

100-1300 ✓

**A THEORETICAL AND EMPIRICAL
INVESTIGATION OF THE ATTITUDES
OF FIRST YEAR UNIVERSITY OF
DURBAN-WESTVILLE STUDENTS
TOWARDS ACADEMIC DEVELOPMENT
PROGRAMMES - A SOCIOLOGICAL
PERSPECTIVE**

SHAHEEDA ESSACK

Submitted in part fulfilment of the requirement for the degree
of Master of Arts in Sociology in the Department of Sociology
in the Faculty of Arts at the University of Durban-Westville

SUPERVISOR : DR L-HP STEARS
DATE SUBMITTED : DECEMBER 1992



ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am indeed grateful to the following people for their constant support and encouragement through the long hours and difficult months of research and preparation of this thesis.

To my supervisor, Dr L-HP Stears, I am grateful for his infinite patience, insightful comments, thorough guidance and unflinching support that made this undertaking possible. For this, I thank him once again.

I would also like to thank Dr Evan Mantzaris and Indrani Naidoo for doing the data capturing, Asiya Essack for proof-reading the manuscript, Kribashinee Perumal for her efficient typing when time was at a premium, Manjula Makanjee, Prelene and Thiagaraj Dasrath Chetty for their constant moral support throughout the study .

I also appreciate the valuable contributions of the 1992 Sociology I A.D.P. students.

Lastly, I would also like to take this opportunity to thank Professor G.F. Schoombee for introducing me to the field of Sociology in general and to research specifically.

SHAHEEDA ESSACK

DURBAN

DECEMBER 1992

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	PAGE
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	i
TABLE OF CONTENTS	ii
LIST OF TABLES	vii
LIST OF FIGURES	viii

CHAPTER ONE : INTRODUCTION 1

1.1	The field of the study	1
1.2	The motivation and rationale of the study	5
1.3	Objectives of the study	8
1.4	Assumptions upon which the study is based	10
1.5	The scope of the study	11
1.6	Background studies on A.D.P.	12
1.7	Restrictions on the present study	17
1.8	Some preliminary considerations	18
1.9	Definition of concepts used in the study	18
1.10	General structure of the present study	21

CHAPTER TWO : THE NATURE OF THE SOCIALIZATION PROCESS OF THE INDIVIDUAL INTO THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM AND THE SUBSEQUENT INTRODUCTION OF ACADEMIC DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES 24

2.1	Introduction	24
2.2	The concept of education	25
2.2.1	Socialization of the individual into the educational system with special reference to compensatory education	32
2.2.1.1	Mechanisms of socialization and their underlying assumptions	33
2.2.1.2	Socialization of the student into the educational system	34
2.2.2	The concept and policies of Bantu education	44
2.2.3	A critical historical analysis of Black education	48
2.3	The various backgrounds of the "disadvantaged" student	56
2.3.1	The psychology of the culturally deprived student	56

	PAGE
2.3.2	The economic background of the disadvantaged student 62
2.3.3	The family experience of the disadvantaged student 62
2.3.4	The health status of the disadvantaged student 64
2.3.5	The political background of the disadvantaged student 65
2.3.6	Other characteristics of disadvantaged Black students 65
2.3.7	Profile of the low achiever 68
2.3.8	The needs of the disadvantaged student 70
2.4	The linguistically different : learning theories and intellectual development 74
2.4.1	The function of language 75
2.4.2	Learning, laws of learning and three learning theories 77
2.4.3	Concepts and a fourth learning theory 78
2.4.4	The relationship between reading instruction and linguistics 80
2.4.5	The linguistic method in teaching English 81
2.4.6	Elements of language to be considered in language instruction 82
2.4.7	English language proficiency among Black university students and its relevance for developing academic development programmes 84
2.5	Academic development programmes - A.D.P. 85
2.5.1	A.D.P. as a form of compensatory education 86
2.5.2	An overview of factors that led to the development of A.D.P. 87
2.5.3	A review of debates surrounding A.D.P. 92
2.5.4	A.D.P. at liberal universities 95
2.5.5	A.D.P. at historically Black universities 98
2.5.6	A.D.P. at the University of Durban-Westville 100
2.5.7	The general goals of A.D.P. 101
2.5.8	The specific goals of A.D.P. 101
2.5.9	Structure, content and methodology of A.D.P. tutorials 106
2.6	Attitude formation and its significance for A.D.P. 110
2.7	Summary 111

	PAGE
CHAPTER THREE : THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FOR ANALYSIS	113
3.1 Introduction	113
3.2 Why competing paradigms?	114
3.2.1 The notion of triangulation	116
3.3 The Marxist perspective on education	117
3.3.1 The ideas of Bowles and Gintis (1976)	118
3.3.1.1 The technocratic-meritocratic perspective	118
3.3.1.2 The legitimation hypothesis	119
3.3.1.3 The correspondence principle	121
3.3.1.4 The role of the dominant class	122
3.3.1.5 The Marxist perspective on compensatory education	124
3.3.1.6 An application of the ideas of Bowles and Gintis (1976)	124
3.4 The interpretive perspective on education	127
3.4.1 Symbolic interaction and phenomenology	129
3.4.2 The ideas of Sharp (1980)	130
3.4.2.1 Control over education	130
3.4.2.2 Content of education	131
3.4.2.3 Practical ideology and schooling	132
3.4.2.4 Theoretical ideology and schooling	133
3.4.2.5 The ideology of language and schooling	134
3.4.2.6 Patterns of opposition to schooling	135
3.4.2.7 Education at the micro level	136
3.4.2.8 An application of the ideas of Sharp (1980)	139
3.5 The compatibility between the theories of Bowles and Gintis (1976) and Sharp (1980)	142
3.6 Summary	143
CHAPTER FOUR : METHODOLOGICAL ORIENTATION	146
4.1 Introduction	146
4.2 Dimensions of social science research	146
4.3 Procedure used in the gathering of data	148
4.3.1 Review of relevant literature	148
4.3.2 Consultation with authoritative sources	148
4.3.3 Methods of data collection	149

	PAGE
4.3.3.1 Informal interviews	150
4.3.3.2 Non-participant observation	150
4.3.3.3 The interview schedule	151
4.3.3.4 The pilot study	158
4.4 Sampling procedure	159
4.4.1 Objective	159
4.4.2 The choice of the study area	159
4.4.3 The population	161
4.5 Fieldwork	161
4.6 Data processing	161
4.7 Summary	162

CHAPTER FIVE : ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

	163
5.1 Introduction	163
5.2 Demographic analysis	164
5.3 A quantitative analysis of attitudes	172
5.3.1 Goals of A.D.P. in relation to students' background	172
5.3.2 Goals of A.D.P. in relation to the linguistic background	175
5.3.3 Goals related to the psychological aspects of the student	177
5.3.4 A.D.P. in relation to specific skills	179
5.3.5 The relationship between the goals of A.D.P. and students' expectations	182
5.3.6 Establishing the extent of the need for the programme	184
5.3.7 Establishing A.D.P.'s ability to facilitate adjustment	185
5.3.8 A.D.P.'s role in choosing courses	186
5.3.9 A.D.P. as a form of compensatory education	187
5.3.10 An evaluation of students' attitudes towards A.D.P.	188
5.4 A qualitative analysis of thematic questions	190
5.4.1 Profile of tutoring	190
5.4.2 Content of A.D.P.	199
5.4.3 Method of implementation of A.D.P.	202
5.4.4 Needs that have not been met	205
5.4.5 Alternative forms of bridging the gap	207
5.4.6 Other comments regarding A.D.P.	212
5.4.7 An evaluation of thematic questions	214

	PAGE
5.5	A qualitative analysis of non-participant observation of A.D.P. 215
5.6	Summary 220
 CHAPTER SIX : CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUMMARY	
	222
6.1	Introduction 222
6.2	An overview of background chapters 222
6.3	Conclusions 225
6.3.1	Attitudes towards A.D.P. 227
6.3.2	The important components of A.D.P. 230
6.3.3	Strengths and weaknesses of the programme 232
6.4	Recommendations 233
6.4.1	The importance of A.D.P. to the university 233
6.4.2	Selection of tutors for A.D.P. 237
6.4.3	Tutor-training for A.D.P. 238
6.4.4	Curriculum development for A.D.P. 240
6.4.5	Selection criteria applied to potential A.D.P. students 241
6.4.6	Integration of A.D.P. into the department 242
6.4.7	Evaluation and research into A.D.P. 243
6.4.8	A specialized English course 244
6.5	Summary 244
	References 246
	Appendix I 255

LIST OF TABLES**PAGE**

5.1	Age-gender distribution	164
5.2	Students' academic background	165
5.3	Students' linguistic background	166
5.4	Present living circumstances of students	167
5.5	Academic background of parents	168
5.6	Socio-economic status of parents	169
5.7	Type of family house and no. of children distribution	170
5.8	No. of A.D.P.s attended on a voluntary/ referred basis	171
5.9	Attitude towards A.D.P.	172
5.10	Goals in relation to social skills	173
5.11	Goals in relation to accommodation and finance	174
5.12	English usage	175
5.13	Ability to think in abstract terms	176
5.14	Ability to facilitate social adjustment	177
5.15	Ability to enhance students' self-concept	178
5.16	Essay writing skills	179
5.17	Developing reading skills	180
5.18	Note-taking	181
5.19	Definition of goals	182
5.20	Relevance of goals	183
5.21	Level of expectations	183
5.22	Extent of need	184
5.23	Recommendation of other students	185
5.24	Adjustment to university	185
5.25	Choosing courses	186
5.26	A.D.P.'s effectiveness in bridging the gap between school and university	187
6.1	Projected increase of schoolgoing children in S.A.	233

LIST OF FIGURES

PAGE

3.1	Causal model of I.Q., socio-economic background, schooling and economic success	121
-----	---------------------------------------------------------------------------------	-----

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 The field of the study

The university as a centre for higher learning, originated in Western Europe and has since evolved into one of the most dynamic, complex and sophisticated centres for higher learning. Established throughout the world, they fall under the category of tertiary education with the sole aim of imparting specialized knowledge in the field of law, medicine, science, technology, arts, social science, commerce and other related disciplines. The university curriculum is supposedly strongly related to the economic, social, cultural, and political needs of the community. As such, universities represent a microcosm of the society within which it functions. The general trend is that the university curriculum aims to meet the educational demands of a highly developed, industrialized and technological society.

The unique socio-political context within which South African (S.A.) universities have emerged places them in a peculiar position as compared to universities abroad. Firstly, S.A. universities can be divided into two categories. The first category constitutes those universities that are predominantly White and are either English medium or Afrikaans medium universities. The second category constitutes those universities found in homelands and ethnic universities within S.A. with a predominant Black population. These are often called "tribal

colleges" or historically black universities. The University of Durban-Westville (U.D.W.), the University of Western Cape (U.W.C.), the University of Fort Hare, the University of Transkei, the University of the North and Vista University fall into this category. Secondly, the standard and quality of work differs for both types of universities.

The former is more research orientated and conforms to First World standards whereas the latter is more teaching orientated and is still seen as a Third World structure. Thirdly, the entrance requirements for both types of universities differ, with the white English medium universities demanding a higher matriculation pass (Molobi, 1991:9). The University of Durban-Westville is an English medium university which had originated as a teaching orientated university that catered for the needs of a largely Third World Indian population. However, it has begun to shed this image and is becoming increasingly research orientated that caters for a wide sector of the S.A. population. It became an autonomous institution in 1984. It thus widely approximates the demographic profile of the S.A. society.

It is thus clear that the establishment of universities, specifically, and the educational system, in general, within S.A. has been based on the ideology of apartheid (Pillay, 1990:30). This system has manifested itself in a pattern of unequal and differential education for the White, Indian, Coloured and Black students from the primary level through to the tertiary level. An even more alarming manifestation is the high failure rate of

first year Black students at the White liberal universities and the University of Durban-Westville since the early eighties. This condition is directly related to the changes within the wider socio-political context in S.A. S.A., White, English medium, liberal universities have been pressurized, both externally and internally, to transform the university from a conservative to a progressive one. These universities (mainly the University of Natal - Pietermaritzburg and Durban, the University of Cape Town, Rhodes University and the University of Witwatersrand) have thus been shifting away from the state's policy of separate educational institutions for the different race groups. Most S.A. universities have since admitted a large number of Black students who have been unable to cope with the academic demands of the University.

Agar (1987) as cited in Hoosen (1990:2) stated that this transition from secondary to tertiary education is a generally difficult one for most students. However, it is especially more difficult for those students who come from an economically and educationally disadvantaged background.

Webster (1989) as cited in Hoosen (1990:1) contends that for most S.A. students, university entrance produces specific stressors in the sense that for the first time in their lives they are placed in a situation where they have to think independently and critically and compete with their counterparts of other racial origins. This problem is not specific to S.A. universities. American universities are experiencing similar problems and in

an attempt to respond to this high failure rate S.A. universities could draw on ideas and programmes implemented at American universities (O'Brian, 1969:167-241).

The motivating force behind the establishment of Academic Development Programmes (A.D.P.) is the fact that the university cannot financially support this high failure rate. It is precisely this economic argument that has prompted the establishment of these programmes.

The concept A.D.P. is an umbrella term that embraces a wide range of activities from teaching study skills to enhancing a student's self-concept via group therapy. The main aim of these development programmes is to facilitate the student's academic and social adjustment from school to university. It is important to note that there has been a shift in terminology from academic support - which deals specifically with the academic aspect of the student's adjustment to university - to academic development. Academic support activities have originated as a form of support and bridging the gap system at the traditionally White, English medium, liberal universities. However, at the historically Black universities the term A.D.P. is used since it embraces a wide range of activities.

However, this "solution" is not as simplistic as it appears to be. Many arguments surround the establishment of such programmes and these debates will be examined in Chapter Two. But, to clarify the researcher's position, A.D.P. has to be viewed

against a social background that generates structural inequalities at all levels of society. It is this very social condition that nurtures and instils in the individual Black student a form of thinking that is not appropriate for the successful mastery of the university curriculum. To understand the implication of A.D.P., it is essential to examine the nature of the socialization process of the individual into the realm of the institution of education in terms of his social background which includes both the type of family and the community from which he comes. There is also a strong historical component to this analysis.

1.2 The motivation and rationale of the study

Current research (Agar, 1989:19-33; Starfield, 1990:142-153; Sanders, 1987) seems to suggest that much attention has been given to the development and implementation of A.D.P. but little attention has been given to the exploration of student's attitudes towards these programmes. Investigation into these attitudes is seen as the means by which one can establish:

- (i) the need for such programmes and the extent of this need;
- (ii) the appropriateness of these programmes in meeting the student's academic and social needs;
- (iii) aspects of the programme that needs improvement and specific ways in which the content of these programmes can be improved;

- (iv) if, after going through a series of these tutorials students feel that other alternate means should be sought in attempting to deal with this wide gap between secondary and tertiary education;
- (v) students views about A.D.P. and the broader social context.

Much debate and controversy surrounds the establishment of A.D.P. at various universities. Many academics (Greyling, 1989:6) Mullin and Summers as cited in Ornstein and Levine (1989:462) are of the opinion that these programmes are not cost-effective. Others (Ornstein and Levine, 1989:460) feel that losses experienced at the primary and secondary levels cannot be effectively compensated for at the tertiary level. Although it is not possible to test the success of A.D.P. by means of assessing attitudes it is possible to gain some insight into its effectiveness by surveying students' attitudes towards it.

Because these programmes are relatively new, there has been very little quantitative evaluatory research done. It has already been mentioned that there is a strong relationship between the attitudes of A.D.P. students and the success of the programme. There is thus a strong evaluatory component to it. Research of this nature can be of considerable value in promoting A.D.P.-tutor-student interaction, especially because it allows one to identify negative aspects within the interaction process and specifically within the context of these programmes.

Research (Ornstein and Levine, 1989:460) also seems to suggest that programmes of a compensatory nature have failed in addressing the needs of the disadvantaged student. The researcher's assumption is that if it is possible to identify and locate the negative aspects of this programme then it is possible to eliminate these negative aspects by means of creative and original applications of methods in dealing with problems of this nature. It is also assumed that these students are in a better position (as compared to primary and secondary school students) to articulate their experiences in these programmes with a view to improving them.

The crisis experienced within the present educational system is of an unprecedented level and we therefore have to rely much on our own resources in attempting to deal with this crisis. There has been a systematic disintegration of the fabric of Black S.A. society which has ultimately impacted on the quality of Black education. Never in S.A. history has any student experienced such gross educational deprivation as the black student. Many are supposed to learn under the supervision of unqualified teachers who are still struggling to master the English language, classes are usually overcrowded, state policy dictates that they receive differential, inferior education, the high level of violence has resulted in a high level of absenteeism with both teachers and pupils, many find it difficult to learn in a second language, there is a lack of proper and healthy family life that is conducive to learning and the community life is such that it has done very little to improve the educational conditions in the

black areas. Part of the study would aim to draw out ideas related to ways in which the university community can intervene in attempting to alleviate this crisis.

Failure rates are becoming alarmingly high at all S.A. universities (Hoosen, 1990:5). Sanders (1985) as cited in Hoosen (1990:) states that the problem not only affects economically deprived students but also one-third of all secondary school students who need attention. Similar trends are apparent at tertiary levels. Aside from looking at the specific problems that A.D.P. needs to address, one needs to address the social background or social context of the student.

There is also a need to identify difficulties experienced by the students, other than those that have been documented. Thus far, the most salient assumption on which A.D. tutorials are based is the premise that the weaker students experience conceptual, language and essay writing difficulties.

There is also an urgent need to explore the curriculum development of A.D.P. and intensive tutor training.

1.3 Objectives of the study

The following are objectives of the present study:

- (i) Reviewing of the various debates surrounding the establishment of A.D.P.

- (ii) Reviewing of literature regarding the high failure rate of first year university students.
- (iii) Investigating the effectiveness of A.D.P. in facilitating adjustment to university in general and to the subject/course in particular.
- (iv) Exploring the attitudes of students towards A.D.P. and hence identify positive and negative aspects of the programme. This would aid towards improving the programme and towards developing an overall theory of academic development.
- (v) Offering alternate and viable means by which to address this wide chasm between secondary and tertiary education.
- (vi) Analysing the nature of the socialization process of the student into the educational institution and the concept of education.

The critical questions that this study intends to answer are:

- (i) What is the general feeling of the students towards A.D.P.?
- (ii) How do the students perceive the significance of A.D.P. in terms of their own academic development and in helping them to cope with the general demands of

the university?

- (iii) What are the best methods that should be employed in a programme of this nature?
- (iv) What is the nature of the relationship between the content of A.D.P. and the content of the course?
- (v) Are there other important areas that need to be addressed?

1.4 Assumptions upon which the study is based

On the basis of a literature study undertaken, it was possible to formulate the following assumptions regarding the socialization process of the individual student into the educational system in terms of his social background (family, community, society and cultural background) and the eventual attendance of an academic development programme at a tertiary institution.

- (i) A student's social background determines, to a large extent, the chances of success at school and at university. Cultural, economic and educational deprivation is the root cause of failure at university.

- (ii) A.D.P. as an intervening variable at university can effectively compensate for losses experienced at primary and secondary levels.
- (iii) An exposure to A.D.P. enhances a student's ability to deal with university courses (academic) and it ultimately facilitates the overall transition from school to university.

1.5 The scope of study

The area of academic development at S.A. universities is a relatively new one. It is therefore not surprising that very little research has been done, especially that relating to the evaluation of such courses. The present study can thus be regarded as breaking new ground in its attempts to establish the kinds of meanings that students attach to these programmes. This study also aims to provide some insight into the effectiveness of these programmes. It also aims to highlight the fact that the educational process is essentially a social process involving social, cultural, economic, material and political components which serve to influence the acting and thinking student (Singh, 1987:64).

The University of Durban-Westville is selected for the present study. The reason being that academic development activities are still a new phenomenon at the university and its status has to be explored. The sample is also easily obtainable and would be restricted to the Faculty of Arts. An important point to note

is that the University of Durban-Westville is discarding its image as an ethnic university that caters mainly for the Indian population and is increasingly approximating the demographic profile of S.A. society.

1.6 Background studies on A.D.P.

Academic development at the primary, secondary and tertiary level is a relatively new field in S.A., and hence, there has not been much that has been researched in the area of academic development. However, studies on compensatory education have been carried out in Britain (Nash, 1980) and America (Horn, 1970) (Allen and Hecht, 1974). It is therefore possible to draw parallel conclusions regarding the educational problems experienced in the various transitional stages between those experienced abroad and those present in S.A.

According to Scott (1989:11), the main motivation behind the establishment of these programmes, "... is that regardless of what we say about the nature of these institutions, what kind of value judgements we put on them and the nature of the schooling, the underlying fact is that there is a massive discontinuity between the school system and the university, especially between Black schooling and the university system. There are massive problems in both the White liberal universities and the historically black universities."

The above extract serves to highlight the following important points regarding academic development within S.A.

Firstly, it highlights the nature of the relationship between the school, university and society. Secondly, it highlights the process of schooling and the equality of educational opportunity for the various race groups. Thirdly, it highlights the political component of A.D.P. This is largely responsible for the massive discontinuity between Black education and the university system. Fourthly, the cultural component seems to have an overriding influence on language performance and hence affects the learning process.

From studies undertaken abroad, the researcher was able to identify the following important theories that aptly explain the origin of academic development.

The disadvantage of unsatisfactory educational standards at primary and secondary levels, or "... the absence of a stimulating environment are, however, not unique to S.A." (Greyling, 1989:5). The dominant theory of educational disadvantage arose as an explanation of educational attainments of children in the inner city areas of the United States of America. Although this theory is American in origin it has been readily accepted in Britain (Nash, 1980:40). The theory states that poverty and hence the material conditions that children find themselves in are responsible for the poor performance in the educational system. These poverty areas, it is claimed, should be located and designated as Educational Priority Areas (Nash, 1980:40).

The compensatory education movement emerged during the early sixties for the purpose of narrowing the gap between the academic performance of middle-class children and children of the poor. "Just what compensatory education is, operationally, depends on who is defining it; the term covers an extremely diverse assortment of educational theories" (Wilkerson, 1974:509).

The above discussion serves to highlight a very significant condition concerning class differences and the process of education. Hyman (1980:427) argues that the value system of the lower classes creates "... a self imposed barrier to an improved situation."

Hyman (1980:438-441) also distinguishes the following differences between working class and middle class value systems. Firstly, members of the working class place lower value on education. Secondly, they place a lower value on achieving high occupational status. Thirdly, compared to their middle-class counterparts, members of the working class believe that there is less opportunity for personal advancement. Because A.D.P. essentially aims to make up for losses experienced at the primary and secondary level it complies with the definition of compensatory education.

According to Havighurst (1970:11), educators all over the cities and rural areas have been trying to find better ways of teaching a group of children who are variously called culturally deprived, and socially disadvantaged. Another more appropriate term is

"linguistically different." Whatever the descriptive terms for these pupils, the movement to teach them successfully is a major one, utilising a large sum of money, the time of skilled teachers and considerable amount of research. There is also consensus that this group of children and their families present a critical social problem. It is therefore important to isolate those characteristics of the social backgrounds of these children that have particular relevance for their educators. However, within the S.A. context deficiencies in the learning process has to be viewed against this social background and the nature of the inferior schooling system of the black child.

Sugarman (1980) as cited in Haralambos (1980:194) relates certain aspects of middle-class and working-class subcultures more directly to differential educational attainment. He argues that the nature of manual and non-manual workers is largely responsible for the difference in attitude and outlook between the two classes. However, Havighurst (1970:18) argues that the difference on intelligence tests between the two is very small. He furthermore relates educational attainment to several factors including the family experiences of the student, the student's health status, the quality of schooling and their economic and geographic background.

The above discussion seems to suggest that class difference is an important indicator of success in the educational system. Education is viewed as a middle-class value and the working class is portrayed as a subculture of the mainstream middle class

culture. What has emerged from this is the theory of cultural deprivation which plays a significant role in the analysis of A.D.P. and would be explored in Chapter Two. This theory claims that educational failure is largely the result of inadequacies in the child, the family, the community and the larger social system.

Crucial to an understanding of A.D.P. is the examination of the causes of the high failure rate at university and the subsequent role of A.D.P. These causes are multiple and complex. Among those mentioned is the inferior schooling system, cultural deprivation, socio-economic status, the family experiences of the student and others. For the purposes of this study, it seems as if educational failure has to be analysed beyond the lower class/middle class distinction that have thus far been documented. This analysis has to include the ideological and political basis upon which the educational system within S.A. has been structured. Essentially, Black schooling is incompatible with the demands of the university curriculum. The present study thus aims to investigate students' perceptions of A.D.P. as an intervening variable at university that aims to facilitate student adjustment both academically and socially.

Several research bodies within South Africa are in the process of exploring the role of academic development activities. These bodies include, South African Institute of Race Relations, Institute for Social and Economic Research at the Universities of Natal and Durban-Westville, South African Awareness for

Academic Development, H.S.R.C. and the Institute for Black Research at the University of Natal. Their main aim is to create and develop a body of knowledge and an overall theory of academic support and academic development activities.

1.7 Restrictions on the present study

The main problem is that research in this field is limited. However, research undertaken in the U.S.A. and Britain could be of considerable value since it would be possible to draw upon a wide range of theoretical perspectives.

This area is very controversial since it demands the use of certain concepts that have negative connotations. Terms like "cultural deprivation" and "linguistically disadvantaged" could be viewed negatively since they seem to suggest inferiority. However, it is the researcher's intention to provide a profile of A.D.P.

There is also much confusion regarding the specific problems that A.D.P. needs to address and the specific goals of A.D.P. There is no specific curriculum or course outline to A.D.P., no intensive tutor training, lack of clarity regarding the relationship between A.D.P. and the content of the course and lack of evaluatory research. Since it is in its early stages of development there are limitations concerning the scope and scale of the study.

1.8 Some preliminary considerations

At the outset, it is important to mention that the development of A.D.P. and similar programmes of a compensatory nature is a complex one and attracts much debate.

The manner in which A.D.P. as a form of compensatory education has emerged in S.A. differs from the way it is established in America and the U.K. Although A.D.P. has emerged at various universities in S.A. it cannot be readily accepted that A.D.P. is actually narrowing the gap between school and university. There is still much that needs to be done in evaluating these programmes. Although this study focuses mainly on students' attitudes it has a strong evaluatory component to it.

The development of A.D.P. has to be viewed against a social background which, in the present context, is one which is unequal, exploitative and racially defined. It has to be viewed as part of an ongoing process of social change which aims to transform the entire structure of S.A. society from an imbalanced to a more equitable one.

1.9 Definition of concepts used in the study

The researcher acknowledges the sensitive nature of the concepts used in the study. Despite the negative connotations attached to some concepts they are included in the study; the reason being that they aptly describe and explain the context within which academic development activities have emerged. The following important concepts are defined at this stage since it

provides clarity and directs conceptual understanding of the study. Other concepts will be defined as they appear in the text.

- (i) **Black:** Includes all students who are Indian, Coloured or African.

- (ii) **Academic Support Programme:** refers to those programmes that deal mainly with the academic performance of the student. This concept is commonly used in White, English medium S.A. universities. In the present study the concept would be used in relation to these universities and when referring to specific researchers.

- (iii) **Academic Development Programme:** this term embraces a wide range of activities from facilitating academic adjustment to social adjustment. It also includes addressing staff development, curriculum development and other relevant university structures that would promote holistic transformation and development. For the current study the term (A.D.P.) is used.

- (iv) **First World:** are the countries which have a developed, free-market economy. These include W. Europe, U.S.A. and Japan (Small and Witherick, 1989:226).

- (v) **Third World:** are underdeveloped, free-market economies. These include the very rich like Kuwait, the very poor like Bangladesh, some very complex like Brazil, and some simple economies like Paraguay (Small and Witherick, 1989:226).
- (vi) **Culturally deprived:** according to Haralambos (1990:264) the "culturally deprived" child is deficient or lacking in important skills, attitudes and values which are essential to high educational attainment." The environment is poverty stricken both economically and culturally. Failure is attributed to the child and his family, their neighbourhood and social group. For the purposes of this study, the term is used since the culture upon which the university curriculum is based is different from the culture of the Black student.
- (vii) **Linguistically different:** Although the term linguistically deprived is used in literature regarding compensatory education, for the purposes of this study, the term linguistically different is used. It is based on the assumption that students who attend A.D.P. are not deficient in their own mother-tongue and hence cannot be described as linguistically deprived. They use a language that is not English and are thus linguistically different. Where reference is made to specific research, the term linguistically

deprived would be used and defined accordingly.

(viii) **Educationally disadvantaged:** refers to those students who have been products of Bantu education, Coloured education and Indian education. They have been educationally disadvantaged in the sense that their schooling system does not prepare them for success at university.

(ix) **Disadvantaged as applied to other concepts:** "Any individual may be disadvantaged socially, economically, psychologically, and/or linguistically, depending upon the particular social milieu in which he is attempting to function at a given time. Indeed, he may be completely oblivious to his disadvantaged condition and perceive others in the group as being disadvantaged rather than himself" (Horn, 1970:2).

1.10 General structure of the present study

Chapter One has outlined the nature of the problem and the focus of the study.

Chapter Two examines the socialization process of the individual into the educational system in terms of the various transitional stages with a view to identifying specific problems. It also provides an account of the various backgrounds of the "disadvantaged" student. The researcher attempts to draw a relationship between A.D.P., the student, the student's family

background, the school, the community and the larger social system. It also provides an overview of factors that led to the development of A.D.P. This section includes a detailed discussion of A.D.P. The last part deals with the development, formation, and characteristics of attitudes and its role in the socialization process.

Chapter Three focuses on a theoretical framework for analysis. The theme of the study is the effects of cultural and economic deprivation on the socialization of the individual into the educational system. The theoretical propositions of both the conflict and interpretative perspectives are combined in order to explain the material conditions of the educational process in the context of a "disadvantaged" group of people and the effects that this social condition has had not only on the learning process but also on the development of their "self" and "self-concept".

Chapter Four describes the methodological process intended. This process combines both qualitative and quantitative techniques. The empirical component of the study includes casual observation of A.D.P. tutorials, a social survey where students are interviewed using an adapted interview schedule as a basic instrument to obtain relevant information.

Chapter Five provides an analysis of the data and interpretations are given.

Chapter Six provides a conclusion, recommendations and a summary.

CHAPTER TWO

THE NATURE OF THE SOCIALIZATION PROCESS OF THE INDIVIDUAL INTO THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM AND THE SUBSEQUENT INTRODUCTION OF ACADEMIC DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES

2.1 Introduction

The high failure rate of first year university students within (S.A.) obviously points towards deficiencies in the schooling process (Young, 1987:64). Factors responsible for this condition are identified as complex and multiple. The most significant feature of this condition can be ascribed to the deficiencies within the socialization process of the student into the educational system. It is argued that these deficiencies are the result of differential educational policies, especially the policies of Bantu education, and a social background that is not conducive to successful formal schooling. Although these deficiencies can be traced back to the primary level of education the process needs to be viewed against a social, cultural and economic background which includes the students' family, community and society.

The following discussion aims to systematically trace the apparent causes of this high failure rate. The discussion begins with a critical analysis of the concept of education and its effects on the intellectual development of the child, specifically the Black child. This concept is explored in detail beginning with its definition and purpose within the S.A.

context. After a critique of the S.A. educational system an alternate model of education is proposed. Thereafter, the nature of the socialization process of the individual into the educational system is explored with reference to compensatory education. The policies and history of Bantu education is then critically analysed in an attempt to highlight the cognitive and psychological deficiencies that have ensued from the implementation of such a system. These learning problems have inevitably manifested themselves at tertiary institutions who have, as a result, taken steps to alleviate the problem of failure among first-year students. The entire gamut of academic development activities are discussed in detail. It is with regard to A.D.P. that the notion of compensatory education is applied since it is felt that this term aptly describes the role of A.D.P. at university. However, this study goes beyond the effects of apartheid schooling on university performance and simultaneously studies the effects of the various social, political, economic, cultural and most importantly the linguistic backgrounds on the learning process of the disadvantaged student. The discussion ends with a brief discussion on the formation of attitudes regarding A.D.P.

2.2 The concept of education

The concept of education can be viewed from many perspectives. Education, as a discipline, is usually approached from four points of view, namely, its history, its philosophy, its science and its practice (Kgware, 1961:3).

"The historical view of education attempts to answer the question, what has the past achieved in education? The answer to this question involves the study of the history of civilizations, for education is at once the cause and the effect of a peoples' advance in civilization. The philosophic view of education raises the question, what is the meaning and end of education? Different nations have at different stages in their history given different answers to this universal question. Idealism, realism and all the other isms. Educational ideals are closely related to, and, indeed, flow from the philosophy of life held by a people. The science of education, more commonly known as Empirical Education or the Psychology of Education attempts to answer the question, what is the nature of the body and mind to be educated - and what is the nature of the educative process? To answer this question recourse is made to the sciences of biology, physiology, psychology, sociology, logic, aesthetics and ethics. But education may also be studied from the practical point of view, as an applied science. From this point of view the educationist attempts to put into practice what the other viewpoints - history, philosophy and empiricism - have taught. But, educational practice does more than merely to obey the behests of its sister disciplines: it applies them critically, rejecting those that do not conform to its norms" (Kgware, 1961:3).

It is doubtful whether one would gain consensus regarding the achievements of the educational system within S.A. The philosophic basis upon which the entire education system has been

structured seems to have been a means to an end for a ruling minority. Further, the nature of the body and mind to be studied has been differentially defined, by the ruling class, for the different race groups with the Whites receiving a superior form of education as compared to the inferior education given to Blacks. These inequalities manifest themselves at all levels from school to university. Educational policy and practice within S.A. has ultimately rejected those norms (equal and humanitarian) that do not conform with the apartheid state. This would be illustrated later in the chapter.

An attempt to understand the educational system within the S.A. context is best understood in terms of a critique of the liberal assumptions of education and the alternate conflict model which describes the notion of inequality within the social, economic and political relationships and their effects on the schooling process.

Every system of education, in whatever country, reflects in detail the predominant values, assumptions and social relationships characteristic of its parent society (Duane, 1970:56). South Africa is no exception. The education system reflects a Christian National character that combines with the ideology and policies of apartheid and capitalism. Education therefore reflects inequalities between classes and between the different race groups.

The liberal assumptions of education are that it is aimed at the maximizing of individual potential or the provision of equality of opportunity for all. It entails the provision (by the state) of the necessary conditions for the development of the individual's abilities and talents in keeping with the need to maximize his/her potential growth and psychological development. The maximization of such individual rights - the sum total of the individual goods - is then held to equal the maximization of the "national good" and to lead to the realization of the good society (Kallaway, 1984:31).

It would later become obvious that the educational system within S.A. neither maximizes the potential of all individuals nor provides equality of opportunity for all the citizens. The state has not even provided the necessary education that is conducive to the development of all individuals and society at large. On the contrary Bantu education has been universally criticized - it has become a byword for "education for barbarism" (Tabata, 1959:37) as cited in Samuel (1990:30). This system of education, based on the philosophy of apartheid, has resulted in a deficient system of schooling for the majority, that is, the Blacks. This has had inevitable implications for performance at universities for the different races. One such result is the inability of many Black students to master the university curriculum.

Ideally the aims of education would be such that it fulfills the varying and basic needs of people within a democratic and technological society. The following major goals of American

schools taken from Goodlad (1979:44-52) have been seen as goals that are compatible with the various needs of a heterogenous population who aspire to live in an egalitarian and democratic society. Though these goals have been formulated within the context of an American schooling system, it could be applied to the S.A. educational system (including both schools and universities) since it embraces all aspects of human and societal existence.

- (i) **Mastery of basic skills or fundamental process:** In a technological era, an individual's ability to participate in the activities of society depends on mastery of these fundamental processes.
- (ii) **Career or vocational education:** An individuals personal satisfaction in life will be significantly related to satisfaction with his or her job. Intelligent career decisions will require knowledge of personal attitudes and interests in relation to career possibilities.
- (iii) **Intellectual development:** As societies become increasingly complex, people have had to rely more heavily on their rational abilities. Full (or optimum) intellectual development of each member of society is necessary.

- (iv) **Enculturation:** Studies that illuminate our relationship with the past yield insights into our society and its values. Further, these strengthen an individuals sense of belonging, identity and direction for his or her own life. It also gives people a sense of ethnic pride.
- (v) **Interpersonal relations:** Schools should help every child understand, appreciate and value a person's belonging to specific social, cultural and ethnic groups different from his or her own.
- (vi) **Autonomy:** Unless schools produce self-directed citizens, they have failed both society and the individual. As society becomes more complex, demands on individuals multiply. Schools (and the larger educational system) help prepare children for a world of rapid change by developing in them the capacity to assume responsibility for their own needs.
- (vii) **Citizenship:** To counteract the present human ability to destroy humanity and the environment requires citizen involvement in the political and social life of this country. A democracy can survive only through the participation of its members.

- (viii) **Creativity and aesthetic perception:** Abilities for creating new and meaningful things and appreciating the creations of other human beings are essential both for personal self-realization and for the benefit of society.
- (ix) **Self-concept:** The self-concept of an individual serves as a reference point and feedback mechanism for personal goals and aspirations. Facilitating factors for a healthy self-concept can be provided in the school environment.
- (x) **Emotional and physical well-being:** These are perceived as necessary pre-conditions for attaining other goals. However, they are also worthy ends in themselves.
- (xi) **Moral and ethical character:** Individuals need to develop the judgement that allows us to evaluate events as right or wrong. Schools and universities can foster the growth of such judgement as well as a commitment to truth, moral integrity and moral conduct.
- (xii) **Self-realization:** Efforts to create a better self contribute to the development of a better society.

The following discussion aims to analyse the nature of the socialization process of the individual into the educational system with a view to identifying and highlighting some deficiencies within this process and the subsequent steps taken to overcome these problems.

2.2.1 Socialization of the individual into the educational system with special reference to compensatory education

Socialization can be characterized as a "... complex of legitimations which explain and integrate the various action patterns of the group, a matrix of all socially objectivated and subjectively real meanings; the entire historic society and the entire biography of the individual are seen as events taking place within this universe" (Berger and Luckmann 1966:87).

Within this socialization process, the school and hence the educational system plays the role of mediator between the family and the community. It is the arena in which pupils gain exposure to the outside world - contact and interaction with significant others shapes and tailors an individual's intellectual and personal development. It is the institution that imparts and re-affirms the dominant value system. Its final goal is to prepare the young adult find his/her niche in the economy. It therefore follows that successful socialization within the educational system is an essential precondition for the ultimate survival and condition of any social system. A lack of integration, as evidenced in the present S.A. Bantu educational system, can have

serious repercussions for the welfare of any society. The following and subsequent discussions deal extensively with this theme.

2.2.1.1 Mechanisms of socialization and their underlying assumptions

Bredo and Feinberg (1982:191) suggest that "The newborn child is born into a world of real objects that exist independent of his self and he/she is subsequently socialized into this 'world.'" The following are the four important mechanisms of socialization:

- (i) Socialization requires other people - significant others - with whom the child interacts.
- (ii) The child's identity is a system, either additive or integrative, of the roles, identities, attitudes which significant others display through him/her when relating to him/her.
- (iii) The socialization process is a continuous process - beginning from childhood and ending with death. For any person to maintain a stable identity, the presence of significant others must be continuous.
- (iv) The self develops and presents itself in a mode that is compatible with the context from which it derives. This context includes people, objects, other objectivities, social institutions and the symbolic universe (Bredo and Feinberg, 1982:191). Identity

therefore develops within a socially constructed world. The acquisition of language determines the ability to symbolize and when these two abilities increase so does the child's ability of role-taking. The success of socialization therefore depends on the child's ability to take the "role of the other".

2.2.1.2 Socialization of the student into the educational system

Ballantine (1985:4) claims that: "Society provides the mechanisms for teaching each new generation the 'three Rs' - their rights, roles and responsibilities so that initiates will understand and accept society's expectations. Through this process, young people learn to be productive members of society and teachers pass on its culture. Socialization continues throughout the life-cycle, taking many forms, both formal and informal: early childhood education, public schooling, university education, technical schooling, adult education, advanced training, workshop training, learning from observation, criticism and peer interaction. How this socialisation function is carried out varies from society to society. In some societies learning by imitating elders is a primary mode of education, whereas formal classroom settings take precedence in others".

Decisions and policy-making regarding curriculum, methods in teaching, the target population are often complex and difficult issues for educators and societal leaders. Conflict over control of educational systems are bound to emerge where several interest

groups (racial, religious, socio-economic) co-exist.

The whole process of schooling the individual into the educational system is not a smooth one. Needless to say, the poor academic performance of children at primary and secondary schools is a source of concern for many educationists and researchers. Many theories are put forward regarding this lack of integration or inability to cope within the educational system.

The dominant theory of educational disadvantage arose as an explanation of the educational attainments of children in the inner city areas of the U.S.A. Although this theory is American in origin it has been readily accepted in Britain. The theory states that poverty and hence the material conditions that children find themselves in are responsible for their poor performance in the educational system. These poverty areas, it is claimed, should be located and designated as Educational Priority Areas - EPAs (Nash, 1980:40). This discontinuity between the primary, secondary and tertiary levels of education can be generalized globally.

The concept of compensatory education needs to be discussed at this stage because,

- (i) it deals with the reasons for poor academic performance in primary and secondary schools which can subsequently be applied to the tertiary level;

- (ii) it describes the attempts made to promote successful socialization into the educational system and hence improve the pass rate of weaker students;
- (iii) it critically evaluates the success of the above attempts;
- (iv) it depicts the nature of the relationship between the social condition and academic performance; and
- (v) it ultimately bears relevance on the development of Academic Development Programmes (A.D.P.).

The compensatory education movement emerged during the early sixties with the aim of narrowing the gap between the academic performance of middle-class children and working-class children. It developed with state support during the last half of the decade and presently includes an extensive, widespread and varied type of special compensatory progress extending from pre-school to college. Just what compensatory education is, operationally, depends on who does the defining, the term covers an extremely diverse assortment of educational theories (Allen and Hecht, 1974:509). Its origins lie in America and its influence has spread to countries like America, France, Israel and South Africa. Although it has been adapted - in these countries to meet the needs of various ethnic and socio-economic groups the theme that runs consistently is that "the catalogue of deficiencies of the culturally deprived child includes linguistic

deprivation, experiential, cognitive and personality deficiencies, and a wide range of 'substandard' attitudes, norms and values" (Haralambos, 1990:265). The main population served by compensatory education in the U.S.A. are Black youngsters, Puerto Ricans, Chicanos, a substantial number of American Indians and poor Whites (Wilkerson, 1974:509). By 1988, the American government was spending more than \$6 billion dollars per year on more than 4,5 million students per year (Ornstein and Levine, 1989:458).

The general goal of compensatory education is to compensate for losses in the environment of the lower-class culturally deprived child and bring it on par with the average middle-class white child. Researchers (Chazan, 1973; Smiley, 1967) are of the opinion that there is a need for further clarity on the process of achieving this goal. Smiley (1967:139) states that specific objectives like deliberately paced objectives are more effective in the classroom situation. There is therefore a need to modify and define the objectives of compensatory education. Allied to this need is the ability to objectively view the success and failure of such programmes. Bernstein (1961) and Tizard and Hughes (1984) as cited in Osborn (1988:25) contend that cognitive development and linguistic stimulation for children from environmentally disadvantaged backgrounds can only be achieved with a strong focus on language development.

In the course of its controversial development, compensatory education has been characterized as the road to equality of

opportunity for children of poor minority groups, an attempt to circumvent or delay school integration, a catalyst for improving education in general and teacher education in particular, a waste of energy and money, a notable educational achievement, a massive failure and much more. In varying degrees, all of these characterizations are apt (Wilkerson, 1974:509). The researcher aims to establish, at the end of the study, the extent to which the above allegations are true.

Allen et al (1974:510) are of the view that the specific goals of compensatory education has not been realised. Dramatic gains have been achieved on the pre-school level and on a number of small-scale projects. These gains were largely ephemeral. After a systematic evaluation of comprehensive programmes in city schools, they have concluded that it has made no "significant difference". Haralambos (1990:266) supports this view and claims that these programmes produce short-term improvements which are normally short-lived. Some observers have found this failure inexplicable. The following theories have been put forward to explain this failure.

Garrett and Shuey (1966) and Arthur Jensen (1969) as cited in Wilkerson (1974:510) have sought explanations in the discredited hypothesis of hereditary social differences in ability to learn. They contend that Negro children and others of "inferior stock" do not learn effectively in school because they are poorly endowed by nature. This criticism has received much negative response since it removes the blame from the environment and

focuses it on the child. Tomlinson (1982:71-72) claims that this is an "... old deficit argument used in the creation of the compensatory education ideology". He goes on to say that there is a need to de-emphasize the manual working-class and Black children as social problems.

Although most professional educators tend to avoid these genetic explanations they arrive at much the same operative principle through the sociological doctrine of "cultural deprivation". Frost and Hawkes (1966), Hellmuth (1967), as cited in Wilkerson (1974:510), Friedman (1976) as cited in Haralambos (1990:265) point that learning deficits occur in disadvantaged youngsters through primary socialization under conditions of poverty and discrimination. These children cannot learn effectively since they are irreversibly scarred by their pre-school experiences. Therefore, no amount of compensatory programmes would alleviate the problem. Educational psychologists are of the view that these programmes should be targeted at the pre-school years since most of the damage was done during primary socialization. Bloom (1969) as cited in Osborn (1988:8) claims that 50% of adult variance was predictable at age five. Osborn (1988:8) states that since the pre-school years covers the most rapid development and since "environmental factors could be expected to exert the strongest influence on personal and cognitive development meant that children from poor homes entered school predestined to fall behind because of their underestimated previous phase." Academic development programmes are intervening at the tertiary level, after and during the process of secondary socialization. It

would therefore appear that these initiatives (A.D.P.) must make an even more concerted effort to ensure its effectiveness.

Common to the above points of view is the assumption that academic retardation among the children of the lower-classes, is a function of limitations internal to the children involved. This criticism has received a strong reaction from observers on both theoretical and empirical grounds. In contrast to "blame the victim" approaches, is the view that the school itself is the main cause of widespread academic failure among disadvantaged children. Clark (1965), Stein (1971), Silverman, (1970), Ryans (1971) as cited in Wilkerson (1974:512) claim that these programmes share the defeatist theories and practices that make most schools counter-productive for poverty populations, since ghetto schools are characterized by negative expectations and low standards, a curricula based on white middle-class experiences that is irrelevant to the needs of poor and minority groups, the predominance of custodial over instructional emphasis in classroom practice, the neglect of health and nutritional needs of impoverished learners, the severe alienation of the school from the lower-class community it serves and the persistence of the educational bureaucracy to meaningful change.

Ornstein and Levine (1989:460) advance the following reasons for the lack of success of compensatory educational programmes before 1975. These are, large numbers of children led to a watered-down effect, efforts were not intensive and teachers were not well-trained.

Basil Bernstein as cited in Stoneman and Rubinstein (1970:113-114) criticizes the use of "compensatory education" because it shifts the attention away from the deficiencies in the school itself and focuses upon deficiencies within the community, family and child. He suggests that we should stop thinking in terms of "compensatory education" but consider, instead, most seriously and systematically the conditions and contexts of the educational environment.

Johnson (1970:30) suggests that it is impossible to get lower-class, disadvantaged children to adapt and conform to the expectations of the standard middle-class curriculum. This could be one of the main reasons for the moderate success of these programmes. He goes on to suggest that instead of this approach, educators should discover what kinds of experiences membership in the Black culture affords and what kinds of concepts these experiences yield. The curriculum for these children should be based on these discoveries.

Other observers (Birch and Gussow, 1970) as cited in Wilkerson (1974:514) and Halsey (1977) as cited in Haralambos (1990:267) are of the opinion that compensatory education has not really failed; it has just not been adequately tried. They claim that efforts are misdirected at overcoming defects within the disadvantaged child rather than concentrating on correcting the dysfunctional characteristics of the school as an institution.

Chazan and Williams (1978:7) claim that such criticisms overstates the case against compensatory programmes and that too little has been done in the way of compensatory education for any firm conclusions to be drawn about its efficacy. Ornstein and Levine (1989:461) have a more positive evaluation of these programmes after 1975. They identified increased spending, a reduction of scattershot spending, monitoring procedures, evaluation procedures and continuous improvement of programmes as factors that have contributed to its relative success. Benjamin Stockney and Virginia Plunkett as cited in Ornstein and Levine (1989:462) identified components of basic skills instructions like spending more time on task related activities, parental involvement and frequent monitoring as contributing to greater learning in these programmes.

That the notion of compensatory education has attracted much controversy is obvious. That the development of academic development activities has attracted much criticism is less obvious. On the basis of the above criticisms, there is very little to suggest that A.D.P., as a form of compensatory education, would be an effective intervention method between school and university. Firstly, academic development activities focus on the shortcomings within the student and secondly educational lags as a result of deficiencies within the primary and pre-primary socialization process are bound to emerge at the secondary and tertiary levels of learning. Yet, there seems to be a great deal of hope pinned upon these programmes. One way of assessing the validity of the above statements is by exploring

students' attitudes towards these activities; exactly what this study aims to do.

The integration (and lack of integration) of the child into the realm of the educational system has been viewed against a social and cultural background. Within S.A., this integration has to be viewed against a political background which adds a new dimension to the concept of compensatory education. Smith (1986:123) states that "... compensatory education will have to be part of a new educational, economical and political dispensation." He further claims that factors which led to the development of these programmes in the United States of America are similar and applicable to S.A. because educational problems are caused by universal factors and the cognitive structure of the mind is structured in the same way (Smith, 1986:134).

Presently, there are many compensatory educational programmes in the R.S.A. whose target groups include White and Indian members of the poorer communities (a lesser extent) and disadvantaged Black and Coloured people (a larger extent). These programmes are concentrated in the Department of Manpower, technical centres under the Department of Education and Training (D.E.T.), non-formal education, the Industrial Council and other community development programmes (The Science Committee Report, 1984: 135-141). The creation of A.D.P.s are one such form of compensatory education at the tertiary level. It is a relatively new phenomenon at both the White liberal and historically Black universities. There is still much research lacking in the area

of evaluation of such programmes. Despite the lack of research and evidence that would support the success of these programmes, Smith (1986) in the study of compensatory education in helping alleviate premature school-leaving in S.A. concludes that "... the quality of life of the disadvantaged can be upgraded by implementing a holistic compensatory educational strategy" (Smith, 1986:178).

It has already been established that high quality academic performance depends, to a large extent on successful pre-primary and primary socialization into the educational system. Further, deficiencies within this process results in maturational lags which eventually flow into secondary and tertiary levels of learning. In S.A., this process has to be viewed against a strong political background. The following discussion therefore aims to contextualize this process within the S.A. system with emphasis on Bantu education.

2.2.2 The concept and policies of Bantu education

Within S.A., the educational system can be divided into four categories; National Education which caters for White education, Coloured Education which is directed by the House of Representatives, Indian Education falls under the House of Delegates and Bantu Education whose policies are determined by the state. This system is racially and differentially defined.

The establishment of A.D.P.s at universities cannot be understood in isolation from the wider social context which has produced the

kind of problems that these programmes aim to address and redress. Far from socializing students into tamely accepting the burdens of educational and other forms of inequality, Black schooling has, as Kallaway (1984:20) has observed "... rolled forward to become Trojan horses within the apartheid state" (Nasson, 1990:48).

All the negative rhetorics of Black education are meaningless if one is unable to provide substantial evidence as to the negative effects that the system has had on Black schooling. It is therefore important to analyse the nature of Black education and its effects on the cognitive and the thinking processes of the Black student who form the majority of those who attend these academic development activities.

The researcher aims to establish the specific kinds of educational problems that have emerged at the secondary and tertiary levels and subsequently highlight the role of A.D.P.s in attempting to address these problems.

Bantu education policy centred around the following issues: (Shingler, 1973:284):

- (i) the need to promote a specific "culture" that was said to be the unique inheritance of "the Bantu";
- (ii) the need to ensure that the educational experience of "the Bantu" did not alienate them from "their own culture" and make them aspire to social and political

rights on par with whites;

- (iii) the need to adapt schooling and make it relevant to employment and work in the context of S.A.'s segmented labour market of the colour-bar;
- (iv) the need to ensure that the nature of the school curriculum was compatible with the above goals;
- (v) the need to promote mother-tongue education in order to satisfy the above aims;
- (vi) the need for centralized state control of schooling in the interests of efficiency and in order to bring educational policy in line with general apartheid policy;
- (vii) the need to settle the question of the financing of education for S.A.'s indigenous peoples.

The picture that clearly emerges from an analysis of the above policies is that at no point in the formulation of Bantu educational policy was there any emphasis placed on ensuring that the school curriculum would enable the Black student to deal successfully with the demands of the university. In fact, there is a glaring discontinuity between Bantu secondary education and the university.

To begin with, Bantu education policies perpetuated Third World conditions within which the Bantu lived. This is evident by the use of words such as "specific culture", "their own culture", "the Bantu". Politically, the Bantu was not allowed to subscribe to the same social and political rights as the White. This meant that decision-making and the control of power which are necessary for policies and the ability to effect changes in the educational system lay in the hands of a White, ruling minority. Economically, the system ensured that the school curriculum fulfilled the needs of a "segregated labour market of the colour-bar" thus preventing the adequate preparation of students for a technicist, scientific and research orientated university that would be able to sustain a First World economy. Language acquisition, and specifically acquisition of the English language, plays the most significant role in any attempt to succeed at university. The medium of instruction at universities is usually English, but for many Black students the medium of instruction used in school - "mother tongue education" - again prevents them from competing successfully with their white counterparts at university. Compounded with the language problem is the idea that Blacks are seen as indigenous people whose "educational experience" is such that "it did not alienate them from their own culture". Central to this argument is the idea that Blacks should forever remain in a Third World culture which is only economically useful to the First World; education being the mechanism through which this exploitative relationship is maintained. The philosophy upon which the above social order is based is apartheid.

2.2.3 A critical historical analysis of Black education

It can be argued that the negative effects of Bantu education on the learning process begins at the pre-primary level and that deficiencies experienced at this stage are carried through to the secondary and tertiary levels. Educationists (Osborn, 1988; Smith, 1986) are of the opinion that if these learning problems are not resolved during the primary socialization stage then a form of maturational lag develops which then impedes further successful socialization and learning of the student into secondary and tertiary institutions of education. Against the background of a Third World culture, a rapid move towards industrialization and the state's policy of Bantu education, it would seem as if there is a deliberate attempt to maintain this educational underdevelopment. The aim of the following historical analysis of Bantu Education is to reveal the extent and intensity of the learning problems that have been created by apartheid policy. This analysis reveals that the collapse of Bantu education was a predictable (Samuel, 1990:7) and inevitable phenomena.

Prior to the 1976 Soweto revolt, the education system in S.A. was based on the principle of differential education for the different race groups. The Whites received a superior form of education as compared to Coloured, Indian and Bantu people. According to Samuel (1990:17) state policy on Black schooling from 1953-1976 was based on the proposals set out by the Eiselen Commission (1949-1951) on "Native Education". The commission was requested to formulate the "principles and aims of education for

Natives as an independent race, in which their past and present, their inherent racial qualities, their distinctive characteristics and aptitude, and their needs under the everchanging social conditions are taken into consideration." (Report of Native Education Commission. 1949-1951, Annexure A:181). The basic assumption was that Black children required a schooling which was different and inferior from that of White children.

The policy was further strengthened and maintained by the passing of legislation. The Bantu Education Act of 1953 ensured that Bantu education and all activities pertaining to Black schooling were state controlled. The architect of apartheid and one of the most instrumental players in the passing of this legislation, Dr Hendrik Verwoerd (the then Minister of Native Affairs) had rejected the schooling structure set up by missions on the grounds that it produced the "wrong type" (Samuel 1990:17) of Black person. His main criticism against mission schools was that it would create expectations and upward social mobility in the Black people. Such expectations were reserved for the ruling class. This kind of complete control ensured that the school syllabus was such that it equipped a large number of Black school children for manual and semi-skilled jobs. It had, in fact, fostered a kind of thinking that is far removed from the mode of thought required at university. Specific learning problems that have been created are large amounts of rote learning, teacher dependency, limited pupil-centred and pupil motivated learning, authoritarian didactic styles and frequently an intense recourse

to physical punishment (Aitken, 1986:10). Approaches to teaching are rigid, deterministic and often replicates the relationship of dominance and subordination that determines it (Brimer, 1989:56).

State policy further ensured systematic underdevelopment of Black schooling in the following ways:

- (i) Ensuring that Black students had minimal contact with Bantu education. The rationale behind this was that there would be a large number of semi-skilled and semi-literate workers who would then occupy cheap manual positions in the labour hierarchy. As a result, there was a massive increase in the number of Black pupils in the lower primary and higher primary levels. Secondary schooling had become a remote possibility in the lives of many Black children.
- (ii) The states lack of funding and pervasive poverty ensured a massive drop-out rate in Black schools. In 1975, for every 1 Black student at matriculation level there were 44 white students (Samuel, 1990:19).
- (iii) Ensuring that high schools were located in the homeland labour reserves (Samuel, 1990:20). This meant that secondary schooling was confined to a small number of Black children, that thousands of semi-skilled and semi-literate Black children were forced into the labour market without having any means and

knowledge to survive in a highly competitive, industrialized society.

- (iv) The state's total monopoly over the allocation of funds meant that most teachers were underqualified and poorly paid. In 1976 only 1,7% of teachers had a university degree. Another 10,4% had a matriculation certificate, 49,3% had two years of secondary schooling and 21% had completed primary school (SAIRR, 1977:335). Appallingly overcrowded conditions reinforced inadequate teaching. In 1975 the average teacher-pupil ratio in Black schools was 1:54,1 against 1:20,1 in White schools (SAIRR, 1976:321) (Samuel, 1990:20-24).

Undoubtedly, in any school, within any education department, the quality of work produced depends mostly, if not entirely, on the qualifications of the teaching staff. In fact, one can argue that qualified and well-trained teachers produce able and competent students who are in turn capable of taking on the world outside, of becoming worthwhile citizens and being able to meet the demands of any university. Certainly, this is not the case with Bantu education.

The above discrepancies within Bantu education led to much dissatisfaction and the introduction of Afrikaans as the medium of instruction for half the number of high school subjects was the final catalyst to the 1976 Soweto revolt which had begun a

new phase in the S.A. educational system. The only inference that the researcher could draw from this is that the introduction of Afrikaans as a medium of instruction was a deliberate attempt (it seems) on the part of the state since it would have obvious crippling effects on the student's ability to deal with a university curriculum where English is extensively used in all areas of learning.

The state had responded to this crisis in many ways. Yet, the social conditions prevalent prior to 1976 remained unchanged. Afrikaans had been dropped as a compulsory means of instruction. State expenditure on Black education had increased between 1978-1979, yet the disparity in expenses on White and Black education remained unchanged (Samuel, 1990:22). This obviously meant that the contradictions and inequalities within Black education could not be eradicated. The state's response to this crisis in Black education was in fact minimal and peripheral. In fact, the nature of the social conditions were such that it was totally uncondusive to any form of learning and schooling. Life in townships became more unbearable and as the unrest increased so did the presence of the military vehicles, riot policemen and patrolling forces. This had become a regular part of the education scene in many Black schools and universities in S.A. Student organizations were being harassed and the shortage of schools was still critical. In late 1977, it was estimated that 196 000 Black pupils throughout the country were boycotting classes (Samuel, 1990:22). During this period many Black children were not even socialized into the primary and secondary

levels of learning and are referred to, by many people, as the lost generation (Samuel, 1990:23).

An important feature of the state's response to this crisis was that it continued to create change within the framework of political reformism and "separate development". A senior official in the Department of Education and Training justified separate and different schooling in that it is, "... an irrefutable reality that the Black child had a starting point which did not link up with the average western school... The government did not support the internationalist approach of levelling and world citizenship which was being propagated so strongly in education in certain quarters. He went on to stress the political importance of the home language being the medium of instruction for a sizeable part of the pupil's schooling and stated that those who propagated English as the education medium in preference to Black languages were aware of the advantages of English as a lingua-franca for the purpose of exercising political influence" (Samuel, 1990:23).

The above quotation explicitly demonstrates the state's desire to maintain a system of schooling for the Black child that would bring him closer to his cultural background, which in itself is not an undesirable condition, but does very little in aiding the Black child's competence at university. Before the Black child has even entered university he has been unknowingly set up in a system that has decided and determined his academic future. That future being one which is limiting, defeating, unproductive with

limited possibilities in an urban society, one which constantly erodes a person's concept of self and which ultimately perpetuates the culture of poverty and underdevelopment.

The 1980s ushered in an era of student revolts, school boycotts and an unwillingness on the part of the state to make any kind of meaningful change. Although the Bantu Education Act of 1953 was replaced by the Education and Training Act on 1 January 1980 which attempted to remove the worst aspects of previous legislation, it was unanimously rejected by both students and teachers. This rejection was based on the fact that it was still differential and inferior as compared to the Whites. The demands of the Black population was a single, integrated educational system for the whole of S.A. society. This rejection had been marked by student protests and boycotts. The state had responded by closing down many schools and when schooling resumed at the start of 1981; many students did not see a return to "normal" schooling (Samuel, 1990:25). Again we note the state's resistance in effectively dealing with this crisis. The years 1981-2 were relatively calm, 1983 once again revealed the inability of the state in dealing with the crisis in Black schooling. By mid-1980s Black schooling had disintegrated completely and at the expense of their schooling Black children were becoming highly conscious politically. They were strengthening their organizational abilities and struggling towards a just and democratic society (Samuel, 1990:26). These events have militated against any form of academic achievement either at school or at university.

In the face of the above crisis, the state had responded in many ways (HSRC investigation of 1981; the White Paper on the provision of Education in the R.S.A. released in November 1983). However, the response was unable to resolve the crisis within Bantu Education since these recommendations perpetuated the inequality and inferiority of Black schooling as evidenced by the finding of the White Paper which states: "As for the syllabi, the government once more reiterated the desirability of different curricula, declaring that each education department had the right to develop syllabi in accordance with the world view and within the cultural framework of the population group it serves" (Samuel, 1990:26).

This policy yet again defeats the Black child's attempts to succeed at university.

In 1984 and 1985 this education crisis intensified. Students responded angrily to the poor 1983 matric results. These protests began to intensify within the context of Black political resistance. The 1985 state of emergency was a further impediment to a negotiated settlement to this schooling crisis. Many students throughout the country stayed away from the final examinations. In many areas Black schooling had effectively collapsed. Formal schooling was seen by many students as pointless in the current, turbulent situation. This became clear by slogans such as Liberation Now, Education Later (Samuel, 1990:28).

Between 1985-1991, Black schooling had been characterised by periodic outbursts of unrest. Needless to say, the discrepancies still exist and many Black students come to university with a wide range of educational deficits. At the same time, it is important to view these educational deficits against the disadvantaged students' social and cultural background - a cultural background though rich and satisfying - but nonetheless different from the technologically oriented culture of the university.

2.3 The various backgrounds of the "disadvantaged" student

While the ideology of apartheid is largely responsible for the improper socialization of the Black student into the realm of the educational system, it seems as if the cultural background of the Black student plays an equally important role in his/her ability to compete with his/her contemporaries of other racial groups at university. The following discussion aims to explore these various backgrounds with the aim of highlighting their effect on the learning and socialization process of the disadvantaged student in the educational system. The importance of studying the following backgrounds is that failure at any level of learning can never be attributed to a single cause but to a multiplicity of factors. More importantly, failure at school may imply failure in life (Khathi, 1990:1).

2.3.1 The psychology of the culturally deprived student

Johnson (1970:30) states that "Culture can be defined as a way of life, a design for living that consists of the attitudes,

beliefs, practices, patterns of behaviour, and institutions that a group has developed in response to particular conditions in order to survive."

The structure of the S.A. education system has created different conditions for the different race groups. Social conditions that exists with the elite white minority have produced the response labelled "the dominant culture" the norm against which other race groups compare. Black people have had to respond to a different set of conditions, and they have developed a culture that is different in many ways from the "dominant culture". Some of these differences are the non-standard English dialect spoken by many Black people, their style and mode of thinking and the structure of the family.

According to Johnson (1970:30) "... membership in the Black culture contributes to cultural deprivation because it prevents Black children from acquiring the middle-class cultural patterns on which almost all school curricula and instructional materials are based. Many Black children have not acquired from their culture the language patterns, the value system, the attitudes and beliefs - the entire experiential background - that the school programme demands. The readiness of Black children for achievement is different, not just deficient."

It is also important to acknowledge that not all Black children from the same culture are disadvantaged, many have acquired middle-class experiences and though not assimilated into the

broader culture, they are acculturated and are thus bicultural. Furthermore, not all disadvantaged children are disadvantaged to the same degree. The disadvantaged population is not as homogenous as it is often thought to be. For example, universities like Rand Afrikaans University, Orange Free State and Rhodes have a very high intake of marginal White students (Scott, 1989:16) who would benefit a great deal by academic support activities.

The question of what it means psychologically to be culturally deprived or culturally disadvantaged will now be discussed and attempts will be made to illustrate the effects of cultural deprivation on mental and physical performance at school in general and within the S.A. Black population specifically.

The following theories on the effects of cultural deprivation on academic performance remain constant and can be systematically applied to a group of disadvantaged students in S.A.

- (i) The first dimension of cultural deprivation is related to biological deprivation - hunger, lack of clothing and medical care. The effects of this on mental and physical performance is that the pupil is unable to pay attention in class, they are less alert, often tired, depressed and apathetic (Tuckman, 1969:4). Hull (1952) as cited in Tuckman (1969:4) concludes from his study that a history of biological deprivation result in a tendency towards satisfying

immediate biological needs and these pupils are therefore unwilling to perform educational tasks that are future oriented.

Seventy percent of the total urban population in Africa live well below the average income group (Wilsenach, 1985:139). They therefore cannot afford proper housing, food, clothes and medical care. This is a problem common in most Third World countries. This form of disadvantage is "... also found in various forms and degrees in urban communities, the extent and intensity of the phenomenon is much more pronounced in the rural areas of RSA as well as in the Black states" (The Science Committee, Department of Co-operation and Development, 1984:60).

- (ii) The second dimension to cultural deprivation is that it produces reduced intelligence as a function of lesser cognitive, perceptual and verbal skills. The home environment does not stimulate in the direction of developing cognitive, perceptual and numerical skills - required in the classroom and against which intelligence tests are weighted (Tuckman, 1965:5). An additional problem is that parents are themselves lacking in these skills and therefore cannot impart them to their children. John (1963) as cited in Tuckman (1965:5) concludes that living conditions in the homes of lower class children hamper abstract and

integrative language acquisition.

Smith (1986:48) mentions that the Theron Commission (1976) regards poor housing conditions as the breeding grounds for all kinds of social pathologies (Engelbrecht et al, 1983:5). A unique S.A. problem is that many poverty stricken people live in squatter settlements and slums. These include both Coloured and African people. Under these overcrowded and unhygienic conditions it is inevitable that the child is disadvantaged.

(iii) The third dimension to cultural deprivation is that it usually means having little achievement motivation. Parents are too preoccupied with bread and butter issues that they do not have the time or the energy to set a precedent for competition, academic achievement or cultural achievement. Smith (1986:29) claims that "... except for the comparatively few exceptions, children whose parents are successful and wealthy are advantaged since they have been given a 'head start' in life". Garbers (1980:22-29) claims that children from higher social origins are more ably equipped to survive the stresses and strains of a modern, industrialized society in S.A.

(iv) The fourth dimension to cultural deprivation is that it yields unfavourable attitudes towards self, others

and society. This may be one of the main causes of delinquent behaviour in schools (Tuckman, 1969:8). Since the classroom is a microcosm of society, negative and fatalistic attitudes derived from relating to others, are likely to appear in the classroom as well. The teacher is seen as an authority figure and together with his/her own perceptions of his/her own self-worth, this pupil is likely to manipulate situations in order to gain his/her own ends.

Joyce et al (1972) as cited in Khathi (1990:40) argues that "... children of poverty often do not like school. In the first place their experience has taught them that school is one humiliation and failure after another. They see no point in striving to learn what is taught. Most of the curriculum seems irrelevant to their lives. It is difficult for such pupils to perform and achieve success at the end of year examination."

Khathi (1990) concludes that poverty and lack of opportunities is one of the contributory factors to the high failure rate in KwaZulu among the matric students. Among other contributory social factors he mentions family size, parental attitudes, parental education, poor study facilities at home and school unrest. The educational factors that contribute to poor performance are the education system, the curriculum, pupil-teacher qualification and teacher motivation and devotion.

2.3.2 The economic background of the disadvantaged student

It can be argued that there is a positive relationship between economic deprivation and cultural deprivation. In S.A., state policy has determined discrimination in employment and the inferior quality of Black education affords little opportunity for Blacks to move up the economic and social ladder and a large number of Black people therefore remain economically impoverished. The effects of poverty on academic performance has already been outlined and need not be discussed here. A large number of Black students who attend tertiary institutions in S.A. are drawn from educationally and socially disadvantaged communities (Webb and Erwee, 1990:87). These pupils cannot financially afford activities that satisfy educational needs outside the school. There is only just enough money to satisfy basic needs first, secondary needs are secondary. These children who do not make it to university are often forced into the labour market at an early age with little training and hope for improving themselves.

2.3.3 The family experience of the disadvantaged student

According to Havighurst (1970:15) disadvantaged pupils are those who have been denied certain basic social experiences in the family that the majority of children have had. He claims:

- (i) "They lack a family environment that sets an example of reading and that provides a variety of toys and play materials of colours, sizes and shapes that challenge their ingenuity with their hands and minds."

- (ii) "They lack a family conversational experience that answers their questions and encourages them to ask questions; extends their vocabulary with new words, in particular adjectives and adverbs; and gives them a right and a need to stand up for and explain their point of view on the world."

Bernstein (1961) as cited in Havighurst (1970:15) claims that working class children use a restricted language at home compared to middle-class children who use an elaborate form. Working-class children are therefore more likely to experience difficulty at school where an elaborated form is used. This difficulty is likely to increase unless the child masters the school's elaborated code.

Deutsch (1963) as cited in Havighurst (1970:16) claims that disadvantaged children have inferior and inadequate auditory discrimination, visual discrimination, and inferior judgement concerning time and other basic concepts. He claims that this is a function of a disadvantaged family situation and improper socialization of these children into internalizing proper learning habits. If these educational deficits are not resolved early in the academic development of the child then the possibilities are very strong that subsequent academic achievement in the higher standards will be retarded.

The above discussions have important implications for the content and curriculum development of Academic Development Programmes.

Firstly, Black students may appear to have a restricted form of language but only in English. Many are quite proficient in their own mother tongue languages. Therefore, these programmes need to take into account at what point the vernacular language prevents these students from acquiring the proper patterns of English usage. Secondly, if the last premise is accepted, then it would seem that intervention at tertiary level would have to be extensive and thorough in order to prevent counter productivity of these programmes. There is also the implicit assumption that successful pre-primary socialization is a necessary pre-condition for success at school and university.

2.3.4 The health status of the disadvantaged student

The combined effects of poverty and uneducated parents have an obvious negative influence on the health care of disadvantaged children (Havighurst, 1970:18). Basic medical problems like poor eye-sight, emotional problems, neurological defects and many others obviously play their role in delaying the process of learning.

Health care in S.A. is again differentially administered to the various race groups. Government expenditure on health care is the lowest for the Blacks. Many Black people are also ignorant of medical and psychological problems, medical care is often reconciled with traditional healing, they do not have easy access to tertiary health care and live in social conditions that have poor hygiene practices which often breed diseases.

2.3.5 The political background of the disadvantaged student

The early eighties was a decade in which there was widespread student unrest in Black schools and universities in S.A. Many students were politically conscientized and began developing organizational and leadership skills at the expense of their education. Others lost out on their education completely. Those who survived and entered university were aware of their inferior schooling background. Terms like disadvantaged, culturally deprived and linguistically different have a strong political component to it. Black students who attend university already have some form of affiliation with various forms of political groups and liberatory movements. Many are aware of the political system that has placed them in the present disadvantaged situation. To a Black student who has gained acceptance, against all obstacles, at a university like Witwatersrand or Cape Town but who still needs additional help in ensuring that he/she passes will come to perceive academic development activities in negative, morally degrading terms. His/her worth of self is further shaken when he/she attends these tutorials and finds that it is attended by predominantly Black students with a number of White tutors who claim to have insight into their problems.

2.3.6 Other characteristics of disadvantaged Black students

The following characteristics of disadvantaged Black students have been identified by Bertrand (1970:31-35) as the ones that most seriously affect school achievement.

(i) **Negative environment:** Concepts derived from these experiences are different from those upon which the school curriculum is based. Learning problems manifest themselves when students are unable to distinguish meaningful sounds and therefore miss out on instructional material provided by the teacher (Bertrand, 1970:31). The value-system generated within the conflict-ridden and violence-torn townships is often in opposition to the value-system of the school. This conflict has to be viewed against a political background and a value system that has alienated the Black child from identifying with the middle-class concept of education. On the other hand, they do recognize that education is a means for advancement. The culture of the school is alien to their own experiences. The world presented in textbooks is populated by strangers who inhabit a strange environment unlike anything in their experience (Bertrand, 1970:32).

(ii) **Tradition of literacy:** Bertrand (1970:31) contends that "The Black culture in the U.S.A. lacks a tradition of literacy." Schooling that has been provided for them have produced semi-literates. The reality of discrimination has prevented many from acquiring an education. Even educated Blacks, until recently, could not obtain employment and became upwardly mobile. This situation discouraged academic

aspiration and consequently academic achievement. However, the situation is changing and many Black parents are now encouraging their children to go to school although their lack of education prevents them from supporting the efforts of the school.

Groenewald (1976:14) claims that "The Black culture in South Africa is in direct contrast to the Western one in the sense that it does not in the least encourage personal initiative, creative thought, future planning and individual achievement."

(iii) **Feeling of rejection and poor self-concept:** Many Black children feel that society has rejected them simply because they are Black. They therefore develop a self-concept, from an early age, that they are inferior because of their colour.

(iv) **Linguistic Disadvantage:** Many Black children are linguistically disadvantaged since they speak a non-standard dialect of English that interferes with their attempts to learn and speak English. Bertrand (1970:85) suggests that English should be presented as an alternate dialect rather than a replacement dialect in order to give students language flexibility. Every country has its non-standard dialect of English among minority and ethnic groups. S.A. is no exception.

Gardiner (1990:43-45) argues that "... learners in S.A. should not be forced to accept one model of language and that correctiveness in using standard forms of language can be learned once learners have achieved linguistic confidence."

Young (1988:8) suggests that "... everybody should learn English as English, allowing it, in the process, to become a rich, natural South African English which tolerates all the spoken varieties used by thirty million inhabitants."

2.3.7 Profile of the low achiever

The following characteristics that correlate with poverty and school disability constitute a profile of the low-achiever (Metfessel and Seng, 1970:75). In the context of the present study it is important to have insight into the effects of poverty on the learning process which should then be taken into account in developing any design or programme of a compensatory nature.

- (i) **Learning Style:** Their cognitive learning style responds more to visual and kinaesthetic signals than to oral and written stimuli. They learn better from inductive than deductive approaches, they have a poor attention span, learn better in a task that involves one activity and are at a distinct disadvantage in situations of tests and timed-learning (Metfessel and Seng, 1970:76).

- (ii) **Value Framework and Self Concept:** These children have a weak ego development, a negative self-concept and they lack self-confidence. They expect to fail and often do. Feelings of inadequacy are often reinforced. They are oriented towards satisfying immediate goals and have difficulty in responding to long-range goals. Discipline in school is usually based on reason, insight building and loss of privilege whereas at home it is based on physical force (Metfessel and Seng, 1970:76).
- (iii) **Cognitive Structure:** The intellect is usually unevenly developed and wide conceptual gaps exist. At home they are not encouraged to engage in fantasy, imagination or even ask questions. This therefore affects their language development in varying degrees. Their vocabulary may be limited and often not relevant to the school culture. An important source of these learning deficiencies are the models of human behaviour to which he is exposed and which he values (Metfessel and Seng, 1970:77).
- (iv) **Models of Behaviour:** These children have parents who do not model language skills appropriate for school and a value-system that does not encourage intellectual development. Parental involvement with the child's education could be minimal and children may begin to interpret school as an unimportant event.

They also manifest difficulty in handling feelings of hostility through words and instead resort to violence (Metfessel and Seng, 1970:78).

- (v) **Home Environment:** Overcrowded, noisy conditions often militate against developing listening and conceptual skills. With a lack of stimulating objects in the house, these children have limited out-of-school experiences relevant to the school culture. However, those pupils from the culture of poverty whose parents value education, often perform well in school (Metfessel and Seng, 1970:78).

2.3.8 The needs of the disadvantaged student

Taking the above social and cultural backgrounds of the disadvantaged student into account, it is now possible to identify specific needs of these students and its relevance for the curriculum development of Academic Development Programmes. Foster (1969:115-120) identifies the following needs.

- (i) **The need to develop a positive self-image:** Academic development programmes should aim towards helping the disadvantaged student develop a concept of self that is positive. The therapeutic climate of these sessions should contribute towards developing this. An important component of these programmes should include understanding the specific needs of disadvantaged students. This contributes towards

creating a climate of understanding and can be achieved through staff development programmes where staff, especially lecturers and tutors, are sensitized to the special needs of the disadvantaged student.

- (ii) **The need to convert potential intelligence into operational intelligence:** In an attempt to combat the self-defeating idea that failure to learn is an innate inability to learn, lecturers should be encouraged to plan a programme that will, at least, maintain a balance between success and failure. This does not mean that academic standards should be compromised. Instead, these programmes should assess the present achievement level of disadvantaged students, and then be creative and resourceful in providing experiences and learning material that would enable these students to proceed to the next level. It is also important for academic staff to recognise that responsibility for helping to strengthen the weakest link in the skills of disadvantaged children - the English language.

- (iii) **The need to utilize available resources:** The disadvantaged child lacks appropriate resources that are compatible with the culture of the school and is often ignorant of the presence of available resources. A.D.P. working alone as an agent of change can seldom be entirely successful. One of the problems of

disadvantaged students is their inability to use available resources in the most effective manner. Through counselling, specific problems of the disadvantaged should be identified and dealt with accordingly. In fact, the university plays a significant role in co-ordinating and mobilizing available resources so that maximum benefit will accrue to the student.

Within the context of academic support/development programmes at S.A. universities Agar (1987:58) identifies the following needs of underprepared students in order of priority:

- (i) "the need for academic skills - e.g. study skills, note-taking and making, exam techniques and preparation, essay writing, problem solving, time management, use of the library and other resources, analysing, synthesising and interpreting;
- (ii) the need for language skills - e.g. both written and spoken communication in the English language, reading ability and comprehension ability;
- (iii) the need for a different approach to learning - e.g. an independent critical approach rather than dependent rote learning/memorisation;
- (iv) the need for better knowledge of subject matter;

- (v) material needs - e.g. accommodation, finance for pocket money, fees, books, resources and transport;
- (vi) psychological needs - e.g. self-esteem, motivation, confidence and;
- (vii) the need for a reduction in workload."

On the basis of a study carried out on staff responses to support related issues for under prepared students at the University of Natal - Pietermaritzburg and Durban, Griesel (1987:65) identifies the needs of these students at university, and groups them into the following broad categories:

- (i) developing language competence;
- (ii) developing adequate discipline - specific conceptual background;
- (iii) acquiring appropriate academic learning skills; and
- (iv) a need for information about (and knowledge of) realities of the broader community which the university is supposed to serve.

These needs form the basis upon which the goals of A.D.P. are formulated and implemented. The goals of A.D.P. should not only correlate with the above needs, but also with the expectations of students.

2.4 The linguistically different : learning theories and intellectual development

The inclusion of a discussion on linguistically disadvantaged or linguistically different learners is important and deliberate in the present context, since language, as derived from culture, has a strong bearing on academic performance. Therefore, any form of compensatory education programme needs to develop a language skills programme taking into account the specific language problems of the disadvantaged student.

Samuel (1989:1) claims that "... it is now well accepted within the field of socio-linguistics that language, culture and society are inextricably woven". Seng (1970:99) stated that "...man is characterized by thought and feeling, which he communicates through language. Language, then, is symbolic thought, symbolic feeling. The formulation, expression and exchange of ideas depends on language. Thus success in using language determines success in school and almost without exception in later life".

Language is a product of a person's cultural heritage. Therefore the difference between university language and language spoken by different social classes varies greatly. It is therefore impossible to have students with equal rights and duties towards university language. Bourdieu (1982:400-401) suggests that middle-class and lower-class students display great variations in the way they express themselves and in their use of words. The former have a natural ease of expression while the latter have a forced ease of expression that aims to conform to the

norms of university discourse. This is usually done at the expense of losing the meaning of words.

Far more attention has been given to the development of language skills in the academic development programme than to any other area of learning. The reasons for this are obvious. The purpose of the following discussion is four-fold:

- (i) explaining the function of language including its relation to academic development;
- (ii) identifying and describing four learning theories that underlie a bilingual or bidialectical education programme;
- (iii) illustrating how these theories can be incorporated within instructional materials and within academic learning; and
- (iv) suggesting ways in which teachers with a grasp of the underlying theories can teach linguistically different children more effectively and creatively (Seng, 1970:99).

2.4.1 The function of language

Seng (1970:99-100) believes that language is beneficial to man in two ways:

- (i) it is an instrument with which to communicate ideas; and

(ii) it influences intellectual capability.

Human learning is a process that embraces three skills: intellectual, motor and attitudinal. Pupils learn to produce the sounds of a new language physically at the same time developing intellectual and linguistic concepts. The responsibility therefore rests on the teacher/lecturer/tutor to ensure that students develop a positive attitude toward language usage.

The following discussion aims to highlight the nature of the relationship between language, learning and academic performance at university. The source of learning problems are located within the linguistic capacities of disadvantaged students since language proficiency determines conceptual development and abstract thinking - aspects of learning that are demanded by the university curriculum. Language, and the English language specifically, is the only means by which students are able to communicate (the academic language of the university) and it is the only language upon which assessment is based. Therefore, within the context of this study, it is important to gain theoretical insight into the various learning and linguistic theories that determine proficiency in the English language. Furthermore, it highlights the need to develop the following skills within A.D.P. These include listening skills, communicative skills, reading skills, verbal skills, syntactical and orthographic skills.

2.4.2 Learning, laws of learning and three learning theories

Learning occurs when a person is able to perform (after some experience) a task he was unable to do previously (Klausmeier and Goodwin, 1966:100). It can be overt, covert or both. The following are learning theories which need to be applied creatively, imaginatively and intuitively by programme developers, teachers and especially by educationists involved in academic development (Seng, 1970:101). These theories are relevant for creating instructional materials in bilingual or bidialectical programmes (Seng, 1970:101-114).

- (i) **Classical Conditioning:** Refers to the association of two stimuli and a process by which words acquire meaning. It is also the process by which attitudes are formed.

- (ii) **Operant Conditioning:** Refers to trial and error learning where desired behaviour is often rewarded and reinforced. Verbal reinforcement improves motivation and morale of students. Many students attending A.D.P. are victims of an inferior schooling system that under-prepares them for university. Constant defeat at university plays a big role in demotivating and demoralising them. The above theory, if applied creatively and sensitively, could increase motivation levels.

- (iii) **Modelling:** is the process of learning very complex skills by observing another person demonstrate these skills. In this instance, the tutor has to have a good command of the language and be a good role-model.

The factors of age, setting and goals in language learning: Children and adults do not learn a second language in the same way since language already learnt in an adult interferes with his attempts at learning a foreign language. Children are less inhibited and benefit from techniques (modelling and pattern skills) not appropriate for adults. The success of bilingual programmes also depends on the degree to which it approximates a natural language-learning setting.

2.4.3 **Concepts and a fourth learning theory**

Children's intellectual development depends on the number, quality and discriminability of the concepts that comprise their cognitive structures. The structure of intellectual development based upon the concept approach corresponds to a fourth learning theory, cognitive field. Types of concept learning are categorization, abstraction and acquisition of meaning (Seng, 1970:110-114).

- (i) **Relationship of concepts and intellectual development:**
The two functions of a concept are commonality and association. Learning a new concept is easier when one is able to associate it with something one already knows. Compensatory educational programmes should

therefore aim to help pupils develop those concepts that will be most valuable to them and to deal with things that are related to the child's experiences and social background.

(ii) **Conceptual development:** Important concepts should be divided into smaller, more precise concepts. Teachers should, therefore, always begin with concrete objects and experiences that the pupil can readily perceive and that they consider important.

(iii) **Concepts and words:** Words may serve as concepts or categories into which new ideas may be placed. The larger the number of words in a child's repertoire the higher the probability that he will be able to establish a relation between something new and a concept already learned (transfer). In this respect, language increases intellectual capability. Words and concepts learnt enable one to operate at a higher intellectual level. This means using subvocal speech which is the process by which we think to ourselves in terms of words. Language learning therefore incorporates all three types of human learning: pure concept formation, development of attitudes towards ourselves and others and development of new motor skills to form new found patterns of pronunciation.

(iv) Cognitive structure of the linguistically different:

Without getting involved in the debates surrounding the definition of intelligence and I.Q. tests, intelligence (in the present context) "... may be said to consist of the complexity of the cognitive structure, the degree to which that structure may become more sophisticated, and the ability to apply that structure to the task at hand" (Seng, 1970:11). Many disadvantaged children "... have sophisticated cognitive structures derived from vivid experiences that remain unfathomable to teachers who label these children as naive, at best; at worst, stupid. These children may not perform well at school because their life experiences and knowledge does not seem relevant to school tasks" (Seng, 1970:12).

2.4.4 The relationship between reading instruction and linguistics

Saville (1970:115) states that any reading programme for disadvantaged children can only be successful if it takes into account the habits of the children's spoken language. This is done by:

- (i) determining their exact nature;
- (ii) contrasting these habits with both the standard dialect of the school and the language used in reading; and

- (iii) assisting in the selection or development of appropriate instructional materials.

The Black people of S.A. speak nine written languages which can be divided into two main groups, the Nguni and Sotho. The Nguni language includes the Ndebele, Swazi, Xhosa and Zulu dialects. The Sotho language includes Northern Sotho, Southern Sotho and Western Sotho (Botswana) (Khathi, 1986:25). Students who attend university from these varied linguistic backgrounds are bound to face multiple socio-linguistic difficulties. An even more salient problem lay in the fact that educators have limited research and experience in this field and are therefore unable to contribute meaningful and appropriate material within the context of an Academic Development Programme at universities in S.A. Sookrajh (1990:16) states that "... Black students coming from disadvantaged backgrounds in S.A.....experience extreme difficulty in coping with the academic language demands made on them."

2.4.5 The linguistic method in teaching English

Saville (1970:116) identifies the following steps in teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL):

- (i) getting a detailed analysis of the native language and the target language to be taught;
- (ii) this analysis should include phonology, syntax, vocabulary, intonation and orthography of both languages;

- (iii) identifying points at which the native language interferes with acquiring the speech patterns of standard English;
- (iv) from the above contrast, patterns of similarity and difference should be identified and instructional materials based on these comparisons.

Obviously, work with different African languages would be quite extensive and would demand expertise, knowledge and insight on the part of the researcher or planner. A starting point could be identifying the most widely used African language at university and then applying the above steps to it with a view to designing an English language usage programme that is well-integrated and relevant for our specific needs and problems.

2.4.6 Elements of language to be considered in language instruction

In the light of the above socio-linguistic problems a brief discussion of the four elements of language would only serve to enlighten us on the specific linguistic problems common among the disadvantaged. Saville (1970:118) identifies the following four elements:

- (i) **Phonology:** Refers to sounds that are produced and articulated. These should be compared and contrasted with the disadvantaged.

- (ii) **Syntax:** Refers to the formal features that express meaning and relationship in language. These features include words, order, agreement and inflection. Disadvantaged children have internalized the syntax of a non-standard dialect of English and not the syntax of the classroom variety of English - upon which the classroom reading material is based. Their inability to construct simple, logical and complete questions and sentences prevents them from learning and developing concepts and ideas.
- (iii) **Semantics:** This structure refers to the linguistic organization of experience which is unique for every culture and language. It is not easy to detect whether disadvantaged students adequately understand the meanings of words. There is also a tendency for them to translate directly from their own language and apply labels to concepts learned in the second language. Lambert (1963) as cited in Saville (1970:121) suggests "... that the presentation of vocabulary in a second language might be patterned on the network of the associations made by native speakers of the language.
- (iv) **Orthography:** Disadvantaged pupils tend to transfer the writing habits of their native language to a new language. This results in mispronunciation and incorrect spelling.

2.4.7 English proficiency among Black university students and its relevance for developing academic development programmes

From the preceding discussions the theme that emerges is that a wide range of linguistic impediments does not allow for effective stimulation of the child's cognitive development. Smith (1986:59) suggests that "... without the experience of having to perceive, meditate upon, memorize and discuss a broad world of meanings and varying points of view, disadvantaged children can hardly be expected to acquire the necessary linguistic skills." The following discussion aims to establish the extent to which S.A. disadvantaged students manifest linguistic problems, its effects on university performance and its relevance for advancing an English language skills programme within A.D.P.

Sookrajh (1990:143) states that "... there are environmental and cultural obstacles which immediately place the Black student at a disadvantage, and this makes the desired proficiency extremely difficult to achieve."

The early eighties had witnessed an increasing number of Black students at universities and technikons as a result of the broadening of admissions policies. This was in line with the affirmative action policy of the state. These Black students had been exposed to the usage of English language for roughly eight out of twelve years of their schooling and therefore arrive at university with a wide range of linguistic deficits that impede their ability to grasp concepts and ideas in a second language.

Many of these students feel alienated and constant defeat further reinforced a negative attitude towards English as an academic language. Despite the Black student's willingness to learn the English language, his/her historical, social, cultural and educationally inferior background does not allow him/her to effectively master the university curriculum - which almost always uses the English language. Thembela (1989:2) claims that the second language medium of instruction "... doubles the burden on the Black learner and contributes to an appalling failure rate."

Given the above linguistic problems encountered by the S.A. Black student, compensatory educational programmes should focus on the following important areas of development. They are:

- (i) Intensive English second language training for both tutors and students;
- (ii) Listening and comprehension skills;
- (iii) Reading and writing skills; and
- (iv) Ongoing research and evaluation of these programmes.

2.5 Academic development programmes - A.D.P.

The term academic development has actually evolved from the concept academic support. "Support" with its many negative connotations and implicit reference to some kind of deficiency has forced academics to adopt a much more positive and responsive

attitude towards the population of disadvantaged students. The term development embraces a wide spectrum of activities ranging from teaching academic skills to personal counselling. As such it forms part of a transformation process that aims at creating an education system that would do justice to a democratic post-apartheid society (Scott, 1989:10). This chapter discusses the historical development of A.D.P. within the context of the various debates that surround it, its goals, content, structure and method of implementation, problems that need to be resolved and crucial issues that need to be addressed. The chapter ends with a brief description of attitudes and its relation to A.D.P.

2.5.1 A.D.P. as a form of compensatory education

If it is argued that the role of A.D.P. is, by definition, to adapt the disadvantaged student's intellectual capabilities to the demands of the university by supplementing him with extra tutorials, study skills, English language development courses and other related courses that tend to fill this wide gap created by apartheid schooling and compounded by the nature of the social backgrounds that these students come from, then it can be said that A.D.P. is one form of compensatory education.

The premise that it is an effective intervening variable in bridging the gap between school and university needs to be investigated.

2.5.2 An overview of factors that led to the development of A.D.P.

The growth of academic development, or specifically academic support, which was the term originally coined to describe support activities for disadvantaged students, has to be viewed within the context of a university and against the backdrop of a wider social background. Essentially, the function of university education is to produce knowledgeable, skilled and able individuals who would be able to contribute to and sustain the economy. As such, university education can be viewed from an economic point of view and for the purpose of this discussion it can be argued that the following hypotheses best lend themselves to explaining the function of university education. They highlight the institutional context within which academic development (AD) has evolved, demonstrate the nature of the relationship between academic development activities and institutional change and it links up with the earlier analysis of education.

According to Behr (1986:39-44), the hypotheses of Johnson on the function of university education from an economic point of view are the following:

- (i) The filter hypothesis:** "The university through its examination system, sorts out the best students (i.e. the elite), thus enabling prospective employers to make their choice without resorting to their own selection procedures (Behr, 1986:41). The disadvantaged student is bound to be eliminated very

early in his/her academic career."

"The university is also compelled to eliminate students in the early stages of an ongoing programme as responses are not sufficient to cope with the whole entry at the later stage. Some students have to be eliminated regardless of their level of achievement. This procedure is referred to as defensive filtering" (Behr, 1986:41).

Intellectual filtering "... is aimed at preserving the scholastic standards of a discipline. There is a body of knowledge, concepts and skills which students must master before they can be judged to have 'passed' the subject" (Behr, 1986:41).

- (ii) **The human capital hypothesis:** This theory states that those who have mastered the essentials of a discipline and passed through the intellectual filter become the intellectual human capital of the nation. The knowledge and skills they have acquired enable them to move into productive employment, and thus constitute vocational human capital. As a result of their university studies, students also acquire a broad range of cognitive and affective skills, such as communication, organization, criticism, etcetera, which can be utilized in a wide range of occupations and which ensure that they function as persons more

effectively in the wider society. This constitutes the general human capital dimension.

- (iii) **The maturation hypothesis:** Active maturation "... is a similar concept to that of general human capital. Students are assumed to become more knowledgeable and rounded individuals as a result of the pleasant social and intellectual ambience of the university. As a consequence (it is argued) they develop into balanced and useful members of society, able to contribute better to its well-being" (Behr, 1986:41).

Passive maturation "... is assured to occur in those students who come to university simply 'to sort themselves'. In this way they delay opting in haste for a career, and are likely in the end to make more rational life decisions. In an indirect sense (Jones argues) this is economically beneficial" (Behr, 1986:42).

Within S.A., there are different educational systems for the four race groups. The consequence of this is that students come to university with varying degrees of preparedness. A severe lack of preparation to deal with the complex demands of the university prevents many students from acquiring a university education. Economically then, these students occupy the lowest positions in the hierarchy of professions.

An increasing number of first-year university entrants are at present drawn from educationally and socially disadvantaged

communities. Because of the structural irregularities, these students experience differing educational systems and backgrounds. They therefore exhibit different levels of university readiness. Several studies have shown that the education preparation for university study provided by the education system for the different race groups vary (Behr, 1987:6), with a feature of black schooling being an emphasis on rote learning with little importance attached to learning (Burns, 1986:14). This has severe implications for their potential for success at tertiary level and Behr (1987) reaches the conclusion that these students are likely to need academic support, although on a steadily decreasing scale, all the way to graduation (Webb and Erwee, 1990:87).

Since the early 1980s the ethnic composition of the student population at S.A. universities has undergone a rapid change (Greyling, 1980:5). This inadequacy, inequality or lack of preparedness has resulted in growing interest in academic support activities for disadvantaged students. It has essentially become part of the affirmative action strategy which aims to uplift and transform the quality of Black education and make it more compatible with the needs of the university.

Historically, A.D.P.s have their origins in the historical crisis and repressive reform strategies of the state in the 1980s and in the desire of white liberal universities to accommodate Black students within the framework of a reform-minded university (Fisher, 1989:45). Initially, they had started out as ad-hoc

responses in the form of extra-tutorials, crash courses, language skills courses, supplementary tutorials and other forms of support activities. These activities at "White liberal universities" and also by implication, also those who staff such units have traditionally been treated with a great deal of ambivalence by the Academic Community (Mehl, 1987:17). Yet, the manner in which ADP activities have evolved in S.A. (especially at universities) is indicative of the shift in emphasis at these institutions in relation to the Black matric population. It has progressed from being a purely peripheral activity to one which is attempting to affect the very nature of universities (Beard, 1989:73).

Presently, academic development at university have been established as permanent or semi-permanent structures which supplement the mainstream courses by giving specialised, in-depth instructions in related courses and in facilitating the all-round adjustment of the student to university life. This is the position at most White liberal universities and in the historically Black universities. These tutorials are held on a weekly basis throughout the year.

Despite the sincerity and earnestness with which these activities have been established many controversies surround its so-called "need".

2.5.3 A review of debates surrounding A.D.P.

Debates surrounding the development of A.D.P. are similar to those that critique compensatory education. The following are some of the criticisms against the implementation of these intervention programmes:

Greyling (1989:6) claims that given the present growth rates in the student population the number of students from disadvantaged backgrounds will increase and this means that more students need to be accommodated in these programmes and this would increase the cost of running these programmes. This financial implication is an important one because an increase in the population growth would demand an increase in state expenditure on health services, housing, pension and infra-structure. This would leave very little money for the establishment of additional units at universities.

Greyling (1989:7) argues that the establishment of these programmes is designed in a manner that avoids changes in structures and standards which are necessary to adjust to Third World circumstances and requirements. He suggests that the content and structure of courses should be reviewed and adjusted to the needs of the Third World. He claims that enforcing First World structures and standards which have little or no relevance to the needs and circumstances in Africa and ignore the abilities of students, may only be suitable or valuable for a small elite group of students who may eventually decide to emigrate to a country where training at that level is required.

It is also claimed that A.S.P. (the term used by Scott) is an ad.hoc response and does nothing to change the surrounding conditions either in the schools below or the university above. Scott (1989:8) claims that it threatens academic standards, that it can be compared to the medical model (Beard, 1989:73) and treats only the symptoms by taking the disadvantaged Black student on a White campus and attempting to fix him up by curing the disease and thus setting him up for entry into the proper university system (Scott, 1989:8-17).

The above are serious criticisms but if put into perspective it becomes increasingly clear that the need for A.D.P. is urgent and would continue to be so. Furthermore, to claim that these programmes would not be cost-effective and beneficial is a premature speculation. Any scheme cannot be rejected if it has not been tried and tested repeatedly. Presently, there is very little to suggest that A.D.P. in its structured form has not been a success. If one proceeds with the assumption that A.D.P. plays a necessary and vital role in ensuring university success then the financial implications would somehow sort themselves out. At the expense of sounding idealistic, it would be reasonable to expect and receive financial help from the public and private sector once this need is highlighted. It is important to acknowledge that one of the main causes of the present educational crisis is not lack of finance but differential distribution of finance. These are the same policies that have been, to a large extent, responsible for creating the social conditions within which the disadvantaged student functions. The

fact that A.D.P. does nothing or very little to alter these social conditions and that it merely treats the symptoms is true. History also teaches us that these inequalities and contradictions within society do not disappear easily or quickly. In a country like S.A. the problem is compounded and prolonged. But to expect those universities that have laboured hard to gain an international reputation to adapt their curriculum to suit an increasingly Third World population is highly unlikely. Given this resistance, A.D.P. seems a viable and practical means by which to address this discontinuity between Black schooling and university. At the same time, disadvantaged students who are unable to fit into the mainstream of university activities should be accommodated by other tertiary institutions like technikons and technical colleges. This should be seen as an interim measure since legislative bodies should aim towards ensuring that the social conditions and specifically the educational system of the disadvantaged student are such that they are directed and designed towards meeting the demands of tertiary education, specifically the university. It is in this respect that academic development has to proceed beyond the confines of the university and establish links with relevant structures within Black communities with the sole aim of attacking the root causes of these learning problems, eradicating them and then improving the quality of education starting from the level of the family, community and school. It is also felt that A.D.P. threatens academic standards. But it only affects lowering of the symbol at the entry level and not at the exit level.

The role of contemporary university in relation to A.D.P. within S.A. is best described by the following remarks. "We must continue to lead in liver transformation while developing skills in combating rural malnutrition; we must design solar cooking stoves for areas far from supplies of other forms of energy while continuing to observe the quantization of magnetic flux in super conductors; we must become experts in teaching the use of English as a second language while continuing to discuss the shift from an idealistic to an eclectic approach to culture" (Hunter, 1984:3).

Although the researcher strongly argues for the case of A.D.P., the degree of its need and effectiveness will only be established at the end of the study.

2.5.4 A.D.P. at liberal universities

ASP, the term commonly used at white liberal universities, have been influenced by the fact that we are dealing with a minority of students who are battling a great deal and not only academically (Scott, 1989:14). The nature of ASP differs from institution to institution (Muthukrishna and Gangat-Patel, 1989:58). Even within the group of liberal universities (Witwatersrand, Cape Town, Natal-Pietermaritzburg and Durban and Rhodes) there are noticeable differences in ASP strategies, partly for historical reasons but very often also for some institutional character reasons (Scott, 1989:9).

ASP initiatives had initially started out as an ad.hoc response in the form of informal, non-compulsory and supplementary tutorials in language development and subject learning. The University of Witwatersrand and the University of Natal are the pioneers in the establishment of ASP activities with U.C.T. quickly realising the need for these programmes. The University of Rhodes is also sensitive to this need, because it has a very large intake of marginal white students (Scott, 1989:17). It is interesting to note that universities like Rand Afrikaans University, Orange Free State, Stellenbosch are looking at academic support initiatives because they have a very large intake of marginal white students (Scott, 1989:16).

It can be said that the University of Witwatersrand has introduced support/development activities to the terrain of university life in S.A. It is offered in the form of concurrent, supplementary, voluntary and subject-specific tutorials. The ASP unit consists of a small body of interdisciplinary and administrative core staff who are centrally located, and a large body of subject specialist tutors who are unevenly located between faculties and departments. The trend has definitely shifted from an informal, loosely structured support programme to one which is structured and formal. Although the above is the dominant forms which tutorials take, the following are a few important variables.

- (i) The English Second Language credit course which is not part of the ASP, but incorporates academic skills and takes most of its content from the theory of teaching English as a second language (particularly in the African and Third World context) (Scott, 1989:23).
- (ii) The Wits Integrated Support Programme in Engineering (WISPE) is a joint ASP and Faculty of Engineering project which is in its sixth year of existence. A large group of staff are involved in the project-subject specialists, mainstream staff, language specialists and ASP staff.
- (iii) In the Faculty of Science, students who do not get automatic entry into the Faculty are waitlisted, tested and interviewed. Successful applicants are offered a place in the four year curriculum. Students in second and third year medicine are offered places in a small group tutorial scheme which is not under the auspices of ASP and assists only by giving study skills training to tutors. In History I, ASP students are offered a place in separate mainstream tutorial groups where content is the same as other mainstream tutorials but academic, language and study skill techniques are infused into this content (Scott, 1989:24).

ASP falls under the Faculty of Education and research and evaluation are ongoing procedures.

At some of the liberal universities, especially U.C.T. and the University of Natal are also directly and indirectly associated with efforts to improve the accessibility of the university to students from disadvantaged backgrounds who have the potential to succeed but do not qualify to get into these universities on regular criteria (Scott, 1989:9).

The functioning and structure of ASP at U.C.T. and the University of Natal-Pietermaritzburg and Durban are similar to that of The University of Witwatersrand.

2.5.5 A.D.P. at historically Black universities

The historically Black universities have an ambivalent view of what we normally think of as ASP and have on occasion been distinctly hostile to the notion of ASP. It is seen as being a very limited and a limiting strategy in some instances. It is seen as condescending and as dealing only with a minority of students on campus. To a large extent these things are true (Scott, 1989:9).

Yet, these universities are becoming increasingly aware of the need for these support programmes. The very same forces that have given rise to ASP initiatives on liberal campuses, have in the end produced tremendous problems for the historically Black universities. Initiatives on some of the Black campuses designed

to deal with these fundamental problems in our system have recently been collectively characterised as academic development (AD) activities. For the purpose of this study, University of Western Cape shall be used as an example.

Oliphant (1989:34) states that AD as a separate centre or structure, does not exist at U.W.C. Currently, U.W.C. is caught in the crosswinds of changing from academic support-type activities to Ad-type activities and current academic support/development activities reflect a combination of holistic approaches and developmental or technical approaches. Current AD/ASP activities involve the use of:

- (i) remedial courses;
- (ii) study skills courses;
- (iii) peer group tutoring systems;
- (iv) staff developmental programmes;
- (v) intensive curriculum modification; and
- (vi) developing learning centred instructional paradigms.

The shift away from the concept of support to development implies a process of transformation which attempts to change the academic milieu of the university in its entirety to the learning-teaching needs of its student and staff. AD argues that while students are underprepared for university study, teaching staff are equally ill-prepared to take up their tasks as educators for the majority of Black students and that current university structures are too inflexible and insensitive to student needs. Thus, an AD model for U.W.C. would have to address student, staff and

university structures (Oliphant, 1989:34). A similar philosophy underlies the development of academic development at the University of Durban-Westville.

2.5.6 A.D.P. at the University of Durban-Westville

The University of Durban-Westville is an example of a historically Black university. Its student population most closely approximates the demographic profile of the country. Since the early 1980s failure rates have increased and is seen as the direct result of the changing student composition.

The initial attempts at curbing this problem was in the form of informal academic support activities mainly given by the Students Representative Council (S.R.C.). ASP was formally introduced in 1991 and was given in the form of subject-specific tutorials. However, the Department of Education had already introduced ASP in the form of Campus Cope in 1987 and where working independently of the Academic Support Committee. The year 1992 had seen a shift in terminology from ASP to A.D.P. These programmes embrace a wide range of study skills combined with psychological and vocational counselling. They fall under the Centre for Academic Development and are subject-specific within the Faculty of Arts, Commerce, Science and Education. It takes a variety of forms from student-centred teaching to group therapy and differs from faculty to faculty and from subject to subject. AD tutors generally possess a post-graduate qualification.



2.5.7 The general goals of A.D.P.

The general aim of any academic development or support programme is to facilitate the disadvantaged students' overall transition from school to university and therefore enable them to deal competently with the university curriculum and in meeting other demands of the university.

2.5.8 The specific goals of A.D.P.

The importance of setting specific goals in any academic development programme has, according to Sanders (1987:2) the following implications:

- (i) "by articulating policy and stating goals, better results can be achieved;
- (ii) by identifying a wide range of goals and then attempting to achieve them leads to a holistic approach to A.D.P;
- (iii) it allows the tutor/teacher to develop more effective strategies;
- (iv) helps in evaluating the programme;
- (v) promotes team-work since everyone in the programme works toward shared goals;
- (vi) provides a coherent, well-organized programme; and

- (vii) therefore present an organised image to student, staff and the public."

Goal setting is therefore important since the tutor knows in which direction he/she is moving, how to get there and know when he/she has achieved the set goal. However, Mullin and Summers (1983:33) found that "there is no generally accepted goal in compensatory education." Despite a lack of consensus of goals Sanders (1987:3-9) formulates the following goals along three dimensions, cognitive, affective and psycho-motor - these constitute the holistic development of the student. These goals are also drawn from the general goals of education outlined in 2.2.1.2 and compatible with the problems and needs of the disadvantaged student.

- (i) Goals linked to cognitive issues relate to matters concerning knowledge and include the following:
- "providing instruction in the basic academic skills essential for success in the traditional university environment;
 - improving reading and language skills of ASP (the term used by Sanders) students;
 - teach these students to take lecture notes, locate and select information, process, organize and manipulate facts once obtained and how to communicate facts and ideas effectively;
 - help ASP students develop decision-making and problem-solving skills;

- produce students who are critical thinkers, able to find and use resources, independent learners and capable of discovering things for themselves;
- teaching skills involved in writing exams;
- supervising student learning;
- ensuring that students are able to transfer the skills learned in one context to another;
- helping students recognise their academic weaknesses, by using diagnostic tests to show them when and what problems exist;
- monitoring student progress and keeping them informed about it;
- helping students understand and learn the subject matter; and
- teach them how to plan their free and study time effectively, and to become independent workers, with effective study habits."

(ii) Goals linked to affective issues related to psychological and vocational counselling. They are important in the context of A.S.P./A.D.P. since students enter university with a lack of appropriate knowledge regarding their university studies. Sanders (1987:7-8) identifies the following important goals:

- "advise students of the purpose of a university education and its relevance to career and/or life goals;

- inform A.S.P. students about the rigour and requirements of a higher education, so they can develop an accurate perception of what is required from a successful student;
- assist students in choosing a realistic and appropriate curriculum before they register;
- provide a supportive environment conducive to free discussion, and problem-solving related to obstacles that impede academic progress;
- inform students about available counselling services which advise them on where and how to obtain financial help, how to manage personal finances, where and how to obtain suitable accommodation, vocational and educational planning, personal hygiene, health and physical well-being, personal matters, personal psychological relationships, social and recreational activities, home and family relationships;
- help students gain a realistic self-appraisal of their various skills, aptitudes and interests;
- encourage them to accept the responsibility for their own success, rather than blaming others. This can develop a more responsible behaviour and social maturity;
- increase student awareness of their personal strengths and weaknesses;
- create a positive psychological climate which will foster a success orientation by boosting the students' self-confidence, self-esteem and self-image;

- help students to shift their perceptions of their needs from being content-centred to skill-centred;
- counsel students to set realistic goals in life and to decide on their priorities;
- assist students with social and emotional problems and adjustments;
- help students cope with conflict between family, cultural and peer-group expectations and those of university standards, norms and requirements;
- minimize the culture shock experienced by various minority groups at university (to reduce frustration, anxiety and lack of interest or motivation);
- help them to accept positive criticism and to learn from it;
- expose A.S.P. students to the protocols of work and let them develop and apply the appropriate skills to cope in the work place;
- help them to interpret staff attitudes more realistically;
- improve personal relationships between staff and students, and encourage A.S.P. students to contact lecturers for feedback and assistance."

(iii) Goals linked to psychomotor issues relate to subjects that require students to cope with physical, manipulative skills. A.S.P./A.D.P. should therefore aim to assist students in using equipment and tools of their subjects correctly and efficiently.

Other goals related to academic development include staff development, curriculum development, ongoing research and evaluation of these programmes and raising funds and means to ensure the survival and improvement of these programmes.

An important component to the above goals is the need to identify the "high-risk" student population. Although it is restricted to the African student population at most universities, there is a strong and urgent need to develop criteria by which to identify the "high-risk" student group. Since the goals of A.D.P. are designed towards the holistic development of the student, it becomes essential that the tutor be qualified, knowledgeable and experienced enough to deal with a multitude of problems. An important objective of A.D.P. should therefore focus on tutor-training.

2.5.9 Structure, content and methodology of A.D.P. tutorials

The first problem regarding the attendance of these programmes is who should attend. Criteria for selection differ for different subjects but the general feeling is that the weakest students attend these courses. However, attendance is not restricted to them only, other interested students are also accepted. The Department of Sociology basis its selection procedure on the marks obtained in the first Sociology test. The cut off point is $\pm 40\%$. Other departments, are less fixed and offer help to whoever wants to avail of it.

(i) **Structure of tutorials:** These tutorials are held in small groups of ±12 people. Activities range from direct teaching (student-centred) to arranging learning around a learning task. Skills are taught and integrated into the content of the course systematically throughout the year. Personal counselling and linking students to available resources are also provided. Methods used in instruction and the "curriculum" are not prescribed, fixed or rigid and there is therefore a great degree of flexibility and space for change and improvement. The contents of the curriculum are based on the assumption that the student is lacking in this area of learning.

(ii) **Content of the tutorials:** It is the researcher's intention to stress the importance of a well-defined curriculum and specific teaching methods that derive from the curriculum. Hirst (1974:132) defines a curriculum as "... a plan of activities deliberating certain educational ends or objectives." The advantages of a clearly outlined curriculum are that it promotes congruence between the material taught, the expectations/goals of the programme and students' responses to the casework. It also forms the basis upon which success or failure of the programme is defined and evaluated (Scott and Yeld, 1987:163).

Foggins (1991:37) states that a syllabus should cater not only for students' needs but also with what they want since the two are not necessarily the same thing. He outlines two kinds of syllabi - the process and procedural syllabus in relation to language learning. The process syllabus sees knowledge and understanding as more important than training. The procedural syllabus focus on meaning and problem-solving activities rather than content. The important difference is that it is learning centred rather than learner centred. Prabu (1987) as cited in Foggins (1991:38) stresses the importance of methodology rather than organization. A syllabus/curriculum for academic development should be structured in a way that it allows for a wide variation in methods.

Methods should be employed with an important fact in mind. Students who are products of the Department of Education and Training generally have a surface structure approach to studying (rote learning, inability to conceptualise and relate abstract ideas). The methods employed in academic development ought to encourage a deep structure approach to studying where the student attempts to understand the meaning of a text/lecture, engage in logical arguments using different ideas and relate new knowledge to past experience.

Adey (1987:35) is of the opinion, that in the present context, the best way to teach students is through teaching content through process. This means placing students in situations where they have to learn to think. Bligh (1972:23) as cited in Adey

(1987:35) supports the above statement by stating "... the best way to teach students how to apply their knowledge is to let them apply it." The most effective teaching method in this instance is the small group method which has the following advantages:

- (i) interaction between students is active, purposeful and therefore worthwhile;
- (ii) students become sensitive to curriculum/syllabus issues;
- (iii) they develop a basic set of criteria and values;
- (iv) they have the opportunity to adopt an experimental attitude;
- (v) they are in a position to develop peer-group support and thereby extend their support system;
- (vi) it is a method of coming to terms with new approaches;
- (vii) it provides the context for problem-solving in terms of essays and examinations; and
- (viii) it reconciles the main objectives of the student and the tutor.

Although the small group method is stressed regarding A.D.P. it would seem as if other methods (pupil-centred) could be beneficial and relevant, depending on the need and circumstances.

2.6 Attitude formation and its significance for A.D.P.

Students' attitudes towards A.D.P. will invariably determine:

- (i) the success/failure of the programme - qualitatively;

- (ii) students' academic performance - both qualitatively and quantitatively; and

- (iii) the degree of psychological and social development of the student.

It would therefore seem that the area of attitude study provided important insight into the strengths and limitations of these programmes. Sanders (1986:35) states that "... one of the least emphasized but most important issues in A.S.P. is that of student perception and attitudes." White and Bigham (1982:19) state that "... the significant factor in building a strong retention programme among college students is the area of motivation and attitude formation."

Baron and Byrne (1991:138) define attitudes as "enduring mental representations of various features of the social or physical world. They are acquired through experience and exert a directive influence on subsequent behaviour." Attitudes therefore have a cognitive and affective component to it, they reflect positive and negative feelings and reflect memories of

past experiences. They serve important functions for people who hold them by guiding behaviour toward valued goals, processing complex information about the social world and helping individuals interpret new information and thus reach decisions effectively. Attitudes are therefore an important component of social behaviour and the social world (Baron and Byrne, 1991:138). Attitudes can be acquired indirectly, via other people, through social learning or directly through personal experience.

Attitudes towards A.D.P. are likely to be formed through direct personal experiences rather than social learning. Depending on their experiences with A.D.P. students will either form positive or negative attitudes which inturn would affect their behaviour and performance.

2.7 Summary

This discussion has outlined the nature of the socialization process of the individual into the educational system with a view to identifying the effects of improper socialization on the learning process. The process is further contextualized within S.A. educational system with emphasis on Bantu education. An attempt was made to trace the causes of the high failure rate at S.A. universities. It was established that the causes of this can be ascribed to a multiplicity of factors ranging from inadequate socialization, social and cultural backgrounds, linguistic background, political background and most importantly, the ideological basis upon which the educational system, in S.A.,

is structured. A.D.P., as a form of compensatory education, have emerged at S.A. universities with the aim of improving the pass rate of Black S.A. students. Therefore, an understanding of these programmes demands that one is familiar with the nature of the different backgrounds that characterise the disadvantaged student. The area of academic development is therefore explored in detail with emphasis on goals, content and method of implementation of A.D.P. Since the focus of the study is on students' attitudes towards A.D.P., the discussion ends with some reference to the components and advantages of assessing attitudes in relation to social behaviour and academic performance.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FOR ANALYSIS

1.1 Introduction

The investigation of any social phenomenon is based on certain assumptions about the nature of the social world. As such these assumptions determine and direct the nature of the methods utilized within the research process. The current study combines both a macro and micro approach towards developing a theoretical framework for analyzing the phenomenon of A.D.P.

Academic development cannot be analysed in isolation from the broader economic, political and educational contexts that have contributed towards creating the material conditions responsible for the malsocialization of black students into the educational system (specifically universities). Therefore, an analysis of the education system in South Africa, and academic development specifically, demands that it should be located within a specific political, economic and cultural context that exposes specific forms of inequalities inherent in the system and that highlights the potential for transforming the present educational system. For this reason, the theories of Samuel Bowles and Herbert Gintis (structural Marxists) and Rachel Sharp (phenomenologist with a Marxist orientation) are utilised.

The following discussion entails some reference to the assumptions underlying the competing paradigms in social research, the motivation behind the use of triangulation in

theory and methods and the specific conflict and interpretive theories on the sociology of education.

3.2 Why competing paradigms?

The two main schools of thought that dominate social research are positivism and interpretive sociology. The former includes functional and conflict theories which are referred to as macro-theories and the latter include phenomenological, ethnomethodological and symbolic interactionist theories referred to as micro theories.

The underlying assumptions of positivism are that methods and procedures imitate those adopted by the natural sciences, that only observable phenomena are valid, that knowledge be gained by a process of induction that precludes a law like relationship between events that can be empirically established, hypotheses are derived from theory and then empirically tested or deduced thus suggesting a circular process and it is supposedly value-free, objective and neutral (Bryman, 1988:4-5).

The underlying assumptions of the interpretive approach are that knowledge is subjective and not always observable to the researcher, knowledge is personal to the actor and has to be gained by a process of interpreting the meanings that actors attach to specific situations, events and experiences, that hypotheses are derived after observing social phenomena and that there is a strong emphasis on the unique and particular rather than general universal laws (Bryman, 1988:4-8).

The philosophical debate surrounding positivist and interpretive sociological methods has prompted the investigation of alternate and viable means in attempting to explore social phenomena. Subsequently, the established macro-sociological approach has been challenged by the micro-sociological approach. Knorr-Cetina (1981:2) is of the opinion that "... there are two distinctive but interlocking developments in this regard: the move from a normative notion of social order to that of a cognitive order, and the reaction of both methodological collectivism and individualism in favour of methodological situationalism."

There are a number of merits in the use of multiple, contrasting methods. The most salient feature being that each theory and method complements the shortcomings of the other. While the social survey method is able to quantitatively present data, the qualitative method in terms of unstructured interviews, exploration around themes and observation present general verbatim points (Bryman, 1988:48). Suffice it to say that the use of competing paradigms in social research only serve to enhance and corroborate the results obtained. It is especially useful in the present study since it effectively analyses the social context within which the educational system in South Africa has evolved and it highlights the effects of the various interaction processes within the schooling system on learning. This combination of methods (triangulation) ultimately strengthens and reinforces the research findings. However, triangulation causes problems of its own and therefore demands further examination.

3.2.1 The notion of triangulation

Manion and Cohen (1980:208) state that: "Triangulation may be defined as the use of two or more methods of data collection in the study of some aspect of human behaviour ... they attempt to explain the richness and complexity of human behaviour from more than one standpoint and, in so doing, make use of both quantitative and qualitative data."

There are obvious advantages to this approach. Firstly, exclusive reliance on one method may lead to results being distorted or biased. The use of multiple methods ensures that the investigator captures all aspects of the phenomenon being studied, that is, in its richness and complexity. When different methods yield the same result the researcher's confidence is increased. Secondly, the use of triangular techniques helps to overcome the problem of "method-boundedness" (Manion and Cohen, 1988:209).

There are six types of triangulation, but for the purpose of this study only two are used. These are theoretical triangulation which draws on two or more perspectives or upon alternative or competing paradigms (conflict and interpretive theories) in preference to utilizing one viewpoint only. The second type of triangulation used is methodological which uses different methods (social survey, non-participant observation and unstructured interviews) on the same object of study (Manion and Cohen, 1988:211).

3.3 The Marxist perspective on education

The Marxist conception of society is that it is inherent with contradictions that ensue from the unequal and exploitative relationship between owners of the forces of production and the workers. The economic infrastructure therefore determines the kinds of social relationships that exist within the superstructure. Hence, the type of economy determines the nature of the education system in any society. This theory is especially relevant for the current study since it highlights the nature of the relationship between the economy and education, the state and education, that this relationship is unequal and exploitative and that it is further defined along racial lines. The main thrust of Marxist theory is its preoccupation with explaining how education maintains the status quo (Sirkhot, 1987:91).

There are various trends that can be identified within the Marxist perspective, namely, historical materialism, structural Marxists and voluntarist Marxists. Historical materialism examines the nature of the relationship between the economy and education from a historical perspective using positivist methods (Blackledge and Hunt, 1985:113-119). Structural Marxists like Bowles and Gintis (1976:114-132) and Louis Althusser (Young and Whitty, 1977:73-92) claim that the educational system in capitalist countries reflect the values of the economic system and thereby serve as a mechanism for maintaining unequal and exploitative social relationships, maintains the status quo and ultimately acts as a form of social control. They focus on the

cultural reproduction of knowledge (Apple, 1985:250). Sharp (1980) and Sharp and Green (1975) stress the degree of resistance present among school pupils.

3.3.1 The ideas of Bowles and Gintis (1976)

In their analysis of the education system Bowles and Gintis (1976:53-148) provide a critique of the education system in the United States of America and argue that education is structured in such a way that there is a high degree of correspondence between the educational system and the economic and political system. They further argue that education is a product of the capitalist economic system which is one among other institutions that serves as a mechanism not only to perpetuate and fulfill the needs of a capitalist economic system but also a mechanism that serves as a form of social control (Bowles and Gintis, 1976:54).

Bowles and Gintis (1976:114) claim that education is based on producing reserve armies of skilled labour, legitimating the technocratic-meritocratic perspective, reinforcing the stratification of workers into status groups and socializing pupils into accepting the social relationships of dominancy and subordinancy in the economic system.

3.3.1.1 The technocratic-meritocratic perspective

A central function of the education system is to integrate pupils into the economic system. This integration is based on meritocracy in that individuals are allocated to unequal economic positions based on their abilities. The education system,

therefore, does not promote equality within society but rather integrates students into the economy. The most distinctive feature of the technocratic-meritocratic system is that it simplifies a wide and complex range of social relationships in production to a few "rules of technological efficiency" (Bowles and Gintis, 1976:114).

This pattern of relating in the economic institution is actually a reflection of those relationships that exist within the education system. Schooling itself socializes students into accepting behaviour and academic standards conducive to a smooth integration into the economy. For example, qualities like perseverance, obedience, consistency, identification with authority figures, etcetera, combined with competition and ambition all militate against students choosing alternate social positions that would promote their own personal development other than those that have been created for them (Bowles and Gintis, 1976:107).

The technocratic-meritocratic perspective also reinforces the stratification of the labour force, thus ensuring economic inequality. Stratification of the labour force occurs at the level of occupational skills and social relationships (Bowles and Gintis, 1976:128).

3.3.1.2 The legitimization hypothesis

The legitimization hypothesis suggests that "... the major element in the integrative function of education is the legitimization of

pre-existing economic disparities" (Bowles and Gintis, 1976:102). This is achieved through the technocratic-meritocratic perspective.

The rationale behind the legitimation process prevents social transformation and change and is reinforced by the strong bond between education, technical skills and economic success. Daily experiences within a cognitively oriented school reconciles students to their economic positions within a technological labour hierarchy. Despite the implicit assumption that test scores and high I.Q.s lead to a higher income, Bowles and Gintis are unable to provide studies that would support this hypothesis. Rossman as cited in Bowles and Gintis (1976:108) proposes that I.Q. (a factor often associated with higher socio-economic groups) is not a significant indicator for economic success and that "... the intergenerational transmission of social and economic status operates primarily via noncognitive mechanisms..." (Bowles and Gintis, 1976:121).

Bowles and Gintis (1976:112) provide a model (see Figure 1 below) that traces individual economic success and claim that "... among individuals of similar race, age, sex, differences in income are caused by differences in adult I.Q., schooling and socio-economic background, as well as by other unmeasured differences. Socio-economic background influences income directly and indirectly through its effects both on educational attainments and on adult I.Q. Schooling influences income both directly and indirectly through its effects on adult I.Q." (Bowles and Gintis, 1976:112).

**FIGURE 1 : CAUSAL MODEL OF I.Q., SOCIO-ECONOMIC BACKGROUND,
SCHOOLING AND ECONOMIC SUCCESS**

SOURCE: S. Bowles and H. Gintis (1976:113)

The above model suggests that socio-economic background has a direct effect on adult income. Therefore, people who fall in the upper income group have a greater chance of enjoying economic success since they have the added advantages that people in the lower socio-economic groups do not have. Given that people have similar I.Q.s, similar schooling and similar adult I.Q., the only factor that can be singled out in its effects on income is socio-economic background.

3.3.1.3 The correspondence principle

The smooth transition from the educational sphere into the economic sphere is made possible through the correspondence principle which basically states that youth are integrated into the system through a structural correspondence between its social relationships and those of production. This kind of correspondence manifests itself in the following ways. The educational system cultivates in the individual student the kind of discipline required in the work place, it develops a personality that is compatible with the goals of production, the

social relationships of education replicate the hierarchical division of labour, the notion of alienation is common both in school (students lack of control over the educational process) and at work (workers lack of control over the production process) (Bowles and Gintis, 1976:131).

3.3.1.4 The role of the dominant class

The role of the dominant class is also crucial to this analysis of education. The following social relationships as cited in Bowles and Gintis (1976:126) are central to this analysis:

- (i) the patterns of dominancy and subordinancy in the production process;
- (ii) the distribution of ownership of productive resources;
 and
- (iii) the degree of social distance and solidarity among various fragments of the working population.

These social relationships are necessary to maintain a capitalist economic system and a hierarchical division of labour and therefore need to be reproduced. This reproduction depends on the reproduction of consciousness that include workers' beliefs, values, self-concepts, types of solidarity and fragmentation as well as modes of behaviour and development. Among the many institutions that reproduce this type of consciousness, education is one. Schooling reproduces consciousness by promoting the development of certain capacities, the experience of certain needs, negatively reinforcing non-compatible and non-conforming behaviour, reducing discontent over economic positions and

thereby fulfilling the needs of a highly stratified labour force (Bowles and Gintis, 1976:128).

An interesting twist to this analysis of education under capitalism is that its theoretical framework is quite applicable to the study of socialist educational systems since there is a strong influence of the state on education within the U.S.S.R., an educational system that is the result of manpower planning. This correspondence principle was also evident in the revolutionary socialist society like Cuba where changes in the educational policy were the result of changes in production strategies (Karabel and Halsey, 1979:40).

From the above exposition it can be argued that Bowles and Gintis (1976) have established the causal importance of the economic structure in determining the educational structure; that the purpose of education is to reproduce labour power and consciousness compatible with the needs of a capitalist economic system; that education reproduces through the correspondence principle and that the main force behind this reproduction is the capitalist economic system. Although Bowles and Gintis (1976) did not prove the hypothesis that education legitimates the class system, it has not been disproved either. They conclude that economic success is determined by social class background and not by ability or I.Q. (Bowles and Gintis, 1976:53-148).

3.3.1.5 The Marxist perspective on compensatory education

Bowles and Gintis (1976:6-7) argue that the failure of compensatory educational programmes should not be attributed to low I.Q. among the poor (genetic structure) or to the attitudes time perspectives, family patterns and values of the poor but to the economic system that ensures that people have unequal access to resources. They further suggest increasing the income of the poor would have achieved more equalization than the compensatory educational programmes. They propose that economic inequality is the result of social class differences and not inherited I.Q.

Although there is a lack of evidence regarding the success or failure of A.D.P., one could draw a parallel between this perspective and academic development and claim that the poor academic performance among disadvantaged students is the result of unequal access to resources and not to genetic, family and cultural factors. One could further argue that changes in the social condition and equal access to economic resources would accomplish far-reaching educational changes than ad-hoc, compensatory educational programmes like A.D.P.

3.3.1.6 An application of the ideas of Bowles and Gintis (1976)

The politically determined educational system in S.A. reflects the values of a capitalist economic system which is based on the ideology of apartheid which is further based on a technocratic-meritocratic perspective.

Social classes have been racially (Black-White) and economically (upper socio-economic-lower socio-economic groups) defined. The education system in S.A. has been designed in such a way that it produces a large number of skilled (mainly White) and semi-skilled manual (mainly Black) workers who have no control over the production process - thus fulfilling the first aim of capitalist education.

People are allocated unequal economic positions on the basis of race and social background. Whites are more likely to occupy white-collar professions and be upwardly mobile whereas Blacks are bound to occupy blue-collar jobs and remain at a lower socio-economic position. This does not mean that Whites do not occupy blue-collar jobs. The type of education that the different race groups receive is determined by the state and pupils are trained, both cognitively and non-cognitively, to accept their specific occupational roles in the economic hierarchy - thus fulfilling the second aim of capitalist education of legitimating the technocratic-meritocratic perspective.

This allocation of roles stratifies the labour force into status groups thereby fulfilling the third aim of education. Most S.A. schools endorse relationships of dominancy and subordinancy between pupils and authority figures thereby fulfilling the fourth aim of capitalist education.

The education system is also supposed to reproduce a different kind of consciousness, a consciousness based on the ideology of

apartheid. The motivation behind this is that the different race groups would unquestioningly accept their allocated occupational roles thereby ensuring that a pattern of dominance and subordinancy and hence a hierarchical division of labour is maintained, that the owners of the means of production have full access to and control over the production process and that a smooth transition from school to work is facilitated.

Since Bantu education has been created with the aim of producing semi-skilled and manual workers (Samuel, 1990:21-25), products of this system of education are bound to experience learning problems at university. Their socio-economic background, inadequate schooling and race are factors which would militate against their need to succeed economically. In this regard, the hypothesis by Bowles and Gintis (1976:148) that economic success is determined by social class background and not by ability or I.Q. holds true.

The aim of academic development is to adapt the disadvantaged student into the mainstream of academic university life. As such, it forms one component of the larger educational system that serves to maintain the status quo. The basis of academic development is that the economy cannot afford a high failure rate. Therefore, it is one attempt of ensuring a smooth integration from university to work.

3.4 The interpretive perspective on education

The interpretive perspective on education differs from the conflict perspective in that it is a micro theory that focuses on small scale interaction and contains an element of subjectivity. It provides an alternate view to the study of education and is based on the following basic assumptions as cited in Haralambos (1992:14-17).

- (i) The basic unit of analysis is the daily interaction of people since it is upon this interaction that society is created.
- (ii) In order to understand this interaction process one needs to understand and interpret the meanings that actors give to their behaviour. Meanings are constructed from culture and society and thus personal to the actor.
- (iii) Despite the imposing nature of society actors are free to develop, create and modify their activities and meanings. These meanings are dynamic and changing.
- (iv) Typifications (Berger and Luckmann, 1967:45) and categories of activities (Meltzer, Petras and Reynolds, 1975:58) enable one to interpret the behaviour of actors.

- (v) Meanings are changed through a process of negotiation which leads to shared understanding of the way in which actors define a situation.

The main difficulty of this theory lies in its methodology in that it could introduce observer bias. An observer/researcher could easily misinterpret behaviour or allow his/her judgements to be affected by his/her own personal views. To avoid this, it is important to isolate one's personal views, typifications and assumptions. Woods (1983:17) suggests that: "Rigorous procedures have now been devised for such work, to distinguish it as social science from purely intuitive and casual observation."

As with conflict theory, interpretive approaches have a number of variations on a common theme. This perspective can be divided into the interactionist, phenomenological and ethnomethodological perspectives.

The interactionist focuses on the interaction between teacher and pupils and suggest that this relationship is in a state of conflict (Woods, 1983:124-125) since both teacher and pupil want to achieve different goals. The definition of the situation is continuously negotiated and hence there is never total domination. The phenomenologist focuses on the process by which an actor interprets the behaviour of others and gets to 'know' them. Interpretation is facilitated by using a set of categories (Meltzer, Petras and Reynolds, 1975:58). An important way of

understanding an actor's definition of the situation is to analyse the taken-for-granted language and its implicit meanings (Blackledge and Hunt, 1985:277). The ethnomethodologist focuses on the procedures and processes that actors use in order to understand the world.

3.4.1 Symbolic interaction and phenomenology

Both symbolic interactionism and phenomenology share much common ground (Sirkhot, 1987:91) and are therefore discussed in some detail. Symbolic interactionist theory draws heavily on the work and ideas of G.H. Mead, W.I. Thomas, Horton Cooley, Herbert Blumer and others. It also has a close link with social psychology. Sociological theories of education have, in recent years, experienced a shift in emphasis from the notion of deterministic, all embracing forces within education to one of small scale interaction patterns within the classroom that incorporates the use of concepts such as self, role, definition of the situation, perception, experiences, meanings, etcetera. Symbolic interactionists like Hargreaves (1972:21) focus on analyzing the interaction between teacher and pupil in the classroom, Hammersley as cited in Blackledge and Hunt (1985:255) focus on the teacher's perspective in terms of a typology and Woods (1983) focuses on the nature of the interaction process between the teacher and pupil. At the heart of the above theories is the nature of the interaction process between the pupil and teacher and the effects of this on the education system. Sharp's (1980) analysis of the education system is a combination of both deterministic (mainly Marxist) and

voluntaristic (mainly phenomenological) perspectives.

3.4.2 The ideas of Sharp (1980)

While Sharp (1980:163) contends that it is naive to assume that education can bring about any major progressive change there is still the possibility for human freedom to exercise its creativity in bringing about change. However, these internal forces within man are in a process of continuous negotiation with society (external force) which ultimately guides, shapes and controls human behaviour Sharp and Green as cited in Blackledge and Hunt (1985:142).

Sharp (1980:116-158) provides an extensive analysis of the social structure by formulating a theory of education that focuses on the theory of ideology. Ideology "... is a concept that neither structural functionalism nor the new sociology of education (interpretive) utilizes" (Sharp, 1980:9). Central to this theoretical and political analysis of the relationship between schooling and ideology are the concepts access, content and control (Sharp, 1980:116). The following categories of analysis are utilized for the current study.

3.4.2.1 Control over education

The basic assumption that Sharp (1980:17) proceeds from is that "... state education reflects a resolution of the question of control over the schools in favour of the dominant classes... This form of control is exercised by a variety of means... which is further facilitated by the fact that mass schooling has taken

the form of education in specialized institutions of children, separated from the world of work and other adults, many of whom are thought to be incapable of exercising an appropriate educational influence on the young. As a result there is an inbuilt bias in the ideological content of education towards the reproduction of hegemonic meanings and practices."

Sharp (1980:120-121) further claims that the persistence of maintaining middle-class control over schooling is manifested in the attempts of educationists to create a type of education for the culturally deprived or socially disadvantaged. Since a highly politicized working class is seen as a threat to a social organization based on private ownership of production, the bourgeoisie sees it fit to control the schooling of the children of the working class. This form of social control is ideologically disguised (in the content of the curriculum) and is necessary for maintaining the basis of the social order, the institution of property and the private accumulation of capital.

3.4.2.2 Content of education

The concept of education is such that there is an incompatibility between knowledge learnt in school and knowledge demanded at the work place. Sharp (1980:128) contends that the majority of the labour force are not engaged in occupations where high level skill and scientific knowledge is called for. Even for those who obtain a higher form of education possess qualifications which bear little relevance for their occupations. This is so because the specific range of occupations, their differentiations and

hierarchies are determined outside the educational system in the organization of the production process. Education facilitates the differentiation of the workforce by producing distinctions on the grounds of ability, race and sex. In this regard, Sharp (1980:128) differs from Bowles and Gintis (1976) and claims that the transition between school and work is not a smooth one. This is evident in the high level of unemployment among school leavers. Despite this, the school's role in reproducing labour remains unchanged.

The political content in the curriculum also remains obscured and if it is studied it remains reconstituted as parts of civics or social science studies. This links up to the notion of the hidden curriculum which Sharp (1980:127) maintains "... is a necessary aspect of capitalist relations that cannot be wished away by a utopian commitment to deschooling."

3.4.2.3 Practical ideology and schooling

A significant feature of capitalist education is its ability to secure the above mentioned conditions. This is achieved via a kind of practical ideology that:

- (i) Consciously and subconsciously transmits to students material practices necessary for capitalist work processes.

- (ii) Instilling obedient and disciplined habits in the student. This is required for a highly organized workforce.

- (iii) Stratifies the social relationships of schooling reflective of a class stratified society.

This kind of practical ideology is further legitimated by the pivotal role of the teacher who has the ultimate power to define, structure and regulate the pupil's schooling. This is made possible through the teacher's control over classroom norms, regulations, grading and classification system. These social relations in the classroom are reproduced at a higher level in the social organization of the school. Furthermore, the division of manual and mental labour in school reflects those of the production process and is achieved by separating thinking and doing and promoting individualism and equality of opportunity. This forms the justification for allocating pupils in a social hierarchy based on differential competencies, motivation and aptitudes. Regardless of how democratic or permissive a teacher is, the educational work is carried out individually rather than collectively - another reflection of the capitalist production process (Sharp, 1980:129).

3.4.2.4 Theoretical ideology and schooling

Sharp (1980:153) explores the nature of the relationship between theoretical ideology and the content of schooling and stresses the need to explore the curriculum historically and politically within the framework of class relationships. The logic behind this is that only a historical or materialist analysis can reveal the ideological content of the curriculum. Ideological content bears on the incorporation of new subjects into the curriculum

that "... is based on the capital accumulation process and the changing alignment of class forces" (Sharp, 1980:151). An example of this is the incorporation of science subjects in the nineteenth century in Britain. This was a vital precondition for those who controlled the production process based on industrial and technological development.

3.4.2.5 The ideology of language and schooling

Language is viewed as an important aspect of the ideological process of schooling. Sharp (1980:143) rejects the notion of working class language deficit as elaborated by Bernstein (1971b, 1973, 1975, 1977). Sharp (1980:143) claims "... that a focus for a theory of language in schools must be on the functioning of schools within a system of class relationships which are founded in the social relationship of production outside the classroom. A cultural relativistic approach to language tends to obscure the relationship between the dominant and subordinate classes and the processes of hegemonic practice which is realized, at least partly, through language."

Sharp (1980:143) also claims that an assessment of language deficiencies based on a theory of cultural differences tends to naively idealise the means or potential for achieving equality of opportunity and removing the hierarchical stratification in society for those who do not speak a standard dialect of English.

Although Stubbs (1976) as cited in Sharp (1980:145) claims that there is no evidence that the superficial aspects of language

(accent, grammatical differences between standard and non-standard dialects and the proportion of grammatically complex sentences) a speaker uses are related to thought processes, Sharp (1980:145) claims that "... it is necessary that a Marxist theory of language and ideology make judgements about the adequacy of one's thought, otherwise the grounds for Marxism itself and its epistemological validity disappear." The effects of language proficiency on cognitive development are therefore acknowledged as an important component of academic success.

3.4.2.6 Patterns of opposition to schooling

Although the ideological role of the school implies that the school pupil is oversocialized and completely ideologised responding to forces beyond his/her control, Sharp (1980:132-133) contends that this is not always the case. Schools "... do produce and reproduce distinctive patterns of opposition to different forms of incorporation. Culture clashes are bound to occur when working class pupils who are exposed to different cognitive assumptions, values, accents or language are subordinated to middle-class culture via middle class teachers imposing their own conception of the good and the true on their pupils who have been differently socialized."

Working class children confront and deal with the denial of educational opportunity via the labelling process and by engaging in alternating work situations. By distancing themselves from the dominant school culture they further perpetuate and reinforce the ideological reproduction of capitalist reproduction (Sharp,

1980:137).

3.4.2.7 Education at the micro level

Sharp (1980:164-166) focuses on the way in which transformation can be achieved within the confines of the school. Since all education is political, transformation of schooling practices should be aimed at exposing the contradiction inherent within capitalist systems and at emphasizing the futility of the solutions that capitalist institutions offer for the problems of our time. Despite the external constraints placed on the functioning of schools, Sharp (1980:164) maintains that, "... some autonomy at the local level for schools and staff is possible." In this regard, struggles within the classroom should centre around the following issues.

(i) The relationship between teachers and those who hold power which affects them at the micro level

Sharp (1980:164) is of the opinion that teachers should fight for the democratization of the decision making procedure with a view to gaining control over the appointment of teaching staff, the content of the curriculum and the styles of teaching. However, this incorporation into the decision-making process could mean participating in the conditions of domination.

(ii) The teacher-pupil relationship

Sharp (1980:165) argues that the practice that structures teacher-pupil relationships should be such that the relationship between teacher and pupil should be opened up without undermining the authority of the knowledge that the teacher possesses and without undermining the responsibility that flows from this knowledge to those who lack it. Pupils should be given the authority to partake in decision making affecting them - although on a limited scale.

In the classroom, teachers should be prepared to present their views, regardless of political differences and have them examined by pupils. In cases where an opinion is not already formed teachers should admit this lack of understanding. This forms the first step towards a genuine educative relationship (Sharp, 1980:167).

(iii) The control over the curriculum

One aspect of the struggles within schools concern the question of the curriculum. Sharp (1980:165) argues that the nature of the curriculum in capitalist societies is such that it obscures the ideological content of educational knowledge. This makes it difficult to penetrate any form of educational bias

and thus realise its emancipatory potential.

In order to achieve a progressive policy regarding the curriculum it is necessary to break down the arbitrary barriers that separate the different, specialized subjects. This progressive policy should aim at exposing the inability of capitalist schooling to solve the problems of the world. This policy should be based on an in-depth analysis of subjects informed by historical materialism - since it is seen as a superior mode of analysis (Sharp, 1980:167).

Part of the process of transforming the curriculum is team teaching. This is important since it brings teachers together in a context where those who have achieved this kind of theoretical synthesis are given the opportunity to debate (with their colleagues) and thus enlighten them on the weaknesses of capitalist schooling and the merits of adopting a progressive policy towards education (Sharp, 1980:166).

Attempts made at changing the curriculum will depend on the combined analysis of the wider social forces and the specific characteristics of each school or educational institution. Therefore, "... at one time a purely defensive policy might be called for, at others an offensive strategy. It depends upon the balance of forces at both the macro and micro levels" (Sharp, 1980:166). Forces that need to articulate in order to achieve a schooling system based on socialist ideals are peoples' collective will and the objective conditions. This struggle for

hegemony takes place within and beyond the context of schooling.

3.4.2.8 An application of the ideas of Sharp (1980)

Against the background of the above theory, the historical development of education in South Africa can be located within a political and economic context. The micro-processes that occur within the context of Black schooling are reflective of the structural inequalities of the larger system. Teachers inability to promote learning stem from a lack of resources which include lack of classrooms and schools, overcrowded classrooms, underqualified teachers and lack of proper teaching facilities like desks, chairs and tables.

Access to formal schooling in South Africa is differentially based on race and class. The ideology behind education in South Africa is apartheid and capitalism. The ideology behind academic development is the affirmative action policy. A policy, from the Marxist perspective, that is fraught with its own contradictions since it attempts to treat the symptoms of a social problem that is the direct result of an unequal economic and education system.

The state also has direct and indirect control of the schooling system and the content of the curriculum in Black schools and the curriculum is prescribed by the state. This curriculum lacks any form of knowledge that touches upon political issues and a hidden curriculum had to some extent ensured that Black schooling remained underdeveloped. However, the resistance among apartheid education and the present crisis in Black education reveals that

oppositional forces to this form of education have emerged and that they possess the autonomy and collective will to challenge the present educational system.

Since Bantu education does not equip African students in their attempts to succeed at university, failure would only reinforce negative feelings of self-worth which would then alienate them from the dominant culture and thereby maintain the unequal relations of production.

An analysis of language in South African schools and universities can easily be located within the nature of class relationships. Afrikaans and English are the languages of the ruling class and capitalists respectively. A substantial area of academic performance is based on the proficiency of either one or both languages. At historically White universities, there is an exclusive reliance on either one of the languages. For most Black students English and Afrikaans are their second languages. Even at work, the medium used by employer and employee is either English or Afrikaans. Therefore, any attempt to analyse intellectual ability should take into account pupils' linguistic background embedded in the matrix of social class relationships.

The high failure rate among first year Black university students demanded some kind of intervention programme that would address this problem. Academic development had therefore emerged to fill in this gap. It contains both a historical and political component since it was necessary at this historical moment not

only to improve the pass rate of Black students but also to create a progressive image of the university which depicts movement toward social transformation.

Within the confines of small group learning like A.D.P., the interaction between the tutor and students are determined by external factors such as access to resources (knowledge, expertise and the student's means and abilities) and by internal factors such as motivation and the students' need to succeed and overcome negative feelings of self-worth. Other external factors that influence this relationship are the tutors' and students' cultural backgrounds. Although the tutor defines the relationship with students, it is not fixed, and can be negotiated with students. Students therefore have the freedom to partake in decisions affecting the content of the curriculum and style of teaching. These decisions are structured and restructured depending on the specific needs.

Transformation of the university curriculum in this part of the world has been an issue that has been receiving much attention in light of the fact that there is a high failure rate among Black student. A central question is the relevance of the university curriculum to the needs of a Third World population (Totemeyer, 1987:53). In this regard, the views of Sharp provide useful insights into the manner and process of transforming the university curriculum. The goal of this would be to reconcile the curriculum with the economic needs of a Third World country - in other words Africanize the curriculum.

3.5 The compatibility between the theories of Bowles and Gintis (1976) and Sharp (1980)

Although Bowles and Gintis (1976) provide important insights into the role of education in capitalist societies they tend to overemphasize the determining effects of the economy on the content of education. Teachers and pupils are viewed as passive recipients of capitalist schooling with no capacity for change or transformation. The current crisis in South African education shows that education is not a static process, that it has the potential to change and challenge the existing system and that it can prove to be an important vehicle for social transformation.

While Bowles and Gintis (1976) stress on economic determinism, Sharp (1980:163), a phenomenological Marxist, rejects the notion of the deterministic reproduction of the relations of production by the education system, rejects the notion that subjects can never escape from ideology and claims that despite the domination of social classes over the forms of schooling there is still a possibility for transforming education.

Both conflict and interpretive perspectives have limitations regarding their analysis of education. These limitations stem from the theories' inability to incorporate all aspects of the education system (both objective and subjective) as well as reconciling the interaction process (micro) with the wider societal structures. Sharp and Green as cited in Blackledge and Hunt (1985:251) are of the opinion that since actors are limited

in their abilities to adopt definitions the views of W.I. Thomas fall short of explaining teacher-pupil interaction. They propose that the sociological study of education needs to develop a Marxist direction.

Given the above limitations the structural theory of Bowles and Gintis (1976) and the phenomenological theory of Sharp (1980) have been combined. This combination of theories share the same basic assumptions (Marxist), include the objective and subjective reality of education and highlights the deterministic as well as the voluntaristic elements inherent in the education system. The combination is especially relevant in the present study since the micro processes of education in South Africa can only be appreciated against the backdrop of the political and economic system.

3.6 Summary

The conceptual framework for analysing A.D.P. is a combination of the ideas of Bowles and Gintis (structural Marxist) and Sharp (phenomenologist with a Marxist orientation). Both theories stress the importance of the political system in its determination to control the education system.

Bowles and Gintis (1976) argue that the main aim of education is the cultural reproduction of knowledge within a capitalist economic system. In essence the social relationships of schooling reflect the hierarchically differentiated social relationships in the workforce. This is legitimated by the

technocratic-meritocratic perspective. They also claim that the failure of compensatory educational programmes should be attributed to differential access to resources and not to a genetically determined low I.Q. among the poor. They conclude that social income is based on social class and not on inherited I.Q. The role of education in South Africa is a testimony to this theory.

Sharp (1980) uses the concept of ideology to illustrate the influence of the state on differential access to schooling and its control over the content of the school curriculum in favour of the dominant classes. Compensatory educational programmes are seen as a device created by the middle class to control and adapt the education of the working class. This form of social control is maintained through an ideologically disguised curriculum. Both practical ideology (the teacher's role in the classroom) and theoretical ideology (content of schooling) are seen as attempts to perpetuate the social class differences that are founded in the social relationships of production. Academic development programmes are examples of attempts to control the production process. Differences in language proficiency should be seen as the result of social class differences and not on cultural differences. Alienation is also the result of constant failure among working class children.

Despite the external constraints placed on the schooling system, Sharp (1980) is of the opinion that the context of the classroom should form the arena for the various struggles (between the

teacher and policymakers and between the teacher and pupils) that revolve around the issue of transforming the curriculum and democratizing the educational process. The aim of this transformation should be to highlight the contradictions inherent in the capitalist education system and thereby make it more egalitarian and relevant. Changes in Bantu education are examples of the potential for change and transformation.

Triangulation in theory (and also in method - to be discussed in Chapter Four) is seen to serve the needs of the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

METHODOLOGICAL ORIENTATION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter attempts to outline steps taken in the research procedure, selection of the sample and the methods employed to obtain empirical data. Theory as Bailey (1987:39) puts it attempts to explain a particular social phenomenon and must be testable. Theories are embedded within specific social contexts and form the basis upon which research is carried out. The relationship between theory and research is dialectical - one informs the other. In the current study the theoretical framework that is applied is a combination of the ideas of Bowles and Gintis (structural Marxist perspective) and Sharp (phenomenological perspective). Within this framework the researcher aims to investigate the attitudes of students towards A.D.P.

4.2 Dimensions of social science research

Mouton and Marais (1990:7) state that, "... social science research is a collaborative human activity in which social reality is studied objectively with the aim of gaining a valid understanding of it." The following dimensions, within this definition can be highlighted.

- (i) The sociological dimension:** Scientific research is a collaborative activity

- (ii) **The ontological dimension:** Research in the social sciences is always directed at an aspect or aspects of social reality.
- (iii) **The teleological dimension:** As a human activity, research in the social sciences is intentional and goal directed, its main aim being the understanding of phenomena.
- (iv) **The epistemological dimension:** Its aim should be to provide valid and reliable understanding of reality.
- (v) **The methodological dimension:** Research in the social sciences may be regarded as objective by virtue of it being critical, balanced, unbiased, systematic and controllable."

The present study embraces the above-mentioned dimensions since academic development is viewed as a human activity, a product of an ongoing and complex social world, it is directed at investigating students' attitudes towards A.D.P., steps in the research process have been intentional with the aim of providing reliable and valid information and measures were taken to ensure that the findings have been objective. These five dimensions constitute one and the same process. Its unity precedes and determines the research act.

4.3 Procedure used in the gathering of data

The following procedure has been crucial to the systematic investigation of the subject under study. The steps taken have served to ensure that information had been obtained in a coherent and logical manner.

4.3.1 Review of relevant literature

This is the most vital and elementary stage in any research process which is actually a summary, analysis and interpretation of the theoretical, conceptual and research literature. Anderson (1990:97) states that "... successful research is based on all the knowledge, thinking and research that precedes it, and for this reason a review of the literature is an essential step in the process of understanding a research study."

The first step was, therefore, to review the relevant literature regarding A.D.P. and this enabled the researcher to gain a better understanding of the subject under study and formulate tentative hypotheses. The literature study provided the theoretical basis upon which the empirical study and hence the interview schedule, thematic questions and non-participant observation was constructed.

4.3.2 Consultation with authoritative sources

Academic development is a fairly new phenomenon at S.A. universities. There are therefore many unexplored areas of academic development that could impact on the functioning of these programmes. It is also a controversial and inadequately

explored area. It was therefore felt that the views of experts and various staff members at the University of Durban-Westville would provide greater insight into the nature of this programme. Among those who were interviewed were Dr Paul Beard (Head of the Centre for Academic Development) whose initial comments served to direct the course of the study, Mr Christopher Foggins (the Arts Faculty Co-ordinator for A.D.P.), various Heads of Department in the Faculty of Arts and various other academic development tutors. The information gained from these people enabled the researcher to ascertain crucial areas of concern regarding A.D.P. Among those that were noted, the following can be identified as lacking. They are students' perceptions of A.D.P., an evaluation of these programmes and a need to improve these programmes.

The above interviews were based on formal and informal open-ended questions. They were designed in a way that would permit respondents to answer questions without reservations and from their own personal frame of reference.

4.3.3 Methods of data collection

Both quantitative and qualitative methods have been combined for the purpose of collecting data. This is known as triangulation. Quantitative methods include the use of an attitude scale (the Likert Scale) and qualitative methods include the use of informal interviews, thematic questions and non-participant observation.

The advantages of triangulating methods in research are that it provides a complete account of the subject under study and it serves to complement and support the various results obtained from the use of different methods.

The following methods of data collection proved to be the most useful for the current study.

4.3.3.1 Informal interviews

This constituted the first stage of the data collection process as outlined in 4.3.2.

4.3.3.2 Non-participant observation

The researcher used non-participant observation in order to familiarise herself with the empirical and theoretical aspects of the study. This method of data collection is not amenable to many researchers because of the nature of their studies. However, the researcher was in a fortunate position to utilize this method. This observation was carried out for ±18 months starting from March 1991 through to September 1992, on an informal and casual basis. During the academic year 1991, Mrs S. Singh, the academic development tutor for Sociology I, permitted the researcher to sit in on some of her tutorials. In 1992, observations were carried out in the capacity of a tutor and researcher. These observations were then compared with the students' attitudes towards A.D.P. By observing the physical aspects of A.D.P. it is possible to draw inferences about students' attitudes - though it could be subjective.

There are obvious advantages to observation. These include obtaining direct and first-hand information, observing student-student and student-tutor interaction in a natural setting, observing teaching methods used and observing student attendance. However, this method can also bias group behaviour (Webb et al, 1969:113). Bailey (1987:244) suggests that one way of overcoming this problem is by covertly observing people in their natural setting. Although the initial observations (in 1991) were overt, the group of students on whom the questionnaires were administered were covertly observed. These students knew the researcher in the capacity of a tutor and were unaware that their behaviour and performance were being recorded for research purposes.

4.3.3.3 The interview schedule

The interview is the most widely used method of data collection in educational research. It has been selected as one of the most suitable methods of collecting data for the present study. It is about the most objective method of data collection since standardized sets of statements and response categories allow for objectivity. The nature of the questions asked also allow for respondents to provide an answer of their choice. This method is inexpensive and allows anonymity which encourages frankness and honesty (Mitchell and Jolley, 1988:289). These interview schedules are also straightforward and easy to understand.

In the current study the questionnaires were administered by the researcher and filled out in the presence of the researcher by

the respondents. The advantages of an investigator administered questionnaire are that many subjects can be interviewed at the same time and in a wide range of time and places (Mitchell and Jolley, 1988:189). The investigator is also in a position to clarify questions for respondents, his/her presence encourages subjects to respond and therefore have a higher response rate. The disadvantage is that the researcher's presence may reduce perceived anonymity and thus affect honest responses. In order to overcome this problem the following aspects were emphasized to students. These include the importance of being frank, the importance of the study and the anonymity and protection of their identities.

Statements and questions in the interview schedule were drawn from the literature study in terms of various categories and related to the theoretical framework. The questionnaire was divided into four sections. Section A contains the students' biographical details, Section B contains statements and questions that assess students attitudes (quantitative), Section C contains specific questions that explore around important themes (qualitative) and Section D is a recording of the researcher's observations.

An attitude is implicit (within the individual) and acts as a cue in that an attitude held by a person will cause that person to behave selectively (Anderson, Ball et al, 1976:32). Attitudes therefore have an evaluative property in that it contains a positive element (liking) or a negative element (disliking).

Among the many scaling techniques used to assess attitudes, the Likert scale is utilised for the current study. This scale contains five response categories that indicate various strengths of agreement or disagreement. These categories are assigned scores (from one to five) and the respondent's attitude is measured by his/her total score. The total score is the sum of the scores of the categories that the respondent has endorsed for each of the items. This scale is also known as a summated rating scale.

The Likert scale has been used for the current study because it has an evaluative component. It is therefore possible to assess the kinds of meanings that students attach to A.D.P. The Likert scale seems to have a higher reliability than Thurstone scales of the same length, it appears to be a reasonable ordinal scale, it is simpler to construct and is likely to be more reliable than a Thurstone scale (Moser, 1977:364-365).

Section C of the questionnaire consists of questions that explore around specific themes that are of a qualitative nature. For the present study, these questions are useful in dealing with complex issues, they tend to focus on important areas that the researcher may have overlooked and they allow the respondent to deal with problems in detail and hence complete the questionnaire adequately. The disadvantage, in terms of analysis, is that coding tends to be difficult. One way of overcoming this is to use a content analysis scheme (Mitchell and Jolley, 1988:294). This was used for the current study. All the responses were

recorded separately on data sheets. Common responses were summed and then categorised.

The interview schedule was adapted in the following way. Section A consists of students' biographical details that are drawn from the literature study and include variables like age, gender, students' academic background, students' linguistic background, students' present living circumstances, academic background of students' parents, socio-economic status of students' parents, the type of family house occupied, the number of tutorials attended on either a voluntary or referred basis.

The above information forms a crucial component of the study since it allows the researcher to test the hypothesis and draw correlations between the various backgrounds of the disadvantaged student as mentioned in the literature study and as outlined in the questionnaire.

Section B consists of the quantitative aspect of the study and includes the use of the Likert scale. Questions are drawn from the literature study in terms of the following important categories.

(i) The various backgrounds of the disadvantaged student:

There are various educational and learning problems that emerge as a result of the students' social, economic and family background. They form the source from which the goals of academic development are

derived. Therefore, questions related to this aspect reveal the extent to which A.D.P. has been able to meet the needs of disadvantaged students. Questions 1.4, 2, 5, 8 and 9 are drawn from this section.

- (ii) **The linguistic background of the disadvantaged student:** Language affects ability to conceptualize. Ability to use the English language affect students' performance at the University of Durban-Westville. Again, the researcher aims to investigate the degree to which A.D.P. met the needs of the linguistically different student. Questions 1.5, 1.6 and 1.9 are related to this section.
- (iii) **The goals of A.D.P.:** There are various important areas within A.D.P. that need to be evaluated. These include specific goals of A.D.P., the content of the programme, the methods used, the need of this programme and the extent of this need, its ability to facilitate students' adjustment to the demands of the university and course and its ultimate effects on student performance. Questions 1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 1.7, 1.8, 1.10, 3, 4, 6, 7 and 9 are drawn from this category.

Section C consists of questions that explore around specific important themes in academic development. This is an integral part of the interview schedule since it would allow the student

to explore certain areas in detail and thus reflect on his/her attitude towards A.D.P., provide insight into the weaknesses and strengths of the programme and provide suggestions with regard to improving the programme. The important themes include:

- (i) **The role of the tutor:** The only form of contact with the course is the tutor. The tutor not only acts as a guide but also as a role model. In this light, attitudes that students form will be largely influenced by the tutors' activities. Question one relates to this theme.

- (ii) **The link between the course and academic development tutorials:** There is a need to investigate whether students' attitudes are affected by the nature of the relationship between academic development and the subject. From the researcher's observations, many academic development students expect the subject to be retaught. However, this is not always the goal of A.D.P. since the focus is on teaching skills. An incompatibility between the goals of A.D.P. and students' expectations could serve to alienate the students from the course. Question two relates to this theme.

- (iii) **The method of implementation of A.D.P.:** There is a strong need to investigate students' perceptions of the group-centred approach as in teaching and peer participation and the student-centred approach as in

consultation. Question three relates to this theme.

(iv) **Exploring other needs that have been overlooked:** This question would allow the researcher to identify important areas that have been overlooked in the questionnaire and that bear relevance on the improvement of the programme. Question four relates to this theme.

(v) **Investigating students' views on alternate forms of compensatory educational programmes:** The importance of this question is that it allows one to identify alternate means to compensate for losses experienced at school. Question five relates to this theme.

(vi) **Other comments:** This question has been designed to include other important aspects that would aid towards improving the programme. Question six relates to this theme.

Section D contains a recording of the researcher's non-participant observation of A.D.P. These observations are supposed to yield information that would help policy makers and others improve the nature of A.D.P. They revolve around the following issues, student motivation, tutor-training, selection of tutors, curriculum development, evaluation of A.D.P., starting A.D.P. earlier in the year, improving the relationship between the tutor and departmental staff, staff development and the

employment of tutors.

The level of validity and reliability of any interview schedule has obvious implications for the results of the study. Despite the researcher's attempts to minimize errors, Bailey (1987:207) suggests that there are a number of ways in which an error can introduce itself. Respondents may answer in a socially desirable and inaccurate way, be ashamed to admit that they do not know the answer and may be able to answer questions related to recent events and forget past events. These errors affect the validity of the study and results cannot be seen as a true reflection of respondents' attitudes. An analysis of the questionnaires revealed that all respondents responded adequately to all the questions.

Attitude assessment can also be bigoted in that respondents may answer favourably but behave in a totally different way. This results in biased data collection. This problem was counteracted in two ways. One way was the introduction of qualitative questions that would support the quantitative questions and the other was non-participant observation of student interaction in a natural setting. Despite these limitations, Mantzaris as cited in Nair (1987:70) claims that many researchers have used different methods and arrived at much the same conclusions.

4.3.3.4 The pilot study:

The aim of the pilot study is to correct any ambiguities, discrepancies and unclear sentences. It is done before the

interview schedule is administered to the sample in the form of a pre-test of the interview schedule. This is a necessary and vital step in the research process.

The pilot study consisted of a total of ten interviews and respondents were randomly selected from the academic development class for Sociology I. Respondents were briefed on the purpose of the study where the scientific nature of the study, its academic relevance and confidentiality were emphasized. This resulted in a 100% response rate. The pilot study revealed that questions were clearly understood and that there were no ambiguities and inconsistencies.

4.4 Sampling procedure

4.4.1 Objective

The objective of the sampling procedure was to ensure that a purposive sample of academic development students was included in the study. Since the entire population of Sociology I students that attend A.D.P. were selected it was not necessary to use any kind of sampling procedure.

4.4.2 The choice of the study area

Since academic development is a relatively new activity and an area that is inadequately researched at the University of Durban-Westville, it was decided to select the university for this particular study.

A study of this nature at this particular place could make important contributions for guiding future policies regarding A.D.P., improving the course, identifying its relevance or irrelevance and lastly assessing its ability to meet the needs of disadvantaged students.

The choice of this particular area of study also placed the researcher in a position that would allow her to observe the activities of A.D.P. in a natural setting. It also facilitated the smooth investigation of A.D.P. and it further allowed the researcher to identify weaknesses that could otherwise have been overlooked. In the capacity of tutor the researcher was able to fully involve herself in the internal and external activities of A.D.P.

The population of A.D.P. students are also drawn from disadvantaged backgrounds. This means that it was possible to examine the nature of the relationship between disadvantaged students and their academic performance at university. It was assumed that the profile of the sample closely corresponds with the various backgrounds of the disadvantaged student as outlined in Chapter Two under 2.3

The last aspect taken into account in the choice of the study area was access to the sample. Students were not only easily accessible but costs and time taken for the fieldwork had been greatly reduced. Being in a familiar environment also allowed the researcher to establish rapport with students and significant

others. This facilitated a smooth investigation.

4.4.3 The population:

The population was confined to the academic development students in Sociology I. The sample size drawn was 100.

4.5 Fieldwork

The fieldwork commenced on 6 September 1992 and was completed by 13 September 1992. The researcher administered the questionnaire to each student which was filled in the presence of the researcher. This task was simplified since the sample was easily accessible. The fieldwork lasted one week.

4.6 Data processing

Upon completion of the fieldwork, each questionnaire was scrutinized for completeness and inaccuracies. There were no inconsistencies. Each interview schedule was then assigned a number from one to hundred. The biographical details, attitude scores and qualitative questions were manually entered into a coding frame.

Once the attitude scale was coded, it was transferred from the schedules to the data sheets and then captured onto the computer. This was carried out by the researcher with the help of a data typist. A simple chi-square analysis was applied in order to identify the effects of independent variables on the students' attitudes towards A.D.P. On receiving the computer print-out the researcher checked for irregularities and none were found.

With the use of content analysis, the responses in Section C were manually entered onto data sheets. The common responses were added together and then categorised.

4.7 Summary

An attempt was made in this chapter to provide an outline of the procedure used in the gathering of data. The procedure and techniques that were utilized in the current study include a review of relevant literature, consultation with authoritative sources, informal interviews, non-participant observation and the administration of an interview schedule. The interview schedule included students' biographical details, an assessment of students' attitudes and an exploration around specific themes. A combination of quantitative and qualitative methods were used. Triangulation of methods seemed to serve the needs of this study. A motivation was also provided for the specific choice of the study area. The last phase of data processing included editing, coding and capturing the data on data sheets and onto the computer. These results are analysed and interpreted in Chapter Five.

CHAPTER FIVE

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

5.1 Introduction

On the basis of a literature study undertaken, certain assumptions were formulated regarding academic development. Education can be identified as a social process and has to, therefore, be analysed against a social background that imposes upon the individual student with either positive or negative effects towards learning. The assumption upon which this study is based is that A.D.P. can effectively compensate for educational losses experienced at school. In an attempt to test this hypothesis data were gathered at two levels - the implementation of the interview schedule and non-participant observation. This chapter therefore aims to provide an analysis of the responses that were obtained during the data gathering process.

The interview schedule consists of three important areas. Section A includes the demographic details of the student, Section B includes 19 attitude scales that relate to specific categories and Section C includes six thematic questions that aim to draw out important aspects of A.D.P. that may need to be improved or modified. Measures of statistical analysis include a chi-square test which revealed that there was no significant difference between the independent variables and students' attitudes towards A.D.P. at the 95% level of significance. The findings are presented in the form of tables combined with

interpretations and comments. The data in Section B which forms the quantitative aspects of A.D.P. is presented in the form of frequency distributions and percentages. Section C and non-participant observation attempts to triangulate the data in the form of a discussion.

5.2 Demographic analysis

The demographic data include age, gender, students' academic and linguistic background, present living circumstances, academic background of parents, socio-economic status of parents, type of family house (urban-rural) they occupy and the number of A.D.P.s attended on a voluntary or referred basis.

TABLE 5.1 : AGE-GENDER DISTRIBUTION

AGE	GENDER	GENDER	PERCENTAGE
	MALE %	FEMALE %	
30+	2	7	9
25-29	6	20	26
20-24	18	24	42
17-19	7	16	23
TOTAL	33	67	100

Table 5.1 shows that 42% (42) of the subjects comprised the 20-24 years age group. Only 23% (23) comprised the 17-19 years age group. The figures suggest that at least 77% (77) of the students who attend A.D.P. for Sociology I have passed the adolescent stage and can be seen as mature adults. It would appear, therefore, that from the perspective of developmental theorists (Erikson, 1968) their identity crisis and psychological traumas ought to have been resolved. However, one can never be

certain that this is the case since many African students (the target population of A.D.P.) are for the first time in their lives exposed to students from other racial groups and expected to compete academically and socially on the same level. Further cultural conflicts are bound to emerge as the student tries to grapple with his/her own cultural and racial identity among a diverse student population. It would seem that the mature student would enjoy greater success in dealing with this conflict. Given this knowledge academic development should include, as one of its goals, problems related to psychological growth in relation to various developmental stages and in relation to the social and psychological demands of the university ethos. The majority of subjects, 67% (67), were females.

TABLE 5.2 : STUDENTS' ACADEMIC BACKGROUND

MATRIC SYMBOL	PERCENTAGE
B	1
C	6
D	31
E	52
EE-S	1
F	9
TOTAL	100

Every student interviewed for the current study is of African origin and a product of Bantu Education and specifically the Department of Education and Training (D.E.T.). It is common knowledge among academics and policy-makers that the D.E.T.

matric syllabus is inferior to that of N.E.D. and incompatible with the demands of the university. Within this inferior education system, it can be observed from the table that 97% (97) of the matric scores lie between D and F. The highest percentage 52% (52) have an E symbol followed by 31% (31) that have a D symbol. Only 1% (1) has a B symbol and 6% (6) have a C symbol. Nine percent (9) have an F symbol. These figures show that 62% (62) of these students are below average and would inevitably face massive learning problems at university. Even a student with an A aggregate is likely to encounter these problems simply because his/her education does not prepare him/her for university.

TABLE 5.3 : STUDENTS' LINGUISTIC BACKGROUND

HOME LANGUAGE	PERCENTAGE
ZULU	75
SOTHO	10
XHOSA	7
TSWANA	3
OTHER	5
TOTAL	100

The above table suggests that 75% (75) of the students use Zulu as a first language. None of them use English either as a home or first language. In line with the policy of separate development, Africans have been divided into geographical regions that have a close correspondence with the language spoken. Natal is predominantly Zulu speaking. African schools under the control of D.E.T. have a 50-50 medium of instruction between their mother-tongue and English (Sookrajh, 1991:63). These

students are for the first time in their lives, exposed to a complete medium of instruction in English. The linguistic problems they experience intensify in courses like English I and English IT. In Natal, Zulu speaking Blacks have very little communication with English speaking Whites (Sookrajh, 1991:63) and even while observing student interaction on campus African students normally revert to their mother-tongue when conversing with their friends.

The relationship between language and learning has already been discussed and need not be elaborated on here. However, one point needs to be stressed. Competence in the English language plays a pivotal role in social and academic adjustment and Mauger (1970:134) suggests that a child who "... is able to express himself through the growth of a wide vocabulary, will develop much more of his inherent perceptual and conceptual abilities than one deprived in these areas."

TABLE 5.4 : PRESENT LIVING CIRCUMSTANCES OF STUDENTS

PLACE OF RESIDENCE	PERCENTAGE
HOME	28
HOSTEL	16
BOARDING	50
OTHER	6
TOTAL	100

Table 5.4 shows that 72% (72) of the respondents stayed away from home. A change of residence under any condition always produces problems of role transition adjustments, psychological and

physical stress. These students are faced with all kinds of problems from accommodation, finance, establishing new peer relationships and most importantly coping with the academic demands of the university. The problems are exacerbated because students are forced to deal with these problems without the immediate support of their families. At least 6% (6) mentioned that they have no stable place to stay in, either because of lack of finance or lack of accommodation, and are either living with friends at hostel or move from place to place. This instability or lack of a suitable base has obvious implications for studying.

TABLE 5.5 : ACADEMIC BACKGROUND OF PARENTS

LEVEL OF EDUCATION	MOTHER	FATHER	TOTAL
NIL	18	25	43
STD 3 AND BELOW	10	7	17
STD 4 TO 6	24	21	45
STD 7 TO 9	16	22	38
STD 10	20	15	35
BEYOND	12	10	22
TOTAL	100	100	200

Table 5.5 shows that only 11% (11) of the combined parent population possess an educational qualification beyond the matric level. Nineteen percent (19%) are educated up to the Standard Nine level while 22% (22) have received no education at all. Although these parents may support the educational efforts of their children they lack the necessary expertise, resources and knowledge that would foster and develop adequate learning habits. Bernstein (1970) as cited in Duane (1970:61) shows that "...

middle-class parents systematically structure the attitudes of their young towards the use of language as an important perceptual and conceptual tool, and towards academic achievement as a means towards social advancement and thereby give their children a long start in the competition for places in higher education and in middle-class careers."

These parents are also unable to provide stimulating conversational and other experiences necessary for promoting intellectual and communicative skills.

TABLE 5.6 : SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS OF PARENTS

OCCUPATION	MOTHER	FATHER	TOTAL
DOCTOR	1		1
TEACHERS	9	10	19
NURSING	19		19
CIVIL SERVICE		8	8
CLERICAL	2	4	6
SELF-EMPLOYED	4	2	6
MINISTER OF RELIGION	1	3	4
HOUSEWIVES	30		30
LABOURERS	7	33	40
DOMESTIC WORKERS	6		6
UNEMPLOYED	1	2	3
DECEASED	15	31	46
PENSIONERS	5	7	12
TOTAL	100	100	200

From the above table it can be analysed that 32% (32) of the combined present population have a middle-class background.

Those students whose parents' occupation fall between doctor and minister of religion are regarded as middle-class. Sixty eight percent (68%) of the students come from a working class background. Gordon (1975) as cited in Hoosen (1991:56) claims that poor economic and social circumstances contribute to a negative self-concept and ultimately to under-achievement.

Tucker (1970:71) claims that "... the middle-class child with adverse home circumstances generally gets by at school much better than the working-class child with the same handicap, since the one tends to get the support from the environment denied to the other."

TABLE 5.7 : TYPE OF FAMILY HOUSE AND NO. OF CHILDREN DISTRIBUTION

NO. OF CHILDREN	OWN HOUSE	RENTED HOUSE	OTHER (RURAL)
1	1	1	
2	5	2	
3	8	2	3
4	13	3	
5	1	3	13
6	2	3	5
7		3	8
8			3
10			7
11			7
12			6
16			1
TOTAL	30	17	53

Table 5.7 suggests that at least 53% (53) of the subjects live in outlying rural areas coupled with large families - possibly

extended families. Rural areas are regarded as those places like farms that fall outside the parameters of urban life and where living conditions are not comparable with that enjoyed in urban areas. These students live in overcrowded conditions, lack sufficient privacy, lack facilities like tables, chairs and desks and possibly lack proper lights and water. Again, their home environment would not correspond with the demands of the university.

TABLE 5.8 : NO. OF A.D.P.s ATTENDED ON A VOLUNTARY/REFERRED BASIS

NO. OF A.D.P.s ATTENDED	VOLUNTARY	REFERRED	PERCENTAGE
1	18	14	32
2	16	14	30
3	19	8	27
4	7	1	8
5	3		3
TOTAL	63	37	100

Sixty three percent (63) attend A.D.P. on a voluntary basis. This could be a fictitious figure since students may be ashamed to admit that they have been referred to A.D.P. However, if it is taken at face value then it can be argued that the whole issue of A.D.P. is self-defeating since those who attend on a voluntary basis are not necessarily the weakest students but those who hope to improve their academic performance. On the basis of the selection criteria (which was based on the lowest marks obtained in the first Sociology I test) it appeared as if some students who obtained a mark below 40% did not attend A.D.P. and those who did not qualify for A.D.P. attended these tutorials. It would

therefore seem that A.D.P. does not reach the target population, that is, those students most in need of it.

5.3 A quantitative analysis of attitudes

5.3.1 Goals of A.D.P in relation to students' background.

These include accommodation, finance, physical and mental well-being

TABLE 5.9 : ATTITUDE TOWARDS A.D.P.

(SECTION B Q.1.1 : ATTENDING A.D.P. ENABLES ONE TO COPE WITH THE GENERAL DEMANDS OF THE UNIVERSITY LIKE COPING WITH LECTURES, USING THE LIBRARY AND OTHER FACILITIES)

OPTIONS	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
STRONGLY AGREE	45	45
AGREE	47	47
NEUTRAL	6	6
DISAGREE	2	2
STRONGLY DISAGREE	-	-
TOTAL	100	100

This scale focuses on the evaluative dimension. The figures indicate that 92% (92) were in support of the fact that A.D.P. enabled them to cope with lectures, using the library and other facilities. This suggests that this problem had been correctly identified and that A.D.P. was able to meet this need. It also reveals that problems related to lectures, use of library and other facilities are problems that first year students experience and should be included as one of the goals of A.D.P. Although a small percentage, 2% (2), has disagreed and 6% (6) were neutral it is important to identify the reasons for this. The researcher can only conclude that A.D.P. had failed them in this regard and

that they were exceptionally weak students who required additional assistance aside from the tutorial.

TABLE 5.10 : GOALS IN RELATION TO SOCIAL SKILLS

(SECTION B Q.1.3 ATTENDING A.D.P. HELPS ONE TO COPE WITH THE GENERAL DEMANDS OF THE UNIVERSITY LIKE DEVELOPING SOCIAL SKILLS ESSENTIAL FOR INTERACTING WITH SIGNIFICANT OTHERS LIKE STAFF AND STUDENTS)

OPTIONS	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
STRONGLY AGREE	23	23
AGREE	45	45
NEUTRAL	26	26
DISAGREE	4	4
STRONGLY DISAGREE	2	2
TOTAL	100	100

This scale focuses on the evaluative dimension. Sixty eight percent (68) agreed that after attending A.D.P. they were better able to interact with significant people at university. However, a substantial number, 26% (26) were neutral, 4% (4) disagreed and 2% (2) disagreed strongly. This suggests that A.D.P. has partly fulfilled this need. Again, it can be concluded that tutors were not aware of this need, tutors could also be unaware of the extent of adjustment difficulties experienced by students and a total emphasis on academic skills only. In order to address this problem it is important for the tutor to take into account the holistic development of the student and be aware of various methods (student counselling, role-play and group work therapy) that could be utilised in developing the students social skills. This obviously means that a tutor has to be well-versed, well-

trained and experienced in dealing with problems of this nature.

TABLE 5.11 : GOALS IN RELATION TO ACCOMMODATION AND FINANCE
(SECTION B Q.1.4 : ATTENDING A.D.P. ENABLES ONE TO DEAL WITH
PROBLEMS OF ACCOMMODATION AND FINANCE)

OPTIONS	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
STRONGLY AGREE	2	2
AGREE	10	10
NEUTRAL	23	23
DISAGREE	41	41
STRONGLY DISAGREE	24	24
TOTAL	100	100

The figures indicate that 41% (41) disagreed and 24% (24) disagreed strongly that A.D.P. did not deal with problems of accommodation and finance. Twenty three percent (23) were neutral. If the main goal of A.D.P. is to facilitate the all round adjustment of the student to the university then learning and psychological problems that arise out of a lack of accommodation and finance need to be addressed within the context of academic development. The above figures reveal that this is obviously not the case. Again, tutors do not have the resources, means, awareness and the necessary expertise with which to deal with this problem. Poor social and material conditions that the disadvantaged student comes from cannot obviously be transformed via academic development. However, A.D.P. can and should be resourceful and creative enough to mobilise resources within the student that would equip him/her to deal with these problem as they arise.

5.3.2 Goals of A.D.P. in relation to the linguistic background

TABLE 5.12 : ENGLISH USAGE

(SECTION B Q.1.5 : ATTENDING A.D.P. IMPROVES ONES COMMAND OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE)

OPTIONS	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
STRONGLY AGREE	31	31
AGREE	39	39
NEUTRAL	25	25
DISAGREE	3	3
STRONGLY DISAGREE	2	2
TOTAL	100	100

This scale focuses on the evaluative dimension. The figures suggest that 70% (70) feel positively about the improvement in their use of the English language. Although this is a greater percentage when compared with those who have been neutral 25% (25), those who disagreed 3% (3) and those who have disagreed strongly 2% (2), it is clear that A.D.P. has not met the linguistic needs of all the students. Teaching English to second language speakers can never be underestimated within our context. Ways in which this issue can be addressed within academic development is by ensuring that we have qualified, experienced and well-trained tutors who have knowledge in relation to teaching English as a second language. These figures also suggest that A.D.P. has the potential to effect far-reaching linguistic (English language) improvement in students. Students are also aware that proficiency in the English language and hence communication is the decisive factor in determining the present and future lives of people in a country on the social, economic,

professional or economic level (Geel, 1988:5).

TABLE 5.13 : ABILITY TO THINK IN ABSTRACT TERMS

(SECTION B Q.1.6 : ATTENDING A.D.P. IMPROVES ONE'S ABILITY TO THINK IN ABSTRACT TERMS)

OPTIONS	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
STRONGLY AGREE	26	26
AGREE	45	45
NEUTRAL	20	20
DISAGREE	6	6
STRONGLY DISAGREE	3	3
TOTAL	100	100

There is a strong relationship between ability to think in abstract terms and the level of language development. Conceptual difficulties often emerge from lack of adequate language usage and a limited vocabulary. University courses demand a high level of conceptual and abstract thinking. This demand places a great deal of stress on any English second language student. The figures in the above table suggest that A.D.P. succeeded, to a large extent, in dealing with this problem. Seventy one percent (71%) felt positively about an improvement in their ability to think in abstract terms. At the same time, it is also important to acknowledge the 20% (20) who were neutral, the 6% (6) who disagreed and the 3% (3) who disagreed strongly. Lack of awareness of this need on the part of the tutor and an inability to creatively deal with this problem needs to be highlighted. Intensive tutor-training courses need to be introduced in order to equip the tutor with various skills and expertise with which to deal with various techniques and then identifying those that

are most effective.

5.3.3 Goals related to the psychological aspects of the student

TABLE 5.14 : ABILITY TO FACILITATE SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT

(SECTION B Q.1.2 ATTENDING A.D.P. ENABLES ONE TO COPE WITH STRESSFUL EVENTS LIKE TESTS, EXAMINATIONS AND PEER-GROUP PRESSURE)

OPTIONS	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
STRONGLY AGREE	37	37
AGREE	42	42
NEUTRAL	11	11
DISAGREE	7	7
STRONGLY DISAGREE	3	3
TOTAL	100	100

Events like tests, examinations and peer group pressure can be stressful events for even the average student. Adjustment to the demands of the university could intensify for the disadvantaged student. The above figures suggest that 79% (79) feel strongly about the ability of A.D.P. in facilitating social adjustment to the demands of the university. Although the majority feel positively about this, at least 11% (11) are neutral, 7% (7) disagree and 3% (3) disagree strongly. Again, it seems important to identify ways and means by which to address this problem. Successful transition to university, ensures, for the individual student, success in tests and exams. It also develops the student's social skills and ability to relate effectively on an inter personal level.

TABLE 5.15 : ABILITY TO ENHANCE STUDENTS' SELF-CONCEPT

(SECTION B Q.1.7 : ATTENDING A.D.P. IMPROVES THE CONFIDENCE IN ONE'S ABILITIES)

OPTIONS	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
STRONGLY AGREE	34	34
AGREE	48	48
NEUTRAL	14	14
DISAGREE	3	3
STRONGLY DISAGREE	1	1
TOTAL	100	100

It has already been illustrated that poverty and systematic discrimination at the educational level leads to the development of a weak self-concept and a low self-esteem. These students therefore need extra support and encouragement at university. As one of the goals of A.D.P., it seems, from the above figures, that it has been adequately fulfilled. Eighty two percent (82%) have attached a positive meaning toward this goal. Again, it is important to account for the 14% (14) who were neutral, the 3% (3) who disagreed and the 1% (1) who disagreed strongly. One way of dealing with this problem is to ensure that tutors are aware of this need and are fully experienced with regard to group work skills. There is also a need for tutors to be able to empathise (not sympathise) with students so that the tutor can establish rapport with different students (who have various levels of needs) and thereby form this the basis from which to enhance and develop the quality of interaction between the tutor and student. All this with the goal of improving the students' confidence in their abilities.

5.3.4 A.D.P. in relation to specific skills

TABLE 5.16 : ESSAY WRITING SKILLS

(SECTION B Q.1.8 : ATTENDING A.D.P. DEVELOPS ESSAY WRITING SKILLS)

OPTIONS	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
STRONGLY AGREE	61	61
AGREE	29	29
NEUTRAL	8	8
DISAGREE	1	1
STRONGLY DISAGREE	1	1
TOTAL	100	100

The only form of evaluation that lecturers have of students' knowledge (both in assignments and tests) is their ability to write an essay. This is one of the most important goals of A.D.P. On the whole 90% (90) feel positively about this, with 61% (61) agreeing strongly and 29% (29) agreeing. Attitudes with regard to essay writing appear to be the most positive. However, the 8% (8) who were neutral, the 1% (1) who disagreed and the 1% (1) who disagreed strongly need to be accounted for. Improvements to this goal of A.D.P. could be made. One way of improving this is to ensure that the tutor is aware of reasons why students are unable to write proper essays. These reasons should then form the basis on which to formulate further essay writing techniques.

TABLE 5.17 : DEVELOPING READING SKILLS

(SECTION B Q.1.9 : ATTENDING A.D.P. IMPROVES ONE'S ABILITY IN READING A TEXT)

OPTIONS	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
STRONGLY AGREE	34	34
AGREE	47	47
NEUTRAL	12	12
DISAGREE	5	5
STRONGLY DISAGREE	2	2
TOTAL	100	100

It is common knowledge that literature in African languages is limited and that many African writers use English as a medium of communication. African second language students are at a great disadvantage when reading a text in English since they do not have much experience in reading in their own language which would then allow them to transfer these reading strategies to the English language. In order to understand the deeper meanings of a text the student needs to possess a great capacity for reading with speed and comprehension. Eighty one percent (81%) positive attitudes reveal that A.D.P. addressed this problem. Given the complexity of this problem, it is vital that tutors are continuously exploring new ways and means with which to improve students' reading capabilities. In this regard, worksheets could be used where the reading skill is contextualised within the coursework and presented in a thematic manner. The goal of A.D.P. in developing the reading skill is to ensure that students are able to link ideas logically and trace the development of various kinds of arguments.

TABLE 5.18 : NOTE-TAKING**(SECTION B Q.1.10 : ATTENDING A.D.P. ENHANCES NOTE-TAKING SKILLS)**

OPTIONS	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
STRONGLY AGREE	34	34
AGREE	40	40
NEUTRAL	9	9
DISAGREE	4	4
STRONGLY DISAGREE	13	13
TOTAL	100	100

Without the ability to take down notes effectively during the lecture, academic material is rendered useless. The lecture is the point at which the student interacts (although impersonally) with the lecturer and gets acquainted with the content of the coursework. Seventy four percent (74%) feel positively about the improvement in their note-taking skills since attending A.D.P. Nine percent (9%) were neutral, 4% (4) disagreed and 13% (13) disagreed strongly. This suggests that this particular aspect needs to be improved and developed. Allied to this problem is the need to develop listening skills since most students are exposed to different lecturers and hence different lecturing styles and different accents during the course of the year. A suggestion in this respect is the use of recorded lectures which are played to students who then need to identify key words and concepts. By doing so, they develop the habit of listening with purpose and meaning.

5.3.5 The relationship between the goals of A.D.P. and students' expectations

TABLE 5.19 : DEFINITION OF GOALS

(SECTION B Q.4 : THE GOALS OF A.D.P. ARE CLEARLY DEFINED, E.G., NOTE-TAKING, ESSAY WRITING, CONCEPTUAL UNDERSTANDING, ETCETERA)

OPTIONS	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
STRONGLY AGREE	49	49
AGREE	37	37
NEUTRAL	8	8
DISAGREE	4	4
STRONGLY DISAGREE	2	2
TOTAL	100	100

In order for A.D.P. to succeed, it is essential that there is a strong correlation with its goal and students' expectations. The above figures suggest that 49% (49) agreed strongly, 37% (37) agreed, 8% (8) were neutral, 4% (4) disagreed and 2% (2) strongly disagreed. The goals of A.D.P. have therefore been clearly defined and understood by the students. These figures can be supported by the findings in Tables 5.9, 5.10, 5.12, 5.13, 5.15, 5.16, 5.17, 5.18, 5.20, 5.21, 5.22, 5.23, 5.24 and 5.26.

TABLE 5.20 : RELEVANCE OF GOALS**(SECTION B Q.5 : THE GOALS OF A.D.P. ARE RELEVANT TO MY NEEDS)**

OPTIONS	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
STRONGLY AGREE	49	49
AGREE	36	36
NEUTRAL	7	7
DISAGREE	5	5
STRONGLY DISAGREE	3	3
TOTAL	100	100

Again, for A.D.P. to succeed, it has to be relevant to the needs of the students. On the whole 85% (85) felt positively about this with 49% (49) agreeing strongly and 36% (36) agreeing. This question can be supported to the figures in Table 5.19. There seems to be very little discrepancy between the goals of A.D.P. and students' needs.

TABLE 5.21 : LEVEL OF EXPECTATIONS**(SECTION B Q.6 : STUDENTS WHO ATTEND A.D.P. ARE NOT WASTING THEIR TIME)**

OPTIONS	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
STRONGLY AGREE	66	66
AGREE	25	25
NEUTRAL	4	4
DISAGREE	3	3
STRONGLY DISAGREE	2	2
TOTAL	100	100

This is an indirect question that aims to test the correlation between students' expectations and the goals of A.D.P. Ninety one percent (91%) felt positively about this and this finding is

supported by the findings in Table 5.19 and Table 5.20. It can be concluded that there is a strong relationship between students' expectations and the goals of A.D.P.

5.3.6 Establishing the extent of the need for the programme

TABLE 5.22 : EXTENT OF NEED

(SECTION B Q.2 : THERE IS A STRONG NEED FOR A PROGRAMME OF THIS NATURE)

OPTIONS	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
STRONGLY AGREE	58	58
AGREE	32	32
NEUTRAL	6	6
DISAGREE	2	2
STRONGLY DISAGREE	2	2
TOTAL	100	100

The extent of the need for the programme would reveal its relevance and its success. There is overwhelming support for a programme of this nature. Ninety percent (90%) felt positively about this with 58% (58) agreeing strongly and 32% (32) agreeing. This suggests that A.D.P. should continue and develop.

TABLE 5.23 : RECOMMENDATION TO OTHER STUDENTS**(SECTION B Q.9 : I WOULD RECOMMEND A.D.P. TO OTHER STUDENTS)**

OPTIONS	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
STRONGLY AGREE	68	68
AGREE	24	24
NEUTRAL	5	5
DISAGREE	-	-
STRONGLY DISAGREE	3	3
TOTAL	100	100

Recommendation of A.D.P. to other students would reveal students' perceptions and attitudes towards A.D.P. Ninety two percent (92%) are prepared to recommend this programme to other students. This suggests that A.D.P. has been successful in addressing the problems of the disadvantaged student. At the same time, the 3% (3) who were neutral and the 3% (3) who disagreed strongly need to be accounted for. This means that further improvements and amendments to the programme should be made.

5.3.7 Establishing A.D.P.'s ability to facilitate adjustment

TABLE 5.24 : ADJUSTMENT TO UNIVERSITY**(SECTION B Q.3 : I WOULD NOT HAVE COPEd WITHOUT ATTENDING A.D.P.)**

OPTIONS	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
STRONGLY AGREE	36	36
AGREE	35	35
NEUTRAL	20	20
DISAGREE	5	5
STRONGLY DISAGREE	4	4
TOTAL	100	100

The general goal of A.D.P. is to facilitate the holistic adjustment of the student to university. The figures suggest at least 35% (35) agree and 36% (36) agree strongly that this has been the case. Although there is overwhelming agreement that A.D.P. has facilitated adjustment from school to university, 20% (20) remained neutral, 5% (5) disagreed and 4% (4) disagreed strongly. Some reasons could be advanced for this. Firstly, this need has to be recognised by tutors. Secondly, tutors require some skill and knowledge in order to facilitate this transition. Thirdly, more time may be required to address this need which has to be specified and defined since problems vary with individual students. Tutors also need to have background knowledge on the various kinds of background (educational, economic, political, cultural) that inform the style of thinking of the disadvantaged student.

5.3.8 A.D.P.'s role in choosing courses

TABLE 5.25 : CHOOSING COURSES

(SECTION B Q.7 : A.D.P. HELPS ONE TO CHOOSE COURSES WISELY)

OPTIONS	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
STRONGLY AGREE	11	11
AGREE	30	30
NEUTRAL	24	24
DISAGREE	25	25
STRONGLY DISAGREE	10	10
TOTAL	100	100

With regard to this question there seems to be an equal spread of frequencies for the exception of the fifth option. It is also not surprising that the goal of A.D.P. in aiding students choose

courses wisely has not been successful. Many tutors have overlooked the importance of guiding students in their choice of courses. One reason for this is that A.D.P. starts quite late (in March-May) in the year. By this time, students are already settled with their subjects. A possible way of working around this problem is to start the programme much earlier in the year and get A.D.P. (instead of inexperienced S.R.C. students) tutors to guide students in their selection of courses at registration.

5.3.9 A.D.P. as a form of compensatory education

TABLE 5.26 : A.D.P.'s EFFECTIVENESS IN BRIDGING THE GAP BETWEEN SCHOOL AND UNIVERSITY

(SECTION B Q.8 : A.D.P. MAKES UP FOR LOSSES EXPERIENCED AT SCHOOL)

OPTIONS	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
STRONGLY AGREE	27	27
AGREE	32	32
NEUTRAL	28	28
DISAGREE	8	8
STRONGLY DISAGREE	5	5
TOTAL	100	100

This question is directly related to the controversy that surrounds compensatory education and hence A.D.P. Although 27% (27) agree strongly and 32% (32) agree that A.D.P. compensated for losses experienced at school, 28% (28) were neutral, 8% (8) disagreed and 5% (5) disagreed strongly. There also seems to be a kind of contradiction here since attitudes with regard to the preceding questions (except for two) were positively evaluated. It is possible that other problematic areas were not dealt with

in the programme (and thus excluded from the questionnaire) thereby limiting the possibilities of effectively compensating for all losses experienced at school. At the same time, it should be noted that it is impossible to undo the wrongs that developed over a period of twelve years in a short space of time (six months). Deep seated problems demand great skill, expertise, patience and time for their successful resolution. Suggestions with regard to this problem are starting the programme earlier in the year, training tutors and further conceptualising the goals and content of A.D.P.

5.3.10 An evaluation of students' attitudes towards A.D.P.

On the whole, students who attend A.D.P. have attached positive meanings towards A.D.P. and in their involvement with the programme itself. This strongly suggests that A.D.P. has enjoyed a fair degree of success in fitting the student into the mainstream of university life. This conclusion is supported by the figures in Tables 5.9, 5.10, 5.11, 5.12, 5.13, 5.15, 5.16, 5.17, 5.18, 5.19, 5.20, 5.21, 5.22, 5.23, 5.24 and 5.26.

There is a strong relationship between the needs, problems and expectations of students and the goals of A.D.P. The highest level of success was experienced with developing the essay writing skill followed by note-taking and reading skills. It also appears that A.D.P. should continue focusing on these skills. Other goals that were relevant are enabling students to cope with the general demands of the university, developing social skills, improving the use of the English language and

conceptual understanding, dealing with stressful events, enhancing the self-concept and choosing courses. An analysis of attitudes also established a strong need for a programme of this nature. This need is manifested by the figures in Tables 5.9, 5.10, 5.11, 5.12, 5.13, 5.15, 5.16, 5.17, 5.18, 5.19, 5.20, 5.21, 5.22, 5.23, 5.24 and 5.26.

The two important areas that appear to have been overlooked by A.D.P. as suggested by the figures in Tables 5.11 and 5.25 are learning problems that arise out of a lack of finance and accommodation and in guiding students to choose courses wisely. There is also a lack of consensus regarding the effectiveness of A.D.P. in compensating for losses experienced in school.

The researcher is also aware that students' attitudes could be influenced by a need to appear favourable and by the presence of the researcher during the interview. However, all precautions were taken to prevent distortions and students were encouraged to be as honest as they possibly could. Attitudes could also be in direct contrast to the way in which students behave. For example, they may claim to have a positive attitude towards A.D.P. and yet perform poorly in assignments, tests and examinations. It would therefore be naive to assume that A.D.P. is successful simply because a large number of students' attach positive meanings to it.

Despite the overwhelming support for a programme of this nature there are certain limitations and shortcomings that should be accounted for. There is a definite need to improve the programme at various levels. This would be discussed in the next section.

5.4 A qualitative analysis of thematic questions

The purpose of including thematic questions is to obtain relevant information on A.D.P. other than what has so far been documented, to identify the strengths and weaknesses of the programme and thereby provide suggestions that would improve the programme and to obtain relevant information that could have been overlooked.

5.4.1 Profile of tutoring

The purpose of this question was to identify the role of the tutor in terms of what it is at present and what the students felt it should be. By doing this, it is possible to identify the positive and negative aspects of tutoring and those areas that are most beneficial to the student.

(i) SECTION C Q.1.1 DISCUSS THE ROLE OF THE TUTOR IN TERMS OF WHAT IT IS AT PRESENT

Essentially, there are two aspects that students highlighted with regard to the present role of the tutor. The first refers to the interpersonal skills of the tutor, that is, the tutor as a counsellor and the second refers to the cognitive skills, that is, the tutor as a teacher.

With regard to the interpersonal skills the response was:

- 41% (41) mentioned that the tutor is very helpful in dealing with academic and social problems;
- 15% (15) mentioned that the tutor is encouraging;
- 30% (30) mentioned that the tutor encouraged class participation;
- 16% (16) said that the tutor shows a keen interest in their work;
- 17% (17) said that the tutor plays a beneficial role;
- 45% (45) mentioned that the tutor motivates them to work;
- 21% (21) claimed that the tutor is reliable;
- 19% (19) feel the tutor is open, warm, friendly and reliable;
- 20% (20) mentioned that the tutor builds their confidence;
- 16% (16) mentioned the tutor being a guide and group facilitator;

- 17% (17) claimed that the tutor was able to solve their personal problems;
- 39% (39) looked to the tutor for advice;
- 18% (18) mentioned that the tutor is very supportive in stressful times;
- 14% (14) claimed that the tutor has insight into the students' problems;
- 13% (13) mentioned that the tutor is polite;
- 1% (1) mentioned that the tutor is receptive;
- 6% (6) said that the tutor communicates well;
- 10% (10) mentioned that the tutor pays attention to their needs; and
- 3% (3) claimed that, on the whole the tutor plays a crucial role.
- Among the negative aspects of tutoring, the following remarks were noted. Two percent (2) mentioned that the tutor is always screaming and shouting at them, unable to relate to their problems and that this makes them nervous and scared.

In relation to the cognitive aspect the role of the tutor was to develop certain skills and improve the conceptual understanding of the course. The response was:

- 72% (72) suggested that the tutor has taught them various skills like essay writing, note-taking, reading, listening, time-management, studying for a test and communicating with staff;
- 51% (51) mentioned that the tutor helped them with the correct usage of the English language;
- 60% (60) said that the tutor clarified the lecture and therefore broadens their knowledge and conceptual abilities;
- 20% (20) felt the tutor was systematic and revised before and after each test;
- 21% (21) claimed that the tutor is a group leader who facilitates discussion;
- 19% (19) said that the tutor allows students to ask questions;
- 29% (29) mentioned that the tutor has helped to solve their academic problems;

- 37% (37) mentioned that the tutor shows concern and monitors their progress by checking on their test marks;
- 10% (10) mentioned that the tutorial complements the lecture;
- 9% (9) claimed that the tutors presence is important since tutors have first hand experience of the academic demands of the university;
- 8% (8) said that the tutor directs conceptual understanding; and
- 2% (2) mentioned that the tutor acts as a role model.
- Among the negative aspects mentioned 2% (2) mentioned that the tutor asks irrelevant questions, cancels tutorials and is impatient.

(ii) SECTION C Q.1.2 DISCUSS THE ROLE OF THE TUTOR IN TERMS OF WHAT IT SHOULD BE

The role of the tutor in terms of what it should be can be identified at two levels, the interpersonal and the cognitive level.

At the interpersonal level the response rate was:

- 49% (49) felt that the tutor should have insight into their personal problems and be willing to listen to them since these problems affect their ability to study;
- 70% (70) mentioned that the tutor should be helpful, kind, friendly, approachable, patient, caring, show concern, be polite, thoughtful, understanding, flexible, informal, supportive, act as a guide, tolerant, encourage participation, build confidence, courteous, work with students, be capable, have good communication skills, be strict, be familiar with the names of individual students and their problems, be dedicated, act as a group leader, encourage students to be independent, encourage public speaking, be perceptive, give individual assistance, encourage attendance, explain the importance of A.D.P. to students, be consistent and fair, help students to cope, be open and frank, help students deal with financial and accommodation problems and always show concern. The above adjectives that students have used to describe the ideal role of the tutor point to interpersonal qualities like warmth and empathy which are normally required within a counselling or consultation situation.

In relation to the cognitive level the response rate was:

- 55% (55) mentioned that the tutor should be aware of the specific problems of students and identify their problems and needs before addressing them. This should be done by asking them what problems they experience;
- 60% (60) claimed that the tutor should reteach and clarify the lecture, teach study skills like essay writing, reading, note-taking and studying for tests and exams and improve problem-solving abilities;
- 10% (10) said that there should be a close correspondence between the lecture and the tutorial;
- 35% (35) said that the tutor should be prepared at all times;
- 7% (7) felt that the tutor should set tasks and minimal homework;
- 39% (39) felt that all tests should be revised;
- 2% (2) felt that the tutor should have references and discuss before raising questions;
- 19% (19) felt that the tutor should simplify the coursework;

- 21% (21) felt that the tutor should know the course well and ask relevant questions at the end of each tutorial;
- 55% (55) felt that the tutor should correct their assignment before it is marked;
- 10% (10) felt that the tutor should teach them the use of the library;
- 9% (9) suggested that the tutor should train them for the exam by giving them tests and essays to prepare;
- 2% (2) felt that they should be given handouts;
- 61% (61) suggested that more time should be spent on learning the correct use of the English language;
- 18% (18) felt that the tutor should ensure that everyone participates by encouraging debate and discussion;
- 8% (8) felt that the tutor should constantly supervise their work and monitor their progress;
- 30% (30) felt that extra time should be spent on preparation for the test and that tutors should guide them on how to approach a question in the test;

- 1% (1) mentioned that the tutor should work systematically and follow up on previous work;
- 2% (2) suggested that more time should be spent on the weakest students;
- 7% (7) suggested that the tutor give feedback on their performance in tests;
- 2% (2) said that the tutor should be aware of the special needs of African students;
- 2% (2) mentioned that the tutor should liaise with the lecturer on all matters and get a scope from lecturers about tests; and
- 1% (1) felt that the tutor should be able to fulfil the changing needs of students.
- 3% (3) said that the tutor should not ask questions.

The present and future role of the tutor can be summed up in the following way. Students have perceived the tutor in a positive way and identify the tutors role as counsellor and teacher as the most beneficial aspects of A.D.P. As such, the importance of these two aspects need to be highlighted and brought to the awareness of tutors involved in A.D.P. Alternately, the selection procedure for A.D.P. tutors should ensure that tutors

possess the qualities mentioned above.

5.4.2 Content of A.D.P.

**(i) SECTION C Q.2.1 DISCUSS THE CONTENT OF A.D.P.
TUTORIALS IN TERMS OF RELEVANCE OF SKILLS LEARNT**

There was unanimous agreement that skills learnt were of relevance to the course and student needs.

- Eighty six percent (86%) agreed that the following skills were extremely relevant. These include essay writing, reading a text, note-taking, preparing assignments, studying for a test, use of the library, correct use of the English language, listening, conceptual understanding, coping with lectures, communication, time-management and the memory technique.
- 7% (7) mentioned that skills learnt were relevant to other courses as well;
- 2% (2) felt that certain skills be taught much earlier in the year (like note-taking and reading);
- 1% (1) felt A.D.P. was better than the mainstream tutorial;

- 10% (10) felt that students should be given short essays to write on a regular basis as this would give them practise in applying the different skills;
- 1% (1) felt that students should be given examples of good essays; and
- 4% (4) felt that more time should be spent on improving their command of the English language.
- 2% (2) claimed that the skills learnt were not relevant, that they did not receive relevant information, that there was no revision, that the tutor was unwilling to work through difficult questions and that the tutor was sometimes too fast.

Although the majority felt that skills learnt were relevant and that they should be included one cannot overlook the 2% (2) who felt otherwise. It is also possible that most students were being less critical or even afraid to voice their feelings. A suggestion with regard to overcoming this problem is a proper and intense training course for potential tutors.

(ii) SECTION C Q.2.1 DISCUSS THE CONTENT OF A.D.P. TUTORIALS IN TERMS OF ITS RELATIONSHIP TO THE COURSE

From the researcher's observation of students' expectations of A.D.P. it would appear as if most of them would prefer to redo/revise the lecture within the context of the small group.

Since it is impossible (and a waste of time because it duplicates work) to reteach every single lecture, the most appropriate method was to teach skills (essay writing, reading, listening, etc.) and contextualise them within the content of the course.

- Eighty five percent (85%) felt that there was a strong link between the skills taught and the content of the course. This therefore means that the content of A.D.P. is relevant to the needs of the student in relation to the demands of the course.
- 30% (30) felt that skills learnt were relevant to other courses as well;
- 25% (25) felt that the most important skill is essay writing while;
- 19% (19) felt that the most important skill is reading;
- 25% (25) are of the opinion that study skills taught in A.D.P. help them to prepare adequately for the test;
- 15% (15) felt that note-taking facilitates their understanding of the course;

- 18% (18) felt that a discussion helped to relieve stress; and
- 2% (2) felt that A.D.P. is an adequate context within which to work through conceptual difficulties.
- 20% (20) felt that there was a steady improvement in their marks while;
- 9% (9) felt that there should be a much stronger link with the lecture and that it should be relevant.
- 1% (1) felt that A.D.P. was a little out of line and that it should correspond much more with the lecture.

Although there is a strong feeling that there is a close link between the skills taught and the content of the course one cannot overlook the fact that there is still room for improvement. Tutors should be constantly researching and exploring new ideas, methods and teaching techniques that would make the efforts of A.D.P. much more effective and productive.

5.4.3 Method of implementation of A.D.P.

SECTION C Q.3 DO YOU PREFER THE STUDENT-CENTRED APPROACH AS IN CONSULTATION OR THE GROUP CENTRED APPROACH AS IN TEACHING AND PEER PARTICIPATION OR BOTH? DISCUSS AND ELABORATE ON THE ANSWER.

The underlying motivation for the use of small group of students (± 12) for A.D.P. is that these groups are conducive to promoting

self-esteem, building self-confidence, they are therapeutic, it allows students to interact less formally and thereby develop social skills but most importantly it allows students to develop a relationship with the tutor and other students, a relationship that they can use this as a support system from which to deal with social and academic problems that may emerge in the course of the year. The context of the small group also allows for student discussion on a smaller but intense scale, students are able to share their problems and learn from each other and the tutor is able to teach important areas that are specific to the needs of individual students. The most beneficial aspect of the small group is getting across a wide range of information in a short space of time and developing within the individual a style of thinking compatible with the academic demands of the university.

The advantages of the student-centred approach as in consultation is that students are in a position to discuss problems of an intensely personal nature with the tutor. Psychological, emotional and adjustment problems are sometimes more effectively resolved when students are counselled on an individual basis. This also means that students get much more individual attention which could lead to a strong bond between the student and tutor. A strong and good relationship ensures that students gain optimally from A.D.P. This method also allows the very shy and withdrawn student to present and work through problems within a trusting and supportive relationship.

- Six percent (6%) were in favour of the student-centred approach as in consultation and claimed that it is less threatening for shy students, more comfortable, that it focuses all the attention on the student and therefore forces him/her to work, that they prefer the direct contact and that the tutor gets to know the individual problems of students.

- Forty three percent (43%) were in favour of the small group because it motivates students, encourages discussion of different views and thereby develops debating skills, promotes student responsibility, it allows them to share problems and learn from each others mistakes, they feel free to talk, they enjoy the interaction with other students, that sharing of problems relieves stress, they are in a position to ask questions, it encourages student participation, that they obtain information not found in books, that they are given a chance to express themselves, that the small group allows them to build confidence and establish a strong relationship with the tutor, that it saves time since they learn a great deal in a short space of time, it helps their ability to communicate in English, that teaching is more effective since they absorb much more information in a small, informal setting and that the small group is less intimidating and conducive to learning.

- Fifty one percent (51%) were in favour of both the small group as in teaching and the student-centred approach as in consultation. They claim that students are given a chance to benefit from both kinds of interaction and that a variation allows students the choice of methods that is most effective for them.

It therefore seems that A.D.P. should incorporate the small group and student-centred approach and that students be allowed to choose either one or both. It does not seem as if the tutor in his/her role as teacher would face major problems, though intense tutor training is required. However, the tutor in his/her role as counsellor would require much more skill, training and expertise in dealing with emotional and personal problems that affect learning. One suggestion is to refer such students to the student counsellor and then follow up on the students' progress.

5.4.4 Needs that have not been met

SECTION C Q.4 ARE THERE ANY OTHER SPECIFIC NEEDS THAT HAVE NOT BEEN ADEQUATELY MET BY A.D.P.? IF YES, EXPLAIN.

For A.D.P. to be effective it has to meet all the needs of the disadvantaged student. This question aims to explore those needs that have not been met and which are important to the student.

- Although 5% (5) claimed that almost all their problems were adequately resolved within A.D.P. the following important areas need to be accounted for;

- 35% (35) felt that more time should have been spent on developing their use of the English language;
- 20% (20) suggested that a programme or course of this nature should be offered from the first to the third year to all African students;
- 1% (1) mentioned that listening skills had not been dealt with adequately;
- 4% (4) mentioned that more attention should be given to revising over past test and examination papers;
- 2% (2) stated that attending A.D.P. once a week is not sufficient and that A.D.P. should start much earlier in the year;
- 1% (1) claimed that the tutor did not care to find out the problems of individual students;
- 1% (1) felt that a short test be given frequently;
- 1% (1) felt that although all aspects of A.D.P. were good they need improvement though he/she had no proposals;
- 1% (1) felt that the tutorial should correspond much more with the lecture; and

- 1% (1) felt that communication and student participation should be encouraged.

From the above figures it appears as if greater attention and seriousness should be paid to developing some kind of English language course that would enable the English second language student in his/her attempts to deal with academic courses. Grappling with the English language seems to pose a fundamental problem for most English second language students.

5.4.5 Alternative forms of bridging the gap

SECTION C Q.5 DO YOU FEEL THAT THERE SHOULD BE ALTERNATE FORMS OF BRIDGING THE GAP BETWEEN SCHOOL AND UNIVERSITY? IF YES, EXPLAIN.

The purpose of this question was to investigate whether students felt (after being exposed to A.D.P.) that alternate forms of A.D.P. should be pursued.

- Forty nine percent (49) felt that A.D.P. is an effective intervention programme at university;
- 6% (6) felt that alternate forms of A.D.P. should address the linguistic problems of students and that specialized courses in English be introduced for English second language speakers;
- 6% (6) felt that it should start much earlier in the year;

- 19% (19) felt that a programme of this nature should actually begin in school and that matriculants be introduced to the university while still in school;
- 1% (1) suggested that he/she has no ideas but that alternate avenues be explored;
- 1% (1) felt that A.D.P. should be compulsory and one student suggested that an entire academic year be set aside for disadvantaged students;
- 1% (1) suggested that A.D.P. should start much earlier in the year with one week of intensive A.D.P. and then continue on a weekly basis.

It is ironical that at least 19% (19) suggested that A.D.P. (or programmes of a compensatory nature) should start at school since it is the very same secondary schooling system that generates these inequalities and learning problems that A.D.P. eventually aims to counteract at university. Instead of introducing compensatory educational programmes at school the logical thing to do is to transform Black schooling and bring it on par with White schooling. This would then ensure that everyone is equally and adequately prepared for university. As Welsh (1980:4) states that "... in many respects universities can only be as good as the school system below them allows them to be." All schools (regardless of the racial group that it serves) need to produce students who arrive at university with equivalent capacities for

learning.

In whatever way we visualize and idealise about an egalitarian and democratic educational system the practicalities and realities of the situation remain urgent. It is highly unlikely that far reaching changes would be effected immediately. To begin with the "new" curriculum would most likely be based on the middle class experience of students since it is seen to be compatible with the economic demands of a developing society. In this regard, ad-hoc compensatory programmes would need to be introduced at school so that they can assist those students who lack important life experiences essential for success at school. This should be introduced in the interim period. The present socio-economic situation points towards a large percentage of Black students who come from the lower socio-economic group. A large portion of the S.A. population is also Third World and rural. This leads us to the next point and that is the students' cultural background. The researcher uses the word culturally deprived with caution since these students' are not culturally deprived but culturally different. But in terms of the politically determined curricula of White schools and the historically White universities, Black students who aspire to compete with their White counterparts are at a distinct disadvantage since they lack the cultural experiences that would enable them to adapt to highly complex, developed and sophisticated structures of learning. The researcher does not intend to suggest that all Black students experience failure in this process. The position the researcher argues from is that

the failure rate of Black students is very high and one cannot overlook the cultural factor (aside from the inferior educational system) as contributing to this high failure of students. Again, it seems as if students could be presented with these kinds of cultural experiences (possibly within some kind of compensatory educational programme at school) and socialized into learning the curriculum based on middle class experiences.

The third and most important aspect that demands immediate attention at the level of the school is language. English, the language of technology and industry, plays a crucial role in the advancement of most technologically oriented countries. The majority of Black students are English second language speakers which means that they are bound to experience problems in reading, writing and communicating in English at university. This linguistic problem should be addressed at the primary and secondary levels. It is futile treating the symptoms of a problem without attacking the root cause. Deutsch (1967:23) as cited in Matoti (1985:15) claims that "... a general relationship exists between the conditions of social, cultural and economic deprivation and economic deficit. The disadvantaged environment which has the highest rate of crime and social disorganisation, also has the highest rate of school retardation."

While on this topic of effecting changes at the primary and secondary levels of Black schooling, it is crucial to explore the idea of equality of opportunity for two reasons. Firstly, students have correctly perceived the source of their learning

problems as originating in schools and propose that compensatory educational programmes should start at school. None of them suggested a total transformation of their educational system. Secondly, it is important to highlight the problems related to equality of opportunity. The de Lange Commission (1981:15) interprets equal quality in education in terms of results and opportunities. The former refers to the level of expertise achieved through educational activities and the latter refers to everyone having equal access to the benefits offered by education. To achieve the former all possible obstacles that would hamper equality of results would have to be removed. These obstacles include differences in aptitude, differences in abilities, ambition etc. The committee claims that this would result in a programme that is impracticable and ethically unacceptable. To achieve the latter means determining the same "starting line" of all participants and in doing so cause an unfair advantage or disadvantage to students. They further claim that complete equality of opportunities can be achieved only if all out-of-school and in-school obstacles can be eliminated. Owing to the multicausal nature of the out-of-school inequalities, little success has so far been achieved in the developed as well as less developed countries of the world in terms of the creation of equal educational opportunities" (de Lange, 1981:16). In order to transform the present S.A. education system, de Lange (1981:18) claims that we need a fairly developed economy to transform and sustain it.

It is now evident that the analysis and interpretation of this question is deliberately extended and developed. The reason being that this discussion links up with the earlier critique on Bantu education, the subsequent goals of education and it touches upon the relevance and implementation of compensatory educational programmes at school and at university. This analysis and discussion has served to highlight the difficulties associated with formulating educational goals and policies at all levels of S.A. society. It has also focused attention on the importance of effecting changes at the primary and secondary levels of schooling.

5.4.6 Other comments regarding A.D.P.

SECTION C Q.6 DO YOU HAVE OTHER COMMENTS? IF YES, EXPLAIN.

- Amongst other comments 68% (68) felt that academic development classes should start much earlier in the year;
- 60% (60) felt that it should be made compulsory;
- 30% (30) felt that it should continue for all students;
- 25% (25) felt that it should be improved and maintained;
- 10% (10) felt that it should continue to third year;

- 2% (2) felt that the academic work should be semesterised;
- 1% (1) suggested that we intensify the nature of the programme rather than change the nature of the programme;
- 39% (39) felt that tutors should be much more qualified;
- 20% (20) felt that A.D.P. is required for other subjects as well; and
- 5% (5) felt that tutors should show much more concern and interest in their work.
- Forty nine percent (49%) felt that more attention should be paid to teaching English to English second language speakers.

From the above figures, three important issues should be noted. These are starting classes much earlier in the year, making it compulsory and intensive tutor-training. Notwithstanding the financial implications the first issue could be resolved. However, problems are bound to emerge if A.D.P. is made compulsory since this would raise a range of problems as to who should be accepted, how they should be accepted and whether it is morally correct to exclude above average students who would

also benefit from A.D.P. With regard to the third issue, tutor training could easily be done with the use of qualified and experienced people in this field. People whose area of specialisation is English second language teaching could be consulted with a view to addressing this need.

5.4.7 An evaluation of thematic questions

On the whole students have perceived the different categories of A.D.P. positively. Despite a few negative comments on the profile of tutoring, students felt that the tutor played a positive and beneficial role. They suggested that this could be improved. Two ways to ensure this is to have some kind of intensive training course for tutors and to have a selection procedure before tutors are accepted for this job.

Many students also felt that important skills were learnt at A.D.P. tutorials. The following were identified as the most important skills, essay writing, reading, note-taking, preparing assignments, studying for a test, correct use of the English language, conceptual understanding and the memory technique.

Although many students claim that there is a strong link between the content of A.D.P. and the subject many students wanted the lecture to be repeated within the small group. The goals of A.D.P. therefore need to be redefined and in all fairness to the student this need should be accommodated and incorporated into the other goals of A.D.P.

As far as method of implementation is concerned, it seems as if students would prefer a combination and variation of the student-centred and group centred approach. This they would choose as the need arises.

Many students felt that their needs were adequately met by A.D.P. but that some effort should be made in creating a specialized one year course that would address the specific needs of English second language speakers.

Most students agreed that A.D.P. is an effective intervention programme at university and that alternate forms should not be sought. However, many felt that a programme of this nature should start at school. This issue was then explored in some detail.

Amongst other comments the following important issues were noted. These include starting A.D.P. much earlier in the year, making it compulsory, improving the course, training of tutors and addressing the specific problems of English second language speakers.

5.5 A qualitative analysis of non-participant observation of A.D.P.

The following discussion of the researcher's observations of A.D.P. serve to highlight important aspects of the programme that need attention. The core concepts have been underlined in order demonstrate their importance.

- (i) The most striking observation about A.D.P. is that those students who attend A.D.P. on a regular basis are above average students who are highly motivated and aim to perform well in the examination. The voluntary nature of A.D.P. has not encouraged the weakest (the target group) to attend A.D.P. This aspect of attendance is a controversial issue since there is no rule that can be enforced to ensure that the weakest students should attend A.D.P. Furthermore, a difficulty arises in identifying and selecting a weak student since too many variables need to be accounted for.
- (ii) The students' link with academic development is the tutor. Therefore the student-tutor interaction process forms the only (and most crucial) basis from which the student can draw information and become an effective learner. The success of A.D.P. therefore depends, to a large extent, on the tutors' knowledge, expertise, dedication and experience. An intense tutor-training course would serve to ensure that tutors are well equipped to deal with the programme.
- (iii) The demands of academic development are different from the mainstream tutorials, they are complex and demanding and the tutor has to depend on his/her own resources in formulating a curriculum for the programme. The tutor also needs to possess certain

skills (interpersonal and cognitive) in order to create an effective teaching-learning environment. A.D.P. also demands a specific type of personality who communicates sincerity and commitment to disadvantaged students who are struggling to understand concepts and usage of the English language. Many students from disadvantaged backgrounds have poor communicating skills. The tutor therefore needs to exercise a great deal of patience with these students. To ensure maximal success of A.D.P. some kind of selection criteria should be applied to potential tutors.

- (iv) The researcher is of the opinion that there should be a shift away from a loosely structured curriculum to one which is more integrated and contextualised within specific subjects and faculties. Aside from student consultation, group teaching and group participation and discussion learning should be task-centred - this means that students develop their cognitive skills by learning a series of problem solving steps around specific tasks or themes that derive from the related course.

- (v) Evaluation forms the only process by which it is possible to gauge the success of the programme. This should occur at two levels, at the level of the programme and at the level of tutor performance. Evaluation can only serve to enhance and develop the

programme. Evaluation should be carried out by the faculty co-ordinator.

- (vi) Academic development is also most effective when there is a close correspondence between tutorial and the lecture. Much more time is also required to develop students' abilities and skills within the tutorial group. In order to achieve this A.D.P. has to start much earlier in the year.
- (vii) Academic development cannot function effectively in isolation from the mainstream lectures and without close contact with lecturers. All lecturers should consult tutors before the start of their lectures in order to present the course outline and specific areas of importance to tutors. A close contact between lecturers and tutors would ensure that there is common understanding between students and staff. In this regard, there is also a strong need to integrate academic development into the coursework.
- (viii) An important issue that should fall within the goals of academic development is staff development. Many learning problems arise in the lecture room where lecturers fail to utilise effective teaching methods in order to transmit knowledge and information. There is a strong need to enhance and develop lecturing styles and the quality of lectureship if A.D.P. aims

to succeed. Many students would prefer to come to the tutorial and have the lecture retaught. Unfortunately, this is not and should not be the goal of A.D.P.

(ix) For academic development to evolve and realise its full potential as a vehicle for transformation at university it needs the expertise of committed and dedicated people who would continually develop, evaluate and re-develop the programme. Such people should be employed by the Centre for Academic Development and be allocated specific areas to research and develop and thereby bring the programme on par with other universities.

(x) The last observation related to the administrative aspect of A.D.P. It has to do with salaries and is important since it impacts on the tutors' motivation. A lowly motivated tutor would obviously not take the programme seriously, at some point he/she is bound to communicate this to students and thus affect the effectiveness of the programme. If academic development has to succeed, it has to be taken seriously by both students and policy makers. Tutors need a better working condition than they are presently given.

5.6 Summary

This chapter has represented a quantitative and qualitative analysis of data on students' attitudes towards A.D.P. The methods used to gather data are the interview schedule which consists of three sections. Section A contains students' biographical details, Section B contains attitude scales and Section C contains thematic questions. The qualitative analysis also includes the researcher's non-participant of A.D.P.

The demographic analysis indicates that students are drawn from disadvantaged communities and are products of Bantu education. This analysis has also served to highlight specific problematic areas of the disadvantaged student that need to be accounted for when formulating the goals of A.D.P. These areas include, family background , socio-economic background, students' linguistic and academic background.

Students' attitudes towards A.D.P. also appear favourably. Students' have attached positive meanings towards A.D.P. and this would suggest that there is a strong relationship between the needs of students and goals of A.D.P. Students' needs that were overlooked were dealing with problems of accommodation and finance and choosing courses. It is also important to acknowledge that attitudes are not always a fair reflection of people's perceptions. In this regard, all attempts were made to alleviate this bias.

A qualitative analysis of thematic questions reveal that the

tutor, the content of A.D.P. and the method of implementation of A.D.P. are important aspects of the programme that could be improved. Specific problems that need attention were also highlighted. Students were also given the opportunity to provide other important information that could have been overlooked. The figures in this section also support the findings in Section A. This therefore suggests that there is a strong need for a programme of this nature.

A qualitative analysis of the researcher's non-participant observation reveals that students feel positively about A.D.P. Specific aspects that need improvement include tutor-training, selection of tutors, curriculum development for A.D.P., evaluation of A.D.P., integration into the coursework, staff development and the administrative aspect.

Chapter Six attempts to provide recommendations based on the above analysis.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUMMARY

6.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to provide an overview of the current study, present the conclusions that were drawn and thereby suggest recommendations in regard to the improvement of A.D.P. These recommendations are further informed by the assumptions and objectives of the study.

6.2 An overview of background chapters

A study of this nature was prompted by the need to establish the need for A.D.P. at university, the extent of this need, students' attitudes towards A.D.P., the strengths and weaknesses of the programme, ways in which A.D.P. could be improved and seeking alternate means to compensate for losses experienced at school. In this regard, it was necessary to explore the influence of specific cultural, socio-economic and educational factors on the learning process and hence academic success of students - specifically the Black S.A. student.

Chapter Two has drawn an explicit relationship between the various backgrounds of the disadvantaged student and academic success at university. Cultural deprivation, socio-economic disadvantages and linguistic differences are factors that militate against some Black students' attempts at succeeding at university. Added to these problems, is the philosophy of Bantu education which has militated against the proper socialization

of the Black student into the educational system. Attempts were also made to compare A.D.P. with compensatory education programmes in the U.S.A. and Britain. It was concluded that A.D.P. at South African universities and compensatory educational programmes abroad share similar basic assumptions. The effects of linguistic proficiency on conceptual capabilities were also emphasized. Thereafter an attempt was made to review the debates surrounding the introduction of A.D.P., the goals, content and method of implementation of A.D.P. and its role in transforming the image of the university.

In providing a theoretical framework (Chapter Three) for analysing education in general and academic development specifically the researcher has utilized the ideas of Bowles and Gintis (1976) who analyse education from a structural Marxist perspective and Sharp (1980) who analyses education from a phenomenological Marxist perspective. Both provide important theoretical insights into the role of education in capitalist societies. They identify the economic and political institution as determining the content and curriculum of schooling. Sharp (1980) departs from economic determinism and claims that counter-cultures and an ability to appreciate the weaknesses of capitalist schooling allow teachers, pupils and others to challenge a capitalist economic system. Triangulation in theory is seen to serve the needs of this study.

Chapter Four has attempted to outline the methodological basis to the present study. The gathering and presentation of data

required the clarification of various procedures and techniques utilized in the study. The main methods of data collection included consultation with authoritative sources for information, non-participant observation and the interview schedule. The interview schedule constituted students' biographical details, an assessment of attitudes and thematic questions. A five point Likert Scale was utilised for assessing attitudes towards A.D.P. A sample was not drawn since the entire population of Sociology I students who attended A.D.P. were accepted. A simple chi-square test was administered. Triangulation in method is seen to serve the needs of this study.

Chapter Five has attempted to analyse and interpret the data. There is a close correspondence between the disadvantaged students' biographical details and the various backgrounds identified in Chapter Two under 2.3. Furthermore, the general feeling towards A.D.P. is positive which could mean that it is effective in meeting the needs of the disadvantaged student.

Among the many aspects of A.D.P., the following were identified as the most important. These include the role of the tutor, relevance of skills learnt, the small group and the one-to-one approach as in consultation, the teaching-learning environment, identifying specific needs that have not been met and identifying alternate ways in which to address this problem.

From the researcher's non-participant observation the following were identified as important to the development of the programme.

These include selection criteria of students, starting A.D.P. much earlier in the year (preferably February), intense tutor training, selection of tutors and other factors which will be discussed under 6.4

Given the above findings and problems regarding A.D.P., the researcher proceeds to provide conclusions and recommendations that are based on the needs and goals of the study.

6.3 Conclusions

Conclusions drawn are based on the assumptions and goals of the study as outlined in Chapter One under 1.4 and 1.3 respectively.

(i) The relationship between social background and academic success

An assumption has been made that economic, cultural and educational deprivation are the root causes of failure at university. Although this study does not present quantitative evidence on the causes of high failure rate at university it would appear as if the social background determines success at school. Furthermore, there is a close correspondence between the various disadvantaged students' backgrounds as outlined in Chapter Two under 2.3 and students' biographical details as presented in the interview schedule.

(ii) A.D.P. as an intervening variable at university can effectively compensate for losses experienced at school and university

An assessment of students' attitudes towards A.D.P. reveals that positive meanings have been attached to the programme. Thematic questions also reveal the need for this programme. The researcher's non-participant observation reveals that those students who attend A.D.P. are highly motivated and benefit from the course. Therefore, it would appear that A.D.P. has qualitatively compensated for losses experienced at school.

(iii) An exposure to A.D.P. enhances and facilitates the overall transition from school to university

Again, it would appear as if A.D.P. has facilitated academic and social adjustment to the demands of the university.

Despite students' positive evaluation of A.D.P., there are still some aspects that need attention. These include, selection criteria of students, intense tutor-training, selection of tutors, starting the programme earlier in the year, developing a curriculum for A.D.P., introducing a specialized course that would deal specifically with linguistic problems of English second language speakers and enhancing the status of A.D.P.

6.3.1 Attitudes towards A.D.P.

The following general conclusions were drawn regarding the specific categories of A.D.P.

(i) The goals of A.D.P. that derive from various backgrounds of the disadvantaged student

- a. It has been concluded that A.D.P. has not helped students in dealing with problems of accommodation and finance.
- b. Many students have agreed that there is a strong need for a programme of this nature.
- c. There is also a strong relationship between the goals of A.D.P. and the needs of students.
- d. It also appears as if A.D.P. has the potential to compensate for losses experienced at the primary and secondary levels.
- e. Many students had positive experiences with A.D.P. and were prepared to recommend it to other students.

(ii) The linguistic background of the student

- a. It can be concluded that attending A.D.P. improves ones command of the English language.

b. It also appears as if attending A.D.P. improves ones ability to think in abstract terms.

c. Reading a text forms an important part of the university curriculum. Student responses reveal that attending A.D.P. has improved their ability in reading a text.

(iii) Specific goals of A.D.P.

a. It can be concluded that the specific goals of A.D.P. regarding coping with lectures, use of the library and other facilities have been achieved.

b. A.D.P. has also enabled students to cope with stressful events like tests, examinations and peer group pressure.

c. Developing social skills forms an important goal of A.D.P. In this regard, it can be concluded that A.D.P. was successful in achieving this goal.

d. Students have also agreed that attending A.D.P. improves the confidence in ones abilities.

e. The most important goal of A.D.P. is developing essay-writing skills. Many students agreed that they developed adequate essay writing techniques.

- f. Note-taking skills were sufficiently developed in A.D.P.
- g. Those students who have attended A.D.P. agree that they would not have coped without attending A.D.P.
- h. It can also be concluded that the various goals of A.D.P. are clearly defined.
- i. The majority of students have agreed that they are not wasting their time by attending A.D.P.
- j. Since success at university also depends on the choice of courses, it would seem as if A.D.P. should address this problem. It can be concluded that A.D.P. was not in a position to help and guide students with regard to the choice of courses.

It can be concluded that students perceive A.D.P. positively. The goals seem to be relevant to the needs of these students. The various skills taught also seem relevant in terms of the demands of the university and student weaknesses. The two areas that need further development and much more attention are helping students deal with problems of accommodation and finance and helping students in their choice of courses.

6.3.2 The important components of A.D.P.

The following general conclusions were drawn regarding the important components of A.D.P.

(i) The role of the tutor

The tutor plays a vital role since he/she is the only form of contact with A.D.P. Students had identified two important attributes of the tutor - these are the cognitive and interpersonal aspects. While the tutor should be able to impart academic skills and knowledge he/she should also be approachable, warm and helpful.

The role of the tutor is seen as a combination of teacher, guide, helper, counsellor, mediator (with lecturers and the department) and facilitator. It can be concluded that the tutor plays a vital role and should continue developing his/her skills.

(ii) The content of A.D.P.

It can be concluded that the various skills learnt in A.D.P. form an important part of A.D.P. These skills include essay writing, note-taking, reading, linguistic proficiency, conceptual understanding and dealing with psychological problems. These skills are relevant to the specific course and can be applied to other courses as well.

(iii) Method of implementation of A.D.P.

It can be concluded that both the small group and the one-to-one approach promotes a teaching-learning environment. Therefore, any form of academic development should include a variation of the two. Students should be given a choice to decide on which one is most suited to their specific needs.

(iv) Specific needs that have not been met

Many students felt that their competency in the English language had not been improved. Others felt that more time was required for A.D.P.

(v) Alternate forms of bridging the gap between school and university

It can be concluded that A.D.P. seems to be a sufficient intervention programme at university. However, students felt that it should be introduced at school.

(vi) Other comments

It can be concluded that A.D.P. should start much earlier in the year (preferably February) that tutor training should be provided and that a specialized English course be introduced for second language speakers.

Conclusions that can be drawn from the above categories are that the tutor plays a crucial role, that skills learnt are relevant, that the small group (\pm six) and the consultation approach are adequate methods, that more attention should be placed on developing an English special language course for second language students and that A.D.P. is effective in meeting the needs of disadvantaged students.

6.3.3 Strengths and weaknesses of the programme

The merits of A.D.P. are that it was able to impart relevant skills to students, help students cope with problematic areas, help them deal with stressful events like tests, encourage group discussions and peer participation and it facilitated student adjustment to the demands of the university. On the whole, it would appear as if A.D.P. has the potential to effect far reaching changes in the disadvantaged student.

The weaknesses of the programme are that it starts late in the year (around April), there is no fixed curriculum that would serve to solidify the efforts of A.D.P., tutors lack training and insight into students' problem, there is no way of quantitatively evaluating the success of A.D.P., these programmes are loosely structured, selection criteria applied to students does not ensure that the weakest students attend and there also seems to be a lack of integration with the mainstream subject.

On the basis of the above conclusions the researcher proceeds to formulate certain recommendations.

6.4 Recommendations

These recommendations aim to improve the nature of A.D.P. at the University of Durban-Westville. As such, they are viewed as important initiatives that should be taken to improve the status of A.D.P. At this point, one could well ask, "Why invest in A.D.P.?" The answer is very simple. Given the changing student population and the need to maintain high standards, it would appear as if A.D.P. is here to stay. In this regard, the two questions that crop up are, how important is A.D.P. to the university, and how important is the tutor to A.D.P.?

6.4.1 The importance of A.D.P. to the university

It is now a well accepted fact that the political and economic policies that underlie Bantu education have prevented a smooth integration of Black students into tertiary institutions. At the same time, a widening of admissions policies (as part of the affirmative action policy) has ensured that Black student numbers have increased and would continue to increase in the future. Jacobs (1990:41) projects the increase of schoolgoing children between 1988 and the year 2000 as follows:

TABLE 6.1 : PROJECTED INCREASE OF SCHOOLGOING CHILDREN IN S.A. BETWEEN 1988 AND 2000

RACE	YEAR 2000	PROJECTED INCREASE
BLACKS	2 825 000	122 368
COLOURED	35 700	6 027
INDIANS	217 500	22 147
WHITES	111 900	11 191

Furthermore, according to Foggins (1990) the University of Durban-Westville aims to increase its African student enrolment to 60% for the 1993 academic year. Given the above projected figures and the underpreparedness of first year Black students, the failure rate of Black first-year students is bound to increase. In the face of the above complexities academics are persistent in their need to maintain academic standards and quality education.

Obviously, the logical thing to do would be transform the entire educational system in South Africa and make it more relevant. Together with this change, the state should ensure that the material conditions of disadvantaged, impoverished people are more conducive to learning. A new non-racial society should ensure equal access to resources (education being one) for all its citizens.

The above policies have many implications. There is the increased financial implication as a result of expansion, there is a need for greater teacher training, there is a need to redesign the curriculum and a host of other problems. What is obvious from the above policies regarding educational transformation is that implementation of such strategies would take years to accomplish. In the interim period, there seems to be a compelling need to address the failure of first year Black students at university. Therefore, some kind of intervention programme is required to counteract this problem.

The historically White universities have, of necessity, seen it fit to create support structures for disadvantaged students. The historically Black universities have followed suit. Despite the contradictions inherent in academic development and despite the fact that it addresses the root causes (Jardine, 1986:57) the reality of the matter is that there is a strong need for A.D.P. at the University of Durban-Westville. Students' perceptions of A.D.P. as discussed in Chapter Five support this view.

The role of A.D.P. at university cannot be idealised and peoples' expectations and goals should be realistic and practical. Twelve years of apartheid schooling together with its learning irregularities cannot be undone in a matter of six months. Presently, academic development at the University of Durban-Westville is a loosely structured and fragmented structure and its potential for being productive has not been fully realised. The reason for this is that A.D.P. has not been taken seriously by the various constituencies and investment in the programme appears to be minimal.

The negative effects of this is that tutors are employed on a piecemeal type of payment system who become increasingly demoralised and are therefore unable to develop the programme to its fullest potential. The internal structure of academic development is such that tutors lack resources. This does not allow for the programme to function optimally. Resources include lack of office space, expertise and ongoing contact with significant staff members. As such, students tend to perceive

the programme negatively, it is given lower academic status, a lower profile and its direct benefits are not communicated to students. These views are also supported by Sudworth (1992). In the light of the above conditions of service valuable expertise is lost.

The researcher suggests the following recommendations in regard to the above problems.

- (i) The undisputable reality is that A.D.P. is here to stay - for a very long time. In this regard, it should be given much more academic status and attempts should be made to develop it and bring it on par with those that exist at the historically White universities. Much more effort, drive and energy should be invested into the programme than is presently done. Granted that finance is needed to mobilise these programmes and given the increase in student numbers much more money would be required. It is therefore suggested that the case for A.D.P. be put forward and presented to both the private and public sector with much more vigour and intensity. Additional sources of income (other than the Independent Development Trust Fund) should be pursued at the level of industry, commerce and state. At this historical moment, the university cannot overlook the need and value of A.D.P. - unless otherwise the entire university curriculum is Africanized.

- (ii) The university should also aim at employing qualified people in the field of academic development so that the programme can be fully developed. In this regard, better conditions of service would serve to ensure this. Present expertise should be retained and nurtured. These views are also supported by Parkinson (1992) and Naidoo (1992). Additional people should be employed in the capacity of evaluator and researcher.

6.4.2 Selection of tutors for A.D.P.

Given the need to improve the conditions of service of tutors, it would seem that some kind of stringent criteria be applied to this selection procedure. Furthermore, the demands of A.D.P. are far more complex and different as compared to mainstream lectures and tutorials. Often, tutors are left to depend on their own resources, initiatives and expertise. The most striking features of quality tutorship are the academic aspect and the interpersonal aspect. Both these have an overriding influence on the students' academic performance. Therefore, criteria applied in the selection of tutors should include:

- (i) Ensuring that tutors have a strong background in the specific subject. A pass at honours level should be appropriate.
- (ii) Tutors should also have some experience at handling tutorials, a strong background in education (any education related course should be sufficient) and a strong background in teaching English as a second

language.

- (iii) Tutors should also possess well developed interpersonal skills like being warm, friendly, empathetic, helpful and approachable.
- (iv) Where tutors cannot be found with the relevant qualifications, a third year pass in the specific subject combined with some experience in education should be adequate.
- (v) A well-defined job description should enable tutors to function effectively. The success of A.D.P. depends largely on the efforts of the tutor.

6.4.3 Tutor training for A.D.P.

Since the success of the programme depends on the contributions of the tutor it would seem that some kind of tutor training should be provided for potential tutors. While there is a lack of specific tutor training courses the expertise of experienced tutors and others could be utilised in this regard. Taking into account the demands of A.D.P. a training course of this nature would ideally last one year (similar to that of the Higher Diploma in Education). But, the university does not have the funds nor the resources to handle a task of this nature. The following recommendations aim to alleviate this problem and provide some insight into this area.

- (i) Tutor training should be intensive and last approximately one month - preferably February.
- (ii) The expertise of experienced tutors, faculty coordinators and especially those people from the education department should be utilised. The aim should be to teach tutors the most effective methods in which academic development can be implemented.
- (iii) The content of training should emphasize the importance of contextualizing the following skills.
 - a. Essay writing
 - b. Reading a text
 - c. Listening skills
 - d. Comprehension skills
 - e. Note-taking
 - f. Note-making
 - g. Time management
 - h. Problem solving
 - i. Dealing with personal problems
 - j. Decision making
 - k. Linguistic skills
 - l. Developing creative independent thinking
 - m. Learning to transfer skills from one context to another
 - n. Linking students to valuable resources

An important component of training should include the ways in which specific skills can be taught.

For example, should listening skills be centred around a task or should students be given specific instructions regarding listening skills and then expected to practise them on their own. It is the researcher's view that theory and practice should be combined.

6.4.4 Curriculum development for A.D.P.

While it is appreciated that there is a great deal of flexibility and space regarding the content of A.D.P. it seems essential to develop some kind of course based curriculum which would cater for the demands of the course itself and the students' needs. This curriculum should respond to the changing needs of both the course and the student. The need for a structured curriculum would also allow for evaluation of such courses. In this regard the Teach-Test-Teach Programme at the University of Natal - Durban have compiled a specific learning guide for Sociology I students. This programme aims to apply a "dynamic assessment procedure" that aims to fully develop students' potential to learn (Bradbury and Craig, 1991). The recommendations made regarding the above is:

- (i) Exploring initiatives taken by other universities.
- (ii) Employing fully qualified people who would devise specific curriculums for the different subjects.

6.4.5 Selection criteria applied to potential A.D.P. students

A controversial area within academic development is deciding who should attend A.D.P. The aim of A.D.P. is to improve the pass rate, therefore the weakest students should form the target group. A further factor arises in identifying who the weakest students are. But at some point a target group has to be identified. Despite the unwillingness of applying any form of selection criteria the following suggestions could provide a starting point:

- (i) Choosing students on the basis of their matric symbols - although it is not a reliable indicator of ability. The focus should be on those students who are products of Bantu education.
- (ii) Choosing students on the basis of their performance in tests. This should be an ongoing process throughout the year.
- (iii) Students should not be forced to attend (although this would be more effective) but the importance of A.D.P. should be continually stressed to them. Furthermore, if A.D.P. is implemented in a far more serious manner students are bound to appreciate the value of the programme.
- (iv) All interested students should be allowed to attend.

- (v) The programme should start much earlier in the year - preferably in February.
- (vi) Tutors could be used at registration to help students in their choice of courses.

6.4.6 Integration of A.D.P. into the department

Tutors should be given equal academic status as departmental staff. A.D.P. should be fully integrated into the mainstream of university life. Contact between departmental staff and tutors should be ongoing. The following would facilitate this integration.

- (i) Inviting the tutor to departmental meetings.
- (ii) Ensuring open, easy communication between departmental staff and tutor. The lecturers should ensure that tutors are aware of the specific course outline, what the important areas are and ways in which the student can be helped.
- (iii) The lecturers should also be open and receptive to feedback that the tutor may provide on behalf of the students. This would only serve to enhance and develop lecturing and teaching styles.
- (iv) Tutors should also be given access to confidential reports like students test scores since it allows the

tutor to monitor students' progress.

- (v) Tutors could also be useful by being allowed to mark test and assignment scripts. This would also give tutors some insight into student problems. It also forms part of the evaluation process.

6.4.7 Evaluation and research into A.D.P.

Presently, there are two major gaps in the way in which A.D.P. functions at the University of Durban-Westville. There is no structured way of identifying the effects of A.D.P. on student performance and A.D.P. is not evolving rapidly because of lack of research. In this regard, the following need to be addressed.

- (i) A.D.P. needs a full-time evaluator who would be responsible for monitoring the progress of the various programmes, providing important insights into the weaknesses of the programme and how A.D.P. can be improved. The evaluator should also supervise the performance of tutors.
- (ii) A full-time researcher into the functioning of A.D.P. would only serve to develop the programme. Specific areas that need attention are tutor training, curriculum development, staff development and linguistic development.

6.4.8 A specialized English course

Competence in the English language is by far the most important area of concern for the English second language speakers. The burden is doubled when confronted with English I and English IT. A specialized English course either under the Department of English, the Department of Education or the Division of Language Usage should be introduced. The following recommendations aim to alleviate this problem.

- (i) Researching communication and linguistic problems common among Black students and designing some kind of programme that would intervene at an appropriate level.
- (ii) Drawing on present research into this field and making it accessible to all tutors.
- (iii) Implementing a full-time, one year course in communicating in English with a focus on using proper grammatical styles and observing rules of syntax and semantics. This course should be rigorous and intensive with a view to becoming a credit bearing course for speakers of English as a second language.

6.5 Summary

This study on academic development has opened and broadened the researcher's vision of what the process of education entails. It has also exposed the researcher to different lifestyles -

lifestyles that are riddled with obstacles. Despite these obstacles there is an earnestness and need to succeed academically - especially at university. A relationship between the various economic, cultural, political and educational backgrounds on the learning process was drawn. It was concluded that they either have positive or negative effects on academic performance. These factors are also viewed as being the main reason for the high failure rate of first year black students at university.

Students have envisaged A.D.P. as playing a positive role in addressing this problem. Based on the findings, recommendations were forwarded. Although these suggestions do not provide quick-fix, eternal solutions they do provide some insight into the way in which the nature and functioning of A.D.P. can be improved.

The researcher would also like to acknowledge the limitations of the present study. Many important areas were not touched upon. However, this could form the basis for further research into A.D.P.

REFERENCES

- Adey, D. 1987. Mastery learning of A.S.P. : An experiment. Aspects 8, July 1987, 35-39.
- Agar, D. 1987. Researching and interpreting student problems. Mimeo : University of Witwatersrand.
- Agar, D. 1989. Academic support at the University of Witwatersrand in 1989. Bulletin for Academic Staff, U.D.W., 10(2) : 19-33.
- Agar, D. 1987. Staff responses to a questionnaire concerning students who are underprepared for university studies. Aspects 8, July 1987, 55-61.
- Aitken, R. 1986. Masks as cultural defence : further reflections on "English" as a discipline in a black context. Auetsa Paper, July 1986, 1-19.
- Allen, D.W. & Hecht, J.C. 1974. Controversies in Education. Philadelphia : W.B. Saunders and Co.
- Anderson, G. 1990. Fundamentals of educational research. London: The Falmer Press.
- Anderson, S.B. et al. 1976. Encyclopaedia of Educational Evaluation. San Francisco : Jossey Bass Publishers.
- Apple, M. 1982. Education and power. London : Routledge & Kegan Paul.
- Apple, M. 1982. Cultural and economic production in education. London : Routledge & Kegan Paul.
- Bailey, K.D. 1990. Methods of social research. New York: The Free Press.
- Ballantine, J.H. 1985. Schools and society, A reader in education and sociology. Palo Alto and London : Mayfield Publishing Co.
- Banks, O. 1979. The sociology of education. London : B.T. Batsford Ltd.
- Baron, R.A. and Byrne, D. 1991. Social psychology: Understanding human interaction. Boston : Allyn & Bacon.
- Beard, P. 1989. Student Advisory Services, Bulletin for Academic Staff, U.D.W., 10(2) : 73-76.
- Behr, A.L. 1986. The role of the university. Hypotheses and views, Bulletin for Academic Staff, U.D.W., 6(2) : 39-45.

Behr, A.L. 1987. South African universities today: Perceptions for a changing society: South African Journal of Higher Education, 1(1) : 3-9.

Berger, P. and Luckmann, T. 1967. The social construction of reality. London : Allan Lane.

Bernstein, B. 1970. A critique of the concept of 'compensatory education', Rubinstein, D. and Stoneman, C. (ed.) Education for democracy. Harmondsworth : Penguin Books Ltd, pp.111-121.

Bernstein, B. 1971. On the classification and framing of educational knowledge. Young M.F.D. (ed.) Knowledge and control. London : Collier Macmillan.

Bernstein, B. 1973. Social class language and socialization. Class codes and control. London : Routledge & Keegan Paul.

Bernstein, B. 1977. Class codes and control. Towards a theory of educational transmission. London : Routledge & Keegan Paul.

Bertrand, A.L. 1970. Social backgrounds of special groups - whites. Horn, T.D. (ed.) Reading for the disadvantaged. U.S.A.: Harcourt, World & Brace Incorporation, pp.21-28.

Blackledge, D. and Hunt, B. 1985. Sociological interpretations of education. London : Croom Helm.

Bourdieu, P. 1982. The school as a conservative force: Scholastic and cultural inequalities, Knowledge and social values in social and educational research. Philadelphia: Temple University Press, pp.391-407.

Bowles, S. and Gintis, H. 1976. Schooling in capitalist America. London : Routledge & Keegan Paul.

Bradbury, J. and Craig, A. 1991. Learning guide. Durban: University of Natal.

Bredo, E. and Feinberg, W. 1982. Knowledge and values in social and educational research. Philadelphia : Temple University Press.

Brimer, A. 1989. On adjusting our academic practice to South African contexts, Bulletin for Academic Staff, U.D.W., 10(2): 53-60.

Bryman, A. 1988. Quantity and quality in social research. London : Unwin Hyman.

Burns, R. 1986. The effective teacher in the South African context, South African Journal of Higher Education, 7(2) : 12-23.

Buthelezi, Q. 1984. The communicative needs of first year black social work students. Aspects 5, 45-60.

Burns, R. 1986. The effective teacher in the South African context, South African Journal of Higher Education, 7(2) : 12-23.

V Buthelezi, Q. 1984. The communicative needs of first year black social work students. Aspects 5, 45-60.

Chazan, M. 1973. Compensatory education. London: Butterworth and Co.

Chazan, M. and Williams, P. 1978. Deprivation and the infant school. Great Britain : Billing and Sons Ltd.

Cohen, L. and Manion, L. 1980. Research methods in education. London : Croom Helm.

de Lange, J.P. 1981. Programme for equal quality in education. H.S.R.C. investigation into education, Report of the Work Committee. Pretoria : H.S.R.C.

Duane, M. 1970. Education in Britain today. Rubinstein, D. and Stoneman, C. (ed.). Education for democracy. Harmondsworth : Penguin Books Ltd, pp.56-61.

Engelbrecht, C.S. 1968. Vernaamste bevindinge met betrekking tot die identifisering van leerlinge by skoolverlating, Pretoria: Nasionale Buro vir Opvoedkundige en Maatskaplike Navorsing (Navorsingsreeks NR. 50).

Erikson, E.H. 1968. Identity, youth and crisis. New York: Norton.

V Fisher, G. 1989. Academic support : Towards an alternative view, Bulletin for Academic Staff, U.D.W., 10(2) : 42-51.

Foggins, C. 1991. The relevance of the major approaches to language teaching syllabus design for a course in English for academic purposes, Bulletin for Academic Staff, U.D.W., 12(8: 32-43.

Foster, M.A. 1969. Meeting the needs of disadvantaged youth in a disciplinary school. Tuckman, O. Preparing to teach the disadvantaged. New York : The Free Press, pp.113-122.

Garbers, J.G. 1980. Vroeë skoolverlating in die grootstad. Durban : Butterworths.

Gardiner, M. 1990. Language and state in a future South Africa. Towards a language policy for post-apartheid South Africa, Papers compiled for NECC. Report back on ANC language workshop, Harare, March 1990, pp.43-45.

Geel, A.E. 1988. Language proficiency for academic studies: Academy. Windhoek : Technikon Namibia, 1-12.

Goodlad, I.I. 1979. What are schools for. Bloomington Indiana: PHI Delta Kappa.

Groenewald, F.P. 1976. Aspects in the traditional world of culture of the black child which hamper the actualization of his intelligence : A cultural educational exploratory study. Pretoria: H.S.R.C. Report, 1-57.

Haralambos, M. 1990. Themes and perspectives. London: Unwin Hyman.

Haralambos, M. and Holborn, M. 1992. Sociology : Themes and perspectives. London : Unwin Hyman Ltd.

Hargreaves, D. 1978. Interpersonal relations in education. London : Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Havighurst, J.C. 1970. Readings for the disadvantaged. New York : Harcourt, Brace and World Incorporation.

Havighurst, R.J. 1970. Social backgrounds : Their impact on school children. Horn, T.D. (ed.) Reading for the disadvantaged. U.S.A. : Harcourt, Brace and World Incorporation, pp.11-20.

Hirst, P.H. 1974. Knowledge and the curriculum : A collection of philosophical papers. London : Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Hoosen, S. 1990. An investigation of the effectiveness of groupwork with first year university students. Durban: University of Durban-Westville.

Horn, T.D. 1970. Readings for the disadvantaged. Problems of linguistically different learners. U.S.A.: Harcourt, Brace and World Incorporation.

Hunter, A.P. 1984. Academic support programme : Staffing and institutional policy. Aspects, 3-19.

Hyman, H.H. 1980. The value system of different classes; in Badix, R. and Lipset, S.M. (eds) : Class, status and power. London : Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Jacobs, M. 1990. A statistical overview of education in KwaZulu Natal. Durban : The Education Foundation.

Jardine, R.W. 1986. The language skills of the academically vulnerable university student: South African Journal of Education, 6(1) : 57-63.

Johnson, K.R. 1970. Social backgrounds on specific groups - Blacks. Horn, T.D. (ed.) Reading for the disadvantaged. U.S.A.: Harcourt, Brace and World Incorporation, pp.29-37.

Kallaway, P. 1984. Apartheid and education : The education of Black South Africans. Johannesburg : Ravan.

Karabel, J. and Halsey, A.H. 1977. Power and ideology in education. Oxford : Oxford University Press.

Johnson, K.R. 1970. Social backgrounds on specific groups - Blacks. Horn, T.D. (ed.) Reading for the disadvantaged. U.S.A.: Harcourt, Brace and World Incorporation, pp.29-37.

Kallaway, P. 1984. Apartheid and education : The education of Black South Africans. Johannesburg : Ravan.

Karabel, J. and Halsey, A.H. 1977. Power and ideology in education. Oxford : Oxford University Press.

Kgware, W.M. 1973. In search of an educational system. Pietersburg : College of the North.

Khathi, L.J. 1990. An investigation of some socio-educational factors contributing to high failure rate in matric KwaZulu. University of Zululand : Pyramid Book Binders.

Klausmeier, A. et al. 1966. Learning and human abilities. 2nd edition, New York : Harper and Row Publishers.

Knorr-Cetina, A.D. 1981. The manufacture of knowledge: Towards a constructivist and contextual theory of science. Pergamon: Oxford.

Kuper, A. and Kuper, J. 1989. The social science encyclopaedia. London and New York : Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Mantzaris, E.A. 1986. Methodological problems of research into the ageing process among Indian residents in old age homes in Durban. Durban: University of Durban Westville.

Matoti, L.N. 1985. Interaction patterns of disadvantaged teachers and pupils in primary school. Johannesburg: University of Witwatersrand.

Mauger, P. 1970. Selection for secondary education. Rubinstein, D. and Stoneman, C. (ed.) Education for democracy. Harmondsworth : Penguin Books Ltd., pp.131-138.

Mead, G.H. 1934. Mind, self and society. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Meltzer, B.N. et al. 1975. Symbolic interactionism : Genesis, varieties and criticism. London : Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Metfessel, N.S. and Seng, M.W. 1970. Correlates with the school success and failure of economically disadvantaged children. Horn, T.D. Reading for the disadvantaged : Problems of linguistically different learners. U.S.A. : Harcourt, Brace and World Incorporation, pp.75-78.

Mitchell, M. and Jolley, J. 1988. Research design explained. New York : Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Muthukrishna, A. and Gangat-Patel, F. 1990. A.S.P. in the Faculty of Education, Bulletin for Academic Staff, U.D.W., 10(2): 58-70.

Naidoo, K. and Loots, L. 1992. Six months in the life of an ad tutor. Conference on A.D.P. at the University of Durban-Westville, 2 November 1992.

Nair, K. 1987. Social problems associated with the care of the Indian aged in the home environment as evidenced in municipal Durban. Durban : University of Durban-Westville.

Nash, R. 1980. Schooling in rural societies. New York: Methuen Co.

Nasson, B. 1990. Redefining inequality : Education reform and the state in contemporary South Africa. Samuel, J. (ed.) Education : From poverty to liberty. Cape Town : David Phillip Publishers, pp.48-78.

O'Brian, J.L. 1969. A masters degree programme for the preparation of teachers of disadvantaged youth. Tuckman, B.W. and O'Brian, J.L. (ed.) Preparing to teach the disadvantaged youth. New York : The Free Press.

Oliphant, U.L. 1989. The current state of academic development at UWC, Bulletin for Academic Staff, U.D.W., 10(2) : 34-41.

Ornstein, A.C. and Levine, D.U. 1989. Foundations of Education. Boston : Houghton, Mifflin Co.

Osborn, A.F. and Milbank, J.E. 1988. The effects of early education. A report from the child health and education study. Oxford : Clarendon Press.

Parkinson, C. 1992. The status and conditions of service of academic development staff. Conference on A.D.P. at the University of Durban-Westville, 2 November 1992.

Pillay, P.N. 1990. Development of Education in South Africa. Nasson, B. and Samuel, J. (ed.) Education : From poverty to liberty. Cape Town : David Phillip Publishers, pp.16-35.

Riessman, F. 1962. The culturally deprived child. New York: Harper Brothers.

Rubinstein, D. and Stoneman, C. 1970. Education for democracy. Harmondsworth : Penguin Books Ltd.

Samuel, J. and Nasson, B. (ed.) 1990. Education : From poverty to liberty. Cape Town : Creda Press Solan Ltd.

Samuel, M. 1989. Sociolinguistics for schools. Durban: U.D.W., Unpublished Research Paper.

Sanders, M. 1987. Where are we going in A.S.P. A discussion of goals. Aspects 8, 1-9.

Sanders, M.R. 1986. An evaluation of the Zoology I Academic Support Programme at the University of Witwatersrand. Johannesburg : University of Witwatersrand.

Saville, M.R. 1970. Language and the disadvantaged. Horn, T.D. (ed.) Reading for the disadvantaged. U.S.A. : Harcourt, Brace and World Incorporation, pp.115-134.

Scott, I. 1989. Overview and history of A.S.P. in South Africa. Bulletin for Academic Staff, 10(2): 8-17.

Scott, I. and Yeld, N. 1987. Towards a foundation programme in Arts and Social Sciences. Aspects 8, 159-176.

Seng, M.W. 1970. The linguistically different: Learning theories and intellectual development. Horn, T.D. (ed.) Reading for the disadvantaged. U.S.A.: Harcourt, Brace and World Incorporation, pp.99-114.

Sharp, R. 1980. Knowledge, ideology and the politics of schooling : Towards a Marxist analysis of schooling. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Shingler, J.D. 1973. Education and the social order in South Africa, 1902-1961. Ann Arbor : UMI.

Singh, S. 1987. The effectiveness of the social condition of education in an Indian pre-primary class. Durban : University of Durban-Westville.

Sirkhot, F.B. 1987. A critical analysis of contemporary paradigms in educational research. Durban : University of Durban-Westville.

Small, J. and Witherick, M. 1989. A modern dictionary of geography. Great Britain : Biddles Limited, Guildford.

Smiley, M.B. 1967. Objectives of educational program for the educationally retarded and the disadvantaged. Witty, P.A. (ed.) The educationally retarded and disadvantaged. Chicago: University of Chicago.

Smith, A.G. 1986. Compensatory education as a factor in helping alleviate premature school leaving in the RSA. Pretoria : University of Pretoria.

Starfield, S. 1990. Contextualising language and study skills. South African Journal for Higher Education, 4(2): 142-148.

Stubbs, M. 1976. Language, schools and classrooms. London: Methuen.

Smith, A.G. 1986. Compensatory education as a factor in helping alleviate premature school leaving in the RSA. Pretoria : University of Pretoria.

Starfield, S. 1990. Contextualising language and study skills. South African Journal for Higher Education, 4(2): 142-148.

Stubbs, M. 1976. Language, schools and classrooms. London: Methuen.

Sookrajh, R. 1991. Language proficiency among Black first year students. Durban : University of Durban-Westville, 2 November 1992.

Sudworth, J. 1992. The advantages of a totally integrated programme versus the need for extra tutorials. Conference on Academic Development at the University of Durban-Westville, 2 November 1992.

Sudworth, J. 1992. The status and conditions of service of Academic Development staff. Conference on Academic Development at the University of Durban-Westville, 2 November 1992.

Sugarman, B. 1970. Social class, values and behaviour in schools. Craft, M. (ed.) Family, class and education. London: Longman.

Thembela, A. 1989. Black education in South Africa : Issues, problems and perspectives. Per Linguam: 5(1) : 2-8.

Tomlinson, S. 1982. A sociology of special education. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Totemeyer, G.K.H. 1987. The university and Africa : The university and its role in an underdeveloped society. South African Journal for Higher Education. 1(1) : 53-58.

Tuckman, B.W. and O'Brian, J.L. 1969. Preparing to teach the disadvantaged. New York : The Free Press.

Walford, G. 1987. Doing Sociology of Education. Philadelphia: The Falmer Press.

Webb, E.J. et al. 1969. Unobtrusive measures : Now reactive measures in the Social Sciences. Chicago: Rand McNally Co.

Webb, P. and Erwee, J. 1990. Easing access to tertiary education : Intervention programmes for pupils and teachers. South African Journal for Higher Education. 4(1) : 87-90.

Welsh, D. 1980. Tertiary education for Blacks in a transitional society. Rondebosch : University of Cape Town.

Woods, P. 1983. Sociology and the school : An interactionist viewpoint. London : Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Woods, P. and Hammersley, M. 1977. School experience. London: Croom Helm Ltd.

Young, D. 1988. English for what and for whom and who, Language Progress Review, 3(2) : 8-9.

Young, D. and Burns, R. 1987. Education at the crossroads. Cape Town, Maitland : Clyson Printers.

Young, M. and Whitty, G. 1977. Society, state and schooling. Lewes : Falmer Press.

APPENDIX I

DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY

20 September 1992

Dear Student

I, the academic development tutor for Sociology I, am undertaking research for a Masters degree in the field of Sociology of Education. The aim of the study is an investigation of students' attitudes towards A.D.P.

As it is impossible to interview every single student that attends academic development, I have chosen you and this is why your honest views are very important to me. The objective of this study is to assess your attitudes towards A.D.P. in terms of the different components of A.D.P. within a specific social context. It is in this regard that your contributions will bear relevance on the significance of A.D.P.

The information that you give will be treated as strictly confidential. Your name will not be used anywhere in the questionnaire. As your response is of vital importance I will appreciate your time, co-operation and patience. Your contribution will only serve to enhance and develop the programme.

Thank You

Yours sincerely

SHAHEEDA ESSACK

ATTITUDE SURVEY

CONFIDENTIAL QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire is designed to assess students' attitudes towards A.D.P. All information is treated as confidential. You are not required to write your name on the paper.

SECTION A

BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Please place a tick (✓) in the relevant square

1. AGE

30+	
25-29	
20-24	
17-19	

2. GENDER

Male	
Female	

3. RACIAL GROUP

African	
Indian	
Coloured	
White	

4. MATRIC SYMBOL

A	
B	
C	
D	
E	
F	
G	
Other (Specify)	

5. HOME LANGUAGE

Zulu	
Sotho	
Xhosa	
Tswana	
Other (Specify)	

6. PRESENT LIVING CIRCUMSTANCES

Hostel	
Home	
Boarding	
Other (Specify)	

7. ARE YOU A

First year student	
Repeat student	

8. DO YOU ATTEND A.D.P. BECAUSE

You have been referred	
It was voluntary	

9. WHICH OF THE FOLLOWING A.D.P.s DO YOU ATTEND?

Social Work I	
English I	
Afrikaans I	
English IT	
Practical Afrikaans	
Political Science I	
Economics I	
Psychology I	
Sociology I	
History I	
Philosophy I	
Criminology I	
Geography I	
Education I	
Theology I	
Other (Specify)	

10. PARENT'S OCCUPATION

Mother	
Father	

11. PARENT'S LEVEL OF EDUCATION MOTHER

Nil	
Std. 3 and below	
Std. 4 - 6	
Std. 7 - 9	
Std. 10	
Beyond (Specify)	

12. PARENT'S LEVEL OF EDUCATION FATHER

Nil	
Std. 3 and below	
Std. 4 - 6	
Std. 7 - 9	
Std. 10	
Beyond (Specify)	

13. WHAT TYPE OF HOUSE DOES YOUR FAMILY OCCUPY?

Own house	
Rented house	
Own flat	
Rented flat	
Other (Specify)	

14. HOW MANY CHILDREN ARE THERE IN YOUR FAMILY?

SECTION B

Below are statements with 5 numbers alongside them. Each number describes a feeling as explained in the key below. Circle only one number that describes your feeling most.

KEY

1. **STRONGLY AGREE**
2. **AGREE**
3. **NEUTRAL**
4. **DISAGREE**
5. **STRONGLY DISAGREE**

1. Attending Academic Development Programmes (A.D.P.) enables one to cope with the general demands of the university like:

- 1.1 Coping with lectures, using the library and other facilities.
1 2 3 4 5

- 1.2 Coping with stressful events like tests, exams and peer group pressure.
1 2 3 4 5
- 1.3 Developing social skills essential for interacting with significant others like staff and students.
1 2 3 4 5
- 1.4 Enables one to deal with problems of accommodation and finance.
1 2 3 4 5
- 1.5 Improves one's command of the English language.
1 2 3 4 5
- 1.6 Improves one's ability to think in abstract terms.
1 2 3 4 5
- 1.7 Improves the confidence in one's abilities.
1 2 3 4 5
- 1.8 Develops essay writing skills.
1 2 3 4 5
- 1.9 Improves one's ability in reading a text.
1 2 3 4 5
- 1.10 Enhances note-taking skills.
1 2 3 4 5
2. There is a strong need for a programme of this nature.
1 2 3 4 5
3. I would not have coped without attending A.D.P.
1 2 3 4 5
4. The goals of A.D.P. are clearly defined, e.g., note-taking, essay writing, conceptual understanding, etc.
1 2 3 4 5
5. The goals of A.D.P. are relevant to my needs.
1 2 3 4 5
6. Students who attend A.D.P. are not wasting their time.
1 2 3 4 5
7. A.D.P. helps one to choose courses wisely.
1 2 3 4 5

8. A.D.P. makes up for losses experienced at school.
 1 2 3 4 5
9. I would recommend A.D.P. to other students.
 1 2 3 4 5

SECTION C

Below are 5 thematic questions which you are requested to explore in more detail.

1. Discuss the role of the tutor in terms of:

1.1 What it is at present?

1.2 Discuss the role of the tutor in terms of what you feel it should be.

2. Discuss the content of A.D.P. tutorials in terms of:

2.1 Relevance of skills learnt.

2.2 Its relationship with the subject.

3. Do you prefer the student-centered approach as in consultation or the group-centered approach as in teaching or both? Discuss and elaborate on the answer.

4. Are there any other specific needs that have not been adequately met by A.D.P.? If yes, explain

5. Do you feel that there should be alternate forms of bridging the gap between school and university? If yes, explain.

6. Do you have any other comments? If yes, explain.

