THE IMPACT OF THE EXTENDED CURRICULUM PROGRAMME AND STUDENTS' EXPERIENCES OF THE PROGRAMME AT THE UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL, PIETERMARITZBURG

By

NKOSIKHONA NALA

Student Number: 205523350
BSocSc (Hons) Sociology

Supervisor: Mr. Mark Rieker

Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Social Science in Sociology in the Faculty of Humanities, Development and Social Sciences, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Pietermaritzburg.

2010

DECLARATION

I, Nkosikhona Nala, hereby declare that this dissertation is my own, unaided work and that all sources used or quoted are acknowledged by means of complete references. It was conducted under the supervision of Mark Rieker. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other University. This work has been submitted to professional editing.

Signature of Student: Nkosikhona Nala

Signed: _____

Date: _____

Signature of Supervisor: Mark Rieker

Signed: _____

Date: _____

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and most importantly I would like to thank God the Almighty for blessing me with an opportunity, strength and determination to do this project.

To my loving family I thank the Lord everyday for blessing me with you guys; and thanks for all the support, encouragements and motivation during this journey, I love you guys.

My Sincere thanks to Mr Mark Rieker for his valuable time, patience and assistance in the supervision of this dissertation.

Thanks to Professor Simon Burton for his assistance and to all the administrative staff from the Sociology Department.

Thank you to all the students and staff members from the Extended Curriculum programme, who participated in this study.

ABSTRACT

This research responds to a body of literature that identifies the epistemological difficulties faced previously disadvantaged University entrants who are insufficiently prepared to successfully master the academic requirements at tertiary institutions in South Africa.

The study investigates the impact of the nascent Extended Curriculum Tutorials (ECTs) programme in the Humanities at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Pietermaritzburg on students' academic performance and social integration into the academy.

These ECTs were developed and piloted in 2006 and were formally implemented in 2007. the aim of the programme is to articulate access into mainstream study through introducing students to the discursive practices of selected disciplines. They are available as an augmented extension of the existing access programme at the University.

The research focuses on the following questions: 1) Are extended curriculum academic access interventions instrumental in the academic success and student development?; 2) What are the students' personal and interpersonal experiences within the programme in their social and academic development?; Which pedagogical approach/es are prevalent within the extended curriculum tutorials and 4) What is the role and the use of social capital within the programme?

A triangulation of quantitative and qualitative methods was employed for data collection in this study. The findings are based on: 1) A comparative statistical analysis of students' assessment marks; 2) A student evaluation of the programme; 3) Participatory classroom observations and 4) in-depth interviews with students and tutors within the programme.

The findings reveal that the extended curriculum tutorials are instrumental not only in supporting academic success but also in facilitating personal development.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1.1   Introduction and Background

Admission to higher education in South Africa is mainly done on the basis of students'
Matriculation results (Van Der Flier, Thijs and Zaaiman, 2003: p400). Generally, higher
academic institutions specify the entrance requirements in terms of a set standard of
student performance in the matriculation examination. However, due to the inequalities
that still continue to exist between the former whites'- and blacks'- only secondary
education, the majority of former black secondary schools still have fewer qualified
teachers and inadequate learning infrastructure than formerly white secondary schools.
These factors, among others, directly contribute to black South African students' inability
to perform better and gain access to tertiary education (Reynolds, 2008). This situation
complicates the effective and fair selection of students at South African higher education
institutions (Van Der Flier, Thijs and Zaaiman, 2003: p400). The main way that these
issues have been addressed by higher education institutions in South Africa is through
foundation programmes (Reynolds, 2008: p81).

The Access (Foundation) Programme within the faculty of Humanities, Development and
Social Sciences (HDSS) at the University of KwaZulu-Natal on the Pietermaritzburg
campus, was introduced in 2001. Following suit with other higher academic institutions,
the Access Programme was formulated as a mechanism for redressing admission
inequities among students in the Faculty. However, the Access Programme, as initially
conceived, had "serious limitations which emerged in its early history, [such as] the lack
of articulation between the access year and mainstream study" (Clarence-Fincham, nd).
Hence, Extended Curriculum Tutorials (ECTs) were introduced within the Access
Programme, renamed the Extended Curriculum Programme, as a more efficient method

and one which is aligned more closely with mainstream curricula (discussed in detailed in section 1.6.1).

These ECTs were developed and piloted at the UKZN Pietermaritzburg campus in 2006 and were formally implemented in 2007 (Rieker, 2008). The ECTs form the pedagogical backbone to the Extended Curriculum Programme (ECP) which was designed to give more effective alternative admission to students with lower matriculation grades than required by the faculty. According to Clarence-Fincham (nd) ECTs were "developed in response to both changing national imperatives and to internal weaknesses in the Access Programme." This includes the ability to meet the moral, political, social and economic demands of the new South Africa as formulated in the White Paper on Education, 1997. The lack of articulation between the access year and mainstream study presented major challenges (Clarence-Fincham, nd).

The Extended Curriculum Programme (ECP) differs from the earlier academic development programme initiatives commonly found from the early 1980s until 2000 which were mainly non-credit bearing. ECTs are integrated more explicitly within the first and second year of mainstream study. They are "…conceptualized more holistically as a four-year extended curriculum, as opposed to the previous Access Programme plus three years of mainstream study" (Clarence-Fincham, nd).

ECTs are in a form of extra supporting tutorials within the various disciplines and are available to students from previously disadvantaged academic backgrounds entering the University for the first time (Clarence-Fincham, nd). This has been made possible through the implementation of augmented courses which are part of mainstream study for the students in the Extended Curriculum Programme. The extra tutorials supplement the mainstream tutorials and are taught by post-graduate students at the Masters' level and some members of faculty within the extended disciplines. The students attend two compulsory 45-minute tutorials weekly per elective discipline. Reynolds maintains that the ECT's support "…is closely articulated with the rest of the curriculum, so that it is developmental rather than 'remedial', and appropriate to the subject domain" (2008: 82).

Students entering the university through the ECP are normally required to register for four credit-bearing courses the first semester; however the first semester courses do not form a part of the mainstream curricula (discussed in detail in section 1.6.1). During the second semester of their ECP year, students are given an opportunity to register for one first-year mainstream course. Students who perform exceptionally well are allowed to register for two mainstream courses (Clarence-Fincham, nd). The "support is currently being offered at the first and second level, and will be offered at the third level in the disciplines by 2011" (Rieker, 2008).

The purpose of this study is to evaluate the impact of the Extended Curriculum Tutorials (ECTs) within the Extended Curriculum Programme in the Faculty of Humanities, Development and Social Sciences (HDSS) at the University of KwaZulu-Natal. This study is being conducted at a time when this university is in the process of implementing the augmented curriculum.

This research project will be closely guided by the following research questions:

- Are extended curriculum academic access interventions instrumental in academic success?
- Are extended curriculum academic access interventions instrumental in student development?
- Which pedagogical approach/es are prevalent within extended curriculum academic access interventions?
- What is the role of student personal and interpersonal experiences within the programme in their social and academic development?

Since this study also focuses on social perspectives of educational development, pedagogical theory will be used to frame the approaches employed. This theory will be drawn from various theoretical approaches in the field, namely: cognitive, humanistic and hermeneutic, teaching methods.

In this research study methodological triangulation was utilized to improve validity (Bryman, 2001). Both quantitative and qualitative research methods were employed, which provided a fuller depiction of the Extended Curriculum Tutorials and the students' experiences of these tutorials. The quantitative method is reflected through a statistical comparative analysis of coursework marks and a primarily summative student evaluation. The qualitative inquiry involved participatory observation and in-depth interviews with both Extended Curriculum Tutorials tutors and the students in attendance (discussed in greater detail in section 4.2).

Multiple sampling techniques were employed by the researcher. A census method was chosen as the most suitable for quantitative data collection. For qualitative data, a non-probability sampling technique was utilized (both discussed in detailed in section 4.4).

This dissertation is organized as follows: Discussion on the selective history of the University Education in South Africa as part of Chapter One. The history of the university education in South Africa provides a foundation and understanding of how Academic Development Programmes emerged within the South African academic context. A literature review on pertinent studies that have been conducted within South Africa and abroad is explored in Chapter Two. Chapter Three provides introduces the theoretical framework of pedagogical strategies, as well as a discussion on the theory of social capital. In Chapter Four, the research methodology employed by the research in the study is fully explicated. The findings and analyses are presented in Chapter Five and Chapter Six provides a discussion and conclusion.

1.2 A Selective History of University Education in South Africa

The introduction of university education in South Africa dates back to the early 18th century. In 1817, an unsuccessful attempt was made by Abraham Faure, a student at the University of Utrecht, to introduce a college of higher education (Brookes, 1966). Over a

decade later, in 1829, the first South African College was successfully established as a provider of higher education in Cape Town (Fenhel, 2007). However, this was no real answer to Abraham Faure's aspiration (Brookes, 1966) of introducing university education in South Africa. As Brookes (1966: p01) notes:

> Its teachers were called 'Professors', but their students were too young and too badly grounded to embark on real college courses. It was decided in 1858 to set up a 'Board of Public Examiners' which could issue certificates qualifying holders to practice as attorneys and surveyors. [The] certificates were to be of three grades which were to correspond to the matriculation and degree examinations of English Universities.

The 'Board of Public Examiners' was the second board, as the initial board to be formed was "the 'Board of Examiners of Candidates for Government Service' [which] existed from 1850 to 1858, when its functions were absorbed by the 'Board of Public Examiners.' [The latter]…which itself was absorbed by the [establishment]" (Kidd, 1923: p01) of the University of the Cape of Good Hope in 1873, after the promulgation of the *Higher Education Act no. 16 of 1873* that conferred examination rights exclusively to the University.

The University of the Cape of Good Hope remained for "forty years of its existence…purely an examining body like London University, on which it was consciously modeled" (Brookes, 1966: p01). The certificates that were issued by the university were also matched to the matriculation and degree examination standards of English Universities (Brookes, 1966). Buchanan (2008) explains that the system was considerably inexpensive in nature as the university did not have teaching facilities at the beginning of its operation; it was only an examining body. This system of education became a popular model of exporting education. During that time there were no universities in other colonies, and the University of Cape of Good Hope served all the examining functions in all South African University Colleges including the Natal colony, which also like the other South African colonies did not have a formal university (Brookes, 1966; Buchanan, 2008).

Two years after the promulgation of the Cape of Good Hope, the *University Extension Act no. 9 of 1875* was passed, which "empowered the council to hold examinations beyond the borders of the Cape Colony… [to allow the people] living beyond the limits of the colony to participate in certain of the benefits enjoyed by Her Majesty's subjects within the colony" (Buchanan, 2008: p37). Hence some of the leading high schools in other colonies at the time, notably those in Natal, began to train students who had matriculated, for the examination of the University of the Cape of Good Hope (Brookes, 1966).

In 1896 the *University Incorporation Act no. 6 of 1896* was passed by the Cape Colony Legislature. According to this act;

> …membership of the Council of the University of the Cape of Good Hope was extended to nominees of the [other colonies]…on condition that [Government from these colonies] made an annual contribution towards the general expenses of the University.

It was on this premise that the other colonies (including the Natal colony) began proposing to build their own universities. Other colonies like the "Orange Free State and the South African Republic [only began proposing for their universities] after the end of the second Anglo-Boer War, in 1902" (Buchanan, 2008: p37).

In 1904, the Natal Government's attempts to build an institution of higher learning in Natal were successful. (note: that very same year 'Rhodes University College' in Grahamstown was founded; *see* Buchanan, 2008). Seven years later (1916) from the inception of the Natal University College (discussed in section 1.3), the University of Cape of Good Hope was renamed the University of South Africa, and served as an examining body to all other University Colleges that had been found in other parts of the country. During this same year the first South African 'Native College' was founded, and thirteen years later became the University of Fort Hare (Bunting, 2006). Though the college was "a constituent of the University of South Africa…[it] enjoyed an inferior status; for example it was only in 1937 that the college was permitted to draft its own syllabus and appoint its own lecturers as external examiners" (Parle, 1983: p22).

Another notable improvement in the South African University education system took place two years later in 1918, when the Minister of Education at the time granted charters of full independence to the University of Cape Town and Stellenbosch. The school of mines that had been founded in Kimberly moved to Johannesburg and in 1908 split into two, and later became the University of Witswatersrand and the University of Pretoria in 1921 and 1930 respectively (Fehnel, 2006).

1.3 University Education in Natal

The existence of the institution of higher learning in Natal became possible through the promulgation of the Natal University College, after the Natal Government had appointed an Education Commission whose members reached a conclusive agreement and recommended establishment of the university in the colony (Brookes, 1966). Following this agreement was as the enactment of the *Natal University College Act no. 18 of 1909* by the Legislative Council and Assembly of Natal at the time. The following provision in the Act stated that;

> A college shall be established at Pietermaritzburg, called the 'Natal University College'…The control of the college shall be vested in a council called the Natal University College Council, which shall have the general superintendence, management and direction of the affairs of the college…

Natal University College opened its doors for the first lectures in February 1910; with only 57 students (49 males and 8 females). In its first two years the university did not have facilities and hence it operated in a 'two roomed wood and iron building next to the Maritzburg College (high school) classrooms (Brookes, 1996). However this was no permanent arrangement, as the Pietermaritzburg City Council donated land situated in Scottsville. That would later accommodate the erection of the Building (the Old Main Building as we know it today) that would be the property of the Natal University College.

The construction of the Old Main Building began in December 1910 and was finished and officially opened by the then Minister of Education (F.S. Malan) in August 1912 (Buchanan, 2008).

The students were then moved to the new building in Scottsville for classes in August of the same year (1912). In 1918 the Natal University College became the constituent college of the University of South Africa under the provisional *Act no 12 of 1916*. According to Buchanan (2008: p49), becoming a constituent of the University of South Africa "meant that students were [going to be] examined by their own teachers together with external examiners on syllabi which the said teachers had assisted in drawing up." Two years later in 1920 the talks amongst the representatives of the Natal University College began to establish an affiliation of the college in Durban (Rees, 1957).

1.3.1 Natal University College in Durban

In Durban, a Technical College had been established in 1907, under a name 'Durban Technical Institute' (and in 1915 later abandoned 'institute' for 'college') to give and control part-time vocational classes (Rees, 1957). In its early days the college had also given classes to students preparing for the examinations of the University of the Cape of Good Hope (Buchanan, 2008).

In 1920, a University College Council compiled a detailed report (pertinent to the issues of accommodation, teaching equipment and staffing) revealing the status of the Technical College. According to the report, the Technical College was not equipped to offer any courses in technology; highlighting a need for the establishment of the university college in Durban (Rees, 1957). In 1923, Dr Campbell, a Chairman of the University Council at the time, announced that a donor willing to donate the funds needed to erect the premises for the University purposes in Durban had been found (Buchanan, 2008). The first building was constructed and officially opened in 1931 as part of the extension of the Natal University College classes to Durban.

The building was named after the donor's late son Howard (Howard College as it is known today), whilst the donor remained anonymous and was later revealed to be Mr T.B. Davis (Brookes, 1966). According to Buchanan (2008: p51) "in [that] same year most full-time classes were moved from the Technical College to the new building (Howard College). Part-time courses in the Commerce Faculty continued to be offered at the Technical College until 1936…" The pronouncement of another University College in the colony was a great achievement that led to another greater victory, with the establishment of a Medical School under its administration fifteen years later.

1.3.2 Medical School

According to Buchanan (2008: p55), "the first attempt to set up a medical school in Natal was made in 1922 by two medical doctors, J.B. McCord and A.B. Taylor…" The proposition to establish a medical school in Natal came in response to urgent medical needs of the Black people (mainly Zulu speaking people), coupled with the shortage of Zulu speaking medical staff.

Nothing transpired until 1943 when the Natal Branch of Medical Association of South Africa got involved and persuaded the Natal University College to give its support to the matter. The government finally approved the establishment of the school under the administration of the Natal University College in Durban. The classes at the Medical School took off in 1951 at the temporary premises (by this time the College had received its independent status and renamed the University of Natal, discussed in detail preceding section 1.4), and three years later (in 1954) relocated to its permanent buildings in King Edward VIII Hospital on Umbilo Road (Buchanan, 2008).

1.4 The University of Natal

Dr E.G. Malherbe was a very instrumental figure behind the idea of an independent University of Natal. Dr E.G. Malherbe became a Principal of the college on the 28th of

April and announced his intention to pursue Professor J.W. Bews (Professor R.B. Denson's predecessor) ambitions to see the N.U.C attaining its independent status (Brookes, 1966).

According to Buchanan (2008: p55) "Malherbe approached the Department of Education in March 1946 [only a year after taking office as a college's Principal] and followed this up with an energetic campaign to gain the support of the public of Natal." In the year to follow (1947), the commission laid down the rules or criteria that were to guide the authorities in their decision to grant the colleges with university status or not. One of the rules was that the university should have an adequate number of students, professors and lecturers. The Commission took the minimum required number of enrolled students as 1000, a figure that was considerably larger than the number of students the UCT and Stellenbosch had respectively (Brookes, 1966).

Surprisingly to the Commission, the N.U.C already had almost 2000 registered students, with more than half of those being full-time students, as well as enough professors and lecturers. The buildings and equipment was also described as satisfactory (Brookes, 1996), hence Dr Malherbe, with assistance from a number of very influential men, drafted legislation that was read in the House of Assembly in January 1948. The Governor-General agreed to the Bill and the following year on the 15th of March 1949 the N.U.C was granted independent status and became the University of Natal (Buchanan, 2008). Fifty five years later the university became the University of KwaZulu-Natal (see the next section 1.4.1).

1.4.1 The University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN)

Over half a century from the inception of the University of Natal, "…the National Commission on Higher Education was establish by presidential proclamation with the ultimate aim of putting forward proposals for a new system for South African higher education" (Buchanan, 2008: p60). The proposed new system led to the amalgamation of the different institutions of higher education within the country. The collaboration of the

institutions took place in different forms, as it consisted of mergers between what Jansen (2002) refers to as cross-sectional mergers and horizontal mergers - that is, colleges into universities and institutions with similar courses respectively.

Jansen (2002: p09) further maintains that the main rationale behind the amalgamation of institutions was to "enhance access and equity goals for both staff and students… creation of multi-purpose institutions with more efficient use of buildings, facilities and human resources [while also] creates new institutions with new identities and cultures that transcend their racial past and ethnic institutions…"

Hence the University of Natal incorporated the Edgewood College of Education - a teachers training college in Pinetown in February 2001, and in January 2004 amalgamated with the University of Durban-Westville. The three together became the University of KwaZulu-Natal (Buchanan, 2008).

1.5 Apartheid and Education

South African education in the early years of the nineteenth century necessarily reflected the dominant political, social and economic structure of the time which was

> …characterized by a fairly rigid degree of racial segregation between Whites and non-Europeans [Blacks]…further entrenched [as the century progressed]...there was a firm commitment of Government to advance White South African education...non-European education on the other hand was largely neglected (Parle, 1983: p17).

The number of black matriculants seeking to further their studies at the time was extremely low (Parle, 1983). The advisory council for university education at the time was vehemently against the admission of black people to university classes or buildings intended for white people (Brookes, 1966). "Although none of universities possessed a 'colour bar' in their constitutions…[the] council appointed a committee to investigate the possibilities of excluding non-European students on the basis of race" (Parle, 1983: p21). There were, however, very rare incidents of black people being admitted to attend

lectures at the University of Cape Town (UCT) and the Witwatersrand (Wits) along with White students but at a later date this practice was discontinued (Brookes, 1966).

This does not mean that the admission policies of the two the universities were fully open to members of all races, and at times they were tempted to exclude members on the grounds of race and colour (Parle, 1983). For example at Wits "black students were excluded from the main residences…and formal social activities organised by Whites...the University's policy towards blacks was that they were there for academic purposes only" (Murray, 1990, p650). Fourteen years later in the 1930s, after the University of Fort Hare had opened its doors, more non-Whites were being trained for matriculation to gain admission to university. Noticeably in the Natal Colony, the higher education needs of the non-White population had been previously ignored.

Two women from Scotland by the names of Mrs Florance McDonald and Dr Mabel Palmer were instrumental in training the non-White population especially Indians in Durban (Murray, 1990). The Medical School, a branch of the N.U.C in Durban, also opened in 1943 (see section 1.2.2) with the intention to train Black Zulu people in medicine. This was another avenue widening the university education access to non-White population in the country (Brookes, 1966). This was coupled with the few blacks that were admitted study in White universities. South Africa began to experience a growth rate in demand for university education and there was an increase in the total number of both full-time and part-time students of all races (Watts, 1966).

According to Parle, "this aroused opposition from many council members…who were adamant in their resistance to racial integration" (1983: p32). Leading to the South African education system in its entirety to go through another remarkable change, Dr Malan, who was the Prime Minister at the time, expressed the view that;

> the road to peace and goodwill lay in the acceptance of the fact that separate population groups existed, and in giving each group the opportunity of developing its ambitions and capabilities in its own area, or within its own community; on its own lines, in the service of its own people" (Horrell 1963:3).

This statement was followed up by the "promulgation of the *'Extension of the University Education Act 45 of 1959'* which formally extended the apartheid policies to the universities in South Africa" (Buchanan, 2008: p35). Attributed to this Act were "the principle[s] of academic apartheid [that] hardened into a general principle[s] that affected all university education" (Brookes, 1966 p83). The Act clearly stipulated about "…the limitations of the admission of the non-white students to certain university institutions…" Hence apart from the South African Native College (later renamed University of Fort Hare) for higher education in the Eastern Cape Province that had been opened in 1912 specifically for African students, many institutions of higher education, specifically those that were earmarked for White students, exhibited reluctance to admit non-white students to their classes (Parle, 1983).

Therefore it is not surprising that the universities in the country were established along the racial or ethnic lines. Buchanan (2008: p35) highlights that;

> By 1973 there were 16 universities in South Africa…catering for white students, five residential universities catering for students of other ethnic groups and the University of South Africa, which catered exclusively for external students. The addition of five more universities, established along the ethnic lines, brought the total number of universities in South Africa to 21.

One must however note that, the 'Extension of the University Education Act' was implemented to further exacerbate the already promulgated and implemented legislation known as the *'Bantu Education Act no 47 of 1953'* enforcing the segregation of non-White individuals from the institution for Whites.

The separation of races in academic institutions led to unjust practices and uneven treatment between institutions that "favoured institutions [that were for] whites, to the exclusion in particular of Black South Africans" (Bunting, 1994). Black people were afforded poor quality education, and there were far fewer facilities provided in their institutions than those of their White counterparts (Hartshorne 1999). They were prevented from receiving an education that would lead them to aspire to positions they would not be allowed to hold in society. Their education was mainly run by churches on

missionary lines. This made it difficult for them (blacks) to compete with their white counterparts and ensured the continued domination of the White minority over the Black population (Parle, 1983). Bunting (1994: p246) further maintains that;

> …black institutions were developed to service the apartheid social order and hence have been disadvantaged financially, in a range of disciplines [that were] offered, and by the underdevelopment of graduate studies and research capacity.

At the beginning of the 1970s, many White academic institutions were losing their relationships with donors and the international academic community because of their apartheid policies. Locally, students were boycotting and revolting against the unfair treatment by the institutions (Bunting, 2006). It was only during the 1980s that the universities began to adopt open admission policies and began gradually accepting more black students. Wits University had already appointed its first black person as a member of staff (Parle, 1983). The policies however were not open enough, as the information from the early 1990s reveal that, "the combined student enrolment of the previously white universities were 96% white in 1990 and 89% white in 1993, showing the fact that there had been very few attempts to enroll more black students based only on merit and not race or colour (Bunting, 2007).

The African National Congress (ANC) came in to power in 1994, after the first democratic elections in the country were held. The new constitution was adopted, which marked a new era for the academic institutions as the National Party government lost its power and control over them. The new National Commission on Higher Education was formed and assumed its duties in 1995 (Bunting, 2007). This was the most fundamental change taking place within the academic institutions. Clarence-Fincham describes this as the era of "dismantling of apartheid structures in favour of the new democratic order" (1998: p01).

1.5.1 Post-Apartheid Transition of University Education

According to Cloete (2007: p53),

> the post-1994 period saw unprecedented changes in South African Higher Education. The first two years were dominated by a massive, participatory drive towards policy formulation that culminated in a report from the National Commission on Higher Education (NCHE) in 1996. The next phase converted the Commission's report into a White Paper…and a new Higher Education Act promulgated in 1997.

The new Government was faced with the task of reconstructing the previously separated education systems into a single body (Clarence-Fincham, 1998) that would redress the injustices of the past and serve all sectors of society equally (Cloete *et al.,* 2002). The focus of the new academic system was mainly aimed at achieving "equity in the higher education system and the strengthening of the higher education system's role in national reconstruction and development" (Bunting, 1994: p239). The development of co-operative governance between academic institutions, the state and civil society proved necessary to achieve the latter goal (Cloete *et al.*, 2007). Since the universities were also presented with the "challenge to meet the requirements of a skills-scarce [South African] labour market" (Clarence-Fincham, nd), 'Massification' was chosen as the

> …first policy proposal that attempted to resolve the equity development tension since increased participation was supposed to provide greater opportunity for access (equity) while also producing more high-level skills that were necessary for economic growth (Bunting, 2007: p59).

In the White Paper it was declared that to achieve the former goal, the policy needed to promote "equity of access and fair chances of success for all wishing to enter higher education…[widening] access for black, female, disabled and mature students, and generate new curricular and flexible models of learning…" (Cloete *et al.*, 2002: p04). The student body would "accommodate a larger and a more diverse student population" (Cloete *et al.*, 2002: p04) that would represent the demographic population of the country (Moyo *et al.*, 1997). "This means that Black students [were] to enter and succeed in

Higher Education in proportion to their strength in the population" (Bunting, 1994: p243).

During the implementation phase of the new policies of the NHCE, it was not anticipated that the policies would lead to what Bunting describes as the "development of a higher education market…that stimulated unprecedented competition…to increase their student intake…" (2007: p95). Following the full open access of higher education to all races of the society, there was a massive increase in enrolment of blacks and of women students in all previously white universities (Cloete *et al.*, 2002). Unfortunately this rapid growth of black students in previously white universities was coupled with an alarmingly high failure rate and poor through puts and retention rates of these students (Horsely, 2000). The other challenge encountered was that the majority of African students did not meet the minimum requirements for admission (Clarence-Fincham, nd). As a result, the majority were deemed under-prepared to embark on university academic education.

Van Heerden felt that the poor performance at the university level amongst the majority of black students was attributed to the poor quality of education (linked to Bantu Education) many had received at secondary school (1990; *see also* Wood and Luthauer, 2005: p1003). Similarly, de Klerk *et al.* (2006: p01) stated that;

> …the preparedness of talented black students, in particular, for higher education had been undermined by the effects of Bantu education, the chronic under-funding of black education during the apartheid era…

This meant that for racial transformation to take place, universities had to implement ways of providing these "students with alternative routes of access to tertiary education, by equipping them with the necessary academic knowledge and skills" (Wood and Lithauer, 2005: p1002). After a number of research projects were conducted, it was found that 'Academic Development/Support Programmes' (ADP/ASP) would be able to provide the "students with a broad range of knowledge, skills, values and attitudes outside of the purely academic sphere" (Wood and Lithauer, 2005: p1003). In support of

these programmes, Horsley explained that their intention was to "…prepare the so-called disadvantaged students to adapt to the university's course structure and cope with their academic demands" (2000:36).

1.6 Academic Development/Support Programmes

'Academic Development/Support Programmes (ADP/ASPs)' is the term that is used to describe all the academic developmental initiatives taking place within the academic institutions including those that are directed at members of staff, students, curriculum, research and organizational development (Moyo, 1997). However, for the purpose of the present research project, the use of the terms will be limited to those programmes that are implemented as student academic support initiatives.

The "student-focused academic development [programmes] originated as a result of activist movements during the late 1970s and 1980s in South Africa, and sought to improve access for Black students to higher education" (de Klerk et al., 2006: p150). According to Delvare (1996: p07):

> Over the last decade[s], a body of research has been built up questioning the reliability of matriculation results as predicator of performance at university. Accordingly…in a study involving UCT and published in 1985, matriculation points could not be said to be particularly good predicators of academic success [at the tertiary level] for those students who had achieved between 25 and 35 matriculation points.

In South African higher education, ADPs, also popularly known as access programmes "…originated as a result of activist movements during the late '70s and '80s to improve access for Black students in [higher education], which resulted in the establishment of Academic Support Programmes/Units at historically white" (de Klerk *et al.,* 2008) higher academic institutions. These institutions were regarded as 'open' universities (also known as the English universities), namely Cape Town, Witswatersrand, Natal and Rhodes (Moyo, 1997). This was done in response to the lack of success at the tertiary level that was prevalent amongst black students and as "a statement to reaffirming their opposition

to the racially based criteria for admission…[also] to address the deficiencies" (Bulman, 1996: p44, 46) of Bantu education experienced by a majority of black students (Reynolds, 2008). It comes as no surprise that these academic developmental initiatives "coincided with an increased intake of black students in these institutions" (Moyo, 1997: p04). One must bear in mind that 'Developmental Programmes' are not initiatives unique to South African universities. Moyo (1997: p13) points out that;

> Academic Development is not only well-established in South African higher education but also paralleled by equally significant and long-established initiatives and programmes of broadly similar kinds in many other countries of the world.

In the United States academic institutions, the ADP were introduced in "…the mid 1800s to serve many of the same goals as today's programmes" (Tomlinson, 1989: 01). These goals are often "guided by the needs of the students…" (Seymour, 1988: p54). Similar to the South African context, the goals are mainly aimed at assisting students from academically impoverished academic backgrounds and others from academic backgrounds that did not use English as a medium of instruction who, as a result, are not able to meet university minimum entrance requirements (Seymour, 1988).

The ADP/ASPs were established provide access to university education and assist students in order "to cope with the demands of their studies and to attain a level of performance which matches their ability and strength of commitment to their academic work" (Moyo *et al.*, 1996). These were the students who either did not possess sufficient matriculation points to meet the minimum entrance requirements or did not have the matriculation exemption, and who were, as a result, deemed to be 'risk' students who would not be able to succeed at the tertiary educational demands (Delvare, 1996). Also important to note is that these are students who would "otherwise be excluded from the possibility of university education" (Clarence-Fincham, nd). Hence "this was part of the strategy to raise under-prepared students to an [academically] acceptable level" (Bulman, 1996: p04).

Within South African institutions, the ADPs have changed significantly since their inception in the early '80s. Numerous programmes were introduced in most institutions. Initially many of the programmes were "offered by the students-support services unit or a separate-educational unit" (Delvare, 1996). They were often referred to as separate programmes aimed specifically at a group of students who are seen as under-prepared. In these progrmmes Reynolds (2008: p81) points out that;

> the curriculum context [was] educational intervention or 'academic support', offered in advance of or alongside mainstream modules usually of a traditional kind (i.e. oriented towards coverage of subject-content and transmission modes of teaching).

Tuition assistance was provided to the students with their regular courses and ran concurrently with those courses. Students in these programmes had to attend additional classes to those offered to mainstream students (Reynolds, 2008). "The need to complete courses in addition to the mainstream study constituted an additional burden for students who were already struggling to keep up" (Volbrecht and Boughey, 2004: p60).

Bridging and foundation programmes were introduced during the mid-1980s and these ran until the mid-1990s. These were often referred to as the 'pre-university programmes' because they were completely separate and offered different courses to the taught at mainstream level. Delvare (1996: 25) maintains that,

> …these provided a link between secondary and tertiary education and gave students inadequately prepared for study at tertiary an opportunity to acquire the skills and knowledge required for entry into a tertiary institution.

The transition from the bridging courses to mainstream posed a number of problems among the students. Research conducted at UKZN revealed that the main problem was that students, after successfully completing the 'pre-university' progrmme, experienced a sense of dislocation as they were being integrated into the mainstream level and were not familiar with the large and less personal lecture theatres (Clarence-Fincham; nd). This posed a major constraint and had a negative impact on the students' performance.

Another problem was that the bridging course existed outside the mainstream discipline or discourse (Reynolds, 2008). This, according to Reynolds, has further limitations as;

> …complex skills can only be acquired in the context of specific knowledge forms and discourses and require high levels of 'transferring ability' such as flexibility, adaptability, context sensitivity, meta-knowledge and epistemic cognition before they can be transferred from one context to another (2008: p85).

As a result, most institutions abandon the completely separate programme for a semi-integrated programme introduced during the late 1990s, in favour of an integrated programme currently being offered in most institutions. The integrated programme takes a more holistic approach to teaching and educating. It does not separate the skills that are taught from the subject content; the view of the whole picture is always taken into consideration. Integrating academic development into mainstream curriculum which supports the learning of the student and cultivates "a wide range of life skills" can be extremely beneficial in enhancing students' performance" (de Klerk *et al.,* 2006: p09). Reynolds (2008: p82) explains that;

> This kind of programme assumes that "learning in higher education is a complex social and cognitive process of discovering and mastering – perhaps even contesting – the knowledge-making rules and practices, values and roles that characterize the disciplinary cultures of the various fields of study.

The integrated support programme is more aligned with the mainstream as "the knowledge outcomes or objectives are set by the mainstream lecturers" (Reynolds, 2008: p87). It suggests that "in this case the target group remains closely aligned with its mainstream counterpart, characterized as being 'developmental' rather than 'remedial'…" (de Klerk *et al.*, 2006: p7). In this programme the courses are said to be augmented, meaning that they were;

> …so closely integrated with the mainstream courses they support, that curriculum decisions for the augmenting courses depend a great deal on curriculum decisions of the mainstream lecturers (Reynolds, 2008: p87).

Hence the students have the benefit of attending extra contact classes over and above the mainstream classes (Clarence-Fincham, nd). The integrated programme is often referred to as the 'Extended Programme', because students are allowed to register for mainstream courses in their first and second year of study. The advantages of this are that the work is reduced to a manageable load and the students are integrated into the mainstream from the time they come to the university (Clarence-Fincham, nd).

1.6.1 ADP within the UKZN Humanities Faculty

The academic development programme within the humanities faculty at UKZN campus dates back to as early as 1980s (this was long before the merger, at the time the institution was operating under the University of Natal name), when the other 'Open' or 'English' universities began introducing them. There have been numerous significant changes since the early inception days three decades ago - from the conventional academic development programmes that were totally separate from mainstream (such as the 'academic support' that did not carry any credit-bearing courses and the credit bearing 'academic development'), to more recent academic development programme, encompassing a mainstream courses (such as the Extended Curriculum Programme).

The first academic support programmes at UKZN concentrated on developing and preparing new students to be integrated into the full mainstream university curriculum. The development and preparation of these students was "addressed through intensive tutorial schemes outside of academic departments… [These students were also required to] take a reduced-load curriculum in their first year of study and to attend a non-credit bearing course…and voluntary small group tutorials… [mainly] focusing on general academic skills training" (Horsley, 2000: 36-7). Clarence-Fincham (nd) points out that

> …the earliest 'Academic Support' initiatives of the 1980s were largely non-credit bearing…focused on the individual students' [academic] 'deficiencies', the attainment of equality and redress from the injustices of the apartheid past… [This was eventually replaced by the alternative programme of the 1990s which] shifted the emphasis to the interrogation of teaching methodologies, the transformation of

curriculum and the provision of credit bearing intervention courses which were part of the mainstream curriculum…

The members of the staff who were involved in the development of academic support initiatives became aware of the fact "…that students were not transferring what they had learnt in these courses to their mainstream disciplines" (Horsely, 2000:37). The non-credit bearing programme was thus phased out "in favour of a year long generic intervention in academic literacy…which became part of accredited mainstream study as early as mid 1980s" (Clarence Fincham; nd). This was called '*Learning, Language and Logic (LLL)*' and later became '*Academic Communication Studies*' introduced on the Pietermaritzburg campus in 1984, offering credit bearing courses. Learning, Language and Logic was offered to students through the Department of Applied Language Studies; and was developed to equip students with communication skills in order to communicate effectively and powerfully in a wide range of university situations (Clarence-Fincham, 1998), and more specifically to master "the academic English of the classroom and of texts, and disciplinary content material…" (Maxwell-Jolly, Gándaran and Benavídez 2005: p03). These were primarily black students "…who were seen as needing remedial support to bridge the gap between poor secondary schools and the requirements of the university education" (Horsely, 2000:37).

In 1998 the Learning, Language and Logic (LLL) was offered as Academic Communication Studies programme. The majority of LLL students were unhappy with the name 'Learning, Language and Logic', they felt that it did not adequately reflect the nature of the course; and that it belonged to the 'old order' that represented a deficit view of second language speakers which marginalizes them as black students (Clarence-Fincham, 1998).

In 2001 "the Humanities Access Year was introduced in UKZN Pietermaritzburg campus and in 2005 at Howard College Campus in Durban" (Clarence-Fincham; nd). The Access Programme (AP) differed from the other conventional support initiatives in that it allowed the students to do three credit bearing foundation courses in their second semester of study at the university. Students who pass all their courses by the end of the

Access Programme year would have "48 credit points that are carried into the mainstream study; to allow them to reduce their curriculum in their first and second year which contributes to the possibility of passing other mainstream modules" (Clarence-Fincham; nd). Students who failed the modules in the AP were not allowed to proceed further. These disqualified from the AP were subsequently disqualified from enrolling for further study within the humanities faculty.

A student evaluation with the students that had successfully completed the AP was conducted. The results from the evaluation revealed that the Academic Programme was a success. The results also revealed that, by the end year 2005, 78% of access students had graduated or were on their way to graduating compared to 69.5% in of their mainstream counterparts (Clarence-Fincham; nd). Many students "were satisfied with the programme and happy to be part of the programme; and the benefits of small classes and of constant interaction with the lecturers and with the other students are recognized and highly valued" (Clarence-Fincham; nd).

However despite the evident success of the AP there were also some limitations that emerged from the evaluation. The major drawback was the fact that students were completely cut off from the AP once they had passed all the required modules. This problem was attributed to the lack of articulation between the access year and the mainstream study. Clarence-Fincham (nd) asserts that;

> …the complete absence of academic development in the first year of mainstream study resulted in students reporting a sense of academic dislocation as they moved from a highly structured environment of the access programme and entered the far less familiar domain of large, less personal lecture theatre with all its attendance discursive challenges.

In response to the challenges posed by the AP, the more recent "Extended Curriculum Programme" (ECP) was piloted in 2006 and introduced in 2007. The co-ordinators and the staff members that were involved in the development of the academic programmes felt that the programme needed to be aligned "…more explicitly with the first year of the mainstream study" (Clarence-Fincham; nd), by extending the student academic support to

the first and second year of study. This is made possible through augmented courses which become part of a mainstream for the students in their second semester of the ECP year. These are supplemented by extra supporting tutorials (the Extended Curriculum Tutorials 'ECT') which are taught by members of the support staff.

Similar to its predecessor (AP) the Extended Curriculum Programme (ECP) provides alternative admission for students with lower matriculation grades than required by the faculty, in order for students to be admitted to study at the UKZN humanities faculty. Extended Curriculum Programme consists of five non-credit bearing first semester foundation courses (Academic Literacy; English Language Development; Africa in the World; Basic Computer Literacy and Basic Numeracy). Students are required to pass all of them during first semester courses in order to proceed to second semester. Unfortunately students who do not successfully complete the first semester are laid off the programme; whilst those who pass all the first semester courses proceed to second semester.

During the second semester, three of the first semester courses become credit bearing courses (Academic Literacy; English Language Development and Africa in the World). Basic Numeracy remains non-credit bearing course and Basic Computer Literacy, which is a one semester course, is dropped; in its place students are given the chance to register for one mainstream course. Students get to choose one of their majors from courses offered within seven humanities disciplines, namely; Sociology, Psychology, Media and Communication, Geography, Environmental Science, Political Science and Legal Studies. Students who perform particularly well in their first semester are able to register for one or two courses from the mainstream. By the end of the first year of ECP, students who pass all their courses will have 64 credit points. By the end of the ECP, students will then have 64 or more credit points, as opposed to 48 credit points, from the AP. This frees up enough time in the following years for students to attend augmented courses (Clarence-Fincham, nd). (**Appendix A** depicts the format of the programme).

The new augmented programme enables the students to take a reduced load of courses during their first and second year of mainstream study. The mainstream course/s chosen during the second semester of the ECP year of study remains augmented until the end of second year of mainstream study. The augmented course "consist of six contact periods a week, and another two (in a form of tutorials) which provide substantial additional materials linked to the mainstream curricula…which have been developed to make the specific discursive practices of the disciplines explicit" (Clarence-Fincham, nd).

In the research conducted at Rhodes University, relating to a similar programme available to students, Reynolds (2008: 83) reveals that augmented "courses represent a shift from a separate foundation course to a semi-integrated one." Thus "…student development is seen as a long term vision…involving diversity, quality and improved teaching, learning and assessment practices" (Moyo, 1997: 66). The intention is to improve efficiency, retention, throughput and success rates (Clarence-Fincham, nd). Thus students have more chances of doing better and ultimately succeed in their studies.

1.7 Conclusion

Chapter One has provided an overview of the 'Academic Development Programme' on the UKZN Pietermaritzburg campus. In order to provide more insight, the discussion on the development and the importance of the programmes was located within the context of the University education and its history in South Africa. The next chapter will review literature studies related to the academic development programmes that have been conducted at different tertiary institutions.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a more detailed contextual exploration of the Extended Curriculum Tutorials initiative at the University of KwaZulu-Natal Pietermaritzburg campus by locating the Extended Curriculum Tutorials within the body of relevant literature pertinent to academic development programmes. A meta-analysis review of relevant studies was conducted. These studies emphasize the changes that have taken place within the programmes offered to previously disadvantaged students at different academic institutions, and the strengths, weaknesses and the impact they have as developmental initiatives for under-prepared students. Findings from all studies reveal that academic development programmes have gradually changed over time.

Changes occurred from completely separate models of interventions, to programmes whose conceptualization is more aligned with the mainstream curriculum through augmented courses (see section 1.6.1). Also evident from the findings is the fact that academic development programmes have not only widened access for historically disadvantaged students, but have also been instrumental in students' academic and personal development. However, it is worth mentioning that their strengths vary according to students' needs. Some programmes have been concerned only with meeting academic needs, whilst others have tended to focus on both academic and environmental needs of the students.

A review of the literature reveals that academic development changes that have taken place in South Africa strongly resemble many of the shifts that took place during the early implementation stages - and some of which still continue to characterize student development programmes today in many international academic institutions. The synthesis of this review explores the changes that have taken place within the academic

development programmes at various institutions, pedagogical strategies associated with these changes, as well as the impact that they have had on student development.

2.2 Review of Literature

The majority of the universities and colleges in first world countries (such as America, Europe and Australia) began to offer academic development programmes in the late 1800s. The programmes were designed for students who had not met entrance requirements and those with poor results during their first term at tertiary institutions (Tomlison, 1989). Although, within the South African higher academic institutions, similar academic development programmes were only introduced during the late 1970s (see section 1.6). They were also specifically designed to assist the students from historically disadvantaged backgrounds (mainly blacks); who were deemed not to have acquired the "assumed knowledge or desired proficiency in English (often an additional language), numeracy, learning skills, or academic skills" (Warren, 2002: p87).

The courses that were offered within the development programmes at that time did not form a part of the mainstream courses, and hence they did not carry any credits points towards the completion of the mainstream studies (degrees or diplomas). The students would normally enroll for a year long foundation, access or bridging programme, and only on successful completion of the programme could they proceed to the mainstream curriculum. In the meta-analytical synthesis of findings from a collection of studies that evaluated the effects of students' development programmes that were offered in some of the American higher academic institutions, Kulik, Kulik and Shwalb (1983) found that many of the programmes had positive effects on high-risk and disadvantaged students.

On the contrary, a study conducted at Yakima Valley Community College, in Washington D.C. (USA) revealed that there was "no relationship between the completion of a stand alone, developmental reading course…and academic success in subsequent courses…students in developmental [programmes]…did improve their tests scores but saw no benefit [of academic development programmes] in later academic achievement"

(Flippo and Caverly, 2008: p355). Similarly, within the South African context, Reynolds (2008) in her study entitled "*Changing from a separate to a semi integrated foundation programme: curriculum implications*", held that completely separate academic development initiatives were problematic. Particularly problematic were educational interventions offered alongside the mainstream courses - usually oriented towards coverage of subject content and transmission modes of teaching. Often here the purpose was specifically aimed on the development of the cognitive skills of the students, including English language skills (verbal and reasoning) of non-mother tongue speakers (Reynolds, 2008; Seymour, 1988).

The language skills were taught as a set of academic skills that were considered necessary for the students to succeed at the university. Staff members were entrusted with the responsibility to choose the reading material that they thought would interest the students (Reynolds, 2008). There was little if at all consultation with the students; no attempt was made to check whether or not the materials were similar in content and degree of difficulty to the mainstream courses. This made these academic development programmes assume a more authoritarian style of lecturing, where the lecturers or facilitators were empowered with all the decision-making authority in the learning processes (Giroux, 1989). Academic development programme here was defined in terms of teaching students to take information and use it to master how to tackle particular academic problems (Fone, 1995), in order to pass and proceed to mainstream. Active engagement through critical discussion as a way of stimulating both academic and individual growth was clearly compromised by the authoritarian teaching method. It also left little space for students to take ownership and responsibility for their own learning (Graaf, 2004).

Clarence-Fincham (nd) also raised concerns about the totally separate programme, in her study entitled "*Developing an extended curriculum for Humanities at the University of KwaZulu-Natal*." She found that despite the strengths and benefits of a separate programme (such as producing students who tend to outperform their counterparts with similar profiles but directly admitted to mainstream), there were also major drawbacks,

included but not limited to lack of proper integration to mainstream study. There was also a lack of articulation of reading material between the mainstream and academic development initiatives. This posed a major constraint and had a negative impact on students' performance (see section 1.6.1).

This created a lack of unanimity between the mainstream courses and academic development programme content (Flippo and Caverly, 2008). Hence, this undermined the effectiveness of academic development programmes, which is often determined by the extent to which the faculty, administrators and students perceive the programme as legitimate (Essack and Quayle, 2007). Essack and Quayle in their study entitled "*Students' perceptions of a university access (bridging) programme for social science, commerce and humanities*" also found that students perceived the programme to be a viable and legitimate if it prepared them for their degree studies, particularly in terms of lecture attendance and in developing relationships with educators and other students. This positively impacts on the lecture room climate and produces students who are more inspired and interested in learning.

It is on this premise, coupled with an expansion in open admission policies in most tertiary institutions in first world countries during the late 1970s, that academic development programmes began to gain momentum. This led to the beginning of the provision of individual tutorials, guidance courses, study skills courses and remedial full-term courses that were now credit bearing and taught by a team composed of trained faculty academic staff members and counsellors. Counselling sessions were more group-oriented and a non-directive part of the programme (Kulik, Kulik and Shwalb, 1983). However, the transition from a completely separate academic development programme to integrated to mainstream initiatives, within the South African institutions only took place during the late 1990s. The shifts closely "reflected the ideological and conceptual shifts internationally that have shaped the field during this time" (Clarence-Fincham, nd).

The move from completely separate to integrated initiatives resulted in a significant shift in curriculum, as well as a shift in the relationship between the curricula of the

augmenting courses and those of the mainstream courses where the support for students is complex (Reynolds, 2008). Students now become a part of the mainstream degree from the first day of registration, instead of first enrolling for a year-long academic development programme. However the duration of a degree becomes longer than normal, as it can only be completed in a minimum number of four years as opposed to three years. The focus of the programme stretches beyond the individual's academic development. In this model the assumption is that,

> learning in higher education is a complex social and cognitive process of discovering and mastering – perhaps even contesting – the knowledge-making rules and practices, values and roles that characterize the disciplinary cultures of the various fields of study (Reynolds, 2008: p23).

Woods and Lithauer (2005) in a study entitled "The '*added value' of a foundation programme*", evaluated the impact of an integrated foundation programme on the holistic development of students. They found that the integrated programme has a widespread effect on all aspects of student life and not only on their academic performance. Because it is based on a centralized model and managed independently from the faculties, with close consultation on module design, it is very student-centred, featuring small group teaching and mentoring sessions and a focus on the *holistic* development of the student.

Holistic development of students, especially under-prepared students, forms a crucial aspect of tertiary education. Wood and Olivier (2004) in their study entitled "*A self-efficacy approach to holistic student development*" also highlighted the need for tertiary education, to empower students to develop self-management skills and to take responsibility for their education. Hence tertiary education should not only focus on the academic skills development, but must also be able to induce numerous life skills. This will "promote effective functioning, both in the university environment and later life" (Wood and Olivier, 2004).

Wood and Lithauer's 'added value' model's ability to holistically develop is achieved by not only focusing on the development of the students' *cognitive* skills, but through simultaneously fostering students' development on a social and emotional level, enabling

them to be successful in all spheres of university life. It provides a broad range of knowledge, skills, values and attitudes, outside of the purely academic sphere. The integration of a developmental programme and the mainstream year has been made possible through augmented modules at first and second year of study (see section 1.6.1).

Augmented courses are taught by trained academic development lecturers, who also attend the mainstream lectures with their students. Mainstream lecturers set the materials for the courses and the academic development lecturers can supplement these and summarize the readings to develop work plans based on the readings or discourse from the mainstream. The outcomes set by the mainstream lecturers are based mainly on what students need to know, dependent on feedback from the students themselves.

Evident from the shifts that have taken place within the academic development programmes, there have also been changes in pedagogical emphasis or structures. These changes form an important part of a complex set of challenges facing the academic development initiatives. With regard to the shifts in pedagogical methods Clarence-Fincham (nd) notes that;

> …while there is no question that integrated academic development in the context of some form of [augmented modules]…is the most beneficial model, this ideal goal needs to be held in tension with the different academic, pedagogical and pragmatic realities faced by Faculties.

These realities include the student body that has become very diverse, bringing to tertiary study different cognitive, linguistic, knowledge and cultural resources that are needed to assist to develop and enable them to deal with the tertiary environment (Warren, 2002). As the majority, under-prepared students especially lack the work ethic, ability to manage time, independence, experience in conducting basic research, critical thinking skills and cannot take responsibility for their actions. They lack interest in reading further than is necessary to pass the examination and lack literacy in general. All these fundamental competencies required to succeed at tertiary level are lacking (Wood and Olivier, 2004).

Often it is a pedagogical design strategy that puts a great emphasis on learning. Hence, a careful choice of one or sometimes a combination of different pedagogical strategies (see chapter three) is crucial for academic and personal development of under-prepared students. This can induce or arouse sense of motivation, interest and intention to learn skills of life, not just to pass the examinations in order to graduate. For example, the benefits of *humanistic* pedagogical approach (see section 3.2.1), can sometimes be completely eclipsed by its weaknesses where students have not fully grasped the dynamics of tertiary learning. Graaf (2004) reveals this fact in a study entitled "*Progress in teaching sociology: from cognitive skills to hermeneutic and phronesis*" conducted at the University of Cape Town. Graaf found that in *humanistic* inspired mainstream lectures, often under-prepared students struggled in discussion led lectures, as they lacked confidence to participate. Sometimes when the lectures are too participation oriented it may seem as though the lecture is not keeping to the point resulting in even greater confusion.

The low lecturer-to-student ratio (often of about 1:25) within the academic development programmes creates a much more comfortable environment that is supportive and caring for students to improve their interpersonal growth and increase their confidence levels. Students develop casual relationships with their lecturers, making it easier for students to engage in discursive lectures and consult their lecturers at any time when they have problems (Essack and Quayle, 2007). Bernard-Carreno (2009) in her study entitled "*Critical Pedagogy of Black Studies*" highlights this within the academic development programmes. Lecturers do not wait for this possibility to materialize. From the beginning, lecturers' efforts coincide with those of the students, to engage in critical thinking and the quest for mutual humanization. The efforts are imbued with a profound trust in students and their creative power.

Similarly De Beer (2006) in a study entitled *"Open access, retention and throughput at the Central University of Technology (CUT)"* (an institution in Bloemfontein, South Africa), acknowledged the importance of partnerships between the students and lecturers within the academic development programmes. Lecturers were encouraged not to

underestimate their learners, especially their prior learning skills, since this could frustrate rather than enhance learner satisfaction and self-confidence. In this instance, lecturers assumed hermeneutically informed teaching methods, and thus used their consumed knowledge and applied it to their lived experience (cultural), thus producing new forms of knowledge (Bernard-Carreno, 2009).

Through discussion-led lectures and recognizing the cultural resources that under-prepared students bring with them to tertiary, the programme is able to create an environment in or outside the classroom that is favourable for students. Hence, this enhances motivation, as students do begin to understand how to apply themselves within the new environment (De Beer, 2006). Students also develop useful peer to peer relationships (see the next section 2.3) that improve their academic learning. Students often get together and form study groups to overcome their academic problems. Friendships that students develop in these small classes are much closer and they can easily share their personal problems with one another (Essack and Quayle, 2007).

De Beer's study also found that the financial factor (linked to socio-economic backgrounds) is often another main contributor which makes it impossible for the majority of dropout under-prepared students to complete their studies. In an attempt to reduce the dropout rate, Central University of Technology has a comprehensive financial aid programme provided by the institution itself to deserving students for both academic fees and accommodation. Obler, Francis and Wishengrad (1977) support the importance of incorporating financial packages and counselling into student developmental programmes. In their study entitled "*Combining of Traditional Counseling, Instruction, and Mentoring Functions with Academically Deficient College Freshmen*", conducted at the City University of New York, a student development programme called "Teacher-Mentor-Councelor" was created to offset high attrition rates prevalent among under-prepared students (mainly Blacks and Puerto Ricans) admitted to this university after the implementation of an open admission policy in 1970.

Therefore, it is clear that academic development programmes are designed and able to stimulate self-confidence among students, by developing and improving students' motivation, academic performance and boosting their ability to communicate effectively. This, in turn, fosters the building of self-esteem and more enthusiasm about themselves and the likelihood of persisting when faced with difficult challenges.

2.3 Social Capital and Educational Attainment

The students' academic achievement or success is influenced by their personal characteristics and dispositions (Goddard, 2003). But, one should not underestimate the impact of social networks that develop among students who share the common goal of success (Ferman, 2006). These networks often translate into a resource that many scholars referred to as social capital (see section 3.4), available to the members of a network as a result of their relationships (Van Der Gaag and Snijders, 2004). However, not all forms of social networks lead to the advancement of the group members. For example, "a backward looking network [such as group of delinquencies], hostile to any kind of formal education, may impede productive powers" (Winch, 2000: p181) of its members and hence inhibit individual and group advancement. There is strong evidence from the empirical research revealing that social capital greatly impacts on students' educational performance (Huang, 2008). This impact is often associated with positive academic achievement (Robert, 2000; Goddard, 2003; Merrit, 2008).

Halpern (2005: p159) also assert that, social capital is a "lubricant of knowledge transfer and development, and it pays considerable educational dividends." Hence, in an academic environment where students tend to exhibit high levels of social capital, there is usually high levels of trust, generating a collaborative culture which in turn creates strong often positive networks among students (Hargreaves, 2001; Goddard, 2003). The positive relations or networks that create social capital leading to students' academic success include but are not limited to "seeing close friends [often and hence, building norms of trust], and friends' educational expectation" (Dika and Singh, 2002: p41). It is through

these interactions that students get to access and exchange sources of human and cultural capital (Barret, 2006).

However, not all students arriving at tertiary level possess adequate stock of social capital. The statistical analyses indicate that students' levels of social capital are shown to be "mediated most prominently by socio-economic status and, the higher a student's household income, the greater their social capital resources at their disposal" (Barret, 2006: p6). This means, students from higher socio-economic backgrounds (often positively related to highly educated parents) are more likely to possess greater stocks of social capital when they arrive at tertiary (Parcel and Dufur, 2001; Pascarella, *et al*, 2004). Higher socio-economic status usually translates into higher investment in students' education, in terms of level of family income (for financing education and social clubs such as sports and excursions) and support (which university to attend, kinds of academic and social choices to make), educational expectations and plans, and academic preparation (Jerrin and Micklewright, 2009). Hence, students from higher socio-economic backgrounds have better access to human and cultural capital, through family relationships and interaction with others outside the family (Dika and Singh, 2002).

Unfortunately, a majority of students from lower socio-economic backgrounds tend to possess inadequate stocks of social capital compared to their peers from higher socio-economic backgrounds (Nunez and Curraro-Alamin, 1998; Thomas and Quinn, 2007). The students from lower socio-economic backgrounds are also often also first-generation students (students whose parents have not attended post secondary education), and they "tend to be at a distinct disadvantage with respect to basic knowledge about postsecondary education (e.g., costs, [study patterns, courses to take] and application process)" (Pascarella, *et al*, 2004). Social capital increases when students are around others who can familiarize them with the tertiary environment, such as values, and experiences of the dominant, more valued, culture (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1977; McDonough, 1997). According to Ferman, the tertiary environment

introduces [students] to varying perspectives that in theory break down old prejudices and parochialism…[enabling] students to transcend more parochial ideas and see broader possibilities for themselves and the people around themselves…[and] demystify the college experience and make it a real experience for their future (2006: p88).

It is through this sense of self-awareness and familiarity with the tertiary environment that first-generation students begin to accept and legitimize their membership as tertiary students, and they unconsciously develop networks and bonds of reciprocity (Ferman, 2006). The networks or bonds may be in a form of formal and informal study groups, close friendships that provide personal and emotional support, and encouragement as well as shared views and thoughts about the present environment and future aspirations. These bonds also allow students to share and exchange academic information and knowledge that would otherwise be difficult without the peer networks (Dika and Singh, 2007). Halpern (2005) also maintains that students from lower socio-economic backgrounds tend to perform academically well when social relationships and networks among themselves are strong. In this regard, social capital can be seen as a resource that contributes to the cognitive and personal development of the individual students, as student perceptions of support from other students relates positively to student self confidence to participate more enthusiastically in academic activities (Brown, Flick and Williamson, 2005). Similarly Barret also notes that, "many disadvantaged students make use of social capital resource and achieve 'against the odds'" (2006:p6).

Within the Extended Curriculum Tutorials programme, the researcher expected to find similar activation of social bonds and networks which often assist them to survive within the tertiary environment.

2.4 Conclusion

It is clear from the above summaries that Extended Curriculum Tutorials are similar in many respects to the successful academic development programmes offered at other universities. The strengths of the Extended Curriculum Tutorials have been attributed to their ability to offer under-prepared students a conducive atmosphere for academic

learning and social interactions, as has been highlighted by the different studies. The success of the programme is attributed to the fact that it was designed to meet the needs of these students, through reduced course loads, tutorial assistance, counselling, study skills training and remedial skills courses.

These are important aspects that are also evident in other programmes that have been implemented in many other institutions, including the Extended Curriculum Programme at UKZN. All of the students registered are subsidized by financial aid. This aid covers both tuition and accommodation fees, as well as some reading material such as files and dictionaries.

The content within the programme is also largely informed by what would contribute to student growth. Extended Curriculum Tutorials are taught by trained academic development lecturers who possess qualifications (degrees and Masters' degrees) in their respective disciplines, making the integrated programme more effective than the separate model. Students consider this (integrated) programme legitimate and feel a part of the student body, as they are not completely separated from the mainstream. Feeling positive about being in a programme is crucial and induces student motivation.

There is a large body of literature that shows the important and role of social capital in academic success (as described above). This demonstrates the need for this study to identify if and how such social capital contributes to success in the extended curriculum programme. To this end, the study shall adopt social capital as an analytical lens through which data will be analyzed to supplement the other data sources. See section 3.4 for a further discussion of social capital.

CHAPTER 3
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Introduction

This section of the project provides an overview of theoretical approaches that will assist and give an understanding of the different types of pedagogical strategies employed by the tutors within the programme. It will also examine the social theory - namely social capital - in order to make sense of the role of the observed interpersonal and group phenomena that contribute towards the efficacy of the extended curriculum tutorials.

3.2 Education and Pedagogy

> In the Republic, Plato advocated state control of the education system […] so that individuals could be indoctrinated into their future class in society. [This]…theory of education provided for one system of education for ordinary citizens and another system for the rulers. Plato's curriculum was designed to ensure that there would be no independent or critical thought (Fone, 1995: p75).

Prior to democracy in South Africa, the education system resembled that of Plato's authoritarian education system (Fone, 1995: p75). This educational system was "…deeply implicated in producing those aspects of dominant culture that served to reproduce an unjust and unequal society" (Giroux, 1989: p8). It is for this reason that the education system in South Africa has been marked by a high degree of transformation, from "…one which was designed to further segregation and apartheid…to one which will meet the educational aspirations and needs of all people in South Africa, as well as addressing the country's economic and developmental requirements" (Moyo *et al.,* 1997: p2).

Fone states that "a new educational system should be essentially democratic: all stakeholders including the learners should have a say in its administration" (1997: p76).

The traditional role of the teacher as an authority figure, and of students as passive recipients of knowledge, is rejected in the new democratic educational system (Moreno-Lopez, 2005: p01). The new system sees the classroom as a place where students should actively and freely engage in the administration of the curriculum and negotiate this against their daily life experiences (MacFadden and Munns, 2002: p360). The radical change taking place within the South African education system has "the possibility of inducting individuals into the wider collective, into historically formed ways of knowing and ideally into an understanding of the individual's position within, and potential contribution to, the social and political" (Martin, 2006: p39).

Danner explains that to understand "what learning is and, above all, how it works, is something which has to be researched to determine the inherent structures" (1997: p07). Hence, to gain a more informed understanding of the education system in South Africa, it is imperative that the researcher explores different pedagogical strategies employed within academic institutions. For the purpose of the project, attention will be devoted to the pedagogical strategies employed within the extended curriculum programme.

Giroux and Mclaren define pedagogy as "a deliberate attempt to influence how and what knowledge and identities are produced within and among particular sets of social relations" (1989: p238). From such a definition it is clear that pedagogy can be articulated as the correct use of teaching strategies or practice through which individuals are taught the particular sets of norms and values that conform to the socially accepted ideology. The accepted ideology is negotiated in the social environment which an individual is part of. This means that "in South Africa the birth of democracy meant that social relations as well as individual empowerment had to be fostered to ensure individuals become democratic South African citizens" (Martin, 2006: p23).

According to Toohey (1999: p154),

> the best way to understand a new concept is by an analogy with something that students are familiar with. [Hence] it is important to help students make these connections with what they already know, because to ignore what they have already learned is asking for trouble.

In the process of employing the different pedagogical strategies within the higher academic institutions, "educators need to carefully consider student characteristics that might impact how students respond to a particular pedagogy or to the way it is implemented" (Wolcott, Baril and Cunningham, 2000: p03). It must also be kept in mind that "learning which is derived from personal experience is very powerful" (Toohey, 1999: p154). To provide an explanation and understanding of how the different pedagogical processes shape the consciousness of an individual student, Graaf's (2004) theoretical analysis of the three different pedagogical approaches or teaching methods will be investigated. These are hermeneutic, humanistic and cognitive.

3.2.1 Hermeneutics Approach to Pedagogy

> According to Small, "Hermeneutics is an ancient discipline…which has become increasingly popular within those social sciences…concerned with the general notion of interpretation…The etymological roots of the term 'hermeneutics' are unclear. The Greek words: *hermeneo* (to express, to translate, to explain), *hermeneia* (understanding, exegesis), and *hermeneutes* (the agent who practices understanding) are all associated with its origins. [And the usage of the term within the social sciences]…has not strayed far from these origins, being used to refer to interpretations and the explication of meaning (1994: 07).

Similarly, Romualdo notes that, "hermeneutics is an art of interpretation…" (2007: p11). [that] "…seeks to rediscover the point of contact in the mind of the artist which will open up fully the significance of a work of art, just as in the case of texts it seeks to reproduce the writer's original words" (Gadamer, 1979: p148). From the hermeneutics perspective, the generally held view is that the interpreter should always strive to read the text in its entirety to obtain a general understanding of the text (Diekelmann, 2001, Kruger, p1988b).

The interpreter should regard hermeneutics as "the primary aspect of social experience, not only for the scholarly interpretation of texts or documents of the past, but also for understanding the mystery of the inwardness of the other person" (Rennie, 2006: p05), by ensuring that, in the process of textual interpretation, they (interpreters) refer to the participants to ensure that interpretations were reflected in the text (Diekelmann, 2001).

Small cautions that, in the interpretation of some parts of the text, one should consider those parts in relation to the whole text, "which, in turn, should be considered in relation to its constituent parts" (1994: p11). From the hermeneutics perspective, "…to understand your author you should be adept in his language and indeed know his person as well as you can" (Romualdo, 2007: p16).

Hermeneutics see social actors as agents whose conversations embed their personalities and explains how individuals are absorbed into even deeper inner selves as they interact with one another in the social environment. Though they are not, their individual beings are reflected in the process of social perspective interpretation (Graaf, 2004). This happens unintentionally, as individuals "listening to the other, careful, respectful, mindful listening, a listening in which both those listening and those being listened to, are swept up into processes which they do not control, and in the end are transformed by the encounter with others" (Graaf, 2004: p293).

Thus hermeneutics inspired pedagogy is the "…one that emphasizes the social historical context, the limits of the interpreter, and the effects of ideology and power on both producers and interpreters of cultural materials" (Johnson, 1990: p82). It does this because "all knowledge is grounded in the cultural practices" (Bonner, 2001: p279). Hermeneutics oriented pedagogy "examines cultural expressions in terms of their multiple contexts and the multiple strategies and intentions that both writers and readers bring to the productions and consumptions of cultural materials" (Johnson, 1990: p82).

"…making sense of texts and events in the human world occurs only in the midst of prejudice and tradition, [note in this case]…Prejudice connotes a predetermined judgment which is deemed a fetter on the open-minded pursuit of knowledge" (Crocker, 2004). For Graaf, the hermeneutics inspired pedagogy goes beyond the cognitive and humanism skills in teaching, by rethinking both the aims of teaching and the means by which they are achieved (2004).

Graaf considers continuous assessment as a way of improving "communication between the teacher and the student, but also as a multifaceted engagement" (2004: p294). Because both the educator and the learner "cannot disregard [themselves and their situations in their] interpretation, the text or event that he takes on must be related to his situation if it is to be understood at all. For hermeneutics, in discussion-led lectures, students discuss a great deal, at the same time ask a lot of questions. The aim is to "empower students by making clear that [lecturers] do not have a monopoly on seeing things in texts…" (Johnson, 1990: p81).

The main aspect in such an environment is careful listening (Graaf, 2004), in order to influence the ways students perceive things and hence create a place for themselves within an academic discourse (Johnson, 1990: p81).The written work of the students can be used as the area of identifying some of the personal issues and the difficulties and confusion that the students may be experiencing. The work submitted by the students must be returned to students within a short space of time and this should be accompanied by detailed feedback, written and face to face (Graaf, 2004: p294).

Through paying careful attention to students' written work, the lecturer is assumed to be actively listening (through the reading) to the conversation and the interpretation of the student. At the same time the students feel empowered and are maturing intellectually, while the lecturer accomplishes his or her task, which is to:

> …introduce students to…an endless web of growth, and change, and interaction, learning and forgetting, dialogue and dialectic [,] ... to make it real and visible for them, and to encourage them to cast their own strands of thought and text into this network so that they will feel its power and understand both how to use it and how to protect themselves from its abuses (Johnson, 1990: p81).

3.2.2 Humanistic Approach to Pedagogy

> …a humanistic approach to education is not the product of one person, nor is it implemented in one way…teachers of different ages, different interests, different personalities, different subject matter fields, all find distinctive ways of creating

in their own [ways]…an experience of responsible freedom in which creative learning can take place (Rogers, 1983: p04).

The "humanistic learning theories have been prominent in…education since the early 1920s" (Amstutz, 1999: 19). They emphasize "the importance of the inner world of the human being and place[s] the individual's thoughts, feelings and emotions at the forefront of all human developments" (Wang, 2005: p01). This means "…the affective and motivational side of learning, [and] a consideration of the whole person rather than just the rational" (Graaf, 2004: p290). Based on humanistic inspired pedagogy "…the student is the foundation of the progressive education movement…[and] learning occurs through encounters with self-knowledge related to the quest for personal meaning and identity" (Carpenter and Tait, 2001: 195). Huitt (1997) states:

> Learning is not an end in itself; it is the means to progress towards the pinnacle of self-development, which Maslow terms 'Self-actualization'. A [student] learns because he or she is inwardly driven, and derives his or her reward from the sense of achievement that having learned something affords.

Such a quest for meaning and identity encompasses "behavioural changes [and] changes in [personal] values, attitudes, and beliefs about the self" (Amstutz, 1999: p18). For the humanist, the lecturer has an obligation of "…making the discourse an empowering one… [and must] be willing to consider the relationship of [his] or her role to the struggle for 'social justice' beyond the classroom walls" (Davis, 1999). Allowing the students to decide on the content of the lessons engages them more personally with the curriculum. It provides them with many opportunities to discover facts for themselves and to apply their newly acquired knowledge. Most importantly student engagement with content promotes two-way communication (Kruger and Adams, 1998).

In this case the lecturer is not a "disseminator of knowledge; the ultimate objective for a teacher is to relinquish authority in order to become a facilitator for empowered learning" (Bala, 2007). For the lecturer, becoming a facilitator means "organizing and managing learning activities accepted by the students and by creating an environment that has

mutual respect and good rapport. And the atmosphere that is one of purposefulness and confidence in learning" (Kyriacou, 1997: p111).

Learning can, to some extent, be influenced by the physical layout of the lecture venue. For example, the arrangement of the furniture allows students to sit in groups and work together to accomplish certain tasks (Kruger and Adams, 1998: p190). This may be difficult to do at the undergraduate level, due to the enormous number of students attending these lectures. The lecturer can always encourage the students to work in groups, promoting group discussions [because they are] "…a powerful technique for getting students to take personal responsibility for their work, their actions, and their ideas" (Ballard, 1987: p09).

Creating a conducive and liberating environment helps the student to gain "…control and the teacher or [lecturer] performs a subsidiary role in the educational process ... helping individuals to grow and reach higher levels of self-actualization" (Carpenter and Tait, 2001: p195). Creating and maintaining a conducive environment in the course will also maximize learning (Ballard, 1987: p08).

The important aspect to keep in mind is that humanistic-inspired pedagogy confers the students with the ability to take responsibility for their education and learning and, in the process, they are able to participate in the lecture discussion in a way that is more meaningful to their lives (Graaf, 2004).

Ballard (1987: p08) provides three important points that educators need to consider when employing the humanistic-inspired pedagogy as the teaching strategy:

- A view of students as reality constructors or 'meaning makers' rather than as 'fertile gardens' or blank slates;
- A view of students as active participants in an interactive learning environment;

- A view of students which acknowledges their human dignity and equality, despite the necessary status differences imposed by the structure of contract college relations.

From the humanistic perspective, for learning to be effective and responsive to the student's needs, the requirement is that the lecturer gives students the opportunity to contribute and elaborate their own ideas, and "accept the value of each [student's] contribution and the relevance of the [student's] experience" (Kyriacou, 1997: p112). The lecturers need to offer support, guidance and reminders, and at the same time be aware not to offer too much support, and extricate themselves as students begin to function independently (Kruger and Adams, 1998). To achieve this, the lecturer "needs to attend to the set, the beliefs and interests of the students…[and maintain] a view of students which acknowledges their human dignity and equality, despite the necessary status differences imposed by the structure of contract college relations" (Ballard, 1987: p08).

In this way, the students can use the material learnt in the lectures for their personal gain as they reflect back on their lives and environmental experiences. The individual students' self actualization is often determined by both the external environmental and internal factors (Eysenck, 1994). Graaf gives an example of a situation where humanistic-inspired pedagogy is employed. In the postgraduate classes where students often enter a course with their own personal agendas to fulfill, they "use the material and the activities of the course to further these agendas through self-reflection and self-critique, and play a significant role in the planning and progress of the course" (2004: p290).

Lecture discussions can be difficult for most undergraduate students, as they may be still at the point where they are trying to adjust to tertiary life. These may also be confusing and intimidating for students, as they may not be used to such large classes. Weaker students, especially, may be too shy to engage in lectures discussions with large groups of students (Graaf, 2004: p291). Lecturers should always encourage the students in the lecture discussions, reward those who have demonstrated some level of participation, and

allow the students to question and raise their opinions about the material covered in lectures (Graaf, 2004: p290). "Student trust and respect are established during these discussions in which students actively engaged on their own…[and] appreciate more fully what [is being taught], regarding aspects of their [learning] process" (Ballard, 1987: p10).

Davies (1999: p05) stresses that through lecture discussions "there is the fostering of open communication or debate among students, [and] the giving of direction…" to meaningful and successful learning. In these lectures, "the communication flow…should permit exchanges among students, as well as two-way flow between teacher and student" (Ballard, 1987: p08). In tutorials, which usually consist of smaller groups of students, the discussions can be held among students raising concerns and problems that they might be experiencing in their courses and personal lives in general. This is also a place where the shy students can get a chance to engage in the course discussions.

In humanistic-inspired pedagogy, lecturers are encouraged to know their students and students to know each name. Davies (1999) argues that lectures where students barely communicate with each other and with their lecturers become alienated from their own learning and hence dehumanized. Graaf (2004) provides an example from the University of Cape Town, where lecturers took trouble finding out names and personal details of the students. By the end of the semester, the lecturers were aware of their students' concerns and problems. This completely resonates with the fact that the humanist approach considers the person as a whole rather than only his or her rational side (Graaf, 2004).

3.2.3 Cognitive Approach to Pedagogy

According to Ashman and Conway, "cognition refers to…any process which allows an organism to know and be aware [and], it involves perceiving, reasoning, conceiving and judging" (1993: p33). The cognitive theory's popularity can be traced back to Alfred Bandura's book entitled, *Social Foundations of Thought and Action: A Social Cognitive Theory*, in which he offered "a divergent yet distinct emphasis on the mental processes

that enable individuals to learn and to use knowledge" (Clint, 1993: p02). From a cognitive theory perspective, Bandura held the view that:

> …cognitive processes take a variety of forms. Much human behaviour, which is purposive, is regulated by forethought embodying cognized goals. Personal goal setting is influenced by self appraisal of capabilities. The stronger the perceived self efficacy, the higher the goal challenges people set for themselves and the firmer is their commitment to them (Bandura, 1993: p118).

Self-appraisal serves as a method that reiterates the self efficacy of capabilities, when the individuals' goals are difficult to achieve. The "people's beliefs in their efficacy influences the types of anticipatory scenarios they construct and rehearse" (Bandura, 1993: p118). Self-appraisal of the efficacy of capabilities is extremely important for success in the given scenarios, because the "…misjudgments of personal efficacy can produce adverse consequences… [in turn] requiring further self-appraisal" (Bandura, 1989: p590).

Learning has a greater chance of occurring with success if the individual actor has a strong sense of self-efficacy and beliefs about his or her capabilities (Bandura, 1982). "Self-efficacy, refers to perceptions about one's capabilities to organize and implement actions necessary to attain designated performance of skill for specific tasks" (Zimmerman, 1989: p02). The self-efficacy mechanism occupies an important role in human agency (Bandura, 1982). These perceptions have a major influence on how the individuals feel, think, motivate their attitude and behave. For example, Bandura emphasises;

> Those [people] who have a high sense of efficacy visualize success scenarios that provide positive and supports for performance. [And] those who doubt their efficacy visualize failure scenarios and dwell on the many things that can go wrong. [Bandura also notes that] it is difficult to achieve much while fighting self-doubt (1993: p118).

For Bandura, the individual actors' behaviour is not merely a response to the external stimuli (social environment) that they are not in control of as individuals. This does not mean that the social environment does not influence any of the individuals' actions, but

"people evoke different reactions from their social environment by their physical characteristics, such as their age, size, race, sex, and physical attractiveness, quite apart from what they say and do" (Bandura, 1989: p03). Individuals' anticipated actions are negotiated against the social environment encountered to elicit appropriate behaviour, enabling the actor to achieve the desired goals (Jeanne Ellis Ormrod, 1999; *see also* Jones, 2008).

Stone contends that

> …interaction occurs between behavior and the environment…people are both products and producers of their environment… [And] a person's behavior will determine the aspects of their environment to which they are exposed, and behavior is, in turn, modified by that environment. [The]…behavior can affect the way in which they experience the environment through selective attention. Based on learned human preferences and competencies, humans select whom they interact with and the activities they participate in from a vast range of possibilities…In turn, the environment partly determines which forms of one's behavior are developed and activated (2005: p04).

Ashman and Conway states that "human learning is concerned generally with acquiring knowledge and skills" (1993: p32). In an academic environment, such as the tertiary institution, the cognitive inspired pedagogy is intended to equip the students with thinking skills. Students are required to be independent, ambitious individuals who can comprehend and make sense of the world they are a part of (Campbell, Campbell and Dicknson, 2004). Similarly, Zimmerman, Bandura and Martinez-Pons maintain that:

> … [Students] direct their learning processes and attainments by setting challenging goals for themselves by applying appropriate strategies to achieve their goal and by enlisting self-regulative influences that motivate and guide their efforts (1992: p664).

The cognitive approach to pedagogy stresses the importance of "teaching [students] cognitive skills rather than content" (Graaf, 2004: p288). There is "emphasis on the need for students to be actively involved in the learning and problem-solving process" (Ashman *et al.,* 1993: p42). Based on this approach, students are treated as critical subjects, rather than passive recipients of information. They are perceived to be

individuals who possess an ability to actively engage in the construction and interpretation of their own environment, in relation to what they have learnt in lectures (Jonassen, nd).

"The [lecturer] becomes a facilitator of learning, rather than delivering the message [and] the learner plays a critical role in determining what he or she gets out of instruction" (Svinicki, 1995). There is a "transfer of responsibility for learning and problem-solving from the teacher to the students" (Ashman *et al.,* 1993: p42).   The transfer of responsibility does not, however, relinquish the lecturer from his or her lecturing duties. Students still need the lecturer to induce them to "construct mental and verbal elaborations of the materials they are trying to learn" (Wittrock, 1979: p312).   The lecturer also retains the responsibility for deciding the strategies to apply to the tasks and to determine at what rate the learning should occur (Ashman *et al.,* 1993).

Zimmerman points out that the students' "…self-regulated learning is not determined merely by personal processes; these processes are assumed to be influenced by environmental and behavioral events in reciprocal fashion" (1989: p02). This is the prime reason cognitive inspired pedagogy places a great deal of importance on the lecturer to structure an accommodative environment for the students to study and participate in their lectures (Zimmerman *et al.,* 1992). The "students' cognitive development is a result of their interaction with their environments" (Zhang and Watkins, 2001: 243)**.** Lectures with a highly structured curriculum can become very "…impinging [and stringent] on the students' progress…" (Hokanson 2000: p511).

To the proponents of cognitive pedagogy "…the role played by the individual student's information processing capabilities may be a critical factor for improving learning and retention skills" (Weinstein, Underwood, Wicker and Cubberly, 1979: p45). Cognitive pedagogy should also take into account the student's characteristics, because ignoring these characteristics may lead to "…failure of educational efforts or the inability of research methods to detect educational impact" (Wolcott *et al.*, 2000: p05), and failure to

grant students with a "productive and enriching academic experience that will lead to enhanced achievement in the later" (Erickson. *et al*, 2007: p481) student academic life.

Graaf gives a brief explanation of how the cognitive approach worked in his lectures at the University of Cape Town, from the perspectives of strong and weaker students. He maintains that:

> ...strong students were able to take hold of the detailed argument side of the course and build on to it immensely creative critiques of particular theories. Weaker students, who would have struggled with the readings, were able to use the lectures and lecture notes as foundations and as introductions to the reading (2004: p289).

Both the weaker and the stronger students were able to benefit from the information learnt in lectures. Wolcott says that for cognitive centred pedagogy to be effective when implemented, the "intended student outcomes should be specified at levels of complexity that are appropriate, given the students' stages of cognitive development" (2000: p05). In this way, students are aware of what is expected of them, just as Graaf explained how "students were given a mark schedule setting out quite explicitly a range of skills according to which… [tasks] would be marked" (2004: p289). Thus students knew exactly what was expected of them and they were prepared for the upcoming challenges that they might face during the course of their studying.

3.3 Conclusion

This section has examined the nature and effectiveness of the different type/s of pedagogical strategies that are developed to enhance and improve learning. Using the above theory as an analytical framework will assist in explaining the nature and effectiveness of pedagogical approaches within the programme.

3.4 Social capital

This section will critically examine the concept of social capital; and briefly discuss how this concept relates to the other forms of capital namely; cultural capital, financial capital, and human capital. The analysis of social capital will inform this research project how students from previously disadvantaged academic backgrounds access and activate social capital to achieve their academic goals.

The concept of social capital has not been easy to define; many academics from different academic disciplines explain this concept in relation to many of the social relationships or networks that exist in most of the structures or institutions in society (whether at an organizational or social level). In defining this concept, the common or central theme that emerges is that of potential relationships individuals have with those living around them. For example, Putnam (1993: p01) defines this concept as the "…features of social organization such as networks, norms and trusts, that facilitate coordination and corporation for mutual benefit." Similarly Chan (2005: p02) points out that "…the glue that holds communities and other social networks together is called 'social capital'. A key ingredient for developing social capital is trust…social capital is a resource that helps sustain community."

According to Gravelle, Lorocque and Dawson (2005),

> …the notion of social capital first appeared in Hanifan's early work (1916; 1920) on rural school community centers...as those tangible substances [that] count for most in the daily lives of people, with respect to the cultivation of good will, fellowship, sympathy and social intercourse among those that make up a social unit.

However, Hanifan's "conceptual invention [failed to] attract notice from the other social commentators and disappeared without a trace" (Putman, 2000: p18). It is Putman who later revived the notion of social capital, in his book entitled *"Bowling Alone, the collapse and revival of the American Community."* In this book Putnam revealed his concern about the declining participation or civic engagement in community issues in

America societies. For Putnam, this constituted a decline in social bonds and norms of reciprocity and trustworthiness (Putnam, 2000), hence a decline in social capital. Further, Putnam maintains that other numerous kinds of civic engagement have declined, including participation in voluntary associations, public life, and religious activities" (Etzioni, 2001: p223), and this has led to a decline in social wellbeing.

Hanifan's interest was also in the contribution of "goodwill, fellowship, mutual sympathy and social intercourse to collective prosperity and wellbeing…" (Field, 2008:15). In his analysis, Hanifan found that the social networks that individual members and families developed amongst each other in rural communities was logically centered within the social institutions (1916: p130). The community schools were the main social institutions that "offered opportunities not only to teach elements of social capital but also to apply aspects of social capital through planned activities" (D'Agostino, 2006: p04).

Hanifan further contended that,

> …the individual [was] helpless socially, if left entirely to himself. Even the association of the members of one's own family failed to satisfy that desire which every normal individual has of being with his fellows… (1916: p130).

Hence, social institutions (such as political institutions and societal cleavages) channel and influence social capital such that it becomes a beneficial resource to the society (Hooghe and Stolle, 2003: p21). It is "through the processes of regular social intercourse [that individual actors are] enriched by the collective social capital they create" (Gravelle *et al.,* 2005), giving rise to social cohesion enabling the actors to achieve their desired goals, which would otherwise be very difficult, if not impossible, to achieve in the absence of social capital (Coleman, 1988: p98).

This means that individual actors in society do not only contribute to social capital. But they also benefit from social capital, through social networks that are formed in societies with a strong sense of social bonds. Thus social capital in any given community is influenced by a strong of interpersonal interactions and collective interest towards community matters. The interactions and interests are in reality an expression of social

networking that fosters relationships, at the same time creating the sense of trust and tolerance. This leads to a sense of belonging to those who find themselves within the community both at the individual and collective levels (Smith, 2001: p231).

Putman provides the example of a small farming community "…where one farmer got his hay baled by another farmer and where farm tools are extensively borrowed and lent, the social capital allowing each farmer to get his work done with less physical capital in the form of tools and equipment" (1993: p04). Similar social networks are evident at the university level, where students constantly share and borrow each other's academic material such as books, lecture notes and computer discs, and form discussion groups that work together.

This allows them to share their knowledge and understanding of the academic information learnt in lectures and to achieve those desired common goals (Preece and Houghton, 2000: p155). For those who are close enough, they will also share their personal life experiences as students with one another. This is clearly a reflection of "social capital [as] a form of capital that resides in relationships among individuals that facilitate transactions and the transmission of different resources" (Pascarella, Pierson, Wolniak, and Terenzini, 2004: p252). Gravelle *et al.* (2005) notes that,

> …the quality of [students'] interpersonal interactions, their commitment towards one another, their sense of belonging, and their concrete experience of social networking involving relationships of trust and tolerance…enhance(s) the prospects for a 'healthy' university community…

Stolle points out that "in-group trusts [such as those bonds that develop amongst groups of students'] networks can be used to achieve the group purposes [common goal of academic success] more effectively and easily" (2001: p119). Through interactions [students can] coordinate and negotiate their actions according to prevailing contextual norms and values that lead to the intended or desired outcomes. Hence student's networks are also shaped, redirected and informed by the tertiary environment they find themselves in (Coleman, 1988).

This means that "students do not only bring certain levels of cultural and social capital to college, the college experience itself provides a vehicle for acquiring additional cultural and social capital" (Pascarella, et al, 2004: p252). Similarly Halpern maintains that, "education appears to create social capital, as well as social capital helping to foster educational attainment" ((2005: p159). Thus "learning…lies at the heart of a multidimensional capital [social, financial, human and cultural] allocation…" (Preston and Dyer, 2003: p434). The multidimensional capital is activated through networks of relations of students providing higher positive returns to their learning experiences (Bourdieu, 2005). Hence, social capital interacts with the financial, [cultural] and human capital of a student in facilitating academic achievement (Semyonor and Lewin, 2004). The multidimensional capital resources are utilized by students during the course of their learning in the following way.

> …financial capital provides facilitates like a room in the home for studying, materials that facilitate learning and access… [and] human capital provides a pool of information relevant to schooling and the cognitive and attitudinal environment for learning…[while] cultural capital consist of the cultural habitat codes, signals, traditions, tastes, and manners that all play a role in learning, and patterns communication and modes of linguistic usage. [Lastly] social capital entails social networks and social know-how…to pave a way for their educational success (Semyonor and Lewin, 2004: p56).

Social capital then is in combination with the other types of capital; and within the context of the tertiary environment, the multidimensional capital plays an instrumental role in student academic achievement (Barrett, 2006). However not all students are well endowed with adequate stocks of all forms of capital, though there is a positive correlation between the possession of adequate stocks of all forms capital and educational achievement (Semyonor and Lewin, 2004). The sad reality is that students from the lower socioeconomic backgrounds are more likely to lack some forms of capital, such as financial, cultural and human capital necessary to cope with the tertiary level (Preston and Dyer, 2003; Semyonor and Lewin, 2004). It is social engagement during tertiary

study that functions in ways that assist them to make up for the deficit in other forms of capital (Pascarella, *et al*, 2004).

It is clear then that students with good stocks of social capital are more likely to benefit from higher educational achievement (Halpern, 2009b). However groups with extremely high stocks of social capital have the means to exclude and subordinate others, especially those who are deemed to be different to the members of group or network (Smith, 2009). In this case, social capital exhibits a significant downside. To understanding "the extent to which social actors engage with others in formal and informal, social activities; and their membership of the group and association" (Smith, 2009: p06). The two types of social capital, namely bonding and bridging social capital, need to be visited as they provide a clear distinction as to whether social capital is extremely high (disadvantageous) or adequate (beneficial).

Bonding Social Capital denotes ties between people sharing similar traits or characteristics such as close friends and neighbours (Siegmann and Theime, 2007: p05). Similar extreme social bonds or networks are sometimes evident within the tertiary environment; where students sometimes form friendships solely based on shared social characteristics (such as race, gender and socioeconomic status) rather then being based on the common goal of academic success. This type of social capital "involves a higher degree of exclusion of non-group members" (Siegmann and Theime, 2007: p05). It is more "inward looking [with] a tendency to reinforce exclusive identities and homogenous groups" (Smith, 2009: p06). Bonding social capital has negative implications on the degree of sociability outside the social circle (Bengslsdijk and Smulder, 2009).

Though bonding social capital may have positive effects on the members of the closed social groups, it has negative effects on the larger social community such as the university community. Members of the closed group may also be at a disadvantage from learning from other group members and their learning being transmitted to a larger community. Hence they are at risk of failing to easily and quickly adapt in new situations

and breaking through to other cultures, such as learning new languages (Newman and Dale, 2005).

Bridging Social Capital entails more distant ties of like persons such a loose friendships and colleagues (Smith, 2009). This involves social networks that "are inclusive of heterogeneous outsiders" (Kim, 2005: p208). Bridging social capital is linked to networks that are weak and loose, but which can transmit useful information and new perspectives between the individuals involved (Ellison, Steinfield and Lamp, 2007). Bridging social capital can "generate broader identities and reciprocity" (Smith, 2007: p07); and "can also act as vertical links, facilitating a network's ability to access more vertical power relationships" (Newman and Dale, 2005). Within the context of the tertiary education, it encourages interactions between students with the wider tertiary community and lecturers. Constant interactions between students and lecturers fosters open and free communication and hence a learning environment that encourages critical thinking. These types of relationships are encouraged by humanistic inspired pedagogy as vital for the development of students.

Bridging social capital facilitates the ability to gather information and increase access to different forms of capital, particularly human capital (Newman and Dale, 2005). However an "optimal level of bonding that is needed for bridging because people cannot reach out to others until they have a level of security in their own identity group" (Leonard and Bellamy, nd). This means that the two types of social capital complement each other, as social networks need to go through bonding to get to bridging social capital. According to Newman and Dale (2005) "a good mix of both bonding and bridging networks lead to greater resilience and an increased ability to adapt." Therefore, students need to maintain good and adequate stocks of social capital to succeed academically and to develop as individual actors.

Social capital adds to the literature relevant to this project and informs the project through evaluating results and examining praxis within the nascent Extended Curriculum Programme at the University of KwaZulu-Natal. This project examines how it is used as

a survival strategy by the students enrolled in the programme, in order to determine its existence and usefulness in student academic and personal development.

3.5 Conclusion

In the theoretical framework, the different types of pedagogical strategies have been discussed, to provide an understanding of methods that both lecturers and tutors can employ as effective approaches to teaching. These should positively impact on the personal and interpersonal experiences of students enrolled in the programme and further contribute to their social and academic development. An understanding of social capital will also allow the researcher to frame and make sense of networks employed by the students and how these contribute to their academic and social success.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to explain the research methodology employed by the researcher in this study. The discussion will include the reasons for choosing the various methods that were employed and an outline of the data collection and analysis tools, sampling techniques and ethical considerations.

4.2 Methodology

Triangulation was employed as a measure of validity in this research project. "Triangulation assumes that looking at an object from more than one standpoint provides researchers…with more comprehensive knowledge about the object" (Silverman, 2004: p36). Through triangulation the researcher was able to employ both qualitative and quantitative methodologies in the research project (Jick, 1979). The qualitative method in research seeks to understand individual's perceptions (Bell, 1999), while the "quantitative approach assumes there exists one objective reality that can be discovered via the scientific method[s]" (Mudavanhu, 2008, p59).

Thurmond (2001: p253) attests that using "triangulation increase[s] the validity, strength, and interpretative potential of a study, decrease[s] investigator biases and provide[s] multiple perspectives" into the social phenomenal being studied. Hence, combining the two methods allowed the researcher to examine the impact of the 'extended curriculum tutorials' from multiple perspectives and "increase the validity of the research findings" (Malthison, 1988: p13).

In the process of employing the triangulation method, the researcher paid attention to Denzin's (1978) different types of triangulation, particularly 'methodologic triangulation'

and 'data triangulation'. The latter entails measuring the phenomena being studied in more than one way (Neuman, 2003). This "include[s] time and space based on the assumption that understanding social phenomena requires examination under a variety of conditions" (Malthison, 1988: p14). The former involves using more than one method to collect data (Deacon, Bryman and Fenton, 1998), in order to reduce "deficiencies and biases that stem from any single method" (Mitchell, 1986: p19).

4.3 Methods

4.3.1 Quantitative Method

The quantitative mode of inquiry is based on the assumption that social reality has an objective ontological structure and that individuals are responding agents to this objective environment (Morgan & Smircich, 1980). The quantitative method entails measuring and assigning numbers to the perceived qualities of things (Babbie and Mouton, 2006). In this project the quantitative method is reflected through a statistical comparative analysis of coursework marks and a student evaluation.

4.3.1.1 Statistical Analysis

A statistical comparative analysis of the coursework marks of mainstream and extended curriculum programme students was conducted by the researcher. The coursework final scores of all the first-year humanities mainstream students and extended curriculum students were compared. The coursework marks consisted of all the tests, assignments, tutorials and the final examination marks which the students attained during the course of the semester. This approach was embarked on to "emphasize validity, reliability, generalisable findings, predictions of cause and effect and the testing of specific hypothesis" (Mudavanhu, 2008: p59). The high pass rates evident among the extended curriculum programme students illustrate the positive contribution of these tutorials to students' academic progress. The researcher was able to attain data pertinent to extended curriculum students tutorial attendance and their pass rates.

4.3.1.2 Student Evaluation

According to Monette, Sullivan and DeJong (1989: p08), "programme evaluation is the use of scientific research techniques to assess the results of a program and evaluate whether the program currently designed achieves its goals." The evaluation used in this study was a formative evaluation. Formative evaluation allowed the researcher to monitor the final outcome of the tutorials. It also allowed the researcher to provide continuous feedback to the administrators of the programme about the issues that needed to be addressed within the programme (Neuman, 2003), to further enhance students' support in their and improve their learning experiences within the programme.

A students' evaluation was carried out by the researcher to identify the strengths and weaknesses of the tutorials directly from the students' perspectives. All the students were given an evaluation form (*see* **Appendix B**) to complete. The evaluation took place at the end of the semester two weeks before the last day of the semester tutorials. The students were asked to reflect on the impact of the tutorials in their academic lives. This gave the students a chance to evaluate their tutors' teaching performance and knowledge ability. The evaluation was completely confidential and anonymous; hence, the students could reflect on or express their opinions (both positive and negative) about the programme. They could do this without having to worry about their personal identities being associated with any specific response, especially where the responses were negative. After the students were finished, the evaluation forms were submitted in a box and returned to the researcher.

4.3.2 Qualitative Method

Qualitative research shares the theoretical assumptions of the interpretative paradigm, which is based on the notion that social reality is created and sustained through the subjective experience of people involved in communication (Martveev, 2002). For the qualitative researcher, the aim is to better understand human behaviour and experience from the individual actor's perspectives (Bogdan and Biklen, 2007). In employing the

qualitative method in this study, the researcher was able to obtain information from the individual students and attend their tutorial lectures. This was possible through employing participatory observation and in-depth interviews as methods of gathering qualitative data.

4.3.2.1 Participatory Observations

A classroom participatory observation was conducted by the researcher to produce a full picture of the research context (see section 5.10). Participant-as-observer technique was chosen by the researcher as the best participant observational technique. This technique entailed revealing the researcher's status as an observer to the students in all extended tutorial lectures the researcher attended (Monette, *et al*, 1989). The researcher's choice of observational technique was informed by the fact that he was already known to some extended curriculum students as a master of social science student and as a mainstream tutor.

The "observation entailed the systematic noting and recording of events, behaviours and artifacts" (Marshall and Rossman, 1999: 107) taking place in the tutorial classes. Participatory observation allowed the researcher to "record the mundane and remarkable (to participants') features…that [students] might not have felt that they were worth commenting on and the context within which they occur" (Green and Thorogood, 2004: 132). In the process of observation, the researcher paid attention to Denzin's major types of observable data, namely:

- Expressive movements (facial expressions, bodily movements and postures),
- Physical location (setting being observed and [the student's] personal space);
- Language, personal behaviour (stuttering, slips of the tongue and topics of discussions) and
- Time duration (duration of the tutorials under observation).

<div align="right">(Babbie, 2007)</div>

The researcher felt that the types of observable data were important to determine the positive and negative experiences of students within the programme and the impact of these on personal and academic development. The observation was thus more of a holistic description of events and behavior taking place during the tutorials. This means that the observations were not guided by any checklist issues that the researcher was expecting to find, but entailed a systematic noting and writing down of what was taking place during the tutorials. The researcher attended a double tutorial in all seven disciplines. Through observation, the researcher was able to hear, see and begin to experience the tutorials as students do, whilst also gaining first-hand experience of the tutorials.

4.3.2.2 Face to face In-depth Interviews

Semi-structured in-depth interviews with twenty-one extended curriculum students (three students per discipline) were conducted. In order "to gain a broad range of students' opinions by asking them to assess [the extended curriculum tutorials] and their experiences [of the tutorials]" (Mudavanhu: 2008: p61). The survey schedule (*see* **Appendix C**) consisted only of open-ended questions and was administered by the researcher to the students. The students were able to give their answers verbally rather than in writing, as they might have "…experienced difficulties putting their ideas and thoughts into writing" (de Vaus, 1996: 110). The researcher could also provide clarity in some instances where students had difficulties in understanding the questions.

The interviews were ranging in duration from about 24 to 30 minutes. Using semi-structured in-depth interviews allowed for a structure and flexibility "thus promoting conversations and interaction between the interviewer and interviewee; [and also], allowed for the exploration of the research problem through the use of probes and participants' voices to be heard" (Aungamuthu, 2009: p46). The interviews broadly explored the student's experiences in the programme, the challenges and successes experienced, and the coping mechanisms adopted by the students to survive the shock of the tertiary environment – as well as their recommendations. The researcher had a one-

on-one interview session with each of the twenty-one extended curriculum programme students selected to participate during the in-depth interviews.

With the consent of the participants, the interview schedule and a recording device was utilised during the interview sessions. The use of the recording device gave the researcher an opportunity to sit and listen attentively to participants' responses during the interviews, and to record all the respondents' exact responses whilst also probing follow-up questions based on some emerging themes within the responses (Spradley, 1979).

The other survey schedule (*see* **Appendix D**), with semi-structured interview questions, was sent to the eight tutors from the seven disciplines in the humanities faculty involved in the extended curriculum tutoring programme. The researcher deliberately included the tutors in the research study to gain further understanding from a different perspective to those generally held by the students. Tutors were asked to share their experiences of the extended curriculum tutorials, such as the working environment, relationships with the students and with the other tutors. They were asked to share their perspectives on the strengths and weaknesses of the programme, the future of the programme and the changes that they would like to see taking place within the programme were investigated.

4.4 Sampling

Sampling entails the researcher's selection criteria that are necessary to address the issues and provide answers to the questions contained in the goals of the study (Stouthamer-Loeber and van Kammen, 1995).

The census method was chosen by the researcher as the best method for quantitative data collection. "A census includes information on characteristics of the entire population in a territory" (Neuman, 2003). This involved analyzing the coursework marks of all 1351 first-year humanities mainstream (registered for the modules that were also offered to extended curriculum students) and eighty-seven extended curriculum students.

The data is rendered comparable through producing standardized scores (Z-scores). Data regarding pass rates are also presented. Selection is based on tutorial attendance (access group) and full-course records (mainstream groups). These stringent sampling criteria bias the data somewhat against the access group, as only mainstream students with complete class records are considered for sampling.

For qualitative data, a non-probability sampling strategy was employed by the researcher. This means that some students had a greater chance of being selected than others. The student population share critical characteristics such age, race, socio-economic status and secondary academic background (LoBiondo-Wood and Haber, 2006). Hence the availability of the student population sampling frame was deemed unnecessary as the likelihood of systematically under-representing the population in the study was minimal.

The researcher was interested only in carrying out structured interviews with the students who have been part of the extended curriculum programme, in order to explore the impact of the extended curriculum tutorial and the students' lived experiences of the programme. According to Marshall *et al.* (1999: p57) "one cannot understand human action without understanding the meaning that participants attribute to those actions." Concerns of generalizing from a sample and representativeness were [deemed] less important" (de Vaus, 1996: p77). As a result, the students were selected on the basis of the researcher's knowledge about which ones would be the most useful (Babbie, 2007). Therefore purposive sampling was chosen as the best sampling technique for the study.

Purposive sampling technique was employed by the researcher to "select unique cases that are especially informative" (Neuman, 2003). Three students were selected from each of the seven different humanities disciplines, bringing the total number of participants to twenty-one students. Coursework marks attained by the students were used as an important indicator for selecting the students. The three students selected by the researcher from each humanities discipline were grouped according to their coursework mark achievement (one highest achiever, one average achiever and one lowest achiever). This was deliberately done by the researcher in order to gain unbiased feedback from

strong, average and weak performing students. This means that, the "cases [were] judged as typical of some category of cases of interest to the researcher" (de Vaus, 1986).

4.5 Data analysis

Quantitative data was captured and analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software. This allowed the researcher to statistically compare the results of the extended students against mainstream students to find out which group was performing better. In presenting the quantitative findings the researcher made use of tables and figures.

For qualitative data, a thematic analysis was carried out after transcription of the information gathered. Thematic analysis focuses on identifiable themes and patterns emanating from different responses by the respondents (Aronson, 1994). The aim of the analysis was to explore the student's experiences of the programme, the challenges and successes experienced, the coping mechanisms adopted by the students to survive the shock of the tertiary environment and their recommendations. The themes were then combined and presented into relevant categories.

In coding the qualitative data, the researcher organized the data based on the responses of the students. This process involved letting the "coding categories emerge from the data instead of imposing them on the data" (de Vous, 1986: p188). The researcher first began by reviewing the responses through reading over each student's responses repeatedly. This step was followed by making a list of all responses, by grouping them according to identifiable themes and patterns which were emerging (Babbie, 2008). The illustrative excerpts were collected to substantiate and provide examples of the emergent themes (Baig, 2009). The themes that emerged from the collected data and reported mainly revealed the positive aspects of programme.

4.6 Ethical Considerations

To ensure that the researcher conformed to ethical requirements, students were informed about the objectives of the study, and their agreement and permission to participate in the research study was requested. This was done verbally, prior the beginning of the interview, as part of the ethical conduct, as the "researcher has a moral and professional obligation to be ethical, even when research subjects are unaware of, or unconcerned about, ethics" (Neuman, 2003: 90).

No student was forced or induced in any manner to participate in the project against their will. Each student was informed of their right to refuse to participate or withdraw from participation at anytime before or during the interview. The researcher ensured that the participants were not be harmed either physically or psychologically as the result of their participation in the research project. Confidentiality was guaranteed, which means that information given by the students during the study could be traced back to them only by persons involved in this research project, such as my supervisor, and my lecturers in the Sociology Department and the researcher. Participants were not remunerated for their participation.

4.7 Understanding Validity and Reliability

4.7.1 Validity

Validity refers to the "accuracy of a measure" (Monette, 1989: p112). That is the extent to which the research results or findings can be trustworthy. Though it is "impossible for research to be 100 percent valid…" (Cohen, Manion and Morrision, 2005: p105). The "data generated by the research processes must always be trustworthy and its [degree] of validity be established" (Bass, 2007: p118). This means in any research study, the researcher needs to carefully scrutinize and to ascertain that particular measures are valid and are an accurate reflection of what the research intends to find out (Litwin, 1995; Vithal and Jansen, 2004). Bass (2007: p118) maintains that "…being continually mindful

of the need to generate sound, trustworthy data and arguments will minimize the chance of an unsound and thus invalid study." Therefore it is important that the instrument used in a study is designed in a way that it is able to measure what it is intended to measure in order to yield accurate results (de Vaus, 1986). Babbie and Mouton (2004) points out that, there are three different types of validity, namely content, construct and criterion validity.

Content validity is the ability of a measure to cover the range of meanings included within the concept. *Construct validity* this approach evaluates a measure by how well the measure conforms to theoretical expectations. *Criterion validity* is used to demonstrate the accuracy of a measure by comparing it with another procedure which has been demonstrated to be valid (Babbie and Mouton, 2004; Monette, *et al*, 1983; Kumar, 1999).

In this research study validity was consider from all three dimensions; In order to address *content validity*, the instruments utilized in this study cover a range of concepts and variables that are directly related to the experiences of the students (Mwani, 2005). The other important aspect of content validity employed in this study entailed pre-testing the research instrument. This allowed the researcher to assess the reliability of the research instrument with regard to its ability to collect the information that answers the research questions. The researcher also administered the interviews to provide clarity where the participants encountered difficulties in understanding the questions. *Construct validity* was addressed through careful operationalization of concepts that best describe the experiences of the extended tutorials programme students (Cook and Campbell, 1979). Operationalization entailed clearly defining all variables and concepts that were utilized as a measure of the experiences of the student cohort enrolled within the extended tutorial programme. *Criterion validity* entailed comparing the data revealed through different measurement processes.

Hence, in the context of quantitative methodology, validity was achieved through cautious adherence to "sampling [methods], appropriate instrumentation and appropriate statistical treatment of [quantitative] data" (Cohen, *et al*, 2000: p105). For qualitative

results, data was obtained through in-depth interviews and participatory observation, whilst for quantitative results, it was through students' evaluation and statistical comparative analysis of students' coursework marks. This process allowed for an in-depth exploration into the impact of extended curriculum tutorials programme, and the experiences of the students involved within the programme.

4.7.2 Reliability

Golafshani defines reliability as "the extent to which results are consistent over time and an accurate representation of the total population under study is referred to as reliability and…can be reproduced under a similar methodology…" (2003: p598). Reliability is problematic in social science because human behavior is not static. However, Mason (2002) maintains that the use of multiple methods in your research in order to corroborate data sources increases the reliability of your research. Hence, in the context of this study, to increase reliability the researcher employed a range of data collecting methods (see section 4.7.1).

Further Carmines and Zeller (1994: p4) point out that "it is not possible to have a 100% error free instrument." Mwani asserts that reliability can be seen in terms of the "output of the instrument after administering it repeatedly, or at an input stage whereby the data collection instruments themselves are checked for reliability" (2005: p126). In the context of this study, the researcher also adopted a reliability assurance method used in Mwani's (2005) study. This method involved a careful design of an interview schedule to address consistency and accuracy, by cross-checking some questions and the answers to previous questions. For example, question number five (Appendix C) asked: "Was the content of the tutorials useful to you? Why or why not?" While question number six asked: "Did the tutorials help you understand lectures? How?" In this way the reliability of the answer to question number five was checked against the answer to question number six (Mwani, 2005). According to Bless and Higson-Smith (2000) this method of testing reliability could be termed test-retest reliability.

4.8 Limitations of the Study

The researcher noted the following as the potential limitations of the study. The researcher is a tutor within the mainstream tutorial classes. Some of the students who participated in the study attended the researcher's tutorial classes. This could have affected some of the responses of the participants for various reasons such as;

- Fear of being intimidation for saying anything negative about the programme
- The researchers' position might have induced some students to provide the responses that; they thought the researcher wants to hear rather than their own true perspectives.

However confidentiality was guaranteed and participation was completely voluntary. Participants were also not coerced or persuaded to participate in the study in anyway. Therefore, it can be concluded that responses provided by participants during the interviews were an honest representative of their held perspectives about the programme.

The students who participated in the study were only those who attended the required number of tutorials; and had successfully completed the extended curriculum programme study year. Students who failed some of the courses were disqualified from the programme. These students had already left the university and given the resources (time and finances) that were available to the researcher; it would have been difficult to trace them as a result they were not available to be interviewed. One suspects that students, who failed to complete the programme might have had different perhaps negative perspective about the programme.

Though, the above noted limitations affect validity of the present study. On must accept that "no piece of work can ever claim to be completely free from threats of validity and reliability claims" (Bass, 2007: p117).

4.9 Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the research methodology chosen for the present study. The research instruments, which were employed and further provided the reasons why the particular instruments were chosen as the most appropriate for this study. Research instruments used in the study include semi-structured interviews with both the students and tutors within the programme. Students' evaluation and participatory observation were also carried out by the researcher; and the justification of employing each technique has been provided. Reliability and validity of the study was theoretically explained and the research findings are contended to be valid. The following chapter will present, the analysis, discussion and the interpretation of the data obtained.

CHAPTER 5

Findings and Analysis

5.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present findings and analysis of the research project. The chapter will provide a description of both quantitative and qualitative findings and an explanation that links the results back to the research questions.

5.2 Quantitative Findings

The quantitative data presented below is the result of a comparative analysis of the course marks of 1351 mainstream students and eighty-seven extended curriculum students, across seven humanities disciplines offering extended electives namely, Sociology, Law, Psychology, Media Studies, Geography, Political Science and Ethics. The presentation of the results will be given for each discipline.

5.2.1 Psychology

Assessment type	Group	Avg. Mark (%)	Difference (%)	Sig. p-value	Avg. Z-score
Class mark	Mainstream	69.8730	+2.02703	.644	-.0039042
	Ext. Curriculum	71.9000			.1444556
Exam mark	Mainstream	47.4838	+2.11622	.656	-.0037603
	Ext. Curriculum	49.6000			.1391307
Course mark	Mainstream	56.4730	+2.02703	.622	-.0041670
	Ext. Curriculum	58.5000			.1541800

Pass rate		
Group	**N**	**%**
Mainstream	275	74.3
Extended curriculum	9	90

Table 5.1: Introduction to Psychology A

Table 5.1 gives an indication of the mainstream and extended tutorial students' Psychology 101 pass rate and results; 275 mainstream students and 9 extended curriculum students passed the course. The results reveal that extended tutorial group students performed better than their mainstream counterparts; 90% of the extended tutorial students passed, while only 74, 3% of the mainstream students passed Psychology 101.

5.2.2 Writing and the Media

Assessment type	Group	Avg. Mark (%)	Difference (%)	Sig. p-value	Avg. Z-score
Class mark	Mainstream	65.05	+0.29	.919	-.0022866
	Ext. Curriculum	65.34			.0282011
Exam mark	Mainstream	58.41	-3.99	.257	.0255638
	Ext. Curriculum	54.42			-.3152865
Course mark	Mainstream	61.76	-1.84	.522	.0144647
	Ext. Curriculum	59.92			-.1783976

Pass rate		
Group	N	%
Mainstream	136	91.9
Extended curriculum	12	100

Table 5.2: Media Studies

As table 5.2 reflects, the class mark was higher for extended curriculum students whilst the average examination mark and hence the overall course shows that mainstream students achieved higher marks than their extended counterparts. There was a 100% and 91.9% pass rate amongst the extended curriculum and mainstream students respectively.

5.2.3 Sociology

Assessment type	Group	Avg. Mark (%)	Difference (%)	Sig. p-value	Avg. Z-score
Tutorials	Mainstream	68.1990	+10.30100	.004*	-.0606487
	Ext. Curriculum	78.5000			.6095199
Test 1	Mainstream	45.7214	+15.97861	.006*	-.0360021
	Ext. Curriculum	61.7000			.3618215
Test 2	Mainstream	75.4627	+7.03731	.010*	-.0541261
	Ext. Curriculum	82.5000			.5439672
Essay	Mainstream	62.6468	+2.05323	.405	-.0177324
	Ext. Curriculum	64.7000			.1782107
Class mark	Mainstream	63.4956	+8.60438	.000**	-.0852264
	Ext. Curriculum	72.1000			.8565258
Exam mark	Mainstream	50.9165	+3.81648	.211	-.0265612
	Ext. Curriculum	54.7330			.2669404
Course mark	Mainstream	57.2537	+6.24627	.004*	-.0588340
	Ext. Curriculum	63.5000			.5912812

* Statistically significant difference (p<0.05)
** Statistically significant difference (p<0.01)

Pass rate		
Group	N	%
Mainstream	161	80.1
Extended curriculum	20	100

Table 5.3: Introduction to Sociology

Result from the sociology revealed that extended curriculum students outperformed their mainstream counterparts in all forms of assessments, and the overall pass rate was higher for extended students than for mainstream students, with the extended curriculum students achieving 100% pass rate and the mainstream trailing behind with 80. 1% pass rate. Where extended curriculum students outperformed mainstream students in tutorials and tests, the class mark and the final mark was at the statistically significant differences of (.000) and (.004) respectively. This means that extended curriculum students' performance can be attributed to something that is taking place in these tutorials.

5.2.4 Political Science

Assessment type	Group	Avg. Mark (%)	Difference (%)	Sig. p-value	Avg. Z-score
Tutorials	Mainstream	68.6206	+3.49706	.454	-.0173840
	Ext. Curriculum	72.1176			.1738403
Essay	Mainstream	52.2353	+9.64706	.058	-.0438536
	Ext. Curriculum	61.8824			.4385361
Test	Mainstream	54.0647	+11.05294	**.049***	-.0453734
	Ext. Curriculum	65.1176			4537338
Class mark	Mainstream	58.3606	+8.01176	.056	-.0441681
	Ext. Curriculum	66.3724			.4416812
Exam mark	Mainstream	54.7606	+6.59235	.059	-.0435677
	Ext. Curriculum	61.3529			.4356769
Course mark	Mainstream	57.0824	+7.50588	**.039***	-.0477682
	Ext. Curriculum	64.5882			.4776819

* Statistically significant difference (p<0.05)

Pass rate		
Group	**N**	**%**
Mainstream	128	73.5
Extended curriculum	17	100

Table 5.4 Introduction to Political Science

In Political Science, the results reveal that extended curriculum students were performing better than their mainstream counterparts in all assessments. With two statistically significant differences of (.049) for tests and (.039) for the overall course mark, average mark difference for tests was 11% and 7.5% for the final course mark. A 100% pass rate was achieved by the extended curriculum students, whilst a 73.5% pass rate was achieved by the mainstream students.

5.2.5 Human Environments

Assessment type	Group	Avg. Mark (%)	Difference (%)	Sig. p-value	Avg. Z-score
Practicals	Mainstream	69.0820	+1.46349	.674	-.0109963
	Ext. Curriculum	70.5455			.1219585
Tests	Mainstream	56.3689	-6.64158	.128	.0396883
	Ext. Curriculum	49.7273			-.4401790
Essay	Mainstream	58.1967	+2.53055	.497	-.0177627
	Ext. Curriculum	60.7273			.1970042
Class mark	Mainstream	59.8115	-1.90238	.537	.0161569
	Ext. Curriculum	57.9091			-.1791944
Exam mark	Mainstream	49.8607	+0.04844	.991	-.0003060
	Ext. Curriculum	49.9091			.0033934
Course mark	Mainstream	55.1475	-0.78390	.810	.0063040
	Ext. Curriculum	54.3636			-.0699171

Pass rate		
Group	**N**	**%**
Mainstream	86	70.5
Extended curriculum	8	72.7

Table 5.5: Geography 110

Data from Geography 110 show that extended curriculum students outperformed their mainstream counterparts in all assessments. Though there was no statistically significant difference in the marks attained by the two groups, the pass rate was higher at 72.7% for extended curriculum students and 70.5% for mainstream students.

5.2.6 Introduction to Law

Assessment type	Group	Avg. Mark (%)	Difference (%)	Sig. p-value	Avg. Z-score
Test 1	Mainstream	56.8705	+8.22044	.179	-.0224902
	Ext. Curriculum	65.0909			.3946015
Test 2	Mainstream	50.3886	+3.06594	.612	-.0085006
	Ext. Curriculum	53.4545			.1491464
Class mark	Mainstream	53.6974	+5.57532	.297	-.0174903
	Ext. Curriculum	59.2727			.3068750
Exam mark	Mainstream	46.7047	+4.65897	.386	-.0145369
	Ext. Curriculum	51.3636			.2550571
Course mark	Mainstream	50.3212	+5.22421	.300	-.0173683
	Ext. Curriculum	55.5455			.3047346

Pass rate		
Group	N	%
Mainstream	107	55.4
Extended curriculum	10	90.9

Table 5.6: Introduction to Law

Data from the Introduction to Law course shows that the extended curriculum students outperformed their mainstream counterparts in all assessments. Though there were statistically significant differences in all marks attained by the two groups, the extended curriculum pass rate was 40.5% higher than the mainstream pass rate, with a 90.9% and a 55.4% pass rate for extended curriculum and mainstream students respectively.

5.2.7 Applied Global Ethics

Assessment type	Group	Avg. Mark (%)	Difference (%)	Sig. p-value	Avg. Z-score
Essay	Mainstream	63.16	+4.18	.842	-.0032736
	Ext. Curriculum	67.34			.0802021
Tutorials	Mainstream	68.50	+2.84	.639	-.0077048
	Ext. Curriculum	71.34			.1887685
Test	Mainstream	46.75	-0.08	.989	.0002271
	Ext. Curriculum	46.67			-.0055631
Class mark	Mainstream	58.18	+3.49	.323	-.0162080
	Ext. Curriculum	61.67			.3970950
Exam mark	Mainstream	68.91	+0.09	.976	-.0004938
	Ext. Curriculum	69.00			.0120971
Course mark	Mainstream	65.44	+1.23	.650	-.0074456
	Ext. Curriculum	66.67			.1824179

Pass rate		
Group	N	%
Mainstream	145	98.6
Extended curriculum	6	100

Table 5.7 Ethics 101

Extended curriculum students performed better than the mainstream students in Ethics 101. Data show that the extended curriculum group achieved 100% pass rate and mainstream class achieved a 98.6% pass rate. There were no statistically significant differences between the marks.

5.3 Conclusion

The quantitative data resulting from the comparative analysis of coursework marks reveal that extended curriculum students performed better than mainstream students in six out of seven disciplines. In some disciplines, such as Sociology and Political Science, there were statistically significant differences in students' course marks, showing that extended curriculum better performance is not a mere coincidence. The next section will examine

the students' subjective perceptions of the extended tutorials through students' evaluation.

5.4 Student Evaluation

The data presented below is a reflection of the results from the students' own evaluation, to identify the strengths and weaknesses of the tutorials directly from the students' perspectives. There were eighty-seven usable evaluation survey forms that were returned.
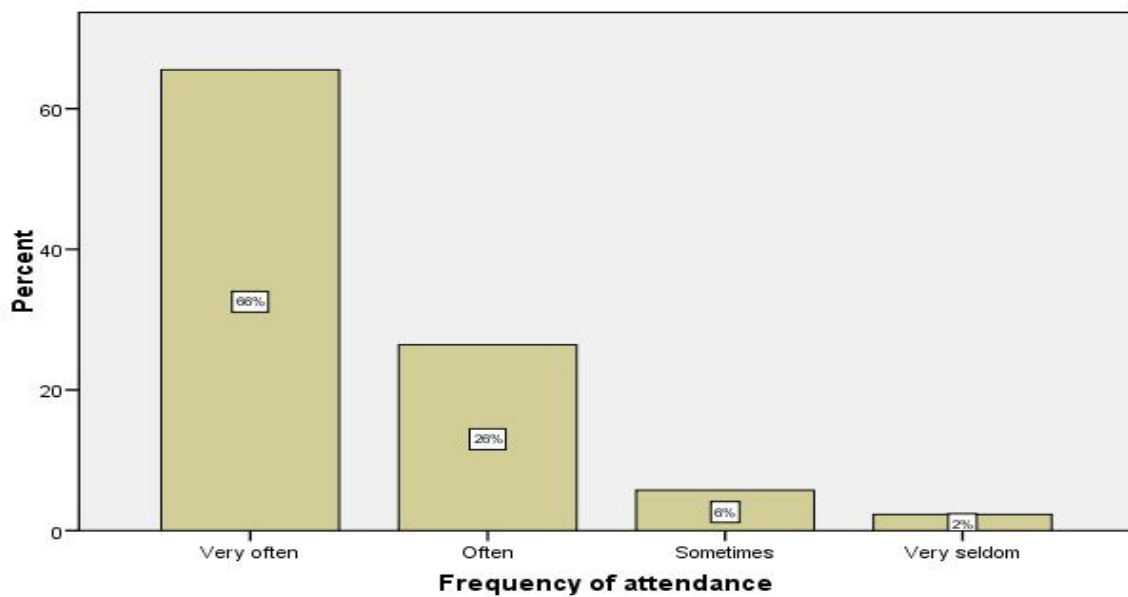

Figure 5.1: Attendance

Figure 5.1 shows the students' extended tutorial attendance rate was high, with 66% of the students indicating that they attend very often. Only 2% indicated that they very seldom attend the tutorials, 26% and 6% indicated often and sometimes, respectively. None of the students indicated that they do not attend the tutorials, even though the option was provided in the evaluation form.
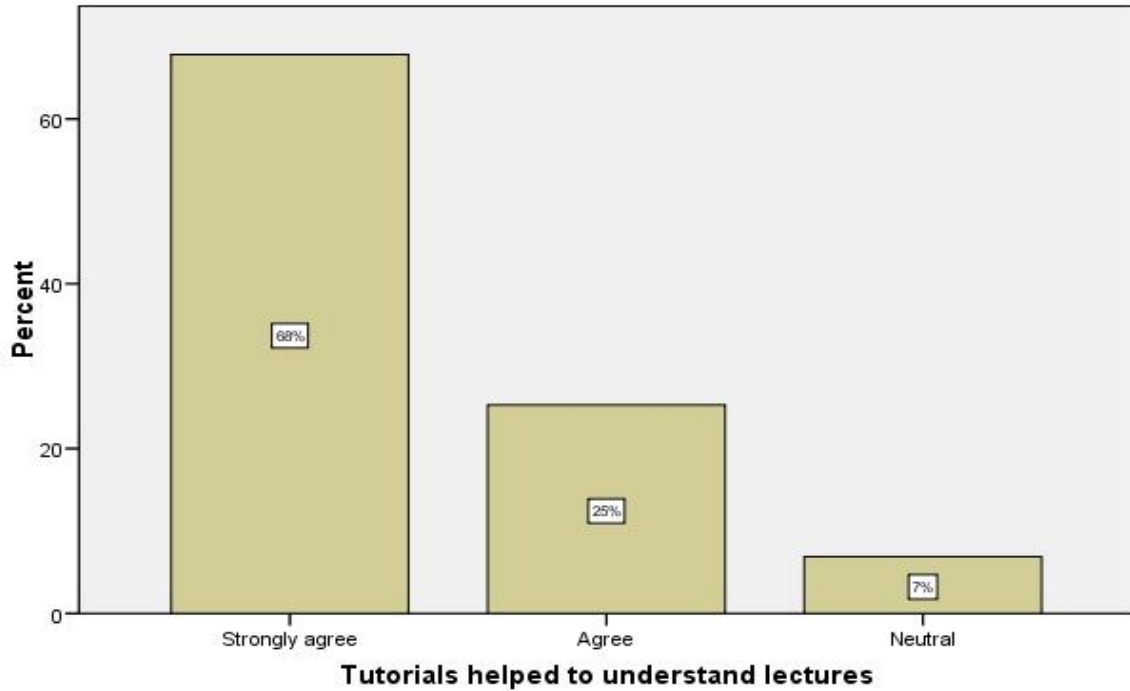
Figure 5.2: Help Understand Lectures

The overwhelming majority of students indicated that extended tutorials helped them understand the content cover in mainstream lectures better, with 93% (68% strongly agreed and 25% agreed) indicating that they were able to better understand lectures because of the tutorials, whilst 7% felt neutral. None of the students picked disagree and strongly disagree options provided.
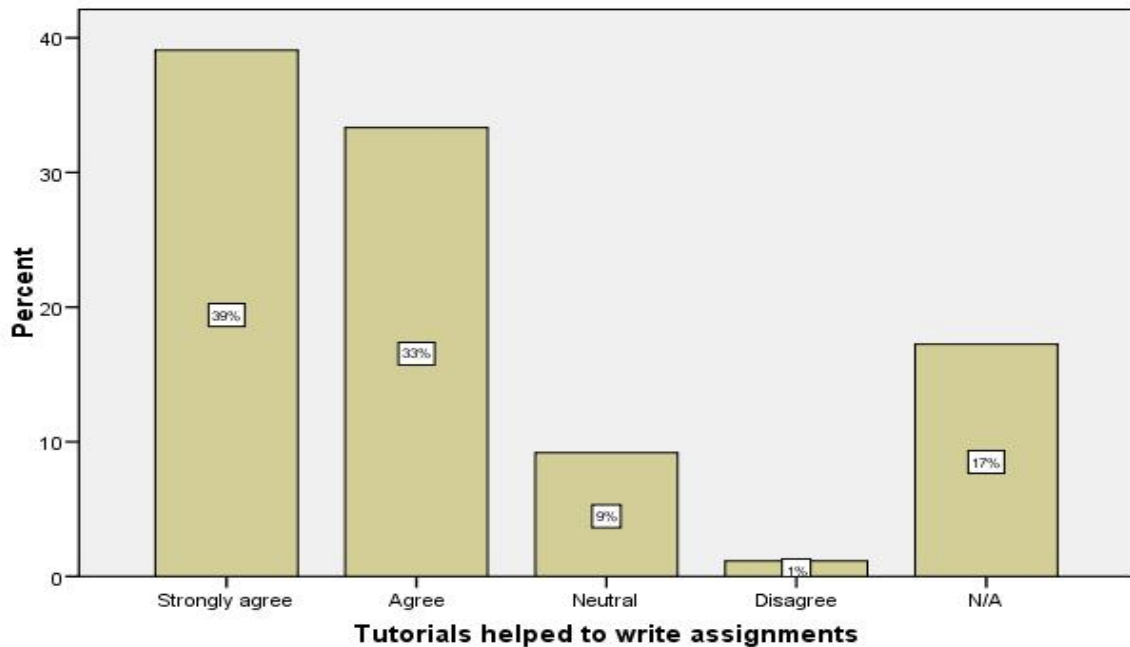
Figure 5.3: Help With Assignments

Students were asked to indicate whether or not tutorials assisted them in learning to write the assignments; 39% of the students indicated that they strongly agreed that tutorials were instrumental in their learning to write assignments; 33% agreed, 9% were neutral and 1% disagreed that tutorials helped them to write assignments. The Not Applicable option is drawn from psychology which did not require assignments to be written that year.
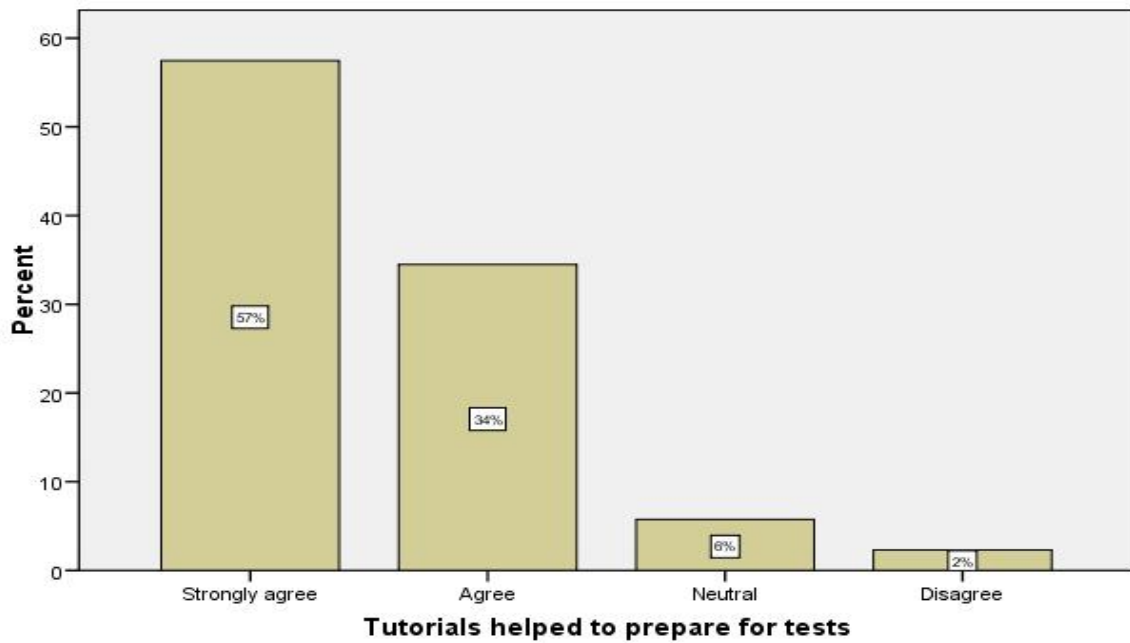
Figure 5.4: Help Prepare for Tests

The majority of students found tutorials to have been important in preparing them for tests. As revealed in the graph above, 57% strongly agreed, 36% agreed, 6% felt neutral and only 2% said they disagree that tutorials helped them prepare for tests.
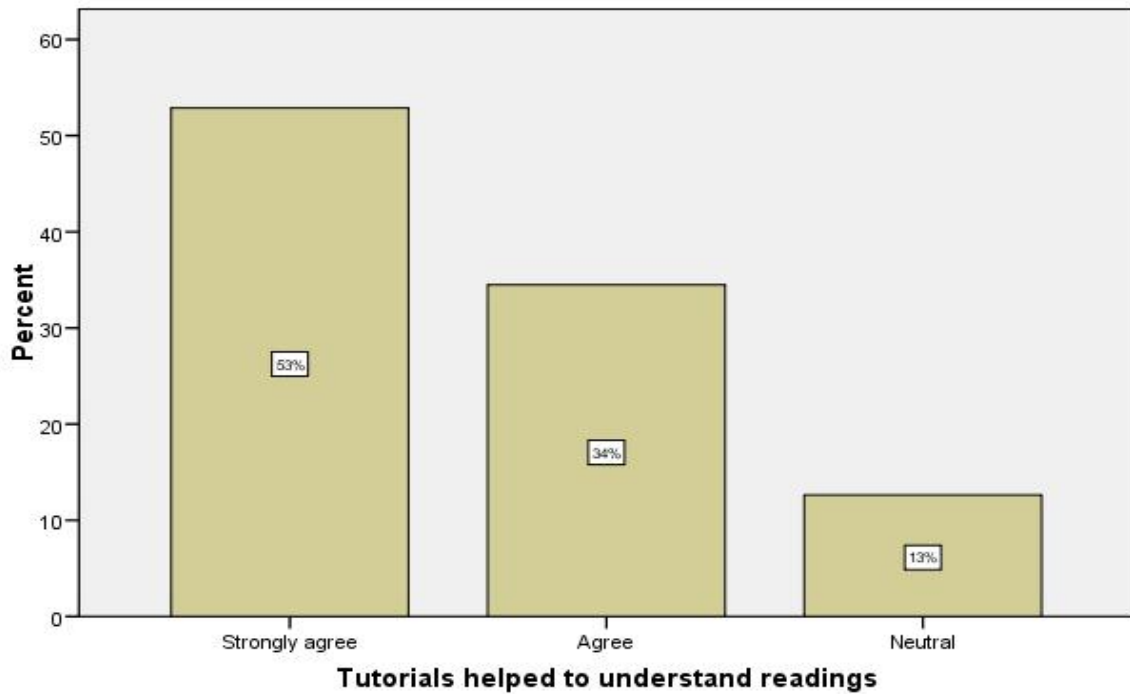
Figure 5.5: Help Understand the Readings

As figure 5.5 indicates, 87% (53% strongly agreed and 34% agreed) of the students indicated that extended tutorials helped them understand readings better; 13% felt neutral and none of the students strongly disagreed nor disagreed that tutorials helped them to understand reading better.
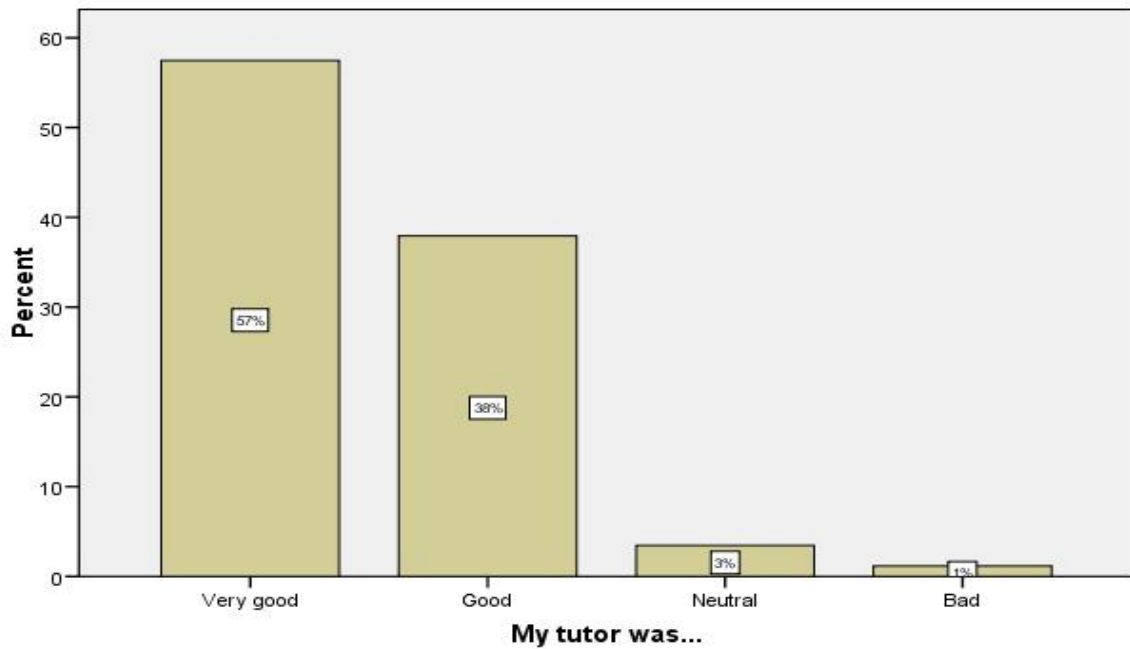
Figure 5.6: Impression of the Tutor

Students also got a chance to rate their tutors ability to tutor; 95% (57% very good and 38% good) of the students indicated that they were impressed with tutors capabilities; 3% of the students felt the tutors ability to tutor was neutral and only 1% indicated that the tutor was bad. It is not clear why that 1% felt it was bad as the evaluation did not provide a space for students to gives reasons to their chosen options.
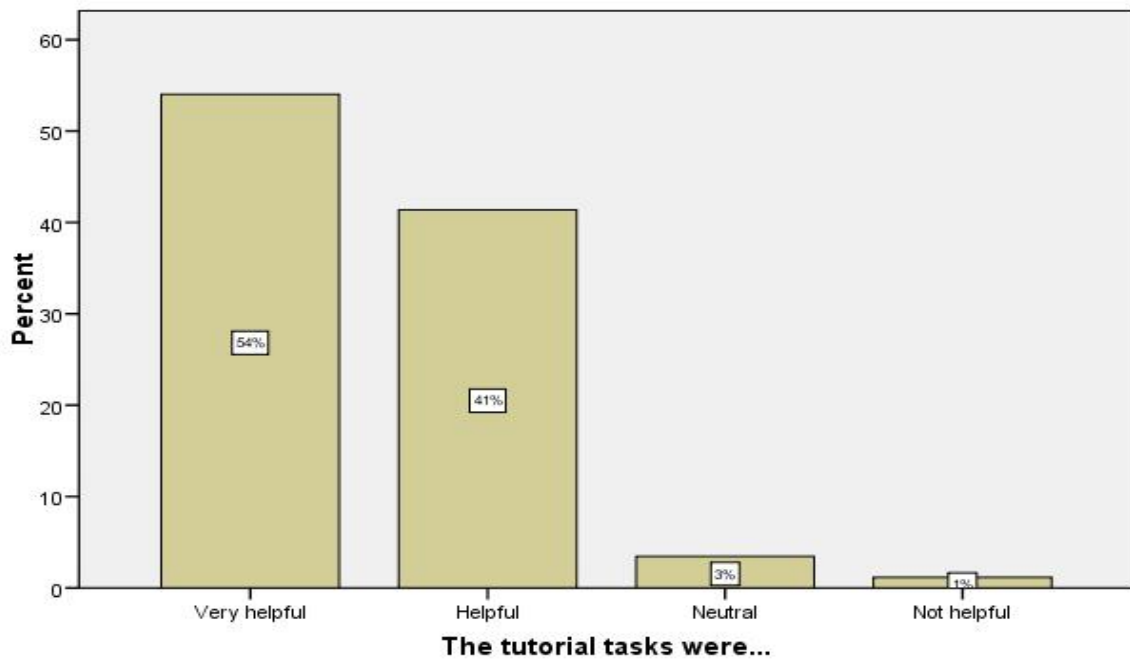
Figure 5.7: Impression of Tutorial tasks

Again 95% (54% very helpful and 41% helpful) of the students indicated that tasks covered during the tutorials were helpful; 3% indicated that the tasks were neutral and 1% indicated that the tasks were not helpful.
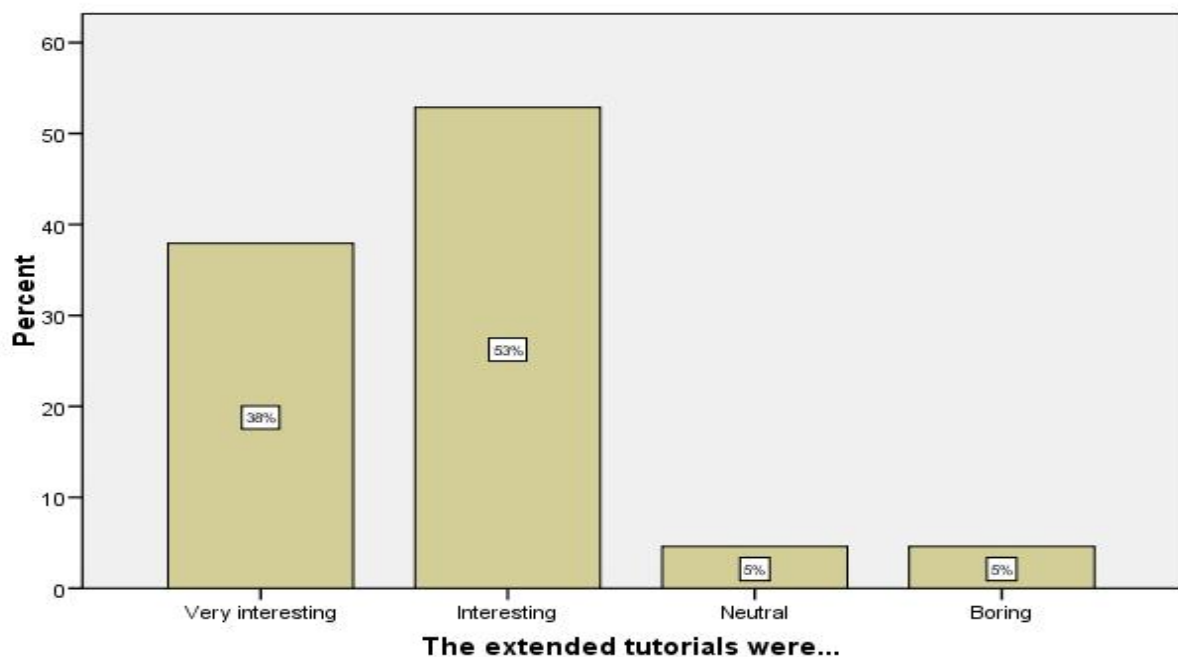
Figure 5.8: Level of Interest Maintained

The majority of students indicated that the maintenance of the level of interest in extended tutorials was satisfactory. Figure 5.8 shows that only 38% indicated that tutorials were very interesting; 53% rated them as interesting, 5% felt that they were neutral (neither boring nor interesting) and the other 5% indicated that extended tutorials were boring.

5.5 Conclusion

Evaluation by students has revealed that students felt that being a part of the extended tutorials programme positively contributed to their academic development. The majority indicated that the extended tutorials helped them better understand mainstream lectures, prescribed readings, writing assignments and preparation for tests. Students rated their tutors positively in terms of their tutoring abilities and keeping the students interested. The next section will explore classroom practice and perceptions, through an analysis of in-depth interviews conducted with students and their tutors.

5.6 Qualitative Findings

The qualitative data is drawn from the combination of in-depth interviews with twenty-one extended curriculum students, eight tutors and participatory observations of the classroom context. The presentation of findings will be separated into three sections; the first section will cover the discussion of student interviews, the second, tutors' interviews and the last, participation observations.

5.6.1 Students' Interviews

The aim of the project was to explore the impact of the extended curriculum tutorials as a student development programme and to discover what the students' experiences of the tutorials were. Students were asked to give their general comments and thoughts on the tutorials, tutors, being an access student and use of social capital (such as informal study groups). The results will be presented under four categories, namely tutorials, tutors, being an access student and social capital.

5.6.1.1 Tutorials

Students were asked what they thought about the impact of the extended tutorials on their academic development. The responses revealed that extended tutorials positively contributed to their academic development. Students indicated that during the extended tutorials most of their academic problems were addressed. They also felt that during the extended tutorials they were able to participate, engage in discussions and ask questions.

The results revealed that students found the material covered during the mainstream lectures and tutorials not easy to understand. They were able to get clarification of this material during extended tutorials, where they were given individual attention. Students found the smaller class sizes important. They thought that sufficient time was allocated to the tutorials, because two compulsory 45-minutes tutorials were held compared with one 45-minutes tutorial for mainstream students. This finding completely resonates with that

of Clarence-Fincham (nd) who reported that the majority of students "were satisfied with the programme and happy to be a part of it, and the benefits of small classes and constant interaction with lecturers and other students are recognized and highly valued." Below are excerpts that represent some of the students' responses.

"It was real fun, it was nice you know, because what happened is that, maybe would you go to the mainstream course and during this lecture there are things that you may not understand and you may not be able to ask questions at the time because there were many of us. You know when you 17 or 15 in a class you are free and able to ask anything that you do not understand and also able to revise more in these tutorials."

"They were great, and helping us a lot because most mainstream modules are a bit tougher so the tutorials tried to make things easy for us, and we got to engage and participate a lot more in extended tutorials."

- Usefulness of the tutorials

The students were asked to share their general thoughts about the content of the material covered in extended tutorials. This question was important to establish whether or not extended tutorials were properly aligned with the mainstream lectures. Bass (2007: p126) revealed that students perceived the "benefits of the foundation programme [tutorials] to be greater…when the course content is immediate and directly related and thus relevant to the qualification they have registered for."

The research results show that students found that content covered during the extended tutorials was very useful. Some students indicated that lecturers during the mainstream lectures used complicated terms and concepts, which were difficult to understand. It was during the extended tutorials that these terms and concepts were explained to them in detail, in a way that helped them understand the material. This finding is consistent with that of Wood and Lithauer (2005: p1009) who reported that students "… believed that the

programme did help to prepare them for mainstream in terms of content, skills and general knowledge…" This is revealed by some of the students' responses:

"Yah, very useful, it was useful because sometimes the textbook becomes difficult for you to understand especially some of the concepts and the terms, so found that when you attend the tutorials they would explain everything clearly."

"Yes, they were very useful, because in most cases lecturers during the mainstream lectures used these big terms which were difficult to understand. So tutors in extended tutorials would explain them and help us understand..."

*"I think they were very useful…very useful because the readings that were [**breaks**] there were difficult to understand, but they [extended tutorials] helped us to understand."*

- Tutorials help you prepare for exams

When the students were asked whether or not the tutorials helped prepare them for examinations, the responses were overwhelmingly positive. The majority of students indicated that they were taught how to master the examination questions, and find key words to pay attention to when answering questions. Students said tutors brought past examination questions that they practically practiced with the students, and this, students felt, helped them a lot. This finding resonates completely with that of Van Heerden (1995: p68) who, when commenting upon the preparation of students during tutorials, stated that during the tutorial students "…should be give[n] a number of preselected questions that students could [use to] prepare for examination and that the examination paper should then consist of a selection from these questions." The quantitative data also reveal that extended curriculum students performed better than their mainstream counterparts in six out the seven disciplines. This clearly shows that these students were indeed better prepared for their examination. Below are excerpts that represent the students' responses:

*"Yes, oh yes **(reflection of feelings of excitement**) we did a lot of past tests papers and exam papers which made us do well! **(smiles)"***

"Yes, they did in a way because they brought the question papers and test papers to revise. And they gave tips that you will remember even in the exam, yah it helped a lot you know…"

- Participating in tutorials

Students were asked how comfortable they felt when they participated in tutorials. Participating in tutorials is very important; it provides students with an opportunity to build on their understanding of the issues being discussed and enables them to see how well the material is understood (Anderson and Beveridge, 2007). Students revealed that during the extended tutorial lectures they were afforded more time to ask questions and to express their views on the subject matter, and the tutors often created a conducive environment for them to participant in tutorial discussions and to ask questions.

This finding is consistent with that of Graaf (2004: p290) who reported that during the academic development tutorials "students were encouraged…[to] participate in class discussion…discussions were driven by students questions and on the material…[and] took off from the students presentations of particular readings." Similarly Van Heerden maintains that, during the academic development tutorials "attendance of which is voluntary… a lecturer usually explains the tutorial matter to students and the latter have the opportunity to discuss problems with the lecturer" (1995: p77). Excerpts of the responses give a clear understanding of how the students felt about the tutorials:

"Very comfortable because we used to attend in very small classes and that made it easy for to participate. I was not afraid or shy you see, it was easy to say whatever you wanted to say in these tutorials."

"Yes, it was very comfortable in these tutorials unlike in the mainstream tuts, because they were very small number of students like 15."

*"Yah! (**nods**) because we were a small group and most of us were friends. So it was not like mainstream where there were lots of people and you feel shy to talk."*

5.6.1.2 Tutors

"Teachers play a central role in the education of students" (Ahmad, nd). The same applies to all the tutors, as they assume the lecturer's role within the context of university education. The tutors involved in the extended programme were thus expected to be of high calibre and committed to the academic and personal development of their students. It is important for the tutor to be knowledgeable about the subject matter, to keep the tutorial interesting to the students and to further enhance students' motivation to learn (Schmidt, 1994).

- Perceived knowledge of the tutors

Students were asked to give their comments and thoughts about the perceived level of knowledge of the tutors. The results revealed that students felt that their tutors were very knowledgeable, passionate and always prepared for their tutorials classes and they were also approachable and friendly; hence, they were able to keep the tutorials interesting for students. This finding is similar to that of Saarinen-Rahiika and Binkley (1998: p200), who reported that "the success of the tutorial process depends on…a facilitatory and knowledgeable tutor, and a carefully designed [tutorial]…" The excerpts below reveal some of the responses of the students:

"Very, you could see that [tutor name] character he knew everything, you ask him anything and he gave the answer on the spot and not tell to come back later."

*"They were very knowledgeable in a way that I cannot even explain (**smiles**). I mean when they explained the terms, I mean they just explained the chapter into few words and there was also that passion that you saw and that made you think no, I must listen to this [tutor].*

- Tutors approachability

Approachability of the tutor is crucial in order to keep students motivated, interested and wanting to learn more (Pithers and Holland, nd). This creates a relaxed and friendly learning environment for students, which evokes the desire to succeed, no matter what the challenges are. Students were thus asked what they felt about the approachability of their tutors. The majority of them indicated that tutors were easily accessible to them. They could phone, send them e-mails and visit them in their offices without any worry of being turned away; this increased the response rate to the problems encountered by the students. This method of increasing access and communication between the students and tutors through various ways of consultation is consistent with that of Graaf (2004: p295) who reported that: "the students were given home and office telephone numbers of the staff as well as email addresses [and] quite a lot of consultation happened." Provided below are some of the excerpts representing the responses of the students:

"Very approachable, easily approachable, and they [were] also friendly, like they not as strict as some of the mainstream lectures, like in the classroom, it's easier to communicate with them."

"Yah!...because even after the extended classes we were able to contact them, with any questions and they did not mind at all. Even if you meet them on the way, you could stop them and say no, I've got this particular problem can you assist me and they will be able to assist you."

"Yah, they gave us e-mails, contact numbers even though I didn't really consult a lot, but he was really easy to communicate with."

5.6.1.3 Being an Access Student

The extended curriculum tutorials are more integrated with the first year of the mainstream study, unlike the conventional students' academic development initiatives which were completely separated from the mainstream. The new augmented programme enables the students to be a part of the mainstream from the first day of registration at the university (see section1.6.1). However, the extended curriculum students have to take a reduced load of courses during their first and second year of mainstream study.

When students were asked what it meant to be an access student, the results revealed that students initially feel a sense of alienation, being delayed and not being a part of the university student body. When they became familiar with what the extended tutorials entailed, and that they are designed to assist them with their studies, the initial sense of loss and alienation disappeared and was replaced by a sense of belonging and self-worth. The similar finding is revealed in Bass (2007: p125) who reported that students "were generally not pleased to be placed in the [academic development programme] but, with time, accepted it…this became apparent with some learners appreciating their placement on the programme…" Below are some of the excerpts of the ECT programme students:

"Its, its…I mean at first we were embarrassed like we were not doing first year, but grade zero at the university. But later you really see the need you see, because it helped us a lot yah."

"Eissssh!! I felt like an outsider at first, cause those who are like first years will look at us as if we are not good enough, but yah [tutorials were] helpful."

"When we first came here, there was that negative mentality. Oh! We are in access which means that we do not qualify to be in the university, we were shy, but by the second semester when we were doing electives, we recognized that it was better we started there, you know access helped us a lot."

- Extended tutorials an advantage

Students were asked what the perceived impact was of attending extended tutorials, on their academic lives. Students indicated that attending these extended tutorials gave them an advantage over the mainstream students, because during these tutorials they acquired vital academic skills such as effective writing of essays, referencing, using computers and searching for information. The similar sentiments were revealed by the students in Bass's findings where he reported that students indicated that being a part of academic development programme "helped equip [them] with time management and study skills that ultimately would give [them] an advantage over those students accepted directly to the [mainstream study]" (2007: p131). It is also apparent from the quantitative data that extended curriculum tutorials were indeed an advantage, as the top achievers were mainly those students who attended these tutorials. As mentioned earlier, these are the students from previously disadvantaged academic backgrounds. These are the students who according to their matriculation results were deemed not ready to embark on university studies, and would not have been accepted to study at the university. Below are excerpts that represent the responses of the students:

"Yes, especially with writing essays and referencing I mean I helping some of the mainstream students with referencing."

"Yes it did, because now I'm doing mainstream I use a lot of the library material. And I don't have hard time accessing the library material, journals, all these things books and using the internet and writing essays, I just flow and I learnt all this in access."

"Yes, because I'm much more prepared because of the access, I have some of the mainstream students who fail [that] you see, no, no, no, this one is not prepared for mainstream he should have gone through access."

5.6.1.4 Social Capital

This section will discuss qualitative data relating to social capital, and link success to the conceptual framework in order to explain social capital role in students' academic success.

Social relationships that develop among the groups of people sharing similar courses often lead to mutual benefits and the achievement of common goals (Ellison, Steinfield and Lamp, 2007). Feelings of alienation and not being a part of a student community attributed to being an extended curriculum student led to the development of strong social bonds amongst the extended curriculum students (Winch, 2000). As revealed in the literature review (Section 3.4) there is often a strong sense of social bonding and networking exhibited among students sharing similar characteristics.

Students were asked if they had social relationships with the other extended students. The overwhelming majority indicated that there are strong social relationships that exist amongst each other as extended students (see section 2.3). The similar finding was revealed in Wood and Lithauer's study, where the students indicated that, "…spending a year on the foundation programme also enabled them to build up lasting support networks….closely linked to academic performance…" (2005: p1012). Similarly extended curriculum programme students also revealed that close social networks or relationships amongst themselves had developed and were useful in many ways. The excerpts below reveal some of the students' responses:

"Yah we do, yah very much, very much (laughs) and we always there for each other. Maybe because we were a small bunch, yah making friendship in access was very easy."

"Yah, I could say that we are a team, they are my friends, brothers and sisters even with those who are off camp, we socialize like a lot we are a team."

"Yes, most of my friends are from access. And we still hang out together."

When the students were asked to reflect on these social bonds and networks, and say whether or not these relationships with other students have helped them in any way, again the results were positive. Students indicated that these social bonds help both academically, as they often study together, and personally as they sometimes talk with each other when they experience personal problems. The similar findings are revealed in Dika and Singh (2002) where they found that students with higher levels of social capital are more likely to succeed in the challenges of the tertiary level. The excerpts below reveal some of the students' responses;

"Yah, it has helped cause you can still go to each other and say please man help me with this, help me with this you know."

"Yah, these friends I talk to even if I don't understand some of the academic work. I say hey guys help me out here I don't understand something it's easy to talk to."

"Yah, I mean we still study together and share our academic and personal problems. So yah, I think the relationships with the other students from access have been great and helped me a lot."

Similar to the literature, the qualitative data on social capital reveals that, there indeed is a positive relationship between social capital and educational attainment. The positive performance by extended curriculum programme students is also revealed through quantitative data. Bonding social capital formed between students assisted them to overcome the initial sense of alienation and exclusion from the university community. Through these social bonds students develop a sense of belonging, worth which in-turn increases self-confidence (Crandall, 1981). This enhances sense of "motivation, higher expectations of success, and belief in the value of their academic work" (Beck and Malley, 2003). Although bonding social capital has been said to be inward-looking which often prevents members of the group from acquiring new knowledge; as they tend to exclude those who do not share the same characteristics as members of the network, one expects students to start developing bridging social capital as they progress further into

second and third year of study. This is the time when students will be fully integrated to mainstream and start to share more courses with the mainstream students.

5.7 Conclusion

The findings from the in-depth interviews with students reveal that they felt that the extended curriculum tutorials had a positive impact, not only in their academic development but also in their personal lives. The interviews of tutors will further examine the findings from the tutors' perspectives through an analysis of in-depth interviews.

5.8 Tutors' Interviews

Eight extended curriculum tutors from the seven disciplines were sent an interview schedule, requesting them to provide information about their perceptions regarding the extended curriculum tutorials. The comments included the generally held attitudes about the future of the programme, relationships tutors have with their students, working environment, perceived impact of the tutorials and the teaching approaches often employed during these tutorials. The presentation of the results will be provided in the following categories:

- Working environment,
- Tutor/student relationship,
- Academic interventions/perceived impact,
- Appropriate pedagogy approaches and
- Student personal and interpersonal relationships

5.8.1 Working Environment

A good and conducive working environment for lecturers is integral to students' intellectual and social development (Essack and Quayle, 2007). Tutors were asked to

comment on the working environment within the extended curriculum programme. This was a very important question, as Weiss, (1999: p862) maintains that, the "successful experiences of the [tutors]…depend[s] at least in part on an environment that responds to their needs…[and] stand a better chance of developing norms encouraging self-perpetuating growth and are more likely to develop greater commitment to teaching." The results reveal that tutors are very happy and enjoy being a part of the extended curriculum. The similar results were revealed by Bass (2007) findings, where the academic development staff felt that they were involved in something that is genuinely educationally useful and that really does have a positive impact on the lives of the previously disadvantaged students. Below are excerpts that represent tutors' responses;

"Yes, supportive of and conducive to the realization of the objectives of the programme"

"I am part of a very friendly and open department and therefore we have good working relationships between the tutors and staff. The tutoring venue is sufficient for classes to be held in them."

"A pleasant and supportive one! The extended curriculum co-ordinator is particularly supportive."

- Identity within the programme

Tutors were asked what it meant to them to be a tutor within the extended tutorial programme. This question was asked to determine the level of determination and motivation among the tutors. Tutors who are proud and often associate themselves with what they do are more likely to be creative, innovative and keep their students motivated (Menyhart, 2008). Within the extended tutorials it is extremely important for tutors to always maintain the level of motivation, as their students require much more attention and guidance for academic and personal development (Weiss, 1999). Excerpts below reveal that tutors were generally happy and felt proud to be a part of the extended tutorial programme:

"I feel as though I can make a difference in the lives of the students and am very proud to be associated with the programme."

"… I'm involved in a field I love, in my own discipline, helping students…"

"It means giving of oneself, energy, time, knowledge in aid of the academic development of the students."

"I really enjoy it – it feels as if we are involved in something that is genuinely educationally useful and that really does have a positive impact."

- Training received

In De Beer's study it is pointed out that it is important to have consistent "professional development programme that will equip lecturers with the necessary skills and knowledge pertaining to proper curriculum design, writing of learning outcomes, facilitation (teaching) skills and assessment, and so forth" (2006). The tutors were asked to describe the training and support they have received since they began tutoring within the extended tutorial programme. Some of the tutors described the received training as excellent and useful, whilst other felt it was too little. However, they were generally happy and satisfied with the level of support received within the programme, as they regularly had staff meetings (every three weeks). The findings revealed by the tutors within the extended curriculum programme regarding the training they received coincide with those of Obler, Francis and Wishengrad (1977) who reported that within the academic development programme at City University of New York, staff meetings were held every week and staff members were trained extensively.

"Excellent – it has been a well-thought-through process and I enjoy the reflective nature of the training and support."

"Absolutely useful, the workshops I particular have enhanced my material development skill. Periodic meetings have helped me to deal with the challenges associated with tutoring, overall positive."

"There is very little training in tutoring itself. Rather an emphasis is placed on materials. There is a high level of support and encouragement from the co-ordinator and her predecessor."

5.8.2 Tutor/Student Relationship

Tutors were asked to comment on the relationship they have with their students. Positive relationships between the students and their tutors are very important in enhancing students' performance, as they "offer an ideal space for the development of emotional competencies which have been shown to be positively related to academic and social success" (Wood *et al.,* 2005). Within the extended curriculum, tutors indicated that a mixture of both formal and informal relationships is shared with the students. This finding from Woods and Lithauer resonates with the results revealed by a majority of tutors involved in the extended curriculum programmme. Below are excerpts from their responses:

"We have a good 'easy-going' relationship. I know this is problematic at times, but there is often little distance between us. That being said they have different needs to average students."

"I feel we have a good understanding and that if they need to approach me with help they can…"

"Very good. They pay me the utmost respect, and I myself have respect for them. Whenever they do well on an assignment or test most feel the need to come and show me, and also ask where they can improve."

- Interaction outside tutorials

The tutors were asked if they interact with their students outside of the tutorials, whether for consultation or socially. The majority indicated that they interact with their students

and the interactions are encouraged. This provides the tutors with an opportunity to know their students' weaknesses, whilst also enhancing the interactive learning environment. This is directly related to the holistic development of the students (Berry, 1999). This finding is consistent with that of Zhan and Le (nd) who found that, "with increased class sizes with students from different backgrounds in many aspects establishing a good quality of teacher-student relationship, either through formal or informal interactions with students, creates an emotional and caring climate is conducive to high quality learning." Excerpts below represent the responses of the tutors:

"Co-operative relationship underpinned by the assumption of shared interests and goals."

"I see students for individual and group consultation both inside and outside of my consultation hours. My longer term students often pop in to my office to chat about things other than the subject matter. I encourage this network as far as is plausible."

"Not socially (am not young cool tutor am afraid!) but they do come for consults. They also come for a range of general "mom-type" advice (from nutrition to driving licences to problems with friends.) I have also helped one or two with other subjects (English, Politics) Students who were in the ext curric last year come back often for chats and help."

5.8.3 Academic Interventions/Perceived Impact

Tutors were asked to share their thoughts on the perceived impact of the extended tutorials. The perceived impact of the academic intervention is important, especially when it is positive, as it develops a sense of confidence in their tutoring approaches. This has the ability to enhance team work amongst the tutors and hence improve the students' learning environment (Donnelly, 2007). Results reveal that tutors in general perceived the tutorials to have a positive contribution on students' academic development. They show

the generally held attitudes by the tutors about the tutorials. Excerpts below are a reflection of what the tutors perceived to be the impact of the tutorials;

"They are incredibly beneficial and my 'sense' is that the students in these tuts fare better than if they were in mainstream alone."

"They are a necessity for these students, as it provides the necessary support they need in achieving a first-year pass"

"I think that they are a necessary part of the university environment and offer students a support system which they would otherwise lack"

"The tutorials give our students an edge over their counterparts in the mainstream."

- Impact of tutorials on student development

When the tutors were asked to reflect on their thoughts and the perceived difference made by the tutorials on student development, the majority of the tutors felt that tutorials made a remarkable difference to students' academic and personal development, through improving their confidence levels and hence self-efficacy necessary to face any challenges. These findings are consistent with those Bass (2007: p128 - 30), who revealed from his study that the members of the staff "were unanimous in their belief that [academic development programme]…was contributing to…individual success as well as contributing positively to the academic integrity and standing of the programme." Responses below represent some of the thoughts shared by the tutors;

"Tutorials prepare students for assessment in the mainstream in ways that the mainstream students are not exposed to, they (ECTs) raise the confidence levels, abilities and improve the work ethics of the students."

"I think it has helped in building confidence in themselves and in their work. They have shown great progress in their results and I don't think this would have been possible without the support and guidance which they have gained from these tutorials"

5.8.4 Prevalent Pedagogical Approaches

Tutors were asked to reflect on the perceived best teaching strategies or methods that they themselves often employ or perceive to be instrumental interrogative methods during tutorial classes. Central to any learning is an appropriate teaching method that is inclusive and takes the needs of the students into account. The focus was thus on the holistic development of the students rather limited to academic development. The results were revealed in Graaff's (2004) study, which pointed out that lecturers did not stick to one method of teaching, but assumed different teaching methods, to achieve the highest level of development of the students. Below are some of the responses by the tutors;

"Inclusive education – taking the needs of each member of the classroom into account and addressing those in the context of the classroom"

"I want students to participate in their own learning with me not through me. They must produce knowledge through dialogue not as recipients of a monologue. There is less of a focus on content learning as there is on thinking about the underlying "rules" of the academic game."

"My materials and tasks are designed for self study... Thus although I do not plan to teach but rather to correct understanding when necessary... and this also gives me a chance to promote peer support."

5.8.5 Student Personal and Interpersonal Relationships

Tutors were asked to describe the relationship between students. The results revealed that there are perceived positive relationships that exist among students. There is a strong sense of norms of reciprocity and solidarity that is exhibited by the students within the programme. Findings from Zhan and Le's (nd) research link these bonds to the fact that "all students want friends and want to have a sense of worth, of belonging and of binding with students…"

"Students actively assist each other within and without the extended tutorials. They socialize together, study together and share intellectual and material resources."

"There are sub-groups who are clearly highly supportive of one another and interact extensively around the subject matter and tasks…"

"…I feel there is more cohesion and camaraderie between the students…"
"Co-operative relationship underpinned by the assumption of shared interests and goals."

"They have cliques. They tend to stick to these. They tend to get on well in class"

5.8.6 Future of the Extended Tutorial Programme

The tutors were asked to give their comment regarding the perceived future of the extended tutorial programme. The results revealed that tutors strongly believe that extended tutorials are very instrumental in overcoming students' academic deficiencies. However, tutors also reflected a degree of uncertainty of the future programme, mainly because of the lack of funding needed to run the programme.

"The programme is vital for students coming through the access program, as I have some very bright students coming through in my tuts that should be given the opportunity to progress into honours and masters. I feel that the programme provides the first step for that to be achieved."

"I worry about the financial viability of the programme – this is a concern not specific to the programme but related to institutional and external funding issues."

"[It] would be good if UKZN as an institution took ownership of it and put funds behind it. Think is very powerful model to deal with retention of students in general but will only have future if UKZN and Faculties make the space for it and give it their full support"

"The future of the programme appears uncertain in the view of potential unavailability of funds."

"I'm not sure about the programme's future but I do hope it continues in some form."

"Provided that it is given support from each discipline and the university, it should thrive to become one of the most important aspects of educating students."

5.9 Conclusion

The comments made by the tutors show that they were happy to be a part of the extended curriculum tutorials programme. They believed that the programme had a positive impact in the academic and personal development of the previously disadvantaged students. Tutors, however, reflected feelings of uncertainty when asked about the future of the programme. Their concerns regarding the future of the programme were mainly pertinent to the lack of funding required to sustain the programme. The next section will discuss the research findings from participatory observations.

5.10 Participatory Observations

Participatory observations afforded the researcher the opportunity to be a part of the extended curriculum students by attending the extended tutorials together with them. This allowed the researcher to gain more insight into what was taking place in the extended tutorial lectures. The researcher was also able to experience personally the important aspects or dynamics shaping these tutorials that students might have not paid particular attention to. These aspects were the types of pedagogical approaches employed by the tutors and the sharing of power between the tutors and the students' behaviour during the tutorials.

As mentioned in chapter four, the observations were not guided by any checklist of issues that the researcher was expecting to find, but entailed a systematic noting and writing down of what was taking place during the tutorials. The researcher conducted both overt and covert participatory observations. In some tutorial lectures the researcher was introduced by the tutor to the students at the beginning of the tutorial, while in other tutorial lectures the researcher was not introduced. The findings from the researcher's observations will be presented under three main categories, namely pedagogical approaches, tutor-to-students relationships (power sharing) and students' interactions and participation.

5.10.1 Pedagogical Approaches

During the observations, the researcher found that different tutors from different disciplines employed different types of teaching methods. However, all teaching methods used in these tutorials were influenced by a *democratically*-based teaching system. This means that extended tutorials were student-centered in that students were not only active participants, but also shared the ownership of the learning process with the tutors. The content covered in tutorial lectures was very flexible, and constantly negotiated between the tutor and the students (Fone, 1995).

The different tutorials assumed a mixture of cognitive, humanist and hermeneutic approaches to pedagogy. The researcher also found that in almost all tutorials, the content of the work covered was chosen by the students and not restricted to the prescribed material covered in the mainstream. The tutor walks into the tutorial prepared to address problems arising from a number of different sections covered in mainstream lectures. Often the tutorial lecture begins with the tutor finding out from the students what sections or problems they intend to discuss. The issues or problems are then written down on the board and sometimes students are required to form small groups and are given a few minutes of the tutorial to discuss the topic amongst themselves.

During the small group discussions the tutor walks around addressing some of the problems that students each group might be encountering. After the small groups' engagement, the discussion is open to the full tutorial lecture, where students interact with one another and ask the tutor questions. In another tutorial, the tutor brought sweets to reward the students for their performance and to induce interest among the students. This revealed to the researcher the degree of dedication that tutors involved within the programme have. In yet another tutorial, the tutor used different colour pens to write on the board. Most of the colours were bright, making the work attractive, and stimulating interest among the students (Wood and Lithauer, 2005). Students are also given detailed feedback on assignments and tests that they had written, as another way of maintaining and facilitating good communication with the students (Graaff, 2004).

5.10.2 Tutor-to-Students Relationships (Power Sharing)

The tutorials assumed a very democratic approach to teaching. The power or authority was not only vested in the tutor but constantly negotiated between the tutor and the students. The shared relationships were a mixture of formal and informal and there was still the required discipline in the tutorials. Tutors were often referred to by their first names, rather than their titles or 'sir' or 'ma'am', whilst the tutor also knew almost all the students by their name. One tutor, who participated in this research study, pointed out that the relationships between students and the tutors were often informal and friendly

and the networks were often encouraged as far as it was plausible, to create an environment that would make the students' feel a part of the learning process (Lara, 2003). Graaff's study also revealed that the similar relationships between the tutor and students were encouraged as an approach to empower the previously disadvantaged students, in order to be able to overcome their academic deficiencies (2004).

The researcher noticed that tutors were exceptionally outstanding, in that they could balance and maintain cohesion in these lectures. In the other tutorial, the tutor kept on reminding the students that they should relax and say whatever came to their minds about that was being discussed. The tutor also kept on informing the students that they had all (students and tutor) come to learn and getting the answer wrong was better than not trying at all and was a part of a learning process.

5.10.3 Students' Interactions, Participation and the Environment

The tutors created a conducive environment for students to constantly interact with one another through formation of small discussion groups, and to actively participate or engage in class discussions. The formation of small groups has also been advocated by Graaff (2004) as the best strategy; of minimizing the chances of embarrassment as the students face their peers rather than staff members. The researcher also noticed constant expressions of informal or non-negotiated (informed by common goals) social bonds among the students. Students were constantly switching languages sometimes addressing one another in their home language, mainly IsiZulu.

In one tutorial lecture, students were required to provide an answer to a certain theory, through completing a puzzle on the board. A time-limit was allocated for this task. Students were taking turns running to the board to complete the exercise and one student said to the other, *ahu gijima mfethu* (run my brother). Addressing one another as brothers and sisters, it was clear to the researcher that students within the extended tutorial programme did indeed view themselves as a family and team, as one student had revealed

during the in-depth interviews. It seemed the students were having fun and really enjoying this exercise.

Participatory observations provided the researcher with a great privilege to be a part of the tutorials and gain insider experience to students' activities and get to experience different teaching methods employed by the tutors involved in extended curriculum tutorials.

5.11 Conclusion

The findings from all the different research methods employed by the researcher in the study reveal that the extended curriculum tutorials are indeed instrumental in student development and academic success. The data revealed that students are not only performing better but are happy to be a part of the programme. Students are happy with their tutors' abilities, shared goals of academic success and the methods of teaching employed by the tutors in these tutorials. Chapter six will further examine the research findings in the light of the research objectives and conclude the study.

CHAPTER 6

Conclusion and Discussion

6.1 Conclusion and Discussion

This section will link the research findings to the objectives of the study. The project was designed to investigate the impact of the extended curriculum tutorial programme and students' experiences of the programme at the University of KwaZulu-Natal Pietermaritzburg.

The findings from both quantitative and qualitative methodologies employed in the study completely resonate with the findings from the literature studies discussed in chapter two on similar academic development programmes. For example, the results revealed that students who attended the extended curriculum tutorials tend to perform better than their counterparts who are accepted directly into humanities mainstream study. Bass (2007: p164) similarly found that extended tutorials programme students "performed better than those learners accepted directly into the programme as a result of having received a 'head-start' in the EFTP." In the present study, the results also indicate that extended tutorials had positively contributed to students' personal development. Most students expressed satisfaction and appreciation of the relationships that were developed with the other students and the tutors whilst within the programme (see also: Bass, 2007; Wood and Lithauer, 2005; De Klerk, *et al*, 2005). The impact the programme has had on the student development is revealed through a comparative statistical analysis of assessment marks of the students, as well as the in-depth interviews held with the students and their tutors. Through quantitative data, the researcher was able to gain rich information that was presented by means of using table and graphs. This information was supplemented by data revealed through qualitative findings.

The quantitative findings revealed that extended curriculum programme students performed better in six out of the seven disciplines than mainstream students. Statistically significant differences in some of the courses show that the extended curriculum

students' better performance is not happening by chance or coincidence. In all seven disciplines, the pass rate is higher amongst the extended curriculum students. In courses such as Media Studies, Sociology, Political Science and Ethics, extended curriculum classes achieved 100 percent pass rates. The other remarkable performance was in the Introduction to Law, where the pass rate for extended curriculum students was 35.5 percent higher than that of their mainstream counterparts (see section 5.2). This is clearly a reflection of an impressive academic achievement for students that would normally have not been entitled to a place to study at the university (Clarence-Ficham, nd).

The qualitative data also allowed the researcher to interpret the reasons leading to the extended curriculum students' performance. The researcher was able to gain an understanding of the impact of extended curriculum tutorials, as an academic development programme, from the experiences of the students and their tutors.

The findings from the in-depth interviews reveal that students found the extended tutorial programme to be instrumental in their academic success. However, only a few students interviewed indicated that they did not mind being placed within the programme, and were mainly happy to be admitted to the university. The majority revealed that initially they felt that they were being delayed from finishing their studies on time (within three years as opposed to four years for extended curriculum programme students) and also felt inferior to the mainstream students. However, as time went by they realized the benefits of the programme and they were happy and felt privileged to be a part it. Interestingly, the initial feelings of inferiority, being delayed and not understanding why they were on the academic development programme, were not uncommon for the extended curriculum programme students at UKZN. Wood and Lithauer (2005) and Bass (2007) also found that students did not understand why they were not admitted directly to mainstream. Albeit with time, they were able to appreciate the advantages of being placed within the academic development programme, with the overwhelming majority indicating that they attend the tutorials very often because they were helpful. This finding about the attendance was also revealed through the students' evaluation (see figure 5.1).

Through attending the extended tutorials, students revealed that they were they were able to better understand the course content covered in mainstream lectures. During extended tutorials, they were taught critical learning skills such as effective writing, answering essay questions and preparing for tests and exams. This finding strengthened the data already revealed through the students' evaluation (see pages 75 – 77), reiterating the fact that extended tutorials were instrumental in preparing the students for their university academic challenges (Reynolds, 2008; Wood and Olivier, 2004; De Klerk, et al, 2006). The findings also showed that students' experiences of the programme were mainly positive. Students' also indicated that they were not only happy with the tutorials but also the tutors.

The tutors within the extended curriculum programme were rated by the students as the best. Students indicated that tutors were able to maintain the level of interest in the course work covered during the semester. Through relationships students developed with their tutors, students also said that they easily engaged in academic activities. Similarly, Bass (2007: p165) in his findings also indicated that students "appreciated the relationship formed with the dedicated lecturer[s]… [and] the advantages of having [them] responsible for the [programme]." These students-tutor relationships were instrumental in assisting the students to overcome most of the academic as well as other problems. A lot of consultation took place (similar to Graaff's findings); most students frequently visited their tutors offices for both academic and personal advise (see the excerpts on page 103). The tutors were always available to address the students' needs.

It was clear to the researcher that within the extended curriculum programme, the tutors and students shared special relationships that were perhaps guided by the common goal of success; that is, for tutors to succeed in improving their students' academic abilities and to see the students succeed in their academic challenges. The aim for students is to pass and proceed to the next level and eventually graduate with the intended degrees. Tutors always created an environment that would allow the students to develop academically and personally. Drawing from the multiple sources of pedagogical methods (as indicated in Graaff's findings) they often employed a mixture of three pedagogical

approaches (discussed in chapter three). The tutors reflected the sense of belief in the ability of the students. They were always prepared and they encouraged the students to ask questions. They tried their best to induce the students' self-efficacy, by creating a liberal environment mainly informed by shared interest of success (see section 3.2.2). Tutors became a "forum where students drive the learning process, giving them an opportunity to create learning spaces and voices for themselves" (Aungamuthu, 2009: p100).

Students also acknowledge the positive contribution and an advantage of having smaller classes (usually between 10 and 15 students per tutorial session) within the extended tutorial programme. Students felt that during the extended tutorials they were comfortable and able to participate and were given special attention to address their needs. Students reported that they were often shy to participate in during mainstream lectures, mainly because there were many students in those lecture. Although, the students gave this as the main reason for being shy participate during the mainstream tutorials, the researcher noticed that some of the students had problems expressing themselves correctly in English. Also, during the participatory observations, the researcher noticed that sometimes the students addressed each other in them vernacular languages often IsiZulu. Hence, the researcher concluded that these extended tutorials offered these students the protective environment where they were able to explore and enquire about the new discourses from their own perspectives. The similar finding is raised by Aungamuthu (2009: p100) who concluded that, "students need to feel safe and free to explore, discuss, ponder and question ideas in their learning environment." In these tutorials students knew each other and their weaknesses, and they did not laugh at those who failed to express themselves properly in English, or articulate their ideas properly.

The smaller tutorial classes also made it easier for the tutors to maintain constant communication with the students individually. Adequate feedback on submitted assessments such as tests and assignments was received in a short space of time, as a way of encouraging communication and participation. During the tutorials, students were encouraged to lead the discussions, creating an environment that makes it easier for tutors

to identify students' academic problems (Graaff, 2004). Most of the tutorials began with the students pointing out the problems areas and choosing the issues that they felt needed to be addressed. This strategy created a conducive atmosphere for students to participate, and hence, to take ownership of their learning. Aungamuthu (2009: p100) maintains that through participation students "gain access to new learning trajectories…[and] take on new learning behaviours…[which gives them]…a stronger, more empowering sense of self and self worth prompting [them] to invest more of themselves into learning."

Students also reported that they made use of the study groups. These were informal study groups outside tutorial lectures were formed by the students to address and discuss some of the issues that were problematic. The study also revealed that students shared important characteristics such as academic backgrounds, race, language and economic status; hence often experienced or encountered similar challenges with the tertiary environment. Through the informal groups, very important networks developed, and students relied on these in times of distress. They were able to share their academic problems as well as their personal experiences at university. In Wood and Lithauer's study findings they reported that "the experience of spending a year on the foundation programme also enabled them to build up lasting support networks. This development is closely linked to academic performance…" (2005: p1012). The researcher, during participatory observations, also noticed that students constantly engaged in group discussions and had a good team spirit when solving the problems. Hence, these networks formed what many academics would refer to as social capital (discussed in chapter two and three). Here it is clear that previously disadvantaged students are well integrated into the extended curriculum programme and the university.

The research findings clearly show that the nascent extended curriculum programme has been successful in all aspects, and should be adopted and developed as a model for academic success at UKZN and other tertiary institutions, to respond to the influx of students from disadvantaged backgrounds that may be challenged in terms of their epistemological access to higher education.

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APPENDIX A: Structure of the Extended Curriculum
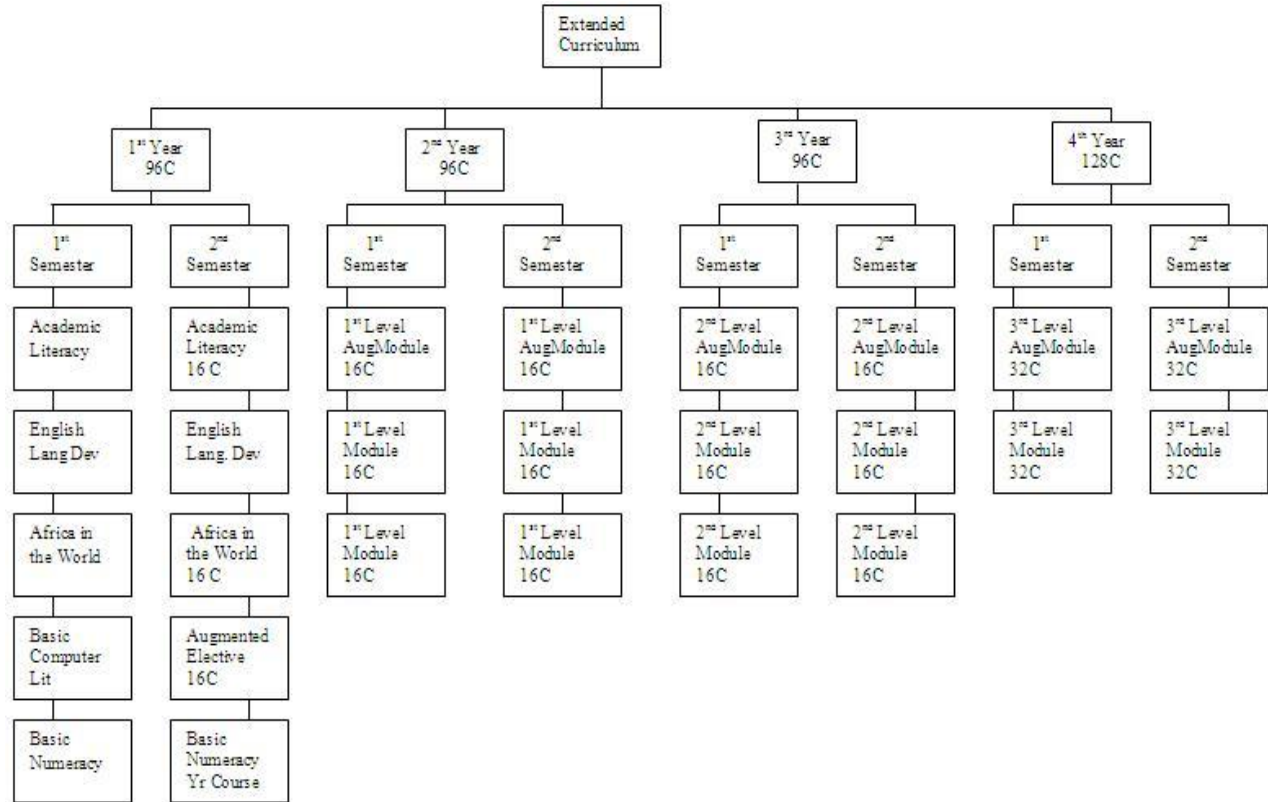
Source: Clarence-Fincham (nd)

APPENDIX B: Humanities Extended Curriculum Evaluation

Please take some time to complete this short evaluation of the extended tutorials you have attended this semester. This evaluation will help us to develop our tutorials in the future by building on the strengths and improving on the weaknesses. This evaluation is **completely anonymous** which means that what you say cannot be traced back to you individually, so please **be honest**.

1. Which tutorials did you attend? (Please circle the one you are at now)

Ethics	Geography	Law	Media	Politics	Psychology	Sociology

2. Who is/are your tutor/s for these tutorials?
_____

3. How often did you attend the tutorials? (Circle your answer)

Very often	Often	Sometimes	Very seldom	Never

4. I found the tutorials helped me to better *understand the lectures*

Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree

5. I found the tutorials helped me *write assignments for the course*

Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree

6. I found the tutorials helped me to *prepare for tests*

Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree

7. I found the tutorials helped me to better *understand the readings*

Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree

8. I found the tutorials helped me to *prepare for mainstream tutorial tasks*

Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree

9. Compared to the mainstream tutorials, the extended tutorials were:

More helpful	Less helpful

10. I thought my tutor was:

Very good	Good	Neutral	Bad	Very bad

11. I thought the tasks we did in the tutorials were:

Very helpful	Helpful	Neutral	Not helpful	Not at all helpful

12. I thought the extended tutorials were:

Very interesting	Interesting	Neutral	Boring	Very boring

13. What did you like about the tutorials?

14. What did you not like about the tutorials?

15. Any other comments?

APPENDIX C: Extended Curriculum Tutorial Students

Let's talk about the extended tutorials

1. What subjects did you take that were extended? _____
   _____

2. What did you think of the extended tutorials in these disciplines? _____
   _____
   _____

3. Did you mind the extra workload of having to attend the tutorials? Why/why not? _____
   _____
   _____
   _____

4. What did you think of your tutor/s

   a) Was s/he knowledgeable? _____
      _____

   b) Was s/he Approachable? _____
      _____

5. Was the content of the tutorials useful to you?
   Why/Why not? _____
   _____
   _____

6. Did the tutorials help you understand lectures?
   How? _____
   _____
   _____

7. Did the tutorials help you prepare for the tests/tuts/exam?
   How? _____
   _____

8. Did you feel comfortable enough to participate in tutorials?_____

_____

_____

Let's talk about being in the access programme:

9. What did it mean to you to be an access student?_____

_____

_____

10. Did you feel that you were different to the mainstream students?_____

_____

_____

_____

11. Do you think it gave you an advantage?

How?_____

_____

_____

_____

12. How has the access programme helped you?_____

_____

_____

13. Do you have social relationships with the other access students?_____

_____

_____

14. Have your relationships with the other access students helped you in any ways?

(Explain/e.g. social)_____

15. Do you study together? _____

_____

_____

16. Is there anything else you would like to share about your experience of the access programme? _____

_____

_____

Thank For Time!

APPENDIX D: Extended Curriculum Tutors

1. What subject/s do your tutor in?_____

2. How long have you been tutoring in the programme?_____

3. Do you intend to continue as a tutor in the programme if offered a further contract ?
   (explain why/ why not)

4. Please describe your teaching/tutoring experience prior to and since becoming a tutor
   in the programme?_____

5. What are your existing academic qualifications?_____

6. What made you decide to become an extended curriculum tutor?_____

7. Please describe what your job entails?_____

8. How would you describe your working environment?_____

9. How would you describe the training and support you have received since starting
   tutoring?_____

10. Please describe your relationship with the other tutors and support staff within the programme. _____

_____

_____

_____

11. What does it mean to you to be a tutor in the programme? _____

_____

_____

_____

12. How would you describe your students? _____

_____

_____

_____

13. What do you think about the extended tutorials? _____

_____

_____

_____

14. What are the characteristic of a good extended tutorial? _____

_____

_____

_____

15. What makes a good tutor? _____

_____

_____

_____

16. In what ways do you think your tutorials make a difference to the students? _____

_____

_____

_____

17. What lessons have you learnt from your time as a tutor? _____

_____

_____

_____

_____

18. How would you best describe your teaching approach?
    (Prompt – link to pedagogical theory)

19. What do you see as the most important task of an extended curriculum tutor?

20. How would you describe your relationship with your students?

21. How would you describe the relationship between students?
    (Prompt – social capital)

22. How would you best characterise the interaction in the extended tutorials?

23. Describe any challenges you face as an extended tutor

24. What is your role within your discipline in terms of advancing the cause of your students?

25. Do you interact with students outside of the tutorials?
(e.g. consults, socially)

26. What would you change about the programme if given the chance?

27. What do you think of the future of the programme as a whole?

28. Any other general comments about the programme?

Thank You for Your Time!

Faculty of Humanities, Development and Social Sciences
School of Sociology and Social Studies

Informed Consent Form

Introduction and project information:

Dear all Students/Tutors

My name is Nkosikhona Nala I am a Master of Social Science (Sociology) student at the University of KwaZulu-Natal Pietermaritzburg campus. I am conducting a research study entitled: "The impact of the Extended Curriculum Programme (ECP) and the students' experiences of the programme at the University of KwaZulu-Natal Pietermaritzburg." My supervisor is Mark Rieker who is also involved as one of the tutors within the programme. This research study intends examines influence of the extended curriculum tutorials, offered within the programme as the students' academic development initiative.

I would like to kindly request you to take a few minutes of your time to participate in this research study, by answering the questions in the attached copy of the survey schedule. Feel free to ask me anything you wish ask regarding the interview or research project. Your participation will be highly appreciated.

Thank You
Nkosikhona Nala

Your rights as a participant:

Please note the following rights and expectations you have and may hold regarding this research:

1. Your participation in this research project is entirely voluntary and you may choose to withdraw from the research without penalty at any time for any reason.
2. **Your responses will be treated with strict confidentially. No names of the tutors/students will be published in the research project. This means that when the research is reported, your identity will be protected.**
3. There are no direct benefits for your participation.
4. The research data will be stored securely in the manner and for the duration specified by prevailing University of KwaZulu-Natal research policy guidelines.

Contact details:

Researcher: Nkosikhona Nala **Contact number: 033 260 XXXX or 074 XXXXXXX** **Email address: 205523350@ukzn.ac.za**	**Project supervisor: Mark Rieker** **Contact number: 033 260 XXXX** **Email address: RiekerM@ukzn.ac.za**

Formalisation of consent

Signature of participant: _____ **Date: _____**	**Signature of researcher: _____** **Date: _____**