content. But not all publications were entirely dedicated to religious topics. The South African Outlook (1870) and *Leselinyana la Lesotho* were “virtually chronicles of African life” (Switzer/Switzer 1979:2). After 1850 the missionaries increasingly also produced literature in Xhosa, Zulu, Tswana and Sotho. *Indaba*, published in English and Xhosa from 1862-1865 earmarked what would become the trend for the next generation: bilingual publications in both, English and an African language.

Lovedale Mission Press became famous beyond Africa when in 1861 it started to print English and Xhosa grammars, dictionaries and educational papers besides religious pamphlets. In 1876 with *Isigidimi Sama Xosa* it produced the first completely African edited newspaper which featured politics as well as topics of

general interest to an African readership, written from an African perspective. Another well known press was *Morija*, established in 1874 by the Paris Evangelical Missionary Society. *Morija* soon became the first real commercial publisher that produced not only for the Missions own purposes, but took orders from mission stations and administrations all over the continent. *Morija* published in no less than 45 languages for countries throughout Sub-Saharan Africa.

The process that was initiated in Lovedale lead to the next phase of African language press – that of Africans taking more control over the press, until 1920. *Imvo Zabantsundu* (“African Opinion”), which was edited by the same man as *Isigidimi Sama Xosa* (“The Xhosa Messenger”) became an influential medium for African opinion, and the model was copied and repeated with similar success in other provinces and languages of Southern Africa. The predominant topics were related with the emergence of the first African political parties, but they also featured educational articles and teachers’ papers as well as literature and plays. Special interest magazines first appeared around 1914, with the multilingual paper *Health*, produced by the South African Health Society at Lovedale. In 1925, the Agricultural Department of Transkei in Umtata published with *Umcebisi Womlimi Nomfuyi* a first special subject magazine about farming in Xhosa.

Although Switzer & Switzer thoroughly researched archives, libraries and other likely repositories until 1976, their bibliography is not likely to be inclusive. A reason is that not all publications have survived or were ever registered or were sent to Copyright libraries. The number of registered African newspapers between 1911 and 1930 increased from 8 to 19. While the numbers fell in the Cape province from 4 to 2, it rose steadily in all other surveyed provinces (Transvaal, Natal, Orange Free State) (Switzer/Switzer 1979:5).

Life was not easy for African journalists who were often harassed or denied access to information. Africans, with their limited access and purchasing power ,were furthermore not a very attractive target group for advertisers, with the effect of revenues from this sector remaining small. Illiteracy and rural, as well as fragmented, regional lifestyle were further factors that had a restricting

effect on the growth and development of African language press. A few very successful publications, however, like the 1920 *Umteteli wa Bantu*, a multilingual paper by the Chamber of Mines was the first in a long succession of takeovers by Whites. This led to the third phase, the complete and full control of the African press by the colonial powers. By 1950, the sector was at all levels supervised by them. White-owned and edited press targeted Black readers in townships with special “African content” supplements and special editions for this group. English became the dominant language for African, Indian and Coloured publications, while articles in the African languages gradually disappeared during that decade. This went on until and beyond the introduction of the Bantu Education Act, which promoted a basic, horizontal education in the African languages and resulted in the *Bantu Education Serials* in nine of them. One positive side effect of the Act was that it produced a hitherto unknown rate of literate Africans. Besides the national press a community press existed and kept producing in all languages. But these publications were so restricted in regional circulation and readership that they were of limited importance and influence. Their topics included homeland issues as well as ethnic literary themes (Switzer/Switzer 1979:11ff.).

Unlike the African languages, Afrikaans-language print media have been primarily a response to the growing feeling of resistance to English dominance in the Cape. In 1830 Christoffel Brand published the first issue of *De Zuid-Afrikaan*. The paper soon became popular with Afrikaans speaking colonialists who were equally unsatisfied with the British authorities and felt that their interests were not adequately addressed. The newspaper was also from the very start recognized and used to promote the language and serve the cause of its speakers (Fourie 2004:38). A large number of papers followed, notably *Genootskap* and *Die Afrikaanse Patriot*. The latter is today regarded as one of the most important media for the development of Afrikaans in the colony (ibid.).

#### **4.4.3 Print media today**

Since over a decade now, South Africa's press is considered as being "relatively free". The 2008 Press Freedom Index by the organization *Reporters Without Borders* places the country on rank 36 of 173, together with Spain, the USA, Taiwan and Bosnia Herzegovina. In comparison, Germany ranked 20 and Austria 14 in the same year (<http://www.rsf.org/en-classement794-2008.html>, accessed 2009-09-07). The ranking remained relatively stable over the last years. Its best result in this survey was received in 2003, when the country took rank 21, while its worst result of rank 44 was achieved in 2006. The index is compiled every year using a catalogue of 50 criteria, including any acts of violence against journalists or the news media, legislation that affects media as well as obstacles restricting the information flow in the Internet (<http://www.rsf.org/How-the-index-was-compiled,15338.html>, accessed 2009-09-07).

##### **4.4.3.1 Newspapers and magazines**

Currently, 43 daily, weekly, bi-weekly newspapers, as well as 50 local papers are regularly published in the country. Ownership, however, is concentrated to only four media groups, a fact that has often been criticised as being potentially harmful for diversity, plurality and the freedom of opinion. The four media groups are Naspers Ltd, Johnnic Communications Ltd. (the only Black owned), Caxton & CTP Publishers and Printers Ltd., Independent News & Media Plc. There exist publications in all official languages, with English clearly dominating the sector. The great diversity of the newspapers allow for targeted advertising and messages. Newspapers derive their revenue mainly from advertising and sales in a ratio of 3:1. Circa 40% of South Africa's adult population regularly read newspapers. This number has remained relatively stable since 2000 (Milne/Taylor 2006:38-39).

The print media market is tough, and facing troubled times. Not only in South Africa, but worldwide, media companies complain about sinking readership and

subscription numbers and lower advertising revenues. Yet, the 2006 *South Africa Country Report*, looking at the country's media development over the 5 years between 2000 and 2005, noticed a trend that is seemingly reversed from global print media trends: a growth of over 38%, expressed both in new products as in readership and circulation. However, a closer look reveals that this growth is due only to a sensational market entry of two new publications: one English-medium tabloid called *Daily Sun* and a predominantly Zulu paper *Isolezwe* (since 2002). Both publications are tabloids which target the large sector of Black lower-middle class. This class, however, with its lower spending power is not the major consumer target for advertisers (ibid.). The picture for the traditional "serious" news publications, on the other hand, follows the worldwide trend of declining circulation numbers.

*Isolezwe's* target market is, according to information and statistics on their Website, the "Urban based, employed or studying, aged from 16 to 49, male & female consumers". It has currently a national circulation of over 55000 copies daily (<http://www.isolezwe.co.za/index.php?fSectionId=2742>, accessed 2009-02-04). In 2004 it reportedly launched with its online edition *Isolezwe.co.za* the first Website in Zulu language (see <http://www.iol.co.za/> on 21 June 2004). *Isolezwe's* success is a strong indicator for a demand of news in the African languages and a growing self-confidence of the South African Black middle class. It also shows that media trends towards tabloid and entertaining content are evident across all languages and that language is not necessarily the only class status symbol. The *Daily Sun* describes their target readership on their Website:

*"He is the guy in the blue overall. He reads the Daily Sun. He has a partner and he has at least two kids. He lives in his own house - he owns it now - in Township SA. Every day he wakes up early and heads to work - like millions of others."*

<http://www.dailysun.co.za/ourPaper.aspx>, accessed 2009-02-04

*Daily Sun* is by far the biggest newspaper publication in South Africa, read by 71% of the total black newspaper reading audience, which equals 3,8 million South Africans (ibid.)

Scanning the online editions of different South African newspapers it becomes obvious that language policy topics are relatively regular. Most are, as is typical for news items, connected to a particular event, e.g. a Minister speaking during a conference, the introduction of a new initiative by a prominent company<sup>49</sup> or the lawsuits of PanSALB, in particular the reports about the organization's chief executive officer with regard to the quality of her own son's language of tuition<sup>50</sup>. Also direct calls or invitations to speakers of African languages to make use of their constitutional rights were found<sup>51</sup>. This frequent media presence clearly demonstrates an awareness of the importance of media to raise awareness and keep the public discussion alive.

South Africa's number of locally published magazines is somewhere between 280 and 350. This makes it a relatively strong market for locally produced titles. English and, to a much smaller extent, Afrikaans, dominate these titles. The *South African Country Report* watched the trend move away from the general interest titles toward a larger percentage of specialized topics, dominated by youth, parenting and home (Milne/Taylor 2006:39). Special interest publications provide a cooperation opportunity for the dissemination of standardized terminology. However, their limited availability in the African languages makes the impact on the different speaker communities quite imbalanced.

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<sup>49</sup> See Mail & Guardian Online (<http://www.mg.co.za/article/2007-02-28-mother-tongue-technology>), and annex

<sup>50</sup> See Mail & Guardian Online (<http://www.mg.co.za/article/2009-01-30-pansalb-chief-accused-of-abuse-power>), and annex

<sup>51</sup> See "Complain More" - PanSALB ([http://www.news24.com/News24/South\\_Africa/0,,2-7\\_1000276,00.html](http://www.news24.com/News24/South_Africa/0,,2-7_1000276,00.html)), and annex

#### 4.4.3.2 Books

The book publisher sector is small but notable. According to the 2007 survey of the Publishers' Association of South Africa (PASA), the number of publishers in the country was at 160. These include large commercial companies as well as university publishers, small and highly specialized private as well as non-governmental organizations. Small publishers make the largest part of this number. The major areas covered are academic, education and trade. Most publishers produce titles in several of these categories, while some others are highly specialized, for instance on textbook production. By far the greatest majority of books in South Africa are published and sold in the English language. In 2007 the reported local book sales in English were 71,92%. Together with the second largest group (Afrikaans 18,63%) this leaves a percentage of only 9,44% for all African languages combined). Of these, the majority are derived from Bible sales (Galloway/Venter/Struik 2007:27-28).

English is particularly dominant in the educational and academic sector, while Afrikaans was increasingly strong represented in books intended for a general readership. Interestingly, the number of publications in Afrikaans in the education sector has been dropping steadily, and in 2007 its percentage was even smaller than that of publications in the African languages. The negligible number of African language publications did not remain unnoticed by politicians and industry. During a language conference in Johannesburg in March 2008 the then Minister of Arts and Culture, Pallo Jordan, was quoted complaining that

*"Millions of South Africans do not enjoy freedom of expression because their languages do not have the same status as English or Afrikaans. Despite being recognised as official languages, it is a matter of deep concern that it is virtually impossible to find a bookstore in any of our shopping malls that distributes literature in the indigenous African languages" (...) "it is easier to find a book in French, German or Portuguese than it is to find a book written in sePedi, xiTsonga, seTswana,*

*isiZulu or isiXhosa.” (...) “Large populations are unable to participate in national discourse and debate because the languages used are not their own.”*

South African Press Association (SAPA), quoted in The Mail and Guardian online (2008-03-06),  
[http://www.mg.co.za/articlePage.aspx?articleid=334006&area=/breaking\\_news/breaking\\_news\\_national](http://www.mg.co.za/articlePage.aspx?articleid=334006&area=/breaking_news/breaking_news_national).

It has to be noted that the first PASA statistics, which reviewed the sector in regard of publications by language, was done only in 2006. Only one year later, in 2007/2008 the Association published a comprehensive catalogue supplement *Writings in Nine Tongues*, about publications according to each of the nine African languages. Besides book publications, it also listed available dictionaries. According to a statement of PASA chair Nhlanhla Ngubane on the organization’s Website, this initiative was met with much positive response and therefore it would be repeated in the coming years. The 2008 catalogue comprised 5080 titles (<http://www.publishsa.co.za/home.php?cmd=nineLang>, accessed 2009-02-04).

#### **4.4.4 Broadcasting media**

Broadcasting refers to the dissemination of programmes through audiovisual signals. In the context of this paper it refers to both radio and television.

##### **4.4.4.1 Radio**

If the one medium had to be named which has the widest reach and the most important influence in Africa it would certainly be radio. Radio is listened to by 92% of all South Africans, and 88% of all households own a radio (Milne/Taylor 2006:22).

There are a number of reasons for this:

1. Radio is cheap – unlike television sets radio equipment and transmitters are within the purchasing capacity of most South Africans.
2. Radio does not rely on electricity supply – in remote areas radios powered with batteries or even solar cells are common.
3. Radio is convenient companion during work – its transportability makes it a perfect companion during work on the field, in a garage or workshop, in shops and anywhere.
4. Radio allows for divided attention – unlike TV or the Internet radio programmes require only listening and therefore are ideal “background” entertainment
5. Radio broadcast content is easily accessible even for illiterate population and people with little education.
6. Radio programmes are relatively cheap to produce and air, which makes it suitable for the targeted design of community and multilingual programmes.
7. It is relatively easy to obtain broadcasting licences (ibid.)

How powerful radio can be as a medium to disseminate information, is shown in the disastrous events that took place in Rwanda in 1994. Over a period of only 100 days hundreds of thousand Tutsis and moderate Hutus were killed. The killers were Hutu militiamen and ordinary people who took up arms to kill neighbours, friends and even family members. Sparked, coordinated and driven was the frenzy via radio, which did not only provoke anger and fury through the broadcast of hate speech, it was also used to give instructions for how the killings should be done and even where to locate *Inyenzi* (“cockroaches”, a derogatory term used to describe Tutsi and moderate Hutu) at any time who went into hiding or were fugitive. The radio here was the transmitter and a two-way communication tool via which people reported what they saw and received instruction about what they were to do. A common sight during these mad days were Hutus (and Tutsi) with a radio attached to their ears, waiting for orders to kill or trying to detect whether they were already pursued (Thompson 2007). The impact of the radio programmes in Rwanda left a deep trauma in the heads of African governments. During the crisis following the presidential elections in Kenya in 2007-2008, radio stations broadcasting in languages other than English

or Kiswahili were reportedly closed down in fear of a second Rwanda and the uncontrollable propaganda of ethnic violence (source: the BBC <http://downloads.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/worldagenda/pdf/kenya.pdf>, accessed 2009-09-07).

120 registered radio stations, 90 of those community radio stations, existed in South Africa in 2005, according to media regulator ICASA. The public South African Broadcasting Corporation (SABC) owned 18 stations (13 regional, 5 national). Community radio audience increased 119% in the years between 2003 and 2005. This development can be partly attributed to the efforts by the MDDA and training initiatives for journalists, e.g. courses offered by the Institute for the Advancement of Journalism. Community radio often is thematically specialized and addressing limited target audiences

*“from rural women’s initiatives to campus radio stations to religious stations.”* (Taylor/Berger 2006, quoted in Milne/Taylor 2006:22)

It is curious to note that predominately regional stations are given precedence by nearly two third of listeners over those broadcasting nationwide (ca. 30%). Four of the five most popular public stations broadcast in languages other than English:

**Ukhozi FM** (Zulu) broadcasting in KwaZulu Natal, Mpumalanga and Gauteng, listenership in 2005 21,2%;

**Umhlobo Wenene** (Xhosa) broadcasting in 7 provinces, especially Eastern Cape, listenership in 2005 15,6%;

**Lesedi FM** (Sesotho) broadcasting in Gauteng/Free State, listenership in 2005 11,8%;

**Thobela FM** (Pedi) broadcasting in Gauteng, Mpumalanga and Limpopo, listenership in 2005 6,1%;

**Kfm** (English) broadcasting in Western Cape, listenership in 2005 4,2%.

Further stations with smaller numbers in listenership include:

**Motsweding FM** (Tswana)

**Ligwalagwala FM** (Swati)

**Ikwewezi FM** (Ndebele)

**Munghana Lonene FM** (Tsonga)

**Radio Sonder Grense (RSG)** (Afrikaans)

**Phalaphala FM** (Venda)

(Sources: SABC and SAARF AMPS, quoted in Milne/Taylor 2006:24).

Although these numbers suggest stable and strong dominance<sup>52</sup>, this dominance is threatened by private stations who register growing numbers (ibid.). All 11 stations above belong to the net of 18 radio stations that are operated by the South African Broadcasting Corporation (SABC). The SABC as a public operator with its strict mandate pro diversity runs a minimum of one radio station per official language. English, again, dominates these numbers, but includes a station for the South African Indian community (Lotus FM). One station broadcasts bilingually in English and Xhosa (Tru FM) and one community station is dedicated to the !Xu and Khwe languages of the Khoisan people of the Northern Cape (X-K FM).

Munghana Lonene, which addresses young audiences in urban and rural settings, follows an edutainment approach, expressed by a minimum of 50% educational content besides music (SABC Website <http://www.sabc.co.za/portal/site/sabc/menuitem.3eb4c4b520e08a22f22fa121a24daeb9/>, accessed 2009-02-09).

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<sup>52</sup> According to the SABC, Ukhozi is the second-largest radio station in the world and the largest in Africa (<http://www.sabc.co.za/portal/site/sabc/menuitem.3eb4c4b520e08a22f22fa121a24daeb9/>, accessed 2009-02-09).

Radio Sonder Grense runs a special language-theme programme called *Die tale wat ons praat* ("The languages we speak"). The show is broadcast every Sunday and is dedicated to the discussion of language-related problems. This show discusses terminology, domains and varieties of Afrikaans. The audience can phone-in and ask questions or talk about problems and issues they encountered regarding their language(s). There is collaboration with the Pan South African Language Board and staff members, as well as foreign experts, have been frequent guests in the show.

In the following, I will examine whether the programme structure in two SABC radio stations<sup>53</sup> offers opportunities to place terminology policy campaigns. Specialised programmes, i.e. such, addressing topics from certain domains, are important for targeted message and advertisement placement. Also, through close collaboration, terminology products and services could support journalists in their work as well as help disseminating standard terminology and get feedback from people (interactive sessions). The list of radio advertisers is clearly topped by the South African Government, which spent a total of 130 million Rand on advertisements in 2004. This amount is far more than double compared with the next in line, Standard Bank (59 million Rand) (Milne/Taylor 2006:26).

Africa's largest radio station Ukhozi FM broadcasts semi-nationally. Ukhozi's programme, besides contemporary music, includes a large portion of information and educational content presented in Zulu. The range of topics is diverse and reflects Ukhozi's target listenership. A variety show, *Mr. Gold*, reports weekdays from 7-11 p.m. about government programmes, projects and other state issues. Each government department has a slot of 25 minutes allocated every day for their issues and a further 90 minutes are allowed for the SABC Education branch, which designs specialized programmes for children, young adults, adults and

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<sup>53</sup> Ukhozi FM is a large station which addresses a major segment of South African citizens. A somewhat smaller station, but one, which reaches across the South African border into neighbouring Botswana is Motsweding FM.

students, e.g. on health, family planning, money and career matters. Early birds during weekdays can listen to *Ngizwe* (2-5 a.m.). The show addresses agricultural problems as well as crime prevention issues and is designed interactive with phone-ins, E-mails and SMS used for listener participation. *Sgwili* is another show aiming at the education and empowering of Zulu-language audience. The show is aired Monday to Friday from 12-3 p.m. Its topics are related to hard and soft skills development, financial and career planning as well as Work-Life-Balance issues. HIV education and child development are further issues that are frequently discussed. Special sports programmes are broadcast during weekend afternoons. Compared with other public stations, Ukhozi FM has a favourable and diversified programme structure with many opportunities for terminology policy-related communication campaigns. Moreover, the impressive listenership statistics suggest wide exposure and reach of the information and terminology.

Motsweding FM broadcasts local and regional content in Tswana, not only in and from South Africa, but across the border into Botswana as well. Motsweding, therefore, is not only recognized in South Africa but received prizes and laudation from Botswana's Minister of Culture, Youth and Sport during the Mascom/BOMU awards 2007 for *"its concentered efforts in promoting Botswana artists within the SADC region and beyond"*. Station manager Ben Dikobe stressed during the same event Motsweding's mission to *"encourage the speaking of the Setswana language by telling the African story on the continent"* (Source: newspaper article "Botswana: Minister Pheto Hails Motsweding FM", Mnegi/The Reporter, Gaborone, 12 December 2007). Programmes include Mphatlalatsane, a show discussing sexual health, family planning and HIV/Aids issues. For that, according to an own disclosure it has compiled *"its own dictionary particularly when it comes to sex matters because they are avoiding to use explicit language on the radio. The dictionary includes some of the following words when they are referring to sex: Go kgetlha morogo, go isa letsogo ga moletje and so on."* (<http://www.motswedingfm.co.za>, accessed 2009-02-09). Special shows on sports topics are prominent on Motsweding. A daily show broadcast weekdays caters for phone-ins and discussion and in-depth analysis while another 4-hour

feature every Saturday broadcasts live events. These examples show how, with a well planned communication campaign terminology policy-related information can be targeted to particular audience segments. Educational topics are catered for every weekday from 7 to 9:30 p.m. as well as from 10:30 p.m. to 2 a.m. The latter show again is an interactive in-depth analysis on current affairs and new topics

Of the various community radio shows in the country, Khwezi FM stands out, because it serves a multilingual and diverse audience. Khwezi FM broadcasts in KwaZulu Natal in the four languages English, Afrikaans, Zulu and German. Its programme includes interactive shows, news and educational shows, both foreign and locally produced (emphasizes in italics by the author):

4:00	UmpHEME	Devotion
4:05	Vuka Uzithathe	Wake up call! <i>Phone in programme</i>
5:00	News bulletin	
5:05	Sakha isizwe (Ezentuthuko)	<i>Programme educating about the functioning of Local Municipalities</i>
5:30	Liphumile Ikhwezi	Gospel devotion & music
6:00	News bulletin	
6:05	Ezasekuseni	Current affairs
6:50	Ezemidlalo	<i>Sports: local sports announcements, listeners may phone in with comments &amp; views</i>
7:00	News bulletin	
7:05	Ezemidlalo	Sports programme continued
7:30	Kwasa Okungaliyo	Greetings programme. Listeners phone in to greet one another, and send messages to each other.
8:00	News bulletin	
8:05	Amazwi Okuphila	Bible reading for the <i>illiterate</i>
8:30	Presenter's Time	<i>Various topics discussed by On Air Presenter &amp; listeners phone in to voice their thoughts</i>
9:05	Ngivumele Ngingene	Music request programme
10:00	News bulletin	
10:05	Duduzanani	Popular phone-in aimed at comforting the sick and bereaved
10:30	Zibuya Inhlanzana	Open slot for sponsored programmes
11:00	News bulletin	
11:05	Izimemezelo	<i>Community announcements</i>
11:30	Ezomame (Ezomndeni)	<i>Programme on family matters pertaining to mothers/women</i>
12:00	News bulletin	
12:05	Iziko	<i>Programme on Zulu tradition &amp; history</i>
12:30	Zimnandi	<i>Book reading</i>
13:00	News bulletin	

13:10	Ezinohlonzo	<i>Current Affair</i>
13:40	Drama	
14:00	Deutsche Welle	<i>German Satellite News</i>
14:10	German Hour	<i>German variety programme</i>
15:00	Afrikaans News Bulletin	
15:05	Afrikaans Hour	<i>Afrikaans variety programme</i>
16:01	BBC News Bulletin	
16:06	English Hour	<i>English variety programme</i>
17:01	BBC News Bulletin	
17:06	English Programme	<i>English variety programme continued</i>
17:30	Ezabasha	<i>Youth programme; topical discussions &amp; debates</i>
18:00	News bulletin	
18:05	Amabalengwe	<i>Current Affairs</i>
18:30	Hlala Nekhwezi	Greetings: letters
19:00	News bulletin	
19:05	Ezentuthuko	<i>Programme educating about the functioning of Local Municipalities</i>
19:40	Ezemidlalo	<i>Sports programme</i>
20:00	News Bulletin & Weather	
20:10	Liphumile Ikhwezi	Repeat: Gospel devotion & music
20:40	Drama	
21:00	News Bulletin	
21:05	Siyazibongela	Phone-in/letters of thanks
21:30	Back to School	<i>Grade 12 lessons broadcast</i>
21:58	Focus on the Family Minute	<i>Dr. J. Dobson on family matters</i>
22:00	BBC News Hour	
24:00	BBC News & Programming	

Table 4.1 Multilingual programme of Radio Khwezi FM

(source: <http://www.khwezi.org.za/Programming/Programming.htm>, accessed 2009-09-07, italics by author)

#### 4.4.4.2 Television

Television was introduced late to South Africa. Only in the 1970s were the first shows put on air. The originally only channel was equally divided between English and Afrikaans. From 1983 on, two separate channel for African viewers were opened, broadcasting in Zulu and Xhosa, and the Sotho languages respectively (Thomaselli/Thomaselli 1989:109ff, quoted in Msimang 2006).

Television today is predominately in English. There exist a few programmes in the other ten official languages, but these are comparatively few. The number of

South Africans who regularly watch television is rising. In 2005, 78% of all adult citizens claimed to have been exposed to a television programme in the last week, while significantly more than half watched every day (Milne/Taylor 2006:31).

As we have seen above, ICASA is the institution that regulates television broadcasting licenses. The market for such licenses is, unlike the one for radio, very strict and obtaining a license is quite difficult. The South African Broadcasting Corporation operates three nation-wide public channels. There are currently no regional stations. Apart from the three SABC channels there are one private free-to air channel, e.tv, as well as two pay-tv channels, M-Net and DStv. English dominates in all three public channels as well as the private ones.

The three SABC channels differ in the representation of the other languages. The one that is watched most is SABC 1. It is also the one with the largest covering of African language content (42% in 2005) (Laschinger 2005, quoted in Milne/Taylor 2006:36). The number has reportedly been increased in 2008 to the expected 60-70% (SABC 2008:33). SABC 2 shares its English broadcast time with Afrikaans and other language programmes. And SABC 3 is home to most of the imported programmes and operates almost entirely in English. English always dominates the news, while entertainment shows are in English, Afrikaans or in a mix of different South African languages. Subtitling has been successfully tested for hugely popular prime time soap operas like *Generations* (running since 1993, entirely produced and directed by Black South Africans). *Generations* is the first show that allowed for large use of Zulu, Xhosa, Sotho and Tswana. Other popular soap operas like *Egoli* and *7de Laan* mix English with Afrikaans while *Muvhango* covers some Venda.

SABC is following the license requirements and local content quota for each station set by ICASA. These quota, however, are not regarded as obstructive. On the contrary, most broadcasters even exceed their minimum quota and are therefore overwhelmingly local. This is possible, because the South African audience responds positively to local shows. Another positive effect of producing

local is that the content so produced may be kept in production libraries and even be further marketed. This, among other reasons, makes local production potentially interesting for terminology projects. Terminology has been an issue at the SABC for many years, even during Apartheid, due to the fears by Afrikaans speakers of English hegemony. From the first day 1976 until 1985 the SABC employed language experts for English and Afrikaans. In 1986 the Language Department was founded. This department employed two experts (one for English and one for Afrikaans, none for the African languages in which the broadcaster operated since 1983). After 1995 additional experts for the African languages, although with little qualification, were employed. The Department offered services, consultation and translation to the entire SABC, radio as well as television. Head of the department until 1996 was Dr. Anton Prinsloo, who later became the host of Radio Sonder Grense's programme *Die tale wat ons praat* and has now retired. The SABC's Language Department began to deteriorate after that and was fully closed down in 1998. By then, a large part of databases and documents had already been lost.

One fact that is frequently criticized is the bad quality of many reporters' and anchors' English. It appears to be a common assumption among South Africans that the quality of African language or Afrikaans programmes is by far of a better linguistic quality than the local English programmes, despite the fact that they are so dominant. While most commenters urgently plead for a rapid improvement of the quality, some argue that the South African version of English gives the programmes a distinct flavour and are therefore justified<sup>54</sup>:

*"I expect unbiased reporting written by people competent in the English language, delivered by people who read their scripts prior to broadcast who seek advice on pronunciation if they are not English first language speakers." ...*

*peter hartley on May 28th, 2008 at 5:50 pm*

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<sup>54</sup> (Excerpts from the *Thought Leader* Website of the "Mail & Guardian online" on the question *What is your vision for the SABC?* <http://www.thoughtleader.co.za/talkback/2008/05/22/what-is-your-vision-for-the-sabc/>, accessed 2009-02-10)

*"I'd like English programmes to be presented and written by people who are 100% competent with the written and spoken word. Apart from English, all other stations use presenters who are first language speakers of the language. Why is it only English that gets mangled beyond comprehension?"*

*Peter on May 29th, 2008 at 7:38 am*

*"hear, hear, on the english bit. sometimes the english of various presenters and reporters is so bad that i often just turn and watch the afrikaans news, or turn to e. [im sure e.tv gets grief about not being "transformed" enough. if they wave out the "we need english-speaking reporters" flag, they will always win.]. they put different stories on the news of different languages. i don't think they expect people who watch the english news to also watch the xhosa or zulu news. i do, and these days i flip back and forth between english and Afrikaans....now, if they do have people who are not afrikaans or tswana first language doing the news in those languages, then i'll take it back."*

*mundundu on May 30th, 2008 at 1:24 pm*

*"Focus on the South African movie and programming industry with high quality art films and programs in all the official languages. Responsibility for setting new traditions of excellence in tv programming in the other languages of South Africa"...*

*"As far as English usage goes: if English wants to dominate all spheres of public life since it is marketed as a world language, its native speakers have no right to complain about the competency of second language speakers. Our accents and pronunciations must be representative of how many people in the country speak it, and not be accountable to a colonial style filter that protects the queen's ears."*

*Pieter Grobler on May 29th, 2008 at 4:08 pm*

It is expected by media experts that programmes in languages other than English and Afrikaans will be increasing analogous with local productions and larger African language middle class (Milne/Taylor 2006:34). SABC announces in its Annual Report 2007/2008 a growth of local language use in dramas and documentaries of up to 80% (SABC 2008:7).

Concerning the demand for more programmes in the other official languages, SABC has been granted licences for two new regional channels in 2005. However, their going on air has been delayed until the broadcaster has raised enough governmental or advertising funds to run them. In early 2009 they have still not materialised. The mission of SABC 4 will be to broadcast in Tswana, Sotho, Pedi, Venda, Tsonga and Afrikaans in the provinces Limpopo, North Western Province, Gauteng, Free State and the Northern Cape. SABC 5 will air their programmes exclusively in Zulu, Xhosa, Swati and Afrikaans and reach Mpumalanga, Gauteng, KwaZulu Natal, the Eastern Cape, the Western Cape as well as the eastern border of Limpopo. In both channels English shall be kept to an absolute minimum (ibid.)

Another ambitious project has been the development of two pan-African television channels which are to broadcast across the continent "*in a range of colonial and indigenous languages*". This project was expected to be finalized in 2006 but it, too, waits for its implementation (ibid.).

The National Language Service has been closely cooperating with the national public broadcaster SABC in a number of terminology projects in the far and recent past and maintains positive working relations with the broadcaster. In 1996, on the occasion of the Olympic Games, the SABC published a glossary of sports terms in all eleven official languages. This glossary was compiled in cooperation with the National Terminology Services and PanSALB. It formed the basis for further work on sports terminology in the governmental language services and for standardization and a hardcopy of it is still available at the Terminology Coordination Section dated 3 July 1996 (Drame 2001:47, personal

conversation with the then head of TCS). Some projects in cooperation with the SABC in the more recent past include:

2008: Joint project between Statistics South Africa (StatsSA), TCS and SABC on statistics terminology (TCS was asked to assist StatsSA with finalizing the source text and participate and consult during the working meetings). SABC supplied terminology used when broadcasting economic news. Most of the African language radio stations already had economic terminology lists which formed the basis of discussion in the working meetings (source: personal conversation).

2009: TCS currently develops soccer terminology in preparation with the 2010 Soccer World Cup in South Africa. Among the subject specialists contributing to the project are soccer commentators from the SABC. A comment during an interview with a senior staff member of the National Language Service expresses best what is recognized as a current shortcoming in the collaboration but might be improved in the nearer future:

*“what I think is lacking is a strategy from our side on how we could utilize the SABC radio stations for soliciting feedback from the ordinary speakers of the various languages on our terminology products; and also a strategy on how we can utilize the SABC to popularize and market our terminology products.”* (Source: E-mail interview)

#### **4.4.5 Soul City – A South African Social Change Communication programme**

That Social Change Communication is not alien to South Africa shows the example of a popular show. Soul City was initiated about 16 years ago in 1992, just before the democratic changes in South Africa took root. It is the largest project of its kind in Africa. This show is particularly interesting as a model for terminology policy communication as it uses different targeted media and addresses topics from a wide range of domains. The information below has been

taken from the *Soul City* Website <http://www.soulcity.org.za> (accessed 2009-02-10).

The *Soul City* Institute for Health and Development Communication is a non-governmental organisation (NGO) to promote health and social change in a project, targeted at the individual, community, and socio-political levels. *Soul City* produces a broadcast programme according to a mixture of models from Entertainment-Education, advocacy and social mobilisation. The show is both, well researched and responsive to the most pressing health and social issues in the South African society, and highly entertaining. In fact, it has become so popular that it is broadcast in prime time television. The idea behind *Soul City* is that stories can be a tool for teaching people by providing positive models for behaviour and giving a human face to issues such as HIV/AIDS. And as such, it is also well suited to simultaneously disseminate health terminology or inform about terminology-related projects, products and services. *Soul City* targets Black South Africans and thus it speaks their languages. The show is broadcast in a mix of South Africa's official languages with English subtitles. *Soul City* television drama on SABC 1, which has entered its ninth series in 2009 consists of one-hour episodes. Furthermore, the organizers make use of different media forms to address different segments of the society. The show is broadcast both on television as well as on radio, in order to reach rural people with limited access to TV. The daily radio drama is 15 minutes and broadcast on all regional SABC radio stations in each respective language as well as on a number of community radio stations. Print material accompanies these shows and is designed to follow-up on topics featured in the shows in greater detail for future reference. These booklets (three per series) are distributed as newspaper inserts, through health clinics and governmental, NGO distribution channels and educational institutes. The *Soul City* NGO also produces educational materials and videos for use in interpersonal, face-to-face group settings as well as train-the-trainer courses to expand the network and reach people in remote areas who are otherwise hard to reach. A drawback is that the material is only available in English via the Internet although it is available in Sotho, Zulu and Afrikaans as well as for other countries in the region, like Swaziland, Zambia, Namibia,

Lesotho, Malawi and Mozambique (personal conversation with staff members). The *Soul City* project is geared toward the general public of all ages while another related project, *Soul Buddyz*, is designed for children between 8-12 years of age and their teachers. In designing the programme, audience and experts are equally involved. From the audiences the organizers get feedback on themes and issues that will be covered and new topics are tested. This way, ownership is created as well as authenticity reached. The organizers use media like e-mail and SMS to interact. Competitions and attractive prizes like cars and money as incentives motivate active contribution.

The issues dealt with in each series of *Soul City* cover a whole range of domains and included

- mother & child health,
- HIV/AIDS,
- housing and land,
- tuberculosis,
- smoking,
- household energy,
- violence,
- alcohol misuse,
- personal finance,
- hypertension,
- violence against women,
- Small Business Development,
- rape,
- disability,
- depression,
- asthma,
- adult education and literacy,
- volunteerism and service,
- equity in the South African health system,

- masculinity,
- cervix cancer,
- crime and responsibility,
- organ donation and adoption.

HIV/AIDS is the most recurring theme. The *Soul City* organizers encourage wide cooperation nationwide as well as internationally and holds a number of public-private partnerships with sponsors, companies and educational institutions. Core funding is provided by British Petroleum (BP), the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), the United Kingdom (UK) Department for International Development (DFID), the Republic of South Africa's Department of Health and Department of Public Service and Administration (DPSA), Development Cooperation Ireland, De Beers, Pefpar, and the Royal Netherlands Embassy. In 2009 the PanSALB Multilingualism Award went to Soul City (see Chapter 4.2.2.2).

#### **4.4.6 ICT: Internet, Web 2.0 and social media**

*Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs)*, is an umbrella term for a range of technological applications. They include computer hardware and software, CD Roms, digital broadcast technologies, telecommunication technologies, World Wide Web and Web 2.0 applications, mobile telephones.

It is generally believed that ICT has the potential to benefit those who have been marginalised by other media. Moreover, they are regarded to

- generate jobs and other income opportunities,
- improve access to health and education,
- facilitate information sharing and knowledge creation,
- increase transparency, accountability and effectiveness of governments, business and non-profit organizations and
- foster freedom of expression.

In brief, they are believed to improve democratization, development and the human rights situation. The potential of ICT is not the same everywhere, and socioeconomic factors like geographical spread, infrastructure and national wealth do play an important role in determining their successful implementation. But even in places with high density and infrastructure, education and resources as well as high access numbers the above assumption needs relativization. China is a well known case, but there are others that have become publicly known in the last years (USA, Thailand, Pakistan, etc.). Compared to the rest of the continent, South Africa has by far the largest number of fixed line and mobile connections. It can also claim the most advanced ICT sector. Access distribution is divided along economic lines making it a nation clearly digitally divided (Etta/Parvyn-Wamahiu 2003).

Internet became available to the South African public in 1993. Internet access rates have been growing slower than initially expected, which led to disappointment. One major reason was the high telephone costs necessary for dial-up. With the availability of better broadband Internet after 2009, this is expected to improve (Milne/Taylor 2006:45).

Year	Users	Population	% Penetration	Source
2000	2,400,000	43,690,000	5.5 %	ITU
2001	2,750,000	44,409,700	6.2 %	IWS
2002	3,100,000	45,129,400	6.8 %	ITU
2003	3,283,000	45,919,200	7.1 %	Wide World Worx
2004	3,523,000	47,556,900	7.4 %	<u>Wide World Worx</u>
2005	3,600,000	48,861,805	7.4 %	<u>Wide World Worx</u>
2008	4,590,000	43,786,115	10.5 %	<u>W.W.W</u>

Table 4.2 Internet statistics for South Africa

Source: <http://www.internetworldstats.com/af/za.htm>, accessed 2009-02-13

As the table above demonstrates, Internet growth has been very slow over the years from 2000 to 2008 with an absolute low between 2002 and 2005. By the end of 2001 one in 15 South African had access to the Internet. In 2003 growth was estimated around 6%. This is only one in every 13 South Africans

Due to the high costs, the biggest part of those who accessed the Internet did so at the workplace. The Internet world stats survey lists e-mail and banking the primary online activities and services used by South African SMEs. According to traffic statistics for e-mail provider Gmail (or Google Mail), South Africa is number 10 of its worldwide users, while on MSN it ranks 35.

Nevertheless, the importance of the Internet as communication medium has increased:

- In 1997, the African National Congress (ANC) launched its Website ([www.anc.org.za](http://www.anc.org.za) – up to date only available in English) as one of the first Web information service by an African political organization.
- The number of Weblogs and discussion forums is rising with more and more news providers also using this medium. In February 2009, the

Website *Blog Catalogue* (<http://www.blogcatalog.com/country/south-africa>, accessed 2009-02-13) lists 738 Weblogs that originate in South Africa. Themes cover diverse interests and orientations. English is the dominant language. There are few Weblogs in other official languages. Examples are <http://khumblani.wordpress.com/> or *South African Blog Planets* <http://translate.org.za/content/view/1779/> who hosts Weblogs in all official languages (accessed 2009-02-13).

Language policy-related topics are addressed, e.g.

<http://translate.org.za/content/view/1800/51/lang,en-za/> or

<http://za.creativecommons.org/blog/archives/2007/07/05/making-local-lekker-promoting-your-content-in-south-african-languages/>, accessed

2009-02-13. A large number of Weblogs discussing South African sociolinguist issues seem to be foreign.

- In Chapter 4.4.3.1 I have already noted that *Isolezwe* newspaper created the first Website in Zulu language.

Among *Wordpress*<sup>55</sup> users, South Africa ranks 16, between France (15) and Japan (17) (Source: [http://www.alexa.com/data/details/traffic\\_details/wordpress.com](http://www.alexa.com/data/details/traffic_details/wordpress.com), accessed 2009-02-14)

As I have already noted in Chapter 3, the Internet is mix between mass media and personal media because it shows characteristics of both:

- a) It is unidirectional and reaches the masses,
- b) It is multidirectional and can be personalized. It allows for feedback, esp. where Web 2.0 applications like Social Networks, Wikis, etc. are concerned.

A second reason for the slow growth of ICT in South Africa is that awareness of its potential is still largely lacking. In 2006, Department of Communications Director General Lyndall Shope-Mafole, bemoaned in a Parliament session the lack of ICT awareness among the population. She also pointed out that most

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<sup>55</sup> Wordpress is a popular free-of-charge Weblog service, which requires registration.

Internet content was published in languages other than the mother tongues found in the country. This statement is backed by the Nielsen/NetRatings Survey, as reported by the SABC ([http://www.sabcnews.com/sci\\_tech/internet/0,2172,151097,00.html](http://www.sabcnews.com/sci_tech/internet/0,2172,151097,00.html), accessed 2008-10-2).

English is the primary home language of 52% of South African Internet users. Afrikaans speakers make up 28% of the Internet population, followed by Zulu with 5%, Xhosa at 4% and Setswana at 3%. The other six official language groups make up 8% of the user base. The popularity of social network sites like Facebook™ has been increasing so rapidly among South Africans that according to a news network many companies have already started blocking the site to prevent their employees to access it during their working hours (Source: “SA companies block Facebook” article published in [http://www.news24.com/News24/Technology/News/0,,2-13-1443\\_2157156,00.html](http://www.news24.com/News24/Technology/News/0,,2-13-1443_2157156,00.html) on 02 August 2007, accessed 2009-02-14). The popularity of Facebook™ is monitored by Alexa®, an Internet traffic monitor, who says that Facebook™ is number 12 of user countries worldwide and the second most visited Website in South Africa after Google.co.za (and before Google.com and Yahoo) ([http://www.alexa.com/data/details/traffic\\_details/facebook.com](http://www.alexa.com/data/details/traffic_details/facebook.com), accessed 2009-02-14).

Wikipedia is a hugely popular collaborative social medium in the global context, but for South Africa the situation looks a bit different as the statistics for entries in the official languages of South Africa show:

Language	Ranking #	Articles
English	1	2,739,920
Afrikaans	79	11,584
Zulu	220	183

Tsonga	222	166
Swati	224	146
Venda	229	121
Xhosa	231	108
Tswana	233	102
Sotho	238	71
Pedi	no data available	

Table 4.3 Wikipedia entries in the official languages of South Africa

(Source:<http://stats.wikimedia.org>)

Wikipedia has an immense potential for the dissemination of terminology; but only if reader and contributor numbers are high. At present, with the exceptions of English and Afrikaans, this is not yet the case.

Google™, is by far South Africa's most popular Web service. The country ranks #19 of Google's global user statistics. The two services, Google.co.za and Google.com are numbers one and three, respectively among the most often visited sites in South Africa. Besides English, Google's Interface is available in Afrikaans, Sotho, Zulu and Xhosa. Alexa's Internet traffic statistics show an interesting picture for South African's Internet behaviour and popular sites (Alexa [http://www.alex.com/data/details/traffic\\_details/google.com](http://www.alex.com/data/details/traffic_details/google.com), accessed 2009-02-14).

“1. Google.co.za ([google.co.za](http://google.co.za))

2. Facebook ([facebook.com](http://facebook.com))

*Social utility that connects people, to keep up with friends, upload photos, share links and videos.*

3. Google ([google.com](http://google.com))

*Enables users to search the Web, Usenet, and images. Features include PageRank, caching and translation of results, and an option to find similar pages. The company's focus is developing search technology.*

4. Yahoo! (yahoo.com)

*Personalized content and search options, chatrooms, free e-mail, clubs, and pager.*

5. YouTube (youtube.com)

*Upload, tag and share your videos worldwide!*

6. Wikipedia (wikipedia.org)

*An online collaborative encyclopaedia.*

7. Windows Live (live.com)

*Search engine Microsoft*

8. Microsoft Network MSN (msn.com)

*Dialup access and content provider.*

9. News24 (news24.com)

*24 hour online news service situated in South Africa. The online arm of the South African newspaper group Naspers.*

10. Blogger.com (blogger.com)

*Free, automated Weblog publishing tool owned by Google.”*

...

“12. Standard Bank of South Africa (standardbank.co.za)

*One of South Africa's big four banks. Descriptions of accounts, interest rates and services. Internet banking offered.*

13. ABSA Group Bank (absa.co.za)

*Large commercial and private bank offering a full range of services including internet banking.”*

...

“16. Independent Online (iol.co.za)

*South African, regional and world news, sport, business, motoring, classifieds and RSS feeds from various wires services and Independent group newspapers .*

17. Wordpress.com (wordpress.com)

*Free Weblogs managed by the developers of the WordPress software.*

18. M-Web (mweb.co.za)

*Offers entertainment, ecommerce, internet access, hosting, domain registration, e-mail and design services.”*

...

“40. University of South Africa (UNISA) (unisa.ac.za)

*The largest university in South Africa and one of the largest distance education institutions in the world.”*

<http://www.alex.com/topsites/countries/ZA>

Mobile phones are an effective means to reach the part of the South African population who have no other access to ICT due to lacking infrastructure, for reasons of geographical remoteness, poverty or mobility. Like in other countries of the developing world, mobile phones in Africa have a different status and are used differently than they are in Western countries. In South Africa both types, “westernized” middle class Africans and privileged elites (mostly white) besides illiterate rural people and poor. A study undertaken by Vodafone revealed that, while in the UK there is an almost balanced ratio of phone calls and short text messages (SMS), 0.6:1, in South Africa total the ratio is 3:1. Interestingly, in rural

communities it was up to 17:1, which is explained with the illiteracy rate in these communities as well as language disposition.

The importance of mobile phones increases when other communication infrastructure (e.g. landlines, transport) is poor or underdeveloped. Handymen and service providers offer their mobile phone numbers as contact points when Websites are missing, or office space and personnel are not affordable for them. In rural and remote areas, mobile phones help farmers to compare market crop prizes, contact customers or check availability of goods before undertaking extensive and expensive travel to the nearest market town (Source: the BBC).

The special situation in South Africa has led to new business models and user models for mobile phones. Personal ownership of mobile devices has not the same relevance in South Africa as it has in Western or Asian developed countries. Even where penetration and subscription rates for mobile phones are low, there is an astounding rate of access. Service providers provide mobile phones and services for nominal charges. Literate rural mobile phone owners have found a niche market in text message services for small fees. In South Africa women exceed men in both ownership (56,8 : 39,1) and user (60 : 40) rates (Gough et al. 2005:45 ff).

The mobile market in African countries is growing much more rapidly than in Europe, compared to fixed lines. This is debited to the lacking infrastructure in these countries. Mobile phones have overtaken these services more rapidly there. Mobile phones have been used to disseminate messages and for political marketing in Africa and voter registration. The 2009 elections were making extensive use of mobile phones to communicate with the citizens of South Africa.

In health communication mobile phones have been used successfully to transmit information about AIDS helplines. *Project Masiluleke* is such an example. The project is a cooperation of several non-governmental organizations and foundations and technology providers MTN and Nokia. With up to a million free individualized text messages every day and week in the African languages it is

probably the largest project of this kind to inform people about possibilities for HIV testing and urge them to get tested and treated (Source: [www.praekeltfoundation.org/project-spotlight](http://www.praekeltfoundation.org/project-spotlight), accessed 2009-02-15).

Phone companies like Nokia offers localised menus in Afrikaans, Sotho, Xhosa, Zulu, Sony Ericsson since 2002 already in Zulu and Sotho.

*“Together with subsidised mobile phones, booming subscriber growth and the launch in October 2004 of low-cost bank accounts and cellphone banking services, this has meant that 13 million previously ‘unbanked’ citizens living in rural areas can now conduct business in their own languages”*

(Mantu 2004, quoted in Wallmach 2006).

Telecentres enable access to information and communication technology and, hence, potentially to information itself especially in un- or underserved areas. Telecentres are used for a variety of purposes, including social and health reasons, education and training, business and government information, employment, computer training, project hosting, funeral services, and local news. Where there are no local newspapers or radio stations, telecentres may take a more active and involved role in providing information to local population and sometimes even become the local newspaper publishers (Etta/Parvyn-Wamahiu 2003).

Many different media, e.g. computer with or without Internet access, radio, interpersonal networks, TV, video, printers, facsimile machines, telephones, scanners, television sets, and video cassette recorders (Evusa 2005 and Etta/Parvyn-Wamahiu 2003). High crime rates in South Africa pose a threat to community telecentres, which are frequently victims to theft. Low quality equipment and lacking staff training in technology and management is also a problem, especially where telecentres are established with foreign funds. Nevertheless, telecentres in South Africa attract users from almost all age groups and both genders. Professional backgrounds of users include teachers, labourers,

unemployed and government officials as well as business people and students (Etta/Parvyn-Wamahiu 2003). For this reason, telecentres are crucial places to get in touch and communicate with the local population.

#### **4.4.7 Theatre and storytelling**

The following section focusses on a special form of education that offers much potential for terminology policy communication. *Theatre for development* is an adult education practice that is particularly popular not only in Africa, but also in Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean. It has been employed increasingly since the 1980s, although formal South African theatre tradition dates back to the 1830s (Source: <http://www.medioclubsouthafrica.com>, 2009-02-18).

Theater for education's goal is to go beyond basic education and literacy and rather targeting so-called "functional literacy", i.e. creating awareness about educational issues in the adult learner. In Africa, theatre finds a strong fundament in the rich oral traditions of African societies. Therefore, theatre may appear less alien to South African Africans especially in the rural areas than other media forms. Theatre is an interactive and participatory medium, while may also be classified under "diffusion" branch of development communication. It is characterized through oral and entertainment approach. Theatre brings people together, stimulates interpersonal discussion and encourages developing issues further within a community. The theatre production ideally is owned by the community or village. Thus, themes and issues are developed, realised, watched and evaluated in cooperation of community members. In other instances, travelling theatre will visit rural communities to perform their plays and thus trigger public debate on issues.

In Southern Africa it is primarily employed as a non-formal educational method in rural or remote areas. Typically, the plays are staged in local languages. They are therefore important methods and channels for terminology dissemination and awareness creation on services, projects and linguistic and other rights. Theatre

plays are also frequently used to educate migrant workers in cosmopolitan areas such as the gold and diamond mines or the densely populated townships of South Africa. Here, however, an immense cultural and linguistic diversity can be observed which makes these performances more challenging in terms of targeting the audience.

*Laphum'llanga* is a participatory project aiming at the empowerment of women. *Laphum'llanga*, Xhosa for “sunrise” uses the traditional storytelling among the Xhosa. In a series of theatre workshops women and girls from community-organizations in the township Khayelitsha (near Cape Town in the Western Cape province) (Source: <http://www.comminit.com/en/node/133045/38>, accessed 2009-02-28). Unlike *Laphum'llanga*, which follows the participatory approach, another project is much in line with the entertainment education direction. *Talking Hands* focuses on healthcare education in rural and peri-rural communities in the Eastern Cape. It uses self-made puppets to teach children and youth new behaviour concerning hygiene, sexuality and HIV/AIDS (Source: <http://www.community-heart.org.uk/reportage/puppets.htm>, accessed 2009-02-28)

## **5 Conclusions, recommendations and outlook**

This study aimed at analyzing the communication strategy followed by a prominent governmental institution with regard to promoting linguistic diversity through the dissemination of information about and terminology products itself. For this purpose, an ideal communication model was proposed (Ch.3.6) which was based on scientific methods and knowledge. In Chapter 4, the situation in South Africa was analyzed in view of the proposed model. The study started with an analysis of demographic, sociolinguistic, cultural and historical aspects that characterize the self-proclaimed rainbow nation of South Africa. In order to be able to assign appropriate tools and approaches, the mass media sector in particular, and, to a somewhat lesser degree, the (adult) educational sector was surveyed.

The research question was about to what extent the existing context and situation, and resulting opportunities were adequately utilized for terminology policy-related communication campaigns. Recalling the main suggestions of the model campaign: A well designed communication campaign is preceded by a thorough analysis of

- the campaign information or topic,
- the target group and stakeholder analysis,
- available communication channels and
- the right timing.

### **5.1 Conclusions**

From a historical and political perspective it can be concluded that conditions in South Africa regarding a progressive language policy are ideal. South Africa has eleven official languages and puts further emphasize on the development of South African sign language, as well as Khoesan. This language policy aims at overcoming old historical inequities within society and to push linguistic self-

esteem of the African majority. However, it is obvious that these conditions remain largely theoretical and are only slowly translated into reality. Part of the problem is certainly the unfavourable attitude many speakers of African languages have towards their own language. This is still a result of being pushed into a disadvantaged corner by the former colonial powers. But it also goes along with the hegemonial power of English as the global lingua franca of business, science and media. Most education material, entertainment formats and economic investments are imported from abroad, primarily Europe and the USA. While there is certainly an awareness and pride with respect to the African heritage among many South Africans, this has to compete with the pragmatism of global communication and an overpowering super-language - English - which is particularly popular in the growing Black middle class segment of society. English, being one of the eleven official languages has an absolute advantage, especially in current times of decreasing governmental spending on language development.

South Africa's print sector has a long tradition, not only in the languages of English and Afrikaans. However, this sector is only partly suited as medium to distribute terminology-related communication as it has the ability to reach only a fraction of the population. The sector is fragmented linguistically as well as by the fact that literacy rates are relatively low. Only those with enough schooling and income, who can afford to obtain print products, can be targeted this way. Yet, if the target group and message are well defined, it can nevertheless be an efficient and effective medium as it has the ability to mobilize important opinion leaders.

Community radio, and radio in general, remains to date probably the single most suitable medium to reach a majority of South Africans. It is suitable, because it has the ability to broadcast without much cost and effort in more than one language, has either broad audience or very targeted ones, is cheap and widely available even in remote areas or infrequent power infrastructure. And because it is mobile. Considering these advantages, it is surprising that, despite few attempts, no real systematic long-term cooperation or even successful project

between terminology planning institutions and community radios could be found. Much the same can be said about television.

Social networks, ICT and the World Wide Web are only very slowly making ground in South African society, even though their potential for terminology planning and policy communication is immense. With the introduction of new broadband connentions in 2009, it remains to be seen whether Internet user rates will rise, and what effect this will have on user behaviour. Emphasize will certainly lie in the development of mobile technologies and content prepared for these technologies. In the meantime, development of localized software<sup>56</sup> and content continues<sup>57</sup>.

The incoherent implementation of South Africa's language and terminology policy is its perhaps greatest weakness. While government budget for terminology development decreases in view of other urgent budget posts like the fight against AIDS, poverty and crime, skyrocketing unemployment rates, and inadequate education, South Africa fell deeply into recession during the 2009 global economic crisis. It would probably have fallen even deeper, if the hosting of the 2010 Soccer World Cup had not been granted to the country.

On top of financial problems add shortcomings in planning. These are expressed in unclear and overlapping mandates of official terminology bodies, constant leadership quarrels, lacking coordination of multiple isolated public and private terminology initiatives, discouragement of collaborative or federated terminology work and an overall lack of transparency. All this is quite unnecessary as know-how is available for how to overcome these problems. The current problems appear to be primarily caused by a lack of evaluation of the policy implementation and adjustment of the strategic planning to new circumstances. New opportunities, like media developments, experiences in web-based,

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<sup>56</sup> See ANLoc – African Network for Localization. This pan-African project includes a terminology component: [http:// www.africanlocalisation.net](http://www.africanlocalisation.net) . However, ANLoc, like many initiative are initiated by European experts or white South African entrepreneurs. As long as such initiatives are not naturally coming from the Black South African speaker communities their impact is likely to remain limited.

<sup>57</sup> see *Igula lolwazi* below

federated terminology management and new obstacles like decreasing public spending remain unused and unanswered to. This does not only mean that there is less progress than could be – it also makes many initiatives fruitless and costly issues. South Africa performs well under limit and possibilities in terms of terminology planning and policy communication.

The focus of this study was on the two primary national terminology planning and policy institutions, the Pan South African Language Board and the National Language Service. In some regards, principles for communication strategies and awareness-raising have been applied by PanSALB, for instance in using media like internal newsletters, specialized radio programmes and the Internet to inform about terminology and language related issues, and disseminate glossaries. Especially the much publicized awarding of PanSALB's Multilingualism Awards has at least much potential as an awareness-raising activity. However, the efforts appear to be rather infrequent, coincidental and hesitant, and in no case systematic or even consequently followed. A reason for this may be in the special and peculiar situation the two institutions are trapped in. This situation is characterized by their fuzzy mandates, management structures, overlapping responsibilities and areas of action, and their diminishing budgets.

## **5.2 Recommendations and outlook**

An exemplary campaign could cover the dissemination of glossaries with AIDS terminology in the local language(s) and inform about terminology services and how they can be consulted. The aim is to improve health and AIDS related communication among the illiterate and poor South Africans, who are particularly exposed to the threat. The campaign message should be designed to the target audience. This could be for instance health care personnel and their female sex workers patients in poor rural and metropolitan areas with a high degree of domestic violence, low level of sex education or higher schooling in general and large numbers of HIV/AIDS infections. Even within this relatively limited group, the audience can be quite diverse in terms of age, linguistic and cultural group,

education, familiar or kinship situation, physical abilities, etc. The message, to have an effect, has to address the target group's emotions and be relevant to their personal situation. This can be achieved easiest through story-telling rather than distributing facts and information plainly. Opinion leaders and highly credible individuals help the audience to identify, recognize and relate to the message. The target group, besides being entertained should be able to gather information that is regarded as useful to improve their present situation. Besides topical relevance to the audience, the right timing of its dissemination can give a crucial advantage point while the wrong timing can even be harmful to the message. Using the occasion of a politician visiting the region, a cultural event or even the death of a prominent citizen could be such events.

Available media infrastructure and its use are a further factor that has to be carefully studied. Radio may be the major medium for rural population whereas in a metropolitan setting television can play a much greater role. On the basis of these factors a campaign implementation plan outlines the strategy, actions and timing as well as budget. This is even more regretful as there is diverse, supporting and facilitating media infrastructure and media legislation available. Moreover, there are quite a large number of successful projects and initiatives from other organizations, which could be co-opted either as partners, or at least inspiration for similar activities. Many private and civil society initiatives provide a great opportunity to team up with. Other sectors, like health care, make already extensive use of the available options.

Radio could be used more efficiently to reach especially the large numbers of illiterate, rural and poor South Africans as well as commuting middle class and blue collar workers in metropolitan areas. Obtaining licences is relatively easy, programming comparatively cheap and legislation in favour of supporting initiatives that aim at South Africa's diversity. Besides cooperation with some of the running and successful multilingual channels through own programmes, news or targeted advertisements, an own community radio station could be considered.

While the NLS maintains good collaboration with the public broadcaster it could improve and intensify its relations in particular with the radio stations broadcasting in the African languages for dissemination, marketing and feedback media. Also the teaming up with non-governmental organizations and private commercial enterprises for joint projects and initiatives could improve the overall visibility, awareness and most likely the use of terminology products.

With a growing Black middle class television becomes more influential as a campaign medium. The attractiveness of soap operas, good stories, sports events and documentations as well as audio-visual stimuli and the ever growing percentage of local and multilingual content open a new field for campaigns. Subtitling becomes a more and more applied technique and potentially offers new employment opportunities for language professionals as well as terminology dissemination.

Special television talk shows have been used in East Africa for Kiswahili in the past for language planning and terminological shows. Nothing comparable is known from South Africa and it is rather doubtful that such a show would attract a large audience. Cooperating with journalists and production companies as well as well-placed advertising are more prospective. Media coverage of award ceremonies, like the PanSALB Multilingual Awards, also have much potential, especially when a large participation of celebrities and opinion leaders can be enlisted. PanSALB is still largely regarded as an organization representing mostly the Afrikaans-speaking community. Much more emphasize must therefore be placed in the future on the other languages of PanSALB's focus, to retrieve some of the organization's credibility as a service provider for all citizens and linguistic communities.

Media cooperation involves the creation of newsworthy messages. For this, communication departments must align stories and messages to events and the public calendar. Spectacular news issues like the PanSALB CEO's complaint can only help in the short term to catch public attention. They must be backed by long

term awareness campaigns targeting diverse society which has much goodwill and interest to offer in turn.

The Internet is a slow-growing field in South Africa, especially in languages other than English. The way and extent it is used to disseminate information, or function as information portal for South Africans of all languages to access data, laws, news and databases is not adequate in view of its multilingual population. Despite being technically possible, there is no chance to access terminology products of any public body online. Instead, those who want information about terms and definitions have to rely on “flat files”, such as printable glossaries in Microsoft Word format (.doc), or they have to phone staff members during office hours. To improve informal dissemination of the terminology or queries from journalists, professionals etc. this is absolutely inadequate and largely misses the objective of the organizations being clearing houses for terminology.

There have been a number of best practise projects in other languages, like the EUROTERMBANK<sup>58</sup> project, that could serve as models to develop a better service for the South African citizens. While the Internet growth is slow, mobile applications promise to become a success story in Africa. Both the NLS and PanSALB have recognized this, and engage in the development of Human Language Technology and its applications. A new TermNet® project called *Igula lolwazi* (“Calabash of knowledge”) aims at creating a webbased platform for South African terminology and the discussion about it, adaptable for mobile appliances. The project is set to commence in 2009, the year of new online connectivity for many Africans due to the new undersea cables that could mean a revolutionary increase in access rates.

Both PanSALB and NLS could do more to improve transparency and information about their work. Many South Africans have no idea that these institutions even exist, let alone any of their services or projects. PanSALB’s Website, for instance,

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<sup>58</sup> EUROTERMBANK is an online accessible terminology portal and database for Estonian, Hungarian, Latvian, Lithuanian, Polish, English, German, French, Russian and other languages: <http://www.eurotermbank.com/>. During its development challenges like technical issues, collaborative and federated terminology work, copyright and business model were solved.

is colourful but not very user friendly. Often it is not functioning and it lacks useful information for anybody other than linguists (and even for them the information provided is not enough). The Web appearance of both institutions is not much more than a digital business card with little room for interactivity or up-to-date information. Even basic information about the structure and departments, or concerning basic documents like Annual Reports the Website lacks up-to-dateness (e.g. in March 2009 only the reports of 2005/06 and 2006/07 are accessible on the PanSALB Website).

In future, South Africa will see more and more decentralized and private terminology projects. Already now, a trend can be observed that terminology staff and budget at the South African Police Service or the Department of Justice exceeds that of the main terminology institutions described in this study. Private projects include terminology development projects in universities, for their purposes of teaching and training and in the assigned languages of tuition<sup>59</sup>. These projects often operate utterly isolated from each other and without knowledge or access to shared resources or tools. To enable them to improve their performance would be the main goal for the next generation terminology policy. Efforts are already made to connect promising activities and stakeholders via NGOs like the *African Association for Lexicography (AFRILEX)*, the South African mirror committee of ISO/TC 37 (*SABS TC 37*) or by *Infoterm*.

Generally, it must be said that, looking for information on language policy issues, one has to refer to external portals like the very informative general national information gateway portal <http://www.southafrica.info><sup>TM</sup> or private Weblogs like the *Sociolingo's Africa*<sup>TM</sup> <http://www.sociolingo.com>. To date, no South Africa-focussed and national “clearinghouse” portal exists, which can help citizens find relevant information, help them issuing language-related complaints and access terminological data – website and mobile. The use of social media for terminology discussion is slow even on a global basis.

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<sup>59</sup> e.g. University of Stellenbosch: projects concerning Sociology and Social Work in isiXhosa, Durban University for Technology and University of KwaZuluNatal on Health and Dental Assisting terminology in isiZulu, University of South Africa (UNISA) for criminal law and criminal procedural law in Northern Sotho and isiZulu as well as general terminology projects for Afrikaans.

*Intranews*® is a relatively recent news service on language industry, which appears to be quite successful. Professional Internet forums like ProZ® (<http://proz.com>) for translators also attract terminology professionals. There are very few specific terminology-concerned social media.

The *Terminology* forum on the social network *LinkedIn*® (<http://www.linkedin.com>) has currently 315 members (counted on 2009-08-20), as well as a number of discussions concerning a broad variety of topics. However, with approximately 1-4 comments per discussion topic it is used below its possibilities. In 2009 the *Terminology Blog* (<http://terminologyblog.wordpress.com>) was launched by *TermNet*® and the author of this study. While readership statistics suggest a general interest (over 2800 visits registered in 2 months), discussion and comments are rare. Similarly, *TermNet* uses *Twitter*® (<http://www.twitter.com/termnet>) as a medium to inform about recent activities, news, etc. There can not be said much at the current state about the success or failure of these initiatives.

A targeted mix of actions leads to measurable behavioural change:

- use of standard terminology (preference of indigenous/ standardized terms over others/ foreign),
- access of the national termbank,
- subscription of publications,
- media statistics on special programmes,
- trigger discussion within professional communities,
- establishment of professional private entities,
- increased networking

Certainly, important momentum has been left unused up until now. South Africans by and large have much interest and a relatively high awareness on the importance of multilingualism. Most South Africans, say of themselves that they are proud to be South African, living in a rainbow nation of great cultural and linguistic diversity. They opt for English as a means of prestige, symbol of

learnedness and for reasons of economic pragmatism. At the same time the other languages play a growing role in the mass media. Much of the initial enthusiasm of the late 1990s has ebbed away. But nevertheless, there will be always the possibility to improve awareness of language and terminology issues, and new opportunities keep appearing and may increase with growing dissatisfaction – either “naturally grown” or stimulated through targeted communication campaigns.

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## Zusammenfassung

Die vorliegende Dissertation untersucht die PR- und Kommunikationsstrategie südafrikanischer Regierungsinstitutionen hinsichtlich der Sprach- und Terminologiepolitik des Landes.

Südafrika nutzt derzeit noch nicht alle Möglichkeiten konsequent aus und vergibt auf diese Weise viele Gelegenheiten, die linguistische und kulturelle Vielfalt der Nation zu kommunizieren, sowie Fachkommunikation in den offiziellen Sprachen, mit Ausnahme von Englisch, zu fördern. Um diese Hypothese zu unterlegen, untersuche ich den Prozess der Politikgestaltung, wie er in den *UNESCO Guidelines for Terminology Policies* beschrieben wurde, um auf diese Weise Kommunikationsprozesse zu identifizieren, die besondere Planung erfordern.

Dabei wird die Entwicklung und Umsetzung der Strategie als komplexe Management-Aktivität beschrieben, die eigene Regeln und Charakteristika besitzt. Weiterhin werden Erkenntnisse aus den Kommunikationswissenschaften, insbesondere des Unterbereiches *Development Communication*, bzw. *Communication for Social Change* sowie Beispiele aus anderen Fachgebieten untersucht auf deren Anwendbarkeit im Bereich Terminologiepolitik.

Erfolgskriterien werden extrahiert, gegen welche anschliessend die reale Situation in Südafrika verglichen wird. Den Hauptteil der vorliegenden Studie stellt eine Analyse der südafrikanischen Geschichte, Gesellschaft, sowie des Politik- und Mediensektors. Diese Faktoren haben einen besonderen Einfluß auf die Sprach- und Terminologiepolitik des Landes, wie auch mögliche und tatsächliche PR-Strategien.

Die Studie schliesst mit Empfehlungen für eine Verbesserung dieser Strategie sowie einem Ausblick auf die erwartete Richtung der nächsten Generation südafrikanischer Terminologiepolitik und die Entwicklung des Mediensektors.

## **Abstract**

This doctoral thesis examines the communication strategy employed by the South African government institutions concerning their terminology and language policy.

South Africa does not make consequent use of all possibilities to the best possible extent, thus giving away many opportunities to promote linguistic and cultural diversity in the country and facilitate subject-field communication in the official languages other than English.

To prove the hypothesis I examine the policy-making process as it is described in the UNESCO Guidelines for Terminology Policies in order to identify communication processes that require careful planning. By doing so, the policy process is exposed as a complex management activity with its own rules and characteristics. Furthermore, communication science, and there especially the fields of Development Communication or Communication for Social Change, as well as benchmarking from other fields, is analyzed with the aim to evaluate these fields for their application in terminology policies.

Success criteria are derived from this analysis against which the actual situation is compared. The main part of the thesis is a thorough analysis of South Africa's history, society, as well as political and media sector. These factors have an important impact on the country's language and terminology policy as well as on possible and actual communication strategies.

The study concludes with recommendations to improve the communication strategy and an outlook on the expected direction of the next generation terminology policy, as well as media and communication development.

## Curriculum Vitae

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#### Current:

- 2008 -** Deputy Director International Information Centre for Terminology (INFOTERM)  
**2009 -** Consultant for communication and public relations for TermNet  
**2008 – 2011** Establishment of a research focus at Cologne University of Applied Sciences

#### Communication

- 2001 - 2009 Communication manager for TermNet and Infoterm, editing newsletters  
2008 - Coordinator, Marketing, TermNet Publisher

#### Project Management

- 2001 -2009 manager or assistant in a number of international and EU projects on behalf of TermNet (International Network for Terminology), the Austrian Standards Institute (ON) and Infoterm (International Information Centre for Terminology):  
*Examples:*  
HealthTerm – for WHO  
Guidelines for Terminology Policies – for UNESCO  
TermTrain – for UNESCO  
ISO DIS 29383 – Terminology Policies; Project leader International Standard  
TermTurk –Terminology for intercultural dialogue and specialized communication  
2008 - TechProTrans “Establishment of a cluster of excellence in translation and interpreting at the Cologne University of Applied Sciences”

#### Conference and Workshop Organisation

- 2005 - 2009 Organiser International Terminology Summer School  
2008 Organization and scientific committee GUM3C Conference, Bangor, Wales  
Organizing committee of the FIT World Translators Association  
2009 Organizing committee for the TKE conference 2010 (Terminology and Knowledge Engineering)  
Organizing a one-week training for Turkish and Romanian Translators and Scientists at Cologne  
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Co-organizing an expert meeting on Terminology Planning at the Polytechnical University of Timisoara

#### Academia

- April 2008 – 2011 Establishing of a Research Focus Translation Technologies and Processes at the Institute for Translation and Multilingual Communication, Cologne University of Applied Sciences

#### Teaching and conferences

- 03/2006 Teaching of the modules “Terminology & Lexicography”, “International Standardization”, “Terminology and Development” during UNESCO IFAP TermTrain course, Pretoria, South Africa  
08/2006 Chair Panel on Terminology and Society, TSTT2006, Beijing, China  
11/2006 Chair Round Table on Terminology Policies, EAFT Summit (European Association for Terminology), Brussels, Belgium  
Organiser Workshop “Terminology Policies”, Terminology & Society Conference, Lessius Hogeschool, Antwerp, Belgium  
07/2007 Chair at International Diversity Management Summer School, Vienna, Austria  
Lecture *Project Management for Translators/Terminologists* (TSS 2007)  
Presentation *International Research in Terminology Policies* (EAFT seminar on Minority Languages)  
08/2008 *On the Importance of Terminology Policies for Translators*, FIT World Congress, Shanghai

- 03/2009 Workshop, Presentation *Standardization* at 1<sup>st</sup> Indian National Translators Conference
- 08/2009 Lecture *Project Management for Translators/Terminologists*. University of Antioquia, Medellín, Colombia  
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### International Standardization

- 2004-2009 Assistant secretary in Technical Committee 37, International Organization for Standardization (ISO/TC 37) on behalf of the Austrian Standardization Organization (ON)
- 2006- Project Leader SC 1/WG 4 "Socioterminology"

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### Publications

- 2002- Editing and writing for the quarterly journals TermNet News, StandardTerm, Infoterm Newsletter, Biblioterm and Terminology Standardization and Harmonization
- 2001 Entwicklung der Terminologie in der afrikanischen Sprache des Xhosa (Südafrika), Verlag Hänsel-Hohenhausen, 2001  
Foreign words as a language standardization strategy: the influence of Afrikaans and English on isiXhosa. In: Lexikos 11, 2001
- 2005 UNESCO Guidelines for Terminology Policies (Co-author)
- 2008 Terminologieplanung ist überall...Article in *eDITion*  
Can machines be smart? In ISO Focus April 2008  
Terminology Policies for Translators. Paper in Proceedings of FIT World Congress  
Minority Languages and Terminology Planning. Paper in Proceedings of the Special Seminar on Terminology Planning and Minority Languages by the European Association for Terminology (EAFT)  
Terminology Planning for Minority Languages. Paper in Everyday Multilingualism. Proceedings of the UNESCO Conference.
- 2009 Improving Terminology Management Skills. Article in GalaXY, magazine of Globalization and Localization Association (GALA): [www.gala-global.org/GALAXy-article-improving\\_terminology\\_management\\_skills-9868.html](http://www.gala-global.org/GALAXy-article-improving_terminology_management_skills-9868.html)  
Standardization and Diversity. Article for the Weblog of the Translators Association of China (TAC)  
Mehr als eine Geste. Terminologie, Recht und Gerechtigkeit in Südafrika. Article for MDÜ, the magazine of the German Association for Translators and Interpreters (BDÜ) (in August 2008)  
Publication and regular articles on various terminology topics in the Terminology Blog: <http://terminologyblog.wordpress.com>

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### Education

- Oct 2006- **University of Vienna, Austria**  
**Ph.D. candidate** in Sociolinguistics and Terminology
- 1996 - 2002: **M.A.** in African Studies, University of Leipzig, Germany  
*Masters Thesis* "Entwicklung der Terminologie in der afrikanischen Sprache des Xhosa (Südafrika)"  
(Major in African Studies; minors in Intercultural Specialised Communication and German as a Foreign Language)
- 01-12/2000 Exchange studies, University of Stellenbosch, South Africa

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### Languages

Reading and speaking competence in English, German, Swahili. Reading competence in Afrikaans, French, Spanish. Elementary competence in Dutch, Russian, isiXhosa.

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### Memberships and cooperation

Executive Board Membership in the World Language Documentation Centre

ON-K 033, mirror committee of the Austrian Standards Body to ISO/TC 37  
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Guest membership in the Council for German Terminology (RaDT)

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**Related experience and qualification:**

Oct 2007 – August 2009 Auditor's training for quality certification according EN 15038  
2007 Certified attendance International Terminology Summer School, Cologne, Germany  
2004 Certified attendance International Diversity Summer School, Vienna, Austria  
2004 Certified seminar on European Project Management, University of Applied Sciences Cologne  
02-11/2000: Voluntary work, *Maties Social Service Adult Literacy Programme*, University of Stellenbosch, South Africa

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**Research and teaching interests**

Communication and media, good governance, policy implementation, international cooperation, network theory, project management, language and development, language and terminology planning, international standardization, literacy, intercultural competence, conflict management

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