The use of multilingual glossaries in enhancing the academic achievement of Extended Degree Programme students in a mainstream subject

by

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By submitting this dissertation electronically, I declare that the entirety of the work contained therein is my own, original work, that I am the authorship owner thereof (unless to the extent explicitly otherwise stated) and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it for obtaining any qualification.

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ABSTRACT

One of the explanations for South African students' poor performance at university, is the apparent mismatch or discontinuity between the exit level of secondary education and the entry level of higher education – the so-called articulation gap. In addition to the articulation gap that has to be bridged, South African universities are faced with the specific challenge that students increasingly have to learn through the medium of English, which is often not their first language or a language in which they are sufficiently proficient. While students' poor performance at university cannot be attributed to learning in an additional language as such, it becomes an aggravating factor when these students also come from educationally, socially and/or historically disadvantaged backgrounds.

The current study was done in the Extended Degree Programme (EDP) in the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences, Stellenbosch University which makes provision inter alia for students from disadvantaged backgrounds, who often have to learn in an additional language. The research problem that gave rise to this specific study was the marked discrepancy over an extended period between EDP students' pass rates in their mainstream subjects compared to their mainstream peers in the same period. A limited set of data indicated that students performed better in their EDP support subject, Introduction to the Humanities, when they were explicitly taught and assessed on the technical terminology of a new subject field. The current study aimed to establish through a formal empirical investigation whether systematic exposure to the multilingual subject-specific terminology of a mainstream discipline can also help to improve EDP students' pass rates in that discipline. In addition, it aimed to identify strategies to enhance these students' experience of success.

The study was done within the critical realist paradigm which acknowledges that there are events and discourses that generate the reality of the social world. In terms of this epistemology we can only change the social world if we identify the structures that gave rise to dominant events and discourses. Once we identify these structures and change them, we can counteract inequality and injustice.

Before the formal study was done in two Political Science mainstream modules, the English glossaries of the two prescribed textbooks were translated into Afrikaans and isiXhosa. EDP students with Political Science as mainstream subject were invited to attend weekly technical terminology tutorials for two terms. The teaching was aligned with the teaching and learning frameworks of the two separate Political Science modules and was based on the translated trilingual Political Science glossaries.

After the intervention the EDP focus group module averages were on a par with those of mainstream students and the EDP focus group's pass rates in both Political Science modules not only surpassed those of the control group of the same year, but were also higher than the pass rates of the mainstream students in 2013. It therefore seemed from the results of the quantitative analysis that the technical terminology intervention based on the trilingual Political Science glossaries had a positive result on EDP students' pass rates. The qualitative study analysed the two Political Science module frameworks, semi-structured interviews with

the lecturers; student questionnaires before and after the technical terminology intervention, EDP students' written essays, as well as the test and examination papers of the two Political Science modules to establish whether students' improved pass rates were also reflected in their experience of success. The triangulation of the results of the quantitative and qualitative analyses, showed that the qualitative analyses seemed to corroborate the results of the quantitative study. The findings of the current study thus support the hypothesis that multilingual technical (subject-specific) terminological interventions can play a significant role in improving EDP students' pass rates in their mainstream subjects, as well as their experience of success, especially when it forms an integral part of the mainstream curriculum.

OPSOMMING

Een van die verklarings vir die swak prestasie van Suid-Afrikaanse studente op universiteit, hou verband met die klaarblyklike diskontinuïteit tussen die uittreevlak van sekondêre onderwys en die intreevlak van hoër onderwys – die sogenaamde artikulasiegaping. Afgesien van die artikulasiegaping wat oorbrug moet word, staar Suid-Afrikaanse universiteite boonop die uitdaging in die gesig dat studente toenemend in Engels moet leer, wat dikwels nie hul moedertaal is nie en ook nie ‘n taal wat hulle voldoende beheers nie. Hoewel studente se swak prestasie op universiteit nie sonder meer daaraan toegeskryf kan word dat hulle in ‘n addisionele taal leer nie, is dit ‘n verswarende faktor indien hierdie studente ook afkomstig is uit opvoedkundig, maatskaplik en/of histories benadeelde agtergronde.

Hierdie studie is gedoen in die Verlengde Graadprogram (VGP) in die Fakulteit Lettere en Sosiale Wetenskappe, Universiteit Stellenbosch wat onder meer voorsiening maak vir studente uit benadeelde agtergronde, waar sulke studente dikwels ook in ‘n addisionele taal moet leer. Die navorsingsprobleem wat aanleiding gegee het tot hierdie studie, was die merkbare verskil wat oor ‘n geruime tyd waargeneem is tussen VGP-studente en hoofstroomstudente se slaagsyfers in hul hoofstroomvakke. ‘n Beperkte datastel het getoon dat VGP-studente beter presteer in hul VGP-steunvak, Inleiding tot die Geesteswetenskappe, wanneer hulle eksplisiet geleer en geassesseer word oor die tegniese terminologie van ‘n nuwe vakgebied. Die doel van die studie was om deur middel van ‘n formele empiriese ondersoek vas te stel of sistematiese blootstelling aan veeltalige vakspesifieke terminologie van ‘n hoofstroomdissipline, daartoe kan bydra om VGP-studente se slaagsyfers in daardie dissipline te verbeter. Verder was die studie daarop gemik om strategieë te identifiseer om hierdie studente se ervaring van sukses te verbeter.

Die studie is gedoen binne die raamwerk van kritiese realisme, wat aanvoer dat daar gebeure en diskoerse is wat daartoe bydra om die werklikheid van die sosiale wêreld te skep. Volgens hierdie epistemologie kan ons slegs die sosiale wêreld verander as ons die strukture identifiseer wat tot oorheersende gebeure en diskoerse aanleiding gegee het. Eers wanneer ons hierdie strukture identifiseer en verander, kan ons ongelykheid en ongeregtigheid teenwerk.

Voordat die studie in twee hoofstroommodules in Politieke Wetenskap gedoen is, is die Engelse woordelyste van die twee voorgeskrewe handboeke in Afrikaans en isiXhosa vertaal. VGP-studente met Politieke Wetenskap as hoofvak is genooi om vir twee kwartale lank weekliks tegniese terminologie tutoriale by te woon. Die onderrig is belyn met die leer- en onderrigraamwerke van die twee Politieke Wetenskapmodules en is gebaseer op die vertaalde drietalige Politieke Wetenskapwoordelyste.

Na die intervensie was die VGP-fokusgroep se module-gemiddeldes op ‘n vergelykbare vlak met dié van hoofstroomstudente en die slaagsyfers van die VGP-fokusgroep in albei Politieke Wetenskapmodules het nie net dié van die kontrolegroep wat nie in 2013 aan die intervensie blootgestel is nie, oortref nie, maar was ook hoër as die slaagsyfers van die hoofstroomstudente in 2013. Die resultate van die kwantitatiewe ontleding het getoon dat die

tegniese terminologie intervensie gebaseer op die drietalige Politieke Wetenskapwoordelyste ‘n positiewe uitwerking op VGP-studente se slaagsyfers gehad het. Die kwalitatiewe analise het die volgende ingesluit: die twee Politieke Wetenskapmoduleraamwerke, semi-gestruktureerde onderhoude met die dosente, studentevraelyste voor en na die tegniese terminologie intervensie, VGP-studente se geskrewe opstelle, asook die toets- en eksamenvraestelle van die twee Politieke Wetenskapmodules. Die doel hiermee was om vas te stel of studente se verbeterde slaagsyfers ook weerspieël is in hul ervaring van sukses. Die triangulering van die resultate van die kwantitatiewe en kwalitatiewe ontledings het getoon dat die kwalitatiewe ontleding die resultate van die kwantitatiewe ontleding bevestig. Die bevindings van hierdie studie bied dus ondersteuning vir die hipotese dat veeltalige tegniese (vakspesifieke) terminologiese intervensies ‘n belangrike rol in die verbetering van VGP-studente se slaagsyfers in hul hoofstroomvakke, sowel as hul ervaring van sukses, kan speel, veral wanneer dit ‘n integrale deel van die hoofstroomkurrikulum vorm.

ISISHWANKATHELO

Enye yeenkcazelo zokwenza kakubi eyunivesithi kwabafundi baseMzantsi Afrika, ibalelwa ekungalinganini okanye ekungadibanini okuphakathi kwenqanaba lokuphuma kwimfundo yasesekondari nenqanaba lokungena kwimfundo ephakamileyo – into ebizwa njengesithuba esingadibaniyo. Ukongeza kwisithuba esingadibaniyo ekufanele yoyiswe, iiyunivesithi zaseMzantsi Afrika zijamelene nomngeni okhethekileyo wokuba abafundi kufuneka bafunde ngesiNgesi, engasilulo ulwimi lwabo lokuqala okanye ulwimi abanobugcina obaneleyo kulo. Ngelixa ukwenza kakubi kwabafundi eyunivesithi kungenakubalelwa kulwimi olongezelelweyo, le nto iba ngumbandela oyandisayo le meko imbi xa aba bafundi bavela kwiimvelaphi ezihlelelekileyo ngokwemfundo, ngokwentlalo kunye/okanye nangokwembali yabo.

Esi sifundo senziwe kwi-Nkqubo yeSidanga eyoNgezelelweyo (i-EDP), kwiYunivesithi yaseStellenbosch elungiselelwe okt. abafundi abaphuma kwiimvelaphi ezihlelelekileyo, ekufuneka befunde ulwimi olongezelelweyo. Ingxaki yophando eyaba nomvuka wesi sifundo sithile yaba ngumahluko ophawulekayo ngaphezu kwexesha elandisiweyo phakathi kweqondo lokupasa kwabafundi be-EDP kwizifundo zabo ezikuluhlu oluphambili kunaxa kuthelekiswa kubafundi abakwizifundo ezikuluhlu oluphambili olufanayo. Uluhlu oluthile lwedatha lubonise ukuba abafundi benze ngcono kwisifundo sabo senkxaso ye-EDP, Intshayelelo kweze-Humanities, xa befundiswa kwaye behlolwa kwisigama sobugcisa sesifundo esitsha. Esi sifundo sijonge ekumiseleni isifundo esisesikweni esikholose ngamava malunga nokuba ukwaziswa kwisigama sesifundo esithile esilwimi-ninzi sesifundo esikuluhlu oluphambili kunganceda kuphucule iqondo lokuphumelela kwabafundi be-EDP kweso sifundo. Ukongeza koko, sijonge ekwalatheni amaqhinga-cebo okuqinisa amava empumelelo aba bafundi.

Isifundo senziwa ngaphakathi kwento ekuthiwa yi-critical realist paradigm evumayo ukuba kukho imicimbi neengxoxo ezivelisa unyaniseko lwehlabathi lencoko esiphila kulo. Ngokwale thiyori yolwazi (epistemology) singalitshintsha ihlabathi lencoko kuphela ukuba salatha izakhiwo ezinika iziphumo kulo micimbi neengxoxo. Sakuba sizalathle ezi zakhiwo saza sazitshintsha, singaphikisana nokungalingani nokungabikho kobulungisa.

Phambi kokuba kwenziwe isifundo esisesikweni kwiimodyuli ezimbini ezikuluhlu oluphambili kwiNzululwazi yezoPolitiko, kwaye kwaguqulelwa kwisiAfrikaans nesiXhosa iincwadi ezimbini uludwe lwamagama esiNgesi. Abafundi be-EDP abanesifundo esikuluhlu oluphambili kwiNzululwazi yezoPolitiko bamenywa ukuba baze kwii-tutorial zesigama sobugcisa kangangeeveki ezimbini kumaxesha amabini onyaka. Ukufundiswa kwalungelelaniswa nezakhelo zokufundisa nokufunda zeemodyuli ezimbini ezahlukeneyo zeNzululwazi yezoPolitiko kwaye oko kwasekwa kuluhlu lwamagama aguqulelwe kwiilwimi ezintathu zeNzululwazi yezoPolitiko. Emva kongenelelo iiavareji zeqela ekugxilwe kulo le-EDP zazilingana nezo zabafundi abakuluhlu lwezifundo oluphambili kwaye iqondo lokuphumelela leqela ekugxilwe kulo le-EDP kuzo zombini iimodyuli zange zizigqithe nje ezo zeqela elilawulwayo lonyaka omnye, koko namaqondo okuphumelela abafundi abakuluhlu lwezifundo oluphambili ayengaphezulu kunango-2013. Ngoko ke kubonakala

ukuba, ngokweziphumo zohlahlelo lobuninzi ungenelelo lwesigama sobugcisa esisekwe kuluhlu lwamagama alwimi-ntathu obuNzululwazi yezoPolitiko abe neziphumo ezakhayo kwiqondo lokuphumelela kwabafundi be-EDP. Isifundo sohlobo sahlahlela izakhelo zeemodyuli ezimbini zeNzululwazi yezoPolitiko; udliwano-ndlebe olwakheke ngokuphakathi kunye nabahlohli; uluhlu lwemibuzo yabafundi ngaphambi nasemva kongenelelo lwesigama sobugcisa, iincoko ezibhaliweyo zabafundi be-EDP, kwakunye namaphepha eemvavanyo naweemviwo zeemodyuli ezimbini zeNzululwazi yezoPolitiko ukufumanisa ukuba ingaba amaqondo okuphumelela aphucukileyo abafundi ayabonakala na kumava wabo empumelelo. Ukususela ekwenziweni unxantathu (triangulation) kwezifundo zohlahlelo lobuninzi nolohlobo, uhlahlelo lobuninzi lubonakala luzixhasa iziphumo zesifundo sobuninzi. Izigwebo zophando lwesi sifundo ngoko ke ziyayingqina ingqikelelo yokuba inkxaso yesigama esilwimi-ninzi sezifundo ingadlala indima ebalulekileyo ekuphuculeni amaqondo okuphumelela kwabafundi be-EDP kwizifundo zabo abakuluhlu lwezifundo oluphambili, kwakunye namava wabo empumelelo, ingakumbi xa oko kusenza inxenye efunekayo yekharityhulam yezifundo ezikuluhlu oluphambili.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Setting the scene

The challenges that universities face in South Africa are not uniquely South African. Internationally, universities are not the preserve of the elite anymore. Large numbers of students who previously sought training at other educational institutions now demand a university education. The result is that universities are not only faced with bigger classes, but they also have to deal with students who are culturally and socio-economically more diverse and are often not considered well prepared for the academic expectations of a university education (Leibowitz, Van der Merwe & Van Schalkwyk, 2009; Biggs & Tang, 2011).

One of the explanations for students' poor performance at university, is the mismatch or discontinuity between the exit level of secondary education and the entry level of higher education - the so-called 'articulation gap'. This discontinuity is common when countries experience a substantial increase in higher education, especially when institutions that were previously reserved for limited or privileged groups in society have to become more inclusive. In South Africa, this articulation gap has been ascribed to enrolment growth, 'underpreparedness' due to poor schooling and an increase in the linguistic, social and educational diversity of students (Ndebele, 2013:60).

In addition to the articulation gap[1] that has to be bridged, South African universities are faced with the specific challenge that students increasingly have to learn through the medium of English, which is often not their first language or a language in which they are sufficiently proficient (Van Schalkwyk, 2008).

In order to set the scene for the present study, the two contexts on both sides of the articulation gap will first be examined, namely the South African schooling context and the higher education landscape. Subsequently, the impact of the articulation gap on the Stellenbosch University context within which the current study was conducted will be described. The description in this first subsection will prepare the way to identify the purpose of the current study and to define the problem statement that guided the study.

[1] Van Dyk, Van de Poel & Van der Slik (2013), as well as Van de Poel & Van Dyk (2015) characterise the articulation gap in terms of challenges of integration and acculturation. These concepts will be described in greater detail in chapter 2.

1.1.1 The South African school context

1.1.1.1 The quality of schooling in South Africa

Inequality in the South African school system is entrenched from a very early age. The majority of historically disadvantaged state schools remain under-resourced in terms of textbooks, library books, infrastructure and teaching staff. Apart from the inherent historic and systemic challenges facing the school system, the disadvantaged communities they serve have their own socio-economic challenges.

The educational reforms that have been introduced since 1994 as part of the new democratic dispensation, have not yet managed to turn around the legacy of the unequal education system of the past. In fact, systemic problems not only affect dysfunctional and poorly resourced schools anymore. The entire South African school system is affected by these problems - even the functional and well-resourced schools (Ndebele, 2013:44).

In South Africa, there have been numerous initiatives to improve the quality of basic education. The country has participated in three international cross-national comparisons of primary school student achievement (Spaull, 2013): the Southern and Eastern African Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ) in 2000 and 2007 for grade 6; the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) in 2003 and 2011 for grades 8 and 9; the International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) in 2006 and 2011 for grades 4 and 5. Furthermore, the South African government has instituted national standardised assessments of student achievement, including the Systemic Evaluations in 2001 and 2007 for grade 3; National School Effectiveness Study from 2007 to 2009 for grades 3 to 5; and the Annual National Assessments (ANAs) from 2011 to 2014 for grades 1 to 6 and 9. In the Western Cape Province, the Western Cape Learner Assessment Study was furthermore undertaken in 2003 for grade 6. These are important initiatives, since they provided benchmarks for measuring learners' levels of achievement. These assessments have been analysed by educational experts and recommendations have been made to the Department of Basic Education and other stakeholders in the field of basic education.

The 2000 and 2007 SACMEQ international assessments compared the achievement levels of South African grade 6 learners with other grade 6 learners on the African continent. According to Spaull (2013:4), "SACMEQ II (2000) and SACMEQ III (2007) showed that there was no improvement in South African grade 6 literacy or numeracy performance over the seven year period". The 2007 study further found that 27% of South African grade 6 learners could not read a short and simple text and extract meaning. Particularly disturbing was the finding that South African learners were far behind much poorer African countries such as Tanzania, Kenya and Swaziland. Specifically, out of the 14 grade 6 cohorts that were compared, the South African learners were ranked 10th for reading and 8th for mathematics. Moreover, the South

African learners were rated 14th out of 15 in reading compared to the poorest 25% of learners in the survey, behind countries like Lesotho, Malawi and Mozambique.

The internationally benchmarked TIMSS assesses learners' mathematics and science performance in 45 countries. In their Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) publication, Reddy et al. (2011) discuss the results of the 2003 and 2011 TIMMS studies in the South African context. They note that, even though the 2011 study showed a slight improvement since 2003, the performance of South African learners in these international benchmarking assessments remained one of the lowest in the study rankings.[2]

The internationally benchmarked PIRLS assessment, which is done in 49 countries, confirmed South African learners' low performance levels. In 2011, it found that 43% of grade 5 learners in South African schools had not developed the basic skills required for reading at an equivalent international grade 4 level, and that their score was the lowest of all participants who were benchmarked. Van Staden (2016) and Bergbauer (2016) further found striking differences in academic performance in pre-PIRLS assessments between schools testing in English or Afrikaans and those testing in an African language, even after controlling for socio-economic factors and home background. They found that the disadvantage of learning in an additional language was reduced if the medium of instruction was a related language, i.e. part of the same African language group. The implication is that where it is not possible for foundation phase learners to attend a school that uses their home language as medium of instruction, it is advisable that the learners should attend a school using a language from the same group as medium of instruction.

The introduction of the standardised ANAs for grades 3, 6 and 9 which were instituted by the South African Department of Basic Education in 2011, is regarded as a positive development since it gives learners and parents independent feedback long before matric; it also helps teachers to know at what level to assess the learners. The ANAs highlight the disturbingly low performance levels of South African learners in literacy and numeracy. The 2013 ANAs found that at grade 6 level, only two out of every five learners performed adequately to outstanding in the language assessments, provided that teaching and learning were available in their mother-tongue. Where the language of teaching and learning was not their mother-tongue, only one out of every five grade 6 learners achieved the same level of performance. The report further found that in grade 6, the national average performance in language assessment was 59% in Home Language compared to 43% in 2012, and 46% in First Additional Language compared to 36% in 2012. In grade 9, the national average percentage mark for Home Language

[2] For further discussion of the quality of schooling in South Africa, see e.g. Koch & Dornbrack (2008); Scott (2009); Van der Walt (2010); Van der Berg, Taylor, Gustafsson, Spaull & Armstrong (2011); Murtin (2013); Van Dyk & Van de Poel (2013); Van Dyk, Van de Poel & Van der Slik (2013).

had not improved since 2012 and remained at 43% in 2013 (Department of Basic Education, 2014:31).

Spaull (2015: 28) analysed the findings of the 2012 ANAs in order to determine the extent of racial transformation in the schooling system. He found that more than half (54%) of the grade 6 learners in former White schools were Black, while 97.5% of learners in former Black schools remained Black. Of the grade 6 learners in the top 10% of best-performing schools, 52.4% were Black and 30.2% were White. However, Black learners in well-performing schools only made up 6.2% of all Black learners in grade 6. Black learners who have adequate access to educational resources can therefore realise their academic potential and compete on an equal level with their fellow White learners.

Yamauchi (2011:155) found that those apartheid policies that had historically contributed to the spatial segregation of population groups, and which led to different education and income opportunities, still determine the capacity of poorer communities to access quality education.

Spaull (2013:6) notes that research on educational achievement shows that (as in the past) there are still two distinct public school systems in South Africa. The minority of learners (20-25%) from affluent backgrounds attend mostly functional, better performing schools, resulting in much better academic achievement, while the majority of learners (75-80%) from poor backgrounds have to be accommodated in an uneven education system that leads to "insurmountable learning deficits" over time. Clearly, if quality education is not available to learners from poor backgrounds, they will not be able to access higher education institutions where they could break the cycle of poverty and make an intellectual contribution to society.

Van der Berg (2015:1) analysed national data from the 2012 and 2013 ANAs to track student cohort performance from grades 1 to 12. What makes this report relevant for the current study is the close link that is drawn between grade 4 outcome patterns and those of grade 12 (matric). The report states that "The results of the analysis show a clear learning gap between children from advantaged and non-advantaged backgrounds that is already exceedingly wide by Grade 4."

Spaull (2015:64) examined the causal impact of writing a test in a language that is not the mother tongue. His study differed from previous studies in that it focused on the grade 3 primary school level, which is the year before African language learners have to switch to English as medium of instruction. The study aimed at isolating the impact of language-factors on the one hand, and home-background and school quality on the other. Spaull used the data collected from 3,402 grade 3 learners who had to do the Systemic Evaluation in September 2007, followed one month later by the evaluation of the National School Effectiveness Study (NSES). These two evaluations used the same test instrument. The only difference was that the Systemic Evaluation was done in the language of learning and teaching (LOLT) of the school (which was mostly an African

language), whereas the NSES evaluation was done in English. Spaull (2015:100) found that "the composite effect of home-background and school-quality (non-language factors) is 1,6 to 3,9 times larger than the impact of language for literacy and at least 3,8 times larger for numeracy". It thus seems that the literacy and numeracy achievement of these learners was already extremely low before they switched to English as medium of instruction in grade 4 and that the medium of instruction should be seen as only one of the factors that determine achievement, or lack thereof, in basic education.

In 2016, the Research on Socioeconomic Policy (ReSEP) Group of the Department of Economics of the Faculty of Economics and Management Sciences at Stellenbosch University reported on the findings of a two-year study[3] which investigated the causes of learners' weak performance in literacy and numeracy in the foundation phase of grades 1 to 3. The report found that "[l]ess than half of all students learn to read for meaning in this critical period. These weak foundations provided in grades 1–3 constitute one of the major factors leading to poor learning outcomes in later grades" (Spaull, Van der Berg, Wills, Gustafsson & Kotzé, 2016:4).

Four of the 12 policy recommendations of the above report have implications for the current study (Spaull et al., 2016:4):

(i) "Emphasise reading as a unifying goal for early primary schooling. The single most important goal for the first half of primary school should be the solid acquisition of reading skills such that every child can read fluently and with comprehension in their home language by the end of Grade 3. An important secondary goal is that every child should also be able to read First Additional Language texts in English fluently and with comprehension by the end of Grade 3";

(ii) "Teach primary school teachers how to teach reading and writing in African languages and in English";

(iii) "Declare early literacy research (particularly in African languages) a National Research Foundation (NRF) Research Priority Area. Given the magnitude of the reading crisis and the lack of research on African languages at South African universities (particularly on early literacy in African languages), the NRF should declare this a national priority. It should dedicate the necessary resources to those researchers and departments who have the skills and expertise to investigate how children learn to read in African languages and which interventions are the most promising"; and

[3] This study formed part of two parallel studies on basic education in South Africa. The first research report is titled "Identifying Binding Constraints in South African Education." The second report which is discussed here, is titled "Laying Firm Foundations: Getting Reading Right."

(iv) "Establish oral reading fluency norms for South Africa's African languages. Although there are already oral reading fluency norms for English, there are none for the African languages. It is also not possible to translate English norms into African language norms since the language structure (morphology) is different, with English being an analytic language and African languages being agglutinating languages. Without these norms it is not possible to reliably measure and benchmark children's oral reading fluency in African languages."

1.1.1.2 The role of mother-tongue education

It should be clear from the findings of the various national and international assessments discussed in the previous section that, apart from quality of schooling in South Africa, access to mother-tongue education is one of the factors that could affect academic achievement. Herschensohn (2007), among many other scholars, refers to the vital role of first-language acquisition during the pre-school and early-school years and the importance of the mother tongue as a foundation for the learning of a second or additional language.

As regards the role of mother-tongue education on academic achievement, it is important to take into consideration Tollefson's (1991:31) critique of second language acquisition research which is founded on what he calls the "neoclassical approach". This approach emphasises individual linguistic choices without questioning why individuals make particular choices. Tollefson is also critical of conventional definitions of language planning since they have entrenched institutional constraints, created by dominant groups to prevent linguistic minorities from accessing social and political institutions. He goes on to propose a "historical-structural" approach to language policy and planning where the focus of research is shifted from the individual towards the social, political and economic factors which have historically constrained or driven changes in language structure and language use.

According to Tollefson (1991), historical-structural approaches examine the social structures which inhibit the choices people make. Since historical and structural processes are determining factors in human behaviour, issues of power, hegemony, dominance, ideology, the state and social structure or class play an important role in the analysis of policies. Language policy and planning should therefore be evaluated on their capacity to change the existing social structure. Tollefson (1991:16) proposes that language policy should be defined as "the institutionalisation of language as a basis for distinctions among social groups or classes" since this will provide insights into how language policy in education is structuring unequal social and economic relationships.

Tollefson's distinction between neoclassical and historical-structural approaches can shed light on why African language speakers have not embraced mother-tongue education despite its apparent cognitive, social and intellectual benefits that is widely claimed in the literature. In an effort to identify what lies behind these language

attitudes, Alexander (2004:114) notes that the sociology of language has become a vital aspect of applied language studies since it can reveal the systematic manipulation that constitute language planning in practice.

To illustrate this point, Perry (2003) gives a detailed overview of how consecutive administrations and governments in South Africa adopted language policies that would have far-reaching consequences on the various language groups' social, political and economic realities. The British anglicisation policy that dominated language planning and practice in the 19th century can be traced to the British takeover of the Cape Colony in 1806 and its official declaration of English as the only official language. Perry (2003:103-104) describes how 19th and 20th century imperial politics eventually contributed to the rise of Dutch as one of the official languages in South Africa.

In terms of the Union of South Africa Act, 1909, adopted by the British Parliament, English and Dutch were declared as the official languages of the Union. In terms of the Official Languages of the Union Act, 1925, Afrikaans became the third official language, alongside Dutch and English. According to Spierenburg and Wels (2006:56), this arrangement was an acknowledgement that Afrikaans was replacing Dutch as an alternative to English.[4] In terms of the Constitutions of 1961 and 1983, English and Afrikaans were recognised as the official languages of South Africa with equal status.[5] It was only in terms of the Constitution of 1996 that nine African languages were declared official languages of South Africa, alongside English and Afrikaans.[6]

A topic that does not receive adequate attention in Second-Language Acquisition research and literature on mother-tongue education is how the language policies of consecutive administrations and governments eventually led to the relegation of African languages to the margins despite a century of isiXhosa literature[7] and African language intellectuals' contributions in newspapers like *Imvo Zabantsundu* (1884), *Izwi Labantu* (1897), *Ilanga* (1903), *Tsala ea Becoana* (1910), *Tsala ea Batho* (1912), *Abantu-Batho* (1912), *Inkundla ya Bantu* (1938) and *Inkululeko* (1940).[8]

What is even more remarkable about the marginalisation of African languages over time is that already in 1776 the first list of Xhosa numerals, nouns, adjectives and verbs was compiled by a natural scientist who visited the Cape. In their discussion of isiXhosa

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[4] In tracing the development of Afrikaans in the Police after the adoption of this Act, they note, however, that English would continue to be the written and spoken language in official documents and that the use of Afrikaans was strongly discouraged and even forbidden. This situation only changed with the commemoration of the Great Trek in 1938, when language awareness among Afrikaans speakers increased dramatically. In 1948 the changes in language policy were institutionalised when the National Party came to power (Spierenburg & Wels, 2006:57).

[5] The Republic of South Africa Constitution Act, No 32 of 1961; Republic of South Africa Constitution Act, No 110 of 1983.

[6] Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996.

[7] Cf. Opland (1998:324-326) for a dateline of Xhosa literature from 1820-1930.

[8] Cf. Fourie (2007), Ndletyana (2015) and Switzer (1997) for more information.

lexicography and its impact on the intellectualisation of this language, Nkomo and Wababa (2013:348) give an account of the history of isiXhosa lexicography. The 1776 Xhosa word list was followed by at least six dictionaries in the 19th century. The last of these dictionaries was A Kafir–English Dictionary (KED, 1899). The KED is a mono-directional bilingual dictionary which uses English to define isiXhosa words. According to Nkomo and Wababa (2013:353), "[t]he language was being archived for the benefit of non-speakers of isiXhosa who had to study the language in order to understand the mother-tongue speakers". They note that the KED had the unintended consequence of becoming an important lexicographic resource of the language and a milestone in the intellectualisation of isiXhosa. Nkomo and Wababa acknowledge that the "K word" in the title of the dictionary, which was typical of other isiXhosa and isiZulu dictionaries in the colonial era, is undoubtedly its biggest drawback in post-apartheid South Africa because of its offensive connotation. Another point of criticism is that the communicative and cognitive functions of the dictionary are hampered by the fact that certain culture-specific terms have been mistranslated, e.g. the word "abduction" that used to be associated with a traditional marriage practice would today be associated with a criminal activity (Nkomo and Wababa, 2013:354).

The Oxford Learner's Dictionary (OLD) is an example of a mono-directional bilingual dictionary aimed at promoting the learning of isiXhosa as an additional language. While this dictionary is a huge help for students who learn isiXhosa, it also provides a degree of English comprehension support to isiXhosa mother-tongue speakers. Nkomo and Wababa (2013:355) note that, like many other isiXhosa dictionaries, the cognitive potential of the OLD is limited since it still shows cultural prejudices; for instance, as in the case of the KED, the Xhosa verb translated as "abduct" is still defined as "forcefully dragging a girl into a marriage", despite the fact that the verb has a much broader meaning today.

As regards language planning involving the African languages, Alexander (2004:116) notes that it came to be associated with the discredited racist social engineering of the apartheid era, especially the damaging effects of Bantu education. Even though African language experts did extensive work to develop African languages during this time, cooperation was undermined by the fact that they had to operate in the different language boards that were established in terms of the Bantu Education Act, which separated the African languages along ethnic lines. Accordingly, a concerted effort to standardise and promote the African languages as media of instruction in schools was effectively ruled out by the political system.

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996) and the Language in Education Policy (LiEP) (1998) redefine the status of South African languages and create opportunities for promoting language diversity and multilingualism in education and in society (Mda, 2015:177).

The fundamental right to mother-tongue education is enshrined in section 29(2) of the Constitution. The article in the Constitution states that "[e]veryone has the right to receive education in the official language or languages of their choice in public educational institutions where that education is reasonably practicable." In practice, most White, Indian, and Coloured children have the choice to receive their schooling in the same medium of instruction or language of learning and teaching (LOLT) from grades 1 to 12, namely English or Afrikaans. In contrast, most children with an African language as mother-tongue have to switch to English as the medium of instruction from grade 4 due to practicability reasons (Van der Berg, Taylor, Gustafsson, Spaull & Armstrong, 2011:17). This switch happens despite the fact that less than 1% of these learners had English as an Additional Language in the foundation phase (grades 1-3) (Department of Basic Education, 2010). Notwithstanding the National Department of Basic Education's LiEP, which advocates mother-tongue education for all learners (Howie, Venter & Van Staden, 2008:551, 552), it is not considered "reasonably practicable" to continue with African language mother-tongue education after grade 3. The reality is therefore that after grade 3 many learners and teachers must use English as the language of learning and teaching, even though it is a language in which neither learners nor teachers are proficient (Du Plessis, 2003; Heugh, 2007:208). What is further remarkable about African language learners' switch to English in grade 4 is the fact that only 23% of South Africans have one of the dominant languages in education, English and Afrikaans, as their home or first language, according to the 2011 Census (StatsSA, 2012:23). This means that the majority of South African learners are affected by the grade 4 switch to English as LOLT.

While the LiEP aims to recognise and develop all South African languages equally, Mda (2015:184) points out that there are various reasons why this goal is not realised. In practise, most Black learners are still forced to use Afrikaans and/or English in schools that have these languages as media of instruction. On the one hand, many White, Indian and Coloured parents fear the consequences that integration and multilingualism might have for Afrikaans and/or English as established media of instruction if an African language is introduced as LOLT or as an additional language. This fear usually finds expression in discourses about lowering of academic standards. On the other hand, many Black parents fear that their children will be further disadvantaged if they are taught in their home languages. Related to this fear is the perception that there is a lack of adequate educational and teacher resources for African languages (Mda, 2015:187).

Many proponents of mother-tongue education support the distinction made by Lambert (1975) between subtractive and additive bilingualism (or mother-tongue based bilingualism). In the case of subtractive bilingualism, the mother tongue is taken away as medium of instruction when the additional language takes over this function, which could result in monolingualism in the second language. In the case of additive bilingualism, which is the official policy of the Department of Basic Education (2010),

an additional language is added without loss of the first language. Advocates of this approach claim that an additional language can be learned anytime, but care should be taken that the additional language does not adversely affect the mastery of the mother-tongue. In terms of additive bilingualism, the mother-tongue and the additional languages are separated for instruction purposes. It should be noted, though, that the established dichotomy between subtractive and additive bilingualism is increasingly questioned in the literature about multilingual teaching; this issue will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 2. The importance of literacy practices, one of the cornerstones of the Academic Literacies approach (see Chapter 2), is evident from the study conducted by Pretorius (2008). Although the focus of that study was on the literacy practices of African language learners, the issue of literacy practices is just as relevant to other South African language learners. The issue of literacy practises will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 2.

Pretorius (2008:62) notes that the Department of Basic Education's LiEP document explicitly promotes an additive approach to bilingualism. Even though supporting the Department's language policy, she set out to establish which factors are conducive to successful literacy development and can have a mediating effect on the effects of poverty. To achieve this objective, Pretorius examined the reading performance of the grade 6 and 7 learners in three different urban township schools with three different language policies to determine how language and reading abilities affect one another, and how they affect academic performance. The one township school is a monolingual English private school, and the other two are state schools that use two models of additive bilingualism. The findings were meant to identify school and classroom factors that need to be in place in order to provide learners with an optimal learning environment for literacy development, and to inform language policy and literacy development in African languages in primary schools (Pretorius, 2008:78).

One of Pretorius' main findings was that township learners who attended the private township school performed very well in the (English) reading and language tests, while the township learners who attended the two state township schools performed poorly on the reading tests, in both their mother tongue, Northern Sotho, and in English. In terms of the additive bilingual model described above, the school that had the least desirable language policy (English monolingualism in the private school) was the school that consistently produced the most outstanding results in terms of language and reading accomplishments, while the school that in theory had the most desirable policy (additive bilingualism in School B) performed poorly in language and reading.

In refining her analysis, Pretorius (2008:81-84) observed the divergent literacy practices at the private township school and at the two state township schools. In the private school, reading was an integral part of the school activities, and the basics of reading were addressed from the outset of the foundation phase. Storybook reading was a cherished activity in the early grades, with ample time set aside for it. In contrast, in the

two state township schools, many learners did not read well because they never had adequate exposure to reading during their early primary school years, neither in Northern Sotho nor in English. Since the availability of books is a prerequisite for reading development, the absence of books was telling. Moreover, none of the teachers at these schools was a member of a community library and 68% of them indicated that they had 10 or fewer books at home, suggesting that the teachers themselves were not readers. Pretorius (2008:84) concludes that "[i]n order to develop good readers in the African languages, more reading needs to be done in these languages, more books and a greater variety of books need to be written in the African languages and put in classrooms, and enthusiasm for reading in the African languages needs to be nurtured."

According to Pretorius (2008), the beneficial effects of mother-tongue education on learners' linguistic, cognitive or academic growth in acquiring literacy cannot be disputed. Furthermore, since language is closely related to self identity, there are also affective and psychological benefits in acquiring literacy in one's home language and having one's language and culture validated in the learning context. However, learners will not be able to enjoy these benefits "if teachers do not spend more time developing reading in the classrooms, if learners have little or no access to books, and if there is little motivation to impel reading" (Pretorius, 2008:85). With regard to learning in an additional language, Pretorius cautions that the long-term effect of acquiring literacy in an additional language on learners' identification with their home language and culture, and their self worth, requires further investigation.

The challenge is to persuade schools that provide quality education to replace their subtractive bilingualism models with additive bilingualism models so that the learners can benefit even more from their schooling.

From the discussion above, it seems that African language learners are particularly challenged by the implementation and practise of the mother-tongue education policy. Sigcau (2003) argues that, when African language learners finish school, they lack the required levels of proficiency in both English and their mother tongue. In view of the fact that universities increasingly expect students to learn through the medium of English, this will necessarily have an impact on their academic achievement (Sigcau, 2003:245). However, as will become evident from the literature review in Chapter 2, the medium of instruction is only one of the factors affecting students' academic achievement at university.

A further point relating to learners' academic achievement at school concerns the issue of South African matric pass rates (the proportion of grade 12 pupils that pass the NSC exam).[9] The minimum pass requirements are 40% or more in at least three subjects -

[9] The NSC is the National Senior Certificate which is offered by all public schools in South Africa and should be distinguished from the IEB (International Examinations Board) matric examinations which are

including one home language - and 30% or more in at least three other subjects. Apart from these low pass requirements, matric examination marks are "standardised" when "too many" students fail or pass a particular subject. In 2015, the matric marks were adjusted upwards in 30 subjects by UMALUSI, the body responsible for the certification of the NSC certificate.[10]

Another factor that has an impact on the reliability of the matric pass rates is the fact that the drop-out rates before grade 12 are not taken into account in the eventual matric pass rates. Furthermore, some learners take less demanding NSC exam subjects to improve their matric marks (Spaull, 2013:31). Some learners are in fact advised to take this action so that the school's overall pass rate can be improved. According to Spaull, a more appropriate measure to determine the "real" matric or overall "throughput-pass rate" would be to calculate what proportion of a cohort that started school 12 years earlier actually passed matric.

In its media release on 15 September 2015, the Department of Basic Education states that it is more appropriate to compare grade 2 enrolments to matric passes due to the high rate of repetitions in grade 1 which inflates the number of learners enrolled. The Department further notes that the grade 2-to-matric throughput rate has increased steadily in the last few years from 28.0% in 2009, to 34.2% in 2010, 37.7% in 2011, 38.2% in 2012 and 40.4% in 2013. While the official matric pass rates for the period 2009 to 2013 were already not satisfactory, it is even more concerning to compare the official matric pass rates with the grade 2-to-matric throughput rates: 60.6% in 2009, 67.8% in 2010, 70.2% in 2011, 73.9% in 2012, and 78.2% in 2013 (with 75.8% in 2014 and 70.7% in 2015). In effect, just over 40% of learners end up passing matric. This represents a secondary school completion rate that is strikingly low compared to other developing countries, such as Turkey (53%) and Brazil (67%).

Clearly, if 60% of learners do not manage to pass matric, it has wide-ranging repercussions for society at large, and in particular for the number of students who eventually qualify for higher education. The minimum admission requirements for Bachelor's study are that candidates should have (i) passed the National Senior Certificate (NSC) and (ii) obtained a minimum achievement rating of 4 (Adequate Achievement, i.e. 50% -59%) in four university designated subjects. In addition, applicants must meet the faculty-specific, programme-specific and subject-specific admission and selection requirements of the programme for which they want to register.

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written by most private schools. The National Senior Certificate (NSC) replaced the Senior Certificate (SC) in 2008 and the latter is still used as a revised qualification for adults.

[10] For the quality assurance reports of UMALUSI (Council for Quality Assurance in General and Further Education and Training), cf. http://www.umalusi.org.za/list.php?type=Quality%20Assurance%20Reports.

1.1.2 The South African higher education context

1.1.2.1 The effect of poor schooling on higher education

The South African school system is regarded by some as the primary cause of students' 'underpreparedness' for higher education. This 'underpreparedness' has implications for students' participation rates, attrition rates and eventual graduation rates in higher education (Slonimsky and Shalem, 2004).

The South African higher education participation rate (the percentage of 20 to 24-year olds of the general population enrolled in higher education) has increased from 15% in 2000 to 19% in 2012, but remains strikingly unequal: 55% of Whites and 47% of Indians participate in higher education, while African and Coloured students are totally under-represented at 16% and 14% respectively (Scott, 2009; Council on Higher Education, 2015).

While high first-year attrition rates in higher education systems are not uncommon internationally, they occur in societies where the participation rates in higher education are high. An aggravating factor in the South African context is that the low participation and high attrition rates, together with social and economic challenges, pose a major threat to development and will entrench inequality in the long run (Scott, 2009:21).

A study conducted by the Council on Higher Education (CHE) on student throughput rates at South African universities over a five-year period from 2001 to 2005 also links the throughput rates to the impact of unequal access to mother-tongue education. It states that, although access to higher education has improved since 1994, throughput rates are still not satisfactory. In the survey, African language students performed worse than other South African students in most disciplines. The report identifies language as one of the main contributing factors in this regard, but it does note that various other factors play a significant role in the poor academic performance among African students (Scott, Yeld & Hendry, 2007).

In their 2000 CHE cohort study, Letseka and Maile (2008) found that approximately 30% of undergraduate students drop out at the end of their first year. Their findings were confirmed by a study of the 2006 first-time entering cohort in which Ndebele (2013) cross-referenced their cohort analysis with the 2000 and 2001 CHE studies. From these studies, it emerged that historical and educational disadvantage still overlap twenty years after the advent of democracy in South Africa: only 20% of African students and 20% of Coloured students in three-year degree programmes graduated within regulation time, compared to 26% of Indian and 43% of White students. In addition, only 30% of African students and 28% of Coloured students in four-year degree programmes graduated within regulation time, compared to 31% of Indian and 47% of White students. What is significant about this report is the fact that in the three-year Bachelor's and four-year professional Bachelor's programmes which are supposed

to be the best-performing higher-education sub-sectors, the 2006 cohort completion rate after five years was a mere 52% (Ndebele, 2013:43, 46). This suggests that the explanation for students' poor performance in higher education cannot simply be attributed to a lack of mother-tongue education, as the next sections will illustrate.

1.1.2.2 The issue of epistemological access

Morrow (2009) cautions that conforming to the formal admission requirements of the university should not be confused with epistemological access. The latter requires that students develop an understanding and sensitivity for the epistemic values of the university, which are the academic community's vital contribution to the development of society. These epistemic values are "those values that shape and guide inquiry which has as its regulative goal to discover the truth about some matter, irrespective of whether that truth is convenient or inconvenient, supports or does not support any particular personal predilections or sectional interests" (Morrow, 2009:37). The epistemic values, or scientific norms, represent different traditions of inquiry that were developed and refined by the disciplines over time. These epistemic values are content-neutral and should not be confused with curriculum content that can be changed from time to time. Morrow (2009:37) maintains that the resistance to curriculum transformation can often be ascribed to the fact that academics do not make a distinction between epistemic values and the particular content of their subject areas. In fact, "challenges to knowledge claims are themselves committed to epistemic values" (Morrow, 2009:36).

In order to provide epistemological access, it is important that the gaps between the respective worlds of students and lecturers must be bridged. This means that possible obstacles to student success should be removed and resources should be invested into transforming traditional approaches into critical and democratic ones (Boughey, 2005).

To address the realities of students' different educational backgrounds, Scott and others have appealed to higher education institutions to widen their educational structures and approaches to compensate for the disparities in educational and socio-economic background (Scott et al., 2007:41; Scott, 2009). Unfortunately, this ideal has for various reasons not been realised in the South African higher education context.

1.1.2.3 Academic literacy

In South Africa, there are different approaches to academic literacy. One set of approaches focuses mainly on teaching generic academic skills that students have to acquire to become academically literate to conform to the demands of the university. These are normally taught as adjunct academic support courses, independent of academic departments. This set of approaches corresponds to the first academic literacy construct outlined by Van de Poel and Van Dyk (2015:169) in which "[a]cademic literacy is taught as a stand-alone course devoid of content specialisation." In another

set of approaches, the academic conventions of the disciplines and subject-specific content are taught within departments, with or without the support of academic development lecturers. Within this second set, Van de Poel and Van Dyk (2015:173) distinguish further between an approach where academic literacy experts teach subject-specific content, and one where disciplinary experts teach academic literacy. They furthermore identify a collaborative approach where academic literacy and disciplinary experts collaborate to teach in tandem. All these approaches focus on the student as academic novice who must adjust to meet the generic academic or subject-specific expectations of the academy.

In contrast to the above approaches, the Higher Education Development (HED) framework of academic literacy (which will be discussed in greater detail in section 2.9.1.2 of Chapter 2) does not place all the responsibility on the student. It highlights the need for changes in policy and practice within institutions. It asks for a critical evaluation of existing teaching and assessment practices to ensure that they are valid and transparent, and that they develop and evaluate learning (Myers & Picard, 2007). In terms of this model, epistemological access is not primarily focused on 'underprepared' students with their deficit skills. It distributes the responsibility for students' eventual success among various role-players.

These approaches to academic literacy which seem to characterise the South African higher education landscape will be discussed and evaluated in greater depth for the benefit of the present study. This will be done in Chapter 2 where these South African approaches will be situated within the larger international discourse on academic literacy.

1.1.3 The role of Extended Degree Programmes in broadening access

In 1997, the South African government established the Extended Degree Programmes (EDPs), or Extended Programmes, as a mechanism to deal with systemic obstacles to equity and student success (Ndebele, 2013). The Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET) has since made substantial amounts of money available to higher education institutions to support their Extended Degree Programmes, and to help institutions achieve their aims of broadening access and enhancing student success.

Although studies such as that of Ndebele show that EDPs seem to contribute to enhancing student success, "the significance of sector-wide extended programme data is limited by uneven quality of implementation" (Ndebele, 2013:78). Because it is difficult to generalise about the success prospects of EDPs, it is necessary to give a detailed description of the institutional context within which the present study is conducted. The next subsections will therefore explore this specific EDP context, and describe the implementation of national policy at Stellenbosch University where the current study was done.

1.1.3.1 Extended Degree Programmes at Stellenbosch University

This research project was undertaken in the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences at a historically White institution, Stellenbosch University, in South Africa. The Extended Degree Programme in this faculty was one of the first to be established at the University with the financial support of the Department of Higher Education and Training.

Like all historically White universities in South Africa, students were excluded from admission to Stellenbosch University on the grounds of their race during apartheid. This University has since acknowledged and formally apologised for its contribution to the injustices of the past, and committed itself to appropriate redress and development initiatives (Stellenbosch University, 2000).

In April 2013, the University Council approved the 'Institutional Intention and Strategy for 2013 to 2018'. One of its strategic priorities is to enhance the diversity profile of the institution by increasing the number of Coloured, Black and Indian students from the then 33% to 50% by 2018. Apart from redress, the motivation for this strategic priority is that "academic excellence is limited without the intellectual challenges brought by a diversity of people and ideas" (Stellenbosch University, 2013). The implication of this strategic priority is that academic excellence was limited in the past, when only one population group participated in the academic dialogue, research and teaching. Hence, the academic community now has the opportunity to benefit intellectually from the diversity of people and ideas. If this strategic priority is taken to its logical conclusion, it means that the intellectual challenges brought about by the diversity of people and ideas can broaden the academic community's minds and expand their worldviews if they are prepared to face these challenges.

Another strategic priority of the 'Institutional Intention and Strategy' (Stellenbosch University, 2013) is to create a welcoming atmosphere at the institution where all cultural, religious and language groups feel included. If this strategic priority is to be realised, the institution cannot separate students' academic success from their social integration into the academic community. Furthermore, it should be realised that social integration into the academic community forms part of a wider process of acculturation which includes various other factors such as residence integration, emotional wellness, financial support, safety and security (Van Dyk & Van de Poel, 2013:45–47; Van de Poel & Van Dyk, 2015:164–166). However, because lecturers and researchers have intellectual clout, they can play a key role in either condoning old or new discriminatory practices, or contributing to the creation of an inclusive culture at university. In this process, they can make sure that undergraduate students from all cultural, religious and language groups receive the best possible teaching and learning support from their first year to make sure that they stay in the system long enough to not only graduate, but to proceed to post-graduate studies. To achieve this goal, there must be adequate support along the way for lecturers and researchers to facilitate optimal teaching and learning.

The strategic institutional framework of Stellenbosch University therefore creates the context within which the EDP of the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences was conceptualised and is implemented. Within this specific institutional context, the EDP therefore not only serves the purpose of broadening access to the university, but also contributes towards embracing diversity as an asset to academic excellence, and creating a welcoming atmosphere.

1.1.3.2 The Extended Degree Programme in the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences, Stellenbosch University

The EDP in the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences provides extensive academic support to educationally and historically disadvantaged students. It must be emphasised, however, that the EDP does not exclusively target any particular race group. The purpose of EDPs is to give academic support to students with educational backlogs (such as those mentioned in sections 1.1.1 and 1.1.2 above), irrespective of race or class. However, because of the factors mentioned in section 1.1.1, the majority of EDP students in the period under review in the current study (2010-2013) have been historically disadvantaged students from the Black and Coloured race groups that are still under-represented in higher education.

The EDP in its current format was instituted in 2008 in the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences. In this programme, students do their first academic year over two years, are given additional academic support, and follow certain compulsory modules that are intended to prepare them better for their graduate studies. In their first year at university, EDP students take two subjects from the mainstream first-year offering of the particular degree programme for which they are registered, as well as the three compulsory EDP subjects, 'Texts in the Humanities', 'Information Skills', and 'Introduction to the Humanities'. In their second year at university, students take the remaining subjects from the mainstream degree programme's first-year offering (normally three subjects), as well as the second part of the EDP support subject, 'Introduction to the Humanities'. The contents of the third and fourth years of study are the same as the second- and third-year offerings of the mainstream degree programme.

The EDP support subject 'Texts in the Humanities' focuses on reading and writing skills, critical thinking skills, rhetorical structure, coherence, cohesion, text-linguistic characteristics and argumentation. The lectures are presented in separate Afrikaans and English classes to provide optimal academic development support in students' preferred medium of instruction. At the time when the current study was undertaken, no provision was made for multilingual support for African language speakers.

In her 2006 study of a previous version of the EDP in the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences at Stellenbosch University, Van Schalkwyk (2008:4) found that the 'Texts in the Humanities' EDP support subject "can contribute to underprepared students' acquisition of academic literacy, especially when the supporting material is specifically

linked to writing assignments and the writing conventions in the different discipline-based standard degree programmes and/or mainstream modules."

In the other academic support subject, 'Introduction to the Humanities', EDP students are introduced to eight different disciplines in the Humanities and Social Sciences over a two-year period. Eight different subject specialists teach these modules, which deal with the nature and specific interests of the Social Sciences, Arts, Languages, and Linguistics as fields of study within the Humanities and Social Sciences. This module aims to broaden EDP students' worldview by exposing them to a wide variety of subject-fields, some of which are not currently offered in the Faculty, such as the Role of Religion in Society, and theories and myths about the origin of the universe, the earth and humanity. It also provides foundational knowledge (including information on technical concepts, theories, research methods and applications) that is relevant for EDP students' mainstream subjects. However, the curriculum is designed to take into consideration the diversity and unequal educational backgrounds of the students.

In the 'Introduction to the Humanities' module, two periods per week are devoted to subject-specific content and one to language support that is specifically aimed at the particular subject-field. To provide first-year EDP students with technical terminology support, the language support lecturer attends the lectures of the various subject specialists when they are presented for the first time. After studying the lecturer's notes and the prescribed readings, the language support lecturer compiles a technical terminology list. The terminology is then defined in English, and translated into Afrikaans, after which it is explained, discussed and tested in the parallel-medium Afrikaans and English weekly language classes. To provide students with generic academic language and grammar support, the language support lecturer uses the subject-specific content to integrate these language skills into a particular subject-field.

The above strategy seemed to have had the effect that EDP students' marks have steadily improved in the 'Introduction to the Humanities' module over the past years. Various factors could have played a role in this increase in marks. It might be attributed to particular characteristics of (at least some of) the students who followed this module (e.g. positive attitude, conscientiousness, diligence, etc.). Or, it might be the teaching styles, enthusiasm, commitment, creativeness, etc. of the language support lecturers and the subject specialists. It might also be that the study material and learning activities contributed to the higher marks. However, one of the factors that emerged in initial student feedback on the teaching approach was that the close integration of the content of the language periods with the subject-specific content of the lectures, and students' intensive engagement with the multilingual technical terminology, contributed towards their experience of success. Students indicated in their feedback that the technical terminology with its definitions helped them to overcome initial communicative obstacles during lectures, contributed to a better understanding of subject-specific

concepts and gave them more confidence to express themselves during lectures and tutorials.

These results were achieved informally and in uncontrolled circumstances within one of the EDP support subjects. Simultaneously, however, informal observations were also made in 2010 and 2011 that EDP students' success rates were much lower in some mainstream subjects than those of their mainstream peers. This observation did not come as a surprise since EDP students' admission criteria are lower than those of mainstream students. One would therefore expect that mainstream students would have a greater possibility of success in their subjects. This observation was confirmed by some studies (e.g. Ndebele, 2013), that EDP students' success rates were much lower in their mainstream subjects compared to their performance in their EDP support subjects. The initial informal intervention in one of these support subjects with technical terminological support was exactly an attempt to address this problem area, and eventually formed the pilot study for the current study.

These observations raised the question as to whether improved results could be achieved in EDP students' mainstream subjects, and whether the effect of the technical terminological support could be tested in controlled circumstances.

In short, there are diverse factors (academic, psychological, cultural, socio-economic, etc.) that have an impact on the success rate of EDP students, who are the focus of the current study. As will be made clear below, the present study focused on only one aspect of academic support, namely the influence of technical terminological support, leaving the other factors for further investigation.

1.2 Purpose of the present study

In section 1.1, the aim was to set the scene for the present study. Firstly, the South African school context was explored in terms of the quality of schooling and the role of mother-tongue education in students' weak academic performance. Secondly, some of the factors impacting on student success in South African higher education were outlined, with specific reference to the impact of the school system on higher education, the issues of epistemological access and the various approaches to academic literacy. Specific reference was made to how EDPs can be used as a mechanism to enhance educationally and historically disadvantaged students' success in higher education in general, and at Stellenbosch University in particular.

From the above, the following three points emerged: (i) Within the post-apartheid South African higher education context the issues of epistemological access and academic literacy have become prominent; (ii) Not only at Stellenbosch University, but also in the wider South African university context, EDPs are considered an appropriate educational vehicle to address the above issues; (iii) From initial informal observations in the EDP of the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences at Stellenbosch University, it seemed that

EDP students benefited academically in an EDP support subject from exposure to technical terminological support.

The purpose of the present research project was therefore to establish whether multilingual technical terminology with definitions can also improve EDP students' success rates in a mainstream subject, and whether systematic exposure to the core multilingual subject-specific terminology of a discipline can contribute to these students' success in that discipline.

1.3 Research problem, research questions, and hypothesis

Against the broad background of South African higher education as described above, a more limited research problem drives the current project. The research problem that gave rise to the current study was that a marked discrepancy was noticed between EDP students' pass rates in their mainstream programmes in 2010 and 2011 compared to their mainstream peers in the same period. The current study therefore wanted to gain insight into this specific problem against the background of the broader context as discussed above, and wanted to address the problem of how this discrepancy can be overcome to bring EDP students' pass rates on a par with their mainstream peers.

The research questions formulated in response to this research problem are:

(1) What is the quantitative impact (in terms of mean percentages and pass rates) of systematic exposure to multilingual subject-specific terminology on EDP students' performance in a mainstream subject?

(2) What strategies can enhance the qualitative impact of multilingual subject-specific terminology on these students' experience of success (in terms of confidence to take part in discussions, ability to apply concepts and theories beyond the classroom, etc.)?

The hypothesis that was tested in the current study was therefore the following: Multilingual technical (subject-specific) terminological support that is integrated into the mainstream teaching strategy has the potential to improve EDP students' pass rates in their mainstream subjects, as well as their experience of success.

1.4 Research design

1.4.1 A convergent mixed methods design

The current study was done within a critical realist paradigm which acknowledges that there are events and discourses that generate the reality of the social world. In terms of this epistemology, we can only change the social world if we identify the structures that gave rise to dominant events and discourses. Once we identify these structures and change them, we can counteract inequality and injustice (Bryman, 2012a:29, 710).

In terms of the critical realist paradigm (which will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 3), both quantitative and qualitative research methods can be used to find answers to the research problem. According to Creswell and Clark (2010:12), the advantage of mixed methods research is that it helps answer research questions that cannot be answered by quantitative and qualitative approaches alone. Both approaches provide more evidence to measure and observe phenomena than quantitative and qualitative research alone. In that sense, it provides a double check for the research findings.

The current study used the convergent (or parallel or concurrent) mixed methods design where both quantitative and qualitative data are collected simultaneously. The researcher analyses both datasets separately, compares the results, and makes an interpretation as to whether the results support or contradict each other. The data are thus merged to shed light on the research problem. The convergent mixed methods design is used when the researcher regards both quantitative and qualitative data as equally important and relevant as sources of evidence in the study (Creswell, 2012:541).

This design was deemed appropriate for the investigation of one of the factors that might influence the success rates of EDP students in mainstream subjects. The design offers cross-checking mechanisms for the controlled study of the one factor that will be tested in the current study, namely the influence of subject-specific terminological support on students' success rates.

A more comprehensive discussion of the quantitative and qualitative research methodologies that were employed in the current study will follow in Chapter 3. The reason why the more detailed description is postponed until that chapter is that the methodological description will make more sense after the literature review in Chapter 2 which is regarded as an integral part of the qualitative analysis.

1.4.2 The pilot study and preparation for the research

Before the study could commence, the research tools, namely the multilingual subject-specific terminology lists, were developed from 2011 to 2012. It was decided to develop these tools for the mainstream subject of Political Science. The reason for this decision was that it seemed from EDP students' consistent low pass rates in Political Science that this mainstream subject posed a particular challenge to them. Before the development of the glossaries, a comprehensive survey was done of existing Political Science dictionaries and glossaries in use at other South African universities. Due to the fact that no suitable material was found, the decision was taken to have the English glossaries of the two prescribed textbooks for Political Science in the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences at Stellenbosch University translated into Afrikaans and isiXhosa (the other two official languages of the Western Cape Province where the university is based). A detailed description of this process, as well as the translation methodology, will be provided in Chapter 3.

After the Afrikaans translation of the first Political Science glossary of the prescribed textbook (Heywood, 2007) was finalised, it was decided in 2011 to do a pilot study in which this glossary was used as additional support in one of the EDP support subjects 'Introduction to the Humanities.' (The isiXhosa glossary was still not completed at the time. However, it was completed in time for the 2013 empirical study.) The specific module in which the pilot study was done provided an introduction to contemporary South African politics. EDP students had access to the whole bilingual (English/Afrikaans) glossary during this module. Furthermore, every week students had to learn a selection of technical terms from their prescribed book for their English Language Component period. The purpose of the pilot study was to draw conclusions about the potential impact of such an intervention for the main study. Students with Afrikaans as mother-tongue responded very positively to the pilot study and indicated that the terminology in their mother-tongue helped them to understand more of the subject content in lectures and readings, and to express themselves during tutorials. Students with English and isiXhosa as mother-tongue also responded positively to the active engagement with the technical terminology. They felt that it made them more aware of the meaning of the terminology when it occurred during lectures and in the prescribed readings.

While these observations were informal and uncontrolled, the decision was taken to proceed with the main study, utilising a convergent mixed methods approach as was mentioned above, and which will be discussed in full in Chapter 3. As will be evident from the research design, a variety of data sources were used to minimise the chance of drawing incorrect causal inferences from the one data source that some scholars and policy makers regard as the only relevant data source, namely students' pass rates.

1.5 Limitations and significance of the study

As was mentioned above, there are multiple factors contributing to and influencing student success in higher education. The current study is done with the awareness that it cannot be comprehensive in this regard. It was therefore a conscious decision to focus specifically on the role of subject-specific terminological support in EDP students' success rates in a mainstream subject. The mainstream subject that was selected on account of the reasons provided above was Political Science. The controlled observations were therefore limited to two Political Science modules that are taken by EDP students in their first academic year of study. While the selection and definitions of political terms may seem contentious for some, the study was limited to those terms and basic definitions that occurred in the technical glossaries at the back of the two prescribed textbooks of these modules. Since pass rates are the standard criteria used in higher education cohort studies to determine student success, it should also be noted (and will be explained in full in Chapter 3) that in the quantitative study the focus was on students' pass rates, even though that construct is a very limited measurement of student success. The qualitative study provided an opportunity, however, to situate

students' pass rates within the broader context of EDP students' experience of success. The study was done in the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences at Stellenbosch University during the period of 2010 until 2013. EDP students' pass rates in the selected Political Science modules during the first three years of this period were compared to those of EDP students in 2013 who were exposed to systematic and integrated engagement with technical terminology. Because the numbers of EDP students who took part in the study are relatively small, one will not be able to make broad generalisations from the current study.

However, the present study can still shed light on the broader problem fields of epistemological access and academic literacy as described above. Although this represents a small-scale intervention and observation, it is hoped that it will provide better insight into the central role of technical terminology in accessing subject-specific content in higher education. While study skills have received more attention than subject content in some academic support initiatives, the focus in the current study on disciplinary concepts reprioritises subject-specific content, or *what* students learn (i.e. curriculum content), as opposed to other studies that focus exclusively on teaching methods and student learning theories, or *how* students learn. The premise in the current study is thus that the 'what' of teaching and learning is just as important in the process of acquiring knowledge, and eventually of producing new knowledge, as the 'how' of teaching and learning. The integration of the 'what' and the 'how' of teaching and learning is therefore an important consideration in the current study.

1.6 Definition of key terms

Thus far in Chapter 1, certain key terms were used in order to explain the purpose and scope of the present study. Before proceeding to the literature review, it is necessary to define these and other key terms that will be used in the rest of the dissertation so that it is clear from what perspective the current study was conducted. The selection of key terms was based on the researcher's exposure to academic literature in the field, as well as to policy documents on higher education internationally and locally. The definition of many of the key terms will differ from study to study, and will depend on the researcher's approach to the topic. The present section therefore also has the purpose of clarifying to the reader of the dissertation the researcher's deliberate choices for certain definitions. Many of these will feature in more detail in the literature review in Chapter 2.

- **Academic acculturation/integration**: Acculturation is the process of cultural and psychological change in an individual through contact with other members of a community. Academic acculturation is the ability and motivation of students to assimilate, understand, embrace, interact and engage with academic discourse in all its diversity. It is a condition for academic integration into the higher education system (Van de Poel & Van Dyk, 2015:164).

- **Academic literacy**: There are different distinctions that are made in defining academic literacy. In the current study, a distinction is drawn between three overlapping and complementary models of academic literacy that were identified by Lea and Street (2006): (i) The premise of the study skills model is that students need to learn a set of skills that should help them to transfer their knowledge of writing and literacy from one context to the other. (ii) The academic socialisation model posits that subject fields and disciplines use different genres and discourses. When students learn the subject-specific discourses of the various disciplines, it should enable them to reproduce those academic discourses. (iii) The third model, the Academic Literacies model, also focuses on relationships of power, meaning-making, identity, agency and authority in the learning process. It encourages lecturers to establish what students already know and to build on that in teaching them academic literacy (Lea & Street, 2006:369–370). As will be explained and motivated in Chapter 2, the present study takes as its point of departure the Academic Literacies model, without claiming that other models have no value.
- **Academic (or Extended Degree Programme) support subjects:** These are subjects that provide academic support, in addition to the mainstream subjects. Some EDP support subjects consist of two or more modules.
- **African language**s (see also **Official languages of South Africa)**: Nine of South Africa's 11 official languages are African languages, namely isiZulu, isiXhosa; Sepedi, Setswana, Sesotho, Xitsonga; siSwati, Tshivenda and isiNdebele. Section 6(2) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996) states: "Recognising the historically diminished use and status of the indigenous languages of our people, the state must take practical and positive measures to elevate the status and advance the use of these languages".
- **Articulation gap:** This refers to the mismatch or discontinuity between the exit level of secondary education and the entry level of higher education (Ndebele, 2013:60).
- **Cohort**: The first-time entry students in a particular year who enrol for a three or four-year higher education programme.
- **Convergent mixed methods design:** In a convergent (or parallel or concurrent) mixed methods design, both quantitative and qualitative data are collected simultaneously. The researcher analyses both datasets separately, compares the results, and makes an interpretation as to whether the results support or contradict each other. The data are thus merged to shed light on the research problem. The convergent mixed methods design is used when the researcher regards both quantitative and qualitative data as equally important and relevant as sources of evidence in the study (Creswell, 2012:541).
- **Critical realist paradigm**: This paradigm acknowledges that there are events and discourses that generate the reality of the social world. In terms of this epistemology, we can only change the social world if we identify the structures that

gave rise to dominant events and discourses. Once we identify these structures and change them, we can counteract inequality and injustice (Bryman, 2012a:29, 710).

- **Dependent/Independent variables**: An experiment examines the effect of an independent variable on a dependent variable. Typically, the independent variable takes the form of an experimental stimulus, which is either present or absent (Babbie, 2007:222). In the present study, the technical terminology intervention formed the independent variable which was present in the focus group, but absent in the control groups. The focus group was the dependent variable.
- **Educationally disadvantaged students**: These include students who are still disadvantaged by "the legacy and persistence of educational inequalities and dysfunction" (Ndebele, 2013:54), but also students who have had educational disadvantages after 1994.
- **Epistemological access**: A distinction is drawn between formal and epistemological access. While the former refers to students' admission to the university, the latter refers to students' access to the academic conventions of the university, and the way that knowledge is produced in the disciplines.
- **Extended Degree Programmes (EDPs) or Extended Programmes (EPs)**: These programmes are funded by the Department of Higher Education and Training to provide extensive academic support to historically and educationally disadvantaged students. In the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences at the Stellenbosch University, EDP students do their first academic year over two years, are given additional academic support and follow particular obligatory modules to prepare them better for their graduate studies.
- **Focus group/Control group**: The **focus group** (also called 'treatment group' or 'experimental group') in a quasi-experimental design consists of those learners/students who are exposed to a specific educational intervention (the independent variable) while the **control group** (also called 'non-treatment group') is not exposed to the same intervention. The use of 'focus group' in this study should not be confused with 'focus group discussions', one of the techniques used in qualitative studies (cf. section 3.4.4), which was not used in this study.

  According to Babbie (2007:359), a nonequivalent control group is "[a] control group that is similar to the experimental group but is not created by the random assignment of subjects."
- **Historically disadvantaged students**: In South Africa Black, Coloured and Indian students' parents or grandparents were subjected to apartheid laws before 1994 and suffered discrimination on the grounds of their race. Today many of their descendants are still socio-economically disadvantaged by the consequences of the discriminatory political dispensation before 1994. These students are often educationally disadvantaged as well, since the school system in South Africa has not managed to level the playing fields in terms of infrastructure, teachers and textbooks.

- **Home language:** This term is used by the Department of Basic Education to refer to the mother-tongue of a learner. The term 'home language' is also used by the Stellenbosch University Student Information System from which the data for the current empirical study were sourced. (This is the reason why the term 'home language' was also used in the questionnaires for the qualitative study.) However, in Second-Language Acquisition and academic literacy literature, scholars also use the terms 'L1 speakers', 'mother-tongue speakers' and 'native speakers'. The term is often not an accurate reflection of the language that students use at home, since many grow up in multilingual homes.
- **Internal/External/Ecological validity**: An experiment shows **internal validity** when there is a strong possibility that the conclusions drawn from experimental results accurately reflect what went on in the experiment itself (Babbie, 2007:230). **External validity**, in contrast, indicates the possibility that conclusions drawn from experimental results may be generalizable to the 'real' world (Babbie, 2007:233). **Ecological validity** of a study means that the methods, materials and setting of the study must approximate the real-world that is being examined (Brewer, 2000). Scholars (see e.g. Shadish, Cook & Campbell, 2002) indicate that the terms 'ecological validity' and 'external validity' are often confused. While they are closely related, they are independent. A study may possess external validity but not ecological validity, and vice versa.
- **Language in Education Policy (LiEP):** The Department of Education's Language in Education Policy was introduced in 1998. It is based on the principle that children have the right to be educated in their mother tongue, and also the right to access a global language such as English. The policy "is intended to make available home-language education for grades One to Six to counter the dominant view amongst teachers and parents that English is the key to a better life and the sooner children are taught in English, the better".
- **Language of learning and teaching (LOLT):** This term is used by the South African Department of Basic Education for 'medium of instruction' at schools, implying that the medium of instruction is more than just a medium of teaching. In this study the term 'medium of instruction' is not limited to teaching as such, but includes learning as well.
- **Mainstream subjects/modules**: The current study distinguishes between mainstream modules and academic support or Extended Degree modules. The former are subjects or modules that form part of the mainstream/disciplinary degree programmes. They are normally presented by the various subject-specific or disciplinary experts.
- **Mother tongue (first language or L1):** "Mother tongue in the narrow sense is defined as the language that a child learns first from the person having the role of a 'mother' or carer. In order to root the definition in the African linguistic reality, we define mother tongue in a broader sense as the language or languages of the immediate environment and daily interaction which 'nurture' the child in the first

four years of life. Thus, the mother tongue is a language or languages with which the child grows up with and of which the child has learned the grammar before school. In multilingual contexts, children may grow up with more than one language. In Africa children often have more than one mother tongue. Often, there are several languages spoken in the family of the child or in its immediate neighbourhood. Thus, educational provision could be made available in one of the first languages with which the child is familiar" (Ouane & Glanz, 2010:Annex 4).

- **Official languages of South Africa**: According to Chapter 1(6)(1) of The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996), "The official languages of the Republic are Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda, Xitsonga, Afrikaans, English, isiNdebele, isiXhosa and isiZulu". Chapter 1(6)(4) further states that "all official languages must enjoy parity of esteem and must be treated equitably". According to the 2011 Census, the number of native speakers are isiZulu (11.58 million); isiXhosa (8.15 million); Afrikaans (6.85 million); English (4.89 million); Sepedi (4.62 million); Setswana (4.07 million); Sesotho (3.85 million); Xitsonga (2.28 million); siSwati (1.30 million); Tshivenda (1.21 million); isiNdebele (1.09 million). Given a total population of 51.8 million in 2011, these numbers mean that isiXhosa is the native language of 15,7% of the population, Afrikaans of 13,2% and English of 9,4%. Compared to the 2001 Census, isiXhosa native speakers have increased by 3,08%, Afrikaans has increased by 13,58% and English has increased by 28.47%. In the Western Cape Province, where the current study was undertaken, Afrikaans is the native language of 49.70% of the population, isiXhosa 24.72% and English 20.25%. According to the Stellenbosch University Statistical Profile of June 2015, Afrikaans is the home language of 42,3%, English/Afrikaans of 44,2%, and isiXhosa of 3,2% of enrolled students.
- **Participation rate:** According to the National Plan for Higher Education of the South African Department of Higher Education and Training, "[t]he participation rate is calculated using the UNESCO standard, as the percentage of 20 to 24-year olds of the general population enrolled in higher education" (Council on Higher Education, 2015).
- **Pass rate**: The pass rate in a subject/module is calculated as the percentage of students who pass the minimum requirement set in the specific subject/module. Pass rate statistics are therefore not concerned with individual student marks, or average percentages. In the present study, the focus was on pass rate changes, and not primarily on individual students' marks.
- **Quasi-experimental design:** The quasi-experimental design is mainly used in educational studies where random assignment is not possible to ensure reliability, because the researcher is forced to use intact groups in their natural environments. There are various mechanisms to improve reliability, especially when the groups show a great extent of similarity (Bryman, 2012b:57).
- **Race group**: The social construct that was imposed on people in South Africa before 1994 that is still a factor affecting student access and academic achievement

in contemporary South Africa. According to the Higher Education Management Information System (HEMIS), the term 'Black students' refers to African, Coloured and Indian students. In other Higher Education publications, a distinction is made between Black, Coloured and Indian students to achieve a more detailed analysis of the various groups' representation and success in higher education. In the current study, the term 'Black students' is used in the latter sense.

- **Student success/academic achievement:** In most higher education publications in South Africa, student success refers to student pass rates, throughput rates or graduation rates. In the current study, student success is also measured by qualitative factors, such as the students' experience of success when they have the possibility to engage actively with conceptually challenging subject-content in their home languages/mother tongues in a learning environment that is predominantly English.
- **Standard English** (also spelled standard English): Standard English is arguably the dominant variety of English in the English-speaking world. Historically, Standard English was selected as the standard variety because it was associated with the social group with the most power, wealth and social prestige. The fact that it has additionally been used as the dominant variety for education (to which not all social classes had access in the past) has reinforced its high status as an academic language (Trudgill, 1999:125-126). In the South African higher education context, Standard English (and more specifically Academic English) is potentially available to all English users as a means for empowerment for disadvantaged students. However, if this specific variety forms the basis of teaching and learning in the various disciplines, it is important to describe it as accurately as possible and to make it accessible as widely as possible; otherwise, it can become an epistemological obstacle to students who might already be struggling to learn the university's 'ways of knowing'.
- **Subjects/modules:** A distinction is made between subjects which refer to specialised disciplines (such as the subject Political Science) and modules which form the components of the subject for teaching purposes (such as a term module on African Politics, or International Relations, or Introduction to Politics).
- **Technical (subject- or discipline specific) terminology**: This refers to subject-specific terminology that is used in a specific discipline. Technical terminology plays a key role in understanding the technical content of a discipline. It should be distinguished from '**academic vocabulary**' which refers to vocabulary which occurs most frequently in academic texts over a broad spectrum of disciplines. '**Generic vocabulary**' is not considered technical or academic but forms an integral part of mother-tongue speakers' active vocabulary. All three types play an important role in developing students' reading and writing competency in a variety of academic registers and in developing students' listening and speaking skills within a university context.

- **Throughput rate**: The number of first-time entry undergraduate students of a specific cohort of a specific year who have graduated either within the minimum time, or up to 2 years beyond the minimum time, to the number of students in the baseline enrolments of that cohort.
- **Underperformance**: Academic underperformance is when a student is working below his/her potential or ability, not achieving the results that he/she should. The academic underperformance of students is commonly taken to be reflected in, amongst others, the following two interrelated areas: (i) their insufficient proficiency in what is regarded as 'academic English,' despite the fact that they may be mother-tongue speakers of English, and (ii) their insufficient grasp of technical terminology of a specific subject field.
- **'Underpreparedness'**: This is a deficit term that normally refers to students who are admitted to higher education institutions without the necessary academic literacy skills. As will be illustrated in the current study, the term cuts two ways, in that not only students seem to be academically underprepared for university study; higher education institutions, academic support staff and lecturers also seem to be underprepared for the distinct educational needs of their diverse students.
- **World Englishes:**[11] The most common classification of Englishes, especially in the language teaching world, distinguishes between English as a native language (ENL), English as a second language (ESL) and English as a foreign language (EFL). According to this classification, ENL is spoken in countries where English is the primary language of the great majority of the population, ESL is spoken in countries where English is an important and usually official language, but not the main language of the country and EFL is used in countries where English is not often used or spoken in the normal course of daily life (Kirkpatrick, 2008:37).

1.7 Structure of the dissertation

While the present chapter sets the scene for the study, the following chapters will be structured as follows:

In Chapter 2, a literature review is done of the important theoretical fields which informed the current study. An overview is given of approaches to academic literacy in terms of the Academic Literacies framework that grew out of the New Literacies movement. A distinction is drawn between formal and epistemological access, and various factors are briefly discussed that could possibly provide epistemological access to students, such as theories of teaching and learning, textbooks, and generic and academic vocabulary. The focus then shifts to the role of technical terminology in epistemological access. In a next section, Academic Development in South Africa is briefly discussed, whereafter various examples are cited where multilingual

[11] Cf. also Kachru's Three-circle Model (discussed in section 2.5).

interventions are used to provide academic support to students who are new to the various disciplines at university.

Chapter 3 provides an elaborate explanation of the research design and the quantitative and qualitative methodologies that were used in the current study. It was decided to describe the research design only after the literature review so that the exploration of the theoretical fields could play a meaningful role in the description of the research design. The development of the technical terminology lists, the pilot study, and the procedures of the main study are described in detail in this chapter.

Chapter 4 documents the results of the quantitative study, analysing two data sets. On the one hand, EDP students' module mean percentages during the period under review (2010-2013) are compared to one another in order to determine whether the technical terminology intervention during 2013 had any significant effect on their mean percentages. On the other hand, EDP students' pass rates are compared to those of their mainstream peers for the period under review in order to situate the EDP students' performance in a wider context.

In Chapter 5 the results of the qualitative study are discussed, focusing on how EDP students used the technical terminology in their essays and other assessments in the selected Political Science modules, and their experiences of engaging with the subject-specific terminology.

The final chapter interprets the results of the quantitative and qualitative studies, and provides a synthesis of the results in order to answer the research questions posed in the current study.

CHAPTER 2

ACADEMIC LITERACY IN CONTEXT: A THEORETICAL OVERVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Universities and other institutions of higher education are increasingly faced with the challenge of providing support to what institutions regard as 'academically underprepared' students from diverse socio-cultural, linguistic and educational backgrounds. In South Africa, as in many other countries, the 'underpreparedness' of such students is ascribed to a wide range of factors, including socio-economic background (e.g. low income, lack of housing and basic services), unequal access to mother-tongue education at school level, inadequate access to libraries and electronic resources at home and school, and the mismatch or discontinuity between the exit level of secondary education and the entry level of higher education (cf. section 1.1). Such factors are said to have a negative impact on the academic performance of students coming from these backgrounds, the more so when they enter higher education institutions where English is the predominant language of learning and teaching and where their L1 is not valued or acknowledged in teaching and learning activities.

In addition to factors like those mentioned above, several other issues can have an impact on the academic performance of students at higher education level. These include, on the one hand, general student-related factors such as insufficient financial resources, accommodation and transport issues, and challenges relating to acculturation and linguistic diversity. From a teaching and learning perspective, on the other hand, academic performance can be significantly influenced by factors such as students' study skills (e.g. study methods, time management, stress management), styles of teaching and learning, curriculum content and design, and assessment methods.

Two of the factors that are claimed to play a role in the academic underperformance of culturally diverse students from previously excluded groups are: (i) their insufficient proficiency in what is regarded as "academic English", despite the fact that they may be mother-tongue speakers of English, and (ii) their insufficient grasp of technical terminology of a specific subject field, the specific topic researched in the current study. There is a wealth of literature on the approaches that could be adopted in order to address the lack of success that students show in these two areas (Jones & Coetzee, 2008; Leibowitz et al., 2009; Gibbon, 2010; Van Dyk & Van de Poel, 2013). Debates about the merits of such approaches can be found in a wide range of disciplines making use of divergent theoretical frameworks, including Applied Linguistics, (Critical) Discourse Analysis, English for Academic Purposes (EAP), English for Specific Purposes (ESP), Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), Systemic

Functional Linguistics (SFL), Second-language Acquisition (SLA) and Academic Literacies (AcLits). A comprehensive discussion of the various approaches and debates falls outside the scope of the present study. However, for the purpose of the current study, the present chapter will provide some background to the development of academic literacy in the United Kingdom and the USA (section 2.2) before focusing on the three approaches identified by Lea and Street (2006) within the broad Academic Literacies framework, namely the Study Skills approach (section 2.3.1), the Academic Socialisation approach (section 2.3.2), and the Academic Literacies approach (section 2.3.3). In addition to these three approaches, brief attention will be given in section 2.4 to the premises of Critical Theory, an important socio-cultural paradigm underlying the broad academic literacy framework. This is followed by a discussion of Critical Literacy (section 2.5), one of the influential socio-cultural perspectives on literacy. Section 2.6 focuses on English for Academic Purposes (EAP). The reason for including a discussion of this approach is that it is well established in many higher education institutions, and employs material that could complement the three approaches discussed in section 2.3.

After the discussion of a selection of approaches to academic literacy, section 2.7 is devoted to a discussion of epistemological access and student success in university study, a prominent topic in current debates on academic literacy. The discussion will focus on three fundamental issues relating to this topic, namely formal versus epistemological access (section 2.7.1), theories of teaching and learning (section 2.7.2), and the role of textbooks in providing epistemological access (2.7.3).

Section 2.8 focuses on the role of vocabulary in student success, and distinguishes between generic and academic vocabulary on the one hand, and technical terminology on the other. Section 2.9 provides an outline of three interrelated approaches to academic literacy in South Africa, and addresses the issue of using multilingualism as a meaning-making resource in acquiring academic literacy in higher education settings in this context.

As was stated in Chapter 1, the primary aim of the current study is to establish whether EDP students' academic performance can be enhanced by systematic exposure to the core technical terminology of a specific discipline. It should be emphasised that the focus on regular exposure to and engagement with technical terminology does not imply that this is the only, or even the most important, factor that could have an impact on students' academic performance. The reason for focusing on this factor is that relatively little research has been done on this topic in an EDP in the South Africa higher education context. Moreover, it would appear from current practice that efforts to address academic underperformance very often emphasise conventional academic skills (e.g. argumentation, essay writing and referencing) at the cost of subject content. In the current study, the role of technical terminology in student success is not examined from a strictly linguistic perspective; rather, this factor is linked to the broader question of

meaning-making from an Academic Literacies perspective. This decision was only taken after a comprehensive overview of international and South African approaches to academic literacy which will be discussed in sections 2.2 and 2.9.

In view of the Academic Literacies model adopted in the current study, it should be borne in mind that the three approaches identified by Lea and Street (2006:368–369) – i.e. the Study Skills, Academic Socialisation and Academic Literacies approaches – are not necessarily mutually exclusive. According to them (2006:369), these approaches overlap in many respects and complement one another in significant ways; they could moreover prove to be useful for researchers who want a deeper understanding of writing and other literacy practices in academic contexts, and for educators who are developing curricula and teaching programmes.

With regard to researching and teaching academic literacy to first- and second language speakers, several theoretical frameworks and approaches have been compared to the Academic Literacies approach. For instance, some theorists juxtapose the Academic Literacies approach with Systemic Functional Linguistics (Coffin & Donohue, 2012). Others look for common ground between Academic Literacies and English for Academic Purposes (Wingate & Tribble, 2012), and between Writing Across the Curriculum and Academic Literacies (Russell et al., 2009). Whereas Writing Across the Curriculum (WAC) originated in the USA in the early 1970s as a response to "admission of previously excluded groups", as it is called in the USA, Academic Literacies originated in the UK in the early 1990s in reaction to "widening participation", as it is called in the UK. Since South Africa has also been facing a move away from a highly exclusive system, it might be useful to trace the development of these traditions to see how they dealt with their new realities and to establish whether their choices have any implications for the choices that we have made thus far to address the lack of student success in South African higher education.

2.2 Academic literacy in the UK and USA

In tracing the origins of Academic Literacies and Writing Across the Curriculum, Russell, Lea, Parker, Street and Donahue (2009:396) note the similarities between the two writing traditions. Ideologically, both traditions are oppositional in nature, with the aim of reforming higher education and making it more accessible; both use writing/literacy to create awareness of deeply entrenched attitudes about academic writing, students and disciplines; and both reject remedial or deficit models of writing which teach decontextualised skills; instead both emphasise the complexity of communication in relation to learning. Street (2016) points out that the Academic Literacies model regards academic writing as social practice within specific institutional and disciplinary contexts, and, additionally, highlights the influence of factors such as power and authority on student writing (perhaps more than the US 'Writing in Discipline' approach that will be described below).

Even though the WAC movement only originated in the USA in the 1970s, there had been an established tradition of compulsory university-level "composition courses" for all first-year university students for almost a century. These courses traditionally combined the teaching of literary texts with skills-based writing instruction, and were often stigmatised. In response to the discourse on the "admission of previously excluded groups" in the late 1970s, writing teachers started professionalising the teaching of university-level writing by developing their own MA and PhD programmes in rhetoric and composition. By locating their research within the various disciplines, such as classical rhetoric in the humanities and education in the social sciences, they managed to move the teaching of academic writing beyond literary analysis and skills and drills (Russell et al., 2009:401).

Russell et al. (2009:401) mention that the early theoretical inspiration for the WAC movement in the USA came from a British educational theorist and reformer, James Britton (1975) and his colleagues (who also coined the term). They viewed writing (and talking) as embedded in the particular intellectual goals and traditions of each discipline or profession and regarded writing as an achievement that developed over time: it was not a single set of autonomous skills that one learned and remembered for ever. Even though these *Language across the Curriculum* or *Language Awareness* movements (as they were called) had almost had no influence in British Higher Education, their ideas were revitalised in the WAC movement.

Street (2016) points out that the dominant model of writing research in the early 1980s was Cognitive Theory. But by the mid-1980s linguistic and ethnographic studies identified genre as one of the social practices in academic writing that had to be taught and understood. According to Street (2016), Genre Theory acknowledges that there are a variety of discourse communities with their own writing norms and conventions. While the genre approach was developed in Australia in the 1980s, different versions have also been developed in the USA.

The 1980s saw the appearance of "WAC textbooks" in first-year composition courses. These books and courses taught the genres of writing in the social and natural sciences - not as formulas that have to be imitated, but as indications of the ways of knowing, the epistemology and social actions, of knowledge domains or disciplines (Russell et al., 2009:401-402). McCarthy's (1987) study confirmed the importance of genre in writing instruction. After observing a student who attended courses in four disciplines, she found that the differences in disciplinary writing practices and communities were much more noticeable to the student than the similarities.

WAC has had wide influence in higher education in the USA over the past 30 years with approximately one third of institutions having some form of WAC programme. Institutions or departments often designate some courses as "writing intensive" or "writing extensive" and require students to complete them for graduation purposes.

Other universities have "linked" courses where students in a particular discipline are obliged to take a parallel writing course. The writing course is then planned using the content of the disciplinary course (Russell et al., 2009:402).

Some departments organise a sequence of writing tasks and student support that extend throughout their curriculum, from their first to final year, to consciously develop students' writing proficiency (and often other communication modes). Some universities have required all departments to develop such a sequence. All these curricular forms are almost always in addition to first-year composition courses, though some universities require freshman seminars instead: a first-year writing course taught by staff in various disciplines with topics drawn from their disciplines (Russell et al., 2009:403).

Almost all WAC programmes include organised efforts to develop awareness of writing among teachers in the disciplines and their competence in supporting students in their writing. Many institutions have interdisciplinary workshops and seminars on writing development for academic teaching staff. The aim is to discuss not only the particular needs and resources for their students' writing, but also how writing works differently in each of their disciplines, how it brings about a deeper involvement with the unique ways of knowing - the epistemology - in each discipline, and how students can be supported "to write to learn as they learn to write" in a field (Russell et al., 2009:403).

WAC programmes are often connected to a writing centre or centres (often attached to a student support unit). Tutors (typically, graduate or undergraduate students) give individual or small group support to students. Sometimes tutors are drawn from different disciplines; sometimes there are discipline-specific writing centres; and sometimes there are tutors assigned to specific courses (usually large lectures) to help students with their writing and learning. These centres generally try to avoid the remedial or deficit model of writing instruction by supporting all students with their writing - and, in some centres, extending support to teaching staff who are writing research articles. These efforts continue to face a range of entrenched institutional prejudices and structures that work against WAC, with traditional remedial concepts that take writing proficiency as a set of general skills to be mastered in generic writing courses. Nevertheless, WAC has become part of the institutional landscape of higher education in the USA over the past 30 years (Russell et al., 2009:403).

Street (2016) notes that even though the USA tradition of College Composition has been present in higher education for much longer than equivalent work in the UK, it has been criticised for its "insular cultural parochialism" which might be the result of the linguistic constraints imposed by monolingualism. Canagarajah (2015:424) also notes that his proposal to move from a monolingual to a translingual orientation was met with skepticism by composition scholars and Second Language Writing scholars who feel

that the translingual orientation might distract students from the basics of Standard English that they need for academic and social success.

According to Russell et al. (2009:397), the notion of 'Academic Literacies' in the UK has its roots in practice-based research and literacy theory that emerged during the 1990s. Until the 1990s, student writing was not a significant issue in higher education in the UK. The general assumption was that students would learn how to do academic writing through their gradual assimilation or acculturation into the disciplinary and subject-based discourses and genres. Lillis and Scott (2007:10) note that until the 1990s most teaching and research were devoted to English for Academic Purposes (EAP), with the focus on "overseas" or "international" students using English as a foreign language.

UK higher education changed fundamentally in the early 1990s with the massive expansion in the sector as a result of the 1992 Education Act, which abolished the distinction between polytechnics and universities. While the number of students increased, there was no concomitant increase in resources (Russell et al., 2009:397). Lillis and Scott (2007:8) note that the increase in the number of students in higher education from linguistically, socially and culturally diverse communities was followed by public discourses on falling standards, as demonstrated in students' poor written language. Ironically, the institutional attention to the role of language in policy and curriculum documents in the new higher education context was negligible. Even though diversity was rhetorically celebrated in mission statements, low language and literacy proficiency was still construed as a problem to be solved through additional or remedial support.

UK universities responded to the high increase in the number of students by establishing study skills and learning support centres where students could receive individual or small group support with their academic writing. It was among practitioners working in such centres that the field of Academic Literacies research had its origin (Russell et al., 2009:397).

Russell et al. (2009:397-398) note that the early work of Bazerman dealing with texts produced by established academic writers showed that the ways in which writers engaged with academic knowledge often clashed with their established "ways of knowing". This prompted research on the question how students could use their own knowledge and experience in the construction of writing in the various disciplines. Russell et al. also note the work done by Hounsell, who studied the problems students encountered when they were confronted with the unfamiliar discourses of the university. Hounsell came to the conclusion that academic discourse had very specific features and that, contrary to traditional assumptions on writing instruction, these had to be explicitly taught to academic novices.

Street's anthropological fieldwork on literacy in Iran during the 1970s brought an anthropological focus to the study of student academic writing. In particular, the distinction between autonomous and ideological models of literacy put forward in Street (1984) made a significant contribution to New Literacy Studies. In this work, Street criticised the autonomous model of literacy which assumes that literacy is a single and universal phenomenon that can be effortlessly transferred between contexts once it is learned. In contrast, the ideological model of literacy acknowledges the socio-culturally embedded and contextual nature of literacy practices, and the associated relationships of power and authority present in any literacy-related activity. Academic practitioners working with students identified as 'under-prepared' became increasingly frustrated with the limitations of superficial skills-based models of student writing and started looking for alternative explanations for the problems encountered by student writers (Russell et al., 2009:398). Street's contrasting notions of literacy provided a useful theoretical framework for a critical exploration of the specific literacy demands and practices associated with academia (Lillis & Scott, 2007:10).

Lea and Street (1998:157) examined student writing in one old and one new university in Southern England. Their findings revealed fundamental gaps between what students and academic staff, respectively, assumed to be the requirements of student writing. Most notable were the staff's and students' divergent understanding of the writing assignments, different writing conventions that applied across disciplines, students' uncertainty and anxiety about plagiarism, and incoherent and incomprehensible tutor feedback on writing assignments. In extreme cases, students only received feedback on their assignments after a module had finished so that they could not use the feedback to improve their writing. Lea and Street (1998:160) concluded that the implicit models about students' writing do not adequately account for the conflicting and contesting nature of academic writing practices. Based on their analysis of the data, they proposed an "academic literacies" approach to student writing that would make provision for the examination of institutional practices, power relations and student and staff identities, as well as an emphasis on differences in the understanding and interpretation of writing assignments. On this approach, three models of academic writing are identified, namely Study Skills, Academic Socialization, and Academic Literacies. These are discussed in the next section.

2.3 The Academic Literacies framework

Lea and Street (2006), working within the broad framework of Academic Literacies, base their work on theories of reading, writing and literacy as social practices. The Academic Literacies framework developed out of New Literacy Studies which has its roots in sociolinguistics and linguistic anthropology. The starting point of this influential approach is that literacy is not a unitary concept, but that reading and writing

literacies are culturally and socially embedded practices, which vary from context to context.[1] Lea and Street (2006:368) argue for a new approach to understanding student writing and literacy in academic contexts which challenges what they call "the dominant deficit model." Rather than engaging in debates about good or bad writing, they conceptualise writing in academic contexts, such as university courses, at the level of epistemology, in other words, what counts as knowledge and who has authority over it.

As noted in section 2.1, Lea and Street (2006) distinguish between three theoretical approaches to academic literacy in higher education, namely the Study Skills, the Academic Socialisation, and the Academic Literacies approach. The assumptions, implementation strategies and effects of these approaches are described in the subsections below.

2.3.1 The Study Skills approach

The Study Skills approach regards writing and literacy as a largely autonomous, cognitive skill that individual students can acquire. This approach focuses on the surface features of language, such as sentence structure, grammar and punctuation, and postulates that students will develop the ability to transfer their knowledge of writing and literacy unproblematically from one context to another. It should be noted, though, that this approach is not concerned with context as such; rather, it has its roots in autonomous and additive learning theories, such as those associated with behaviourism, where the emphasis is on the transmission of knowledge (Lea & Street, 2006:369). Perry (2012:53) notes that most formal literacy instruction conceptualises literacy in strictly technical terms, taking literacy to be a set of neutral, decontextualised skills that can be applied in any situation.

The Academic Literacies approach has criticisms against some aspects of the Study Skills model. According to Lillis (2006:30), two of the premises of the Study Skills model, namely "transparency in relation to language" and "transmission in relation to pedagogy" are problematic. With regard to the first premise, teaching students the most obvious aspects of writing is regarded as a relatively straightforward way of teaching students how to produce written academic texts. There is thus no consideration for language as discourses constituting whole areas of meaning. With reference to the second premise, Taylor, Nightingale and Clanchy (1988:2–3) remark that "a society which reduces language to a set of basic skills deserves the student learning it gets." They state that teaching students to memorise, paraphrase efficiently, and reproduce the words of textbook writers and lecturers could well result in the achievement of formal accuracy and correctness, but that "this kind of linguistic fundamentalism" will result in "intellectual fundamentalism", the very opposite of the purpose of university education.

[1] For an overview and discussion of New Literacy Studies, cf. e.g. Barton and Hamilton (1998); Gee (1996); Street (1984; 1995).

Although acknowledging that academic writing does require a number of specific skills, Taylor et al. (1988:2–3) argue that the primary objective is not a matter of simply applying skills but of enabling students to create meaning and express understanding through applying the newly acquired skills.

The problem facing academic literacy lecturers in higher education in South Africa is how to teach the surface features of language, such as sentence structure, grammar and punctuation that many students never learnt at school, so that students feel that it empowers them to create meaning and express understanding. Furthermore, to memorise, paraphrase efficiently, and reproduce the words of textbook writers and lecturers might well be the first step to levelling the playing field when it comes to educationally disadvantaged students who did not enjoy mother-tongue education, and were taught by teachers with an inadequate proficiency of English.

Lea and Street (2006:369) agree that academic writing demands very specific skills. In fact, one of their criticisms of the prevailing state of affairs at universities is the fact that some skills that are required by the various disciplines are assumed and not made explicit to academic novices. They mention the example of the writing and literacy practices within a law school, where a skills model focusing on the surface features of texts would fit into an Academic Literacies model. These skills would focus on text production and the relationship between writing and epistemology, helping students in the process to understand what counts as law in an introductory law course. In short, then, they acknowledge that the Study Skills model does have a measure of merit in teaching academic literacy, although it has to be supplemented with ways of making students conscious of the academic conventions of a particular discipline.

2.3.2 The Academic Socialisation approach

According to Lea and Street (2006:368), the Academic Socialisation approach posits that subject fields and disciplines use different genres and discourses that remain relatively stable for the construction of knowledge; hence, students who familiarise themselves with the basic building blocks of a particular academic discipline will be able to reproduce its discourse. The approach has its origins in theories associated with constructivism, situated learning, sociolinguistics, critical discourse analysis and genre theory.

Lillis (2006:30) makes a further distinction between Academic Socialisation approaches where the development of writing involves either implicit or explicit induction into disciplinary conventions. In the implicit approach, students are expected to learn from a particular community of practice through observation and imitation (Wenger, 1998; Northedge, 2003). In the explicit approach, the lecturer/tutor plays an active role to induct or initiate students into the academic culture of a new discipline. The assumption is that through this induction process students will eventually assimilate or acculturate into the disciplinary and subject-based discourses and genres.

An example of an essentially linguistic approach to induct students into the academic culture of a new discipline is the one taken by Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL). According to Coffin and Donohue (2012:69), the epistemological orientation of SFL is to account for how language and texts are used in particular disciplinary contexts, where language is modelled as a functional, meaning-making system. In contrast to Academic Literacies, there is less focus on the implicit meanings in the text. The rationale behind this is that "as a linguistic theory, SFL does not have the theoretical basis or power to access meanings that are not inscribed in text, i.e. that are not empirically available in the form of language data" (Coffin & Donohue, 2012:69).

The strategy of SFL is thus to design pedagogies, curricula and resources based on the systematic analysis of texts in context. The use of textual descriptions to develop students' and lecturers' awareness of disciplinary discourses might be described by some as an acritical apprenticeship model or 'academic socialisation model' (the Academic Literacies term), because it is concerned with students' uncritical acculturation into disciplinary and subject-based discourses and genres (Coffin & Donohue, 2012:72). However, Coffin and Donohue point out that although SFL has no overt agenda to transform current ways of making disciplinary meaning, as is the case with Academic Literacies, critique of existing practice may be the outcome of some SFL research studies. By raising awareness of prominent discourses in particular disciplines, the goal of some SFL pedagogies is, on the one hand, to develop students' meaning-making resources and to equip them with the linguistic potential (if they choose) to raise issues from within the disciplines and, ultimately, renegotiate their position in society. On the other hand, sensitising disciplinary experts to the role of language in learning and assessment, and its role in disciplinary knowledge building, constitutes another way of raising critique from within the system.

The criticism raised against the above approaches, as well as against studies on student attitudes to learning,[2] is that they assume that the academic context represents a relatively homogeneous culture whose norms and practices can be learned in order to gain access to the whole institution. These approaches do not acknowledge the wide variety of communities of practice within the academic context (Lea, 2004:741). However, precisely because there is a wide variety of communities of practice, students with educational disadvantages can benefit academically if the academic writing conventions of a specific discipline are explicitly taught.

Despite this criticism, the Academic Socialisation approach, together with the Study Skills model outlined in 2.2.1, have been highly influential in curriculum development, teaching practices and research in higher education over a number of years (Lea & Street, 2006:369).

[2] Cf. e.g. Marton & Booth (1997); Marton, Hounsell and Entwistle (1984).

2.3.3 The Academic Literacies approach

The Academic Literacies approach (or model) focuses on meaning-making, social identity, power, and authority in higher education. It also takes a critical view of the role played by non-academic institutions (e.g. university bureaucracy, government and business) in decisions about desirable literacy practices. As such, it does not take the institutional nature of knowledge in any particular academic context for granted (Lea & Street, 2006:370).

According to Lea and Street (2006:371), writing and reading, from the students' point of view, are not homogeneous skills which can be transferred from subject-field to subject-field. For students, academic literacy means that they must be able to use a more formal literacy when they arrive at the university, and they must be able to switch between the writing practices of the different disciplines. The problem is that these writing practices are rarely made explicit to students.

Instead of highlighting students' perceived shortcomings, the Academic Literacies model acknowledges that the processes involved in acquiring academic literacy are not simple, fixed, clear-cut and isolated from a particular context. Rather, it is argued that explicit attention must be given to the distinct ways in which meaning is constructed in the various academic contexts when students are introduced to the academic conventions of a specific discipline. Lecturers are accordingly encouraged to establish what students already know, and to take students' knowledge and prior experiences as the starting point when addressing aspects of academic literacy. Boughey (2000:284) points out, however, that "we encourage our students to use knowledge they already have in the construction of new knowledge. What we omit to tell them, however, is that the rules for the construction of that new, 'academic' knowledge differ to (*sic*) the rules they used to construct their 'common' knowledge." While it is thus desirable to use students' prior experiences and existing knowledge to their advantage in acquiring knowledge in a new discipline, that must go hand-in-hand with explicit attention to the distinct ways in which knowledge is constructed in a particular discipline (Van de Poel & Van Dyk, 2015).

Russell et al. (2009:395) note that there is a common perception that students must meet specific academic literacy requirements before they can enter higher education. The Academic Literacies approach challenges this traditional view of literacy with its notion of literacies as social practices. This approach makes provision for multiple and plural literacies, an idea that is also associated with New Literacy Studies (Carstens, 2013). The implication of this view of literacy is that there is not one, standard academic literacy norm to which students entering different academic disciplines must conform.

The notion of literacies as social practices is found in the social theory of literacy proposed by Barton, Hamilton and Ivanic (2005:7–8). They define literacy as a set of social practices, which implies that the manner in which literacy is used is determined

by cultural factors. In other words, rather than a set of properties that individuals acquire, literacy is regarded as a resource that communities use when they interact with one another. The challenge in teaching first-year students is to help them transform their existing literacies into a communicative resource in their new academic contexts.

In all the models proposed within the Academic Literacies framework, the situated nature of literacy lies in the fact that it always exists in a social context. Literacy events are characterised as activities where literacy plays a role in the empirically observable world, using a mixture of spoken and written language. This means that the written language form is only one communicative resource in a range of semiotic systems that communities use as part of their literacy practices (Street, 2003). Although this is a valid and more inclusive perspective on literacy, the reality is, however, that in a university context written language still dominates in assessments. The relevance of this issue for academic literacy in South African higher education will also be discussed in section 2.9.

The term 'literacy' moreover does not refer to the same thing in all contexts. Literacy practices in different cultures and communities constitute different literacies. Even within a given culture, there are different literacies associated with specific domains of life, and with specific aspects of cultural life, such as home literacy, community literacy, academic literacy and workplace literacy (Barton, Hamilton & Ivanic, 2005:8). The problem is that subject specialists at higher education institutions are not necessarily informed about the latest research on literacy, and therefore still work with a fixed idea of what constitutes literacy in higher education contexts. One may furthermore ask whether it is mainly the task of individual lecturers to stay informed about and to integrate new views on literacy into their pedagogical practices, or whether institutions should rather take responsibility for integrating these views into their curriculum and programme planning processes through the 'professional development' of their mainstream lecturers and academic support lecturers.

Socially powerful institutions, such as educational institutions, tend to support dominant discourse practices, each with their own type of literacy; in contrast, vernacular literacies, found in people's everyday lives, are less 'visible' and generally regarded as 'inappropriate' in educational institutions. What is important for meaning-making, however, is that people should be able to use their range of literacies in different contexts to enable communication, solve practical problems or act as a memory aid, and in some cases, do all at the same time (Barton et al., 2005:8). In the multicultural South African context, this more inclusive view of literacy has the potential to widen epistemological access to higher education.

Cazden et al. (1996:60), collectively known as the New London Group,[3] note that literacy education originally meant that literacy was restricted to paper-based, formalised, standard and official forms of national language. They propose a new approach to literacy education, one that they refer to as 'multiliteracies.' Cazden et al. (1996) maintain that the multitude of communication channels and media and the increasing cultural and linguistic diversity in the modern world demand a much broader view of literacy than traditional approaches offer.[4] They state that literacy education should make provision for a wide variety of meaning-making forms, situated in different cultural contexts, as well as for the layers of individual identity within such contexts. This has the potential to restore cultural dynamism, as well as human agency (Cazden et al., 1996:88). In response to the New London Group, and its interest in new media, Russell et al. (2009:397) note that some North American Writing Across the Curriculum (WAC) programmes have been renamed to multi-modal 'Communication Across the Curriculum' (CAC) programmes.

According to Perry (2012:58), scholars who work within theories of literacy as social practice tend to focus on practices that relate to print literacy, while those who work within theories of multiliteracies highlight multimodality. Kress (2000:181) criticises those who focus primarily on print literacy forms of meaning-making at the expense of other modes of representation.

Lillis and Scott (2007:11) also criticise the identification of problems in student writing as overwhelmingly textual in nature. The focus on texts leads to normative academic socialisation approaches, which aim to identify the existing academic conventions and to induct students into using these conventions (Lillis & Scott, 2007). According to Kress (2007), normative approaches are based on the normative myth that assumes that student populations are homogeneous, that the disciplines constitute fixed, specialist knowledge entities and that knowledge can simply be transmitted from the lecturer to the student. Because it is true that the majority of higher education institutions still work with normative approaches, the challenge is so much bigger for academic literacy and mainstream lecturers who are prepared to consider alternative approaches that make provision for students' diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds. The Academic Literacies model might offer alternatives towards more transformative approaches at higher education institutions.

According to Lillis and Scott (2007:12–13), the Academic Literacies model employs an epistemology of literacy which uses a set of social practices with an explicitly

[3] The members of the New London Group include Courtney Cazden, Bill Cope, Norman Fairclough, James Paul Gee, Mary Kalantzis, Gunther Kress, Allan Luke, Carmen Luke, Sarah Michaels & Martin Nakata.

[4] Carstens (2012) applies these insights to the South African higher education situation. While the focus in the present section is on the international developments in the field, section 2.9 below will focus on the South African context.

transformative, ideological approach to the object of study, rather than a normative approach.[5] According to Lillis and Scott (2007), the scope of the transformative approach is broader than student texts and disciplinary genres, situating academic conventions in the wider context of traditions of knowledge construction. As a critical field of enquiry, it is not only concerned with identifying academic conventions, but is prepared to interrogate and challenge those academic norms and conventions that gave rise to contested traditions of knowledge-making. It further examines how these conventions can inhibit students from meaning-making and considers the possible impact of academic conventions on students' capacity to express their voice. Subsequently, the transformative approach explores alternative ways of meaning-making in academic contexts by acknowledging and valuing the resources that student writers bring to such contexts as legitimate tools for making meaning (Lillis & Scott, 2007:13). This approach cannot be implemented through isolated teaching and learning strategies. Instead it will require broader curriculum and programme planning on an institutional level to provide a favourable educational context within which this approach can succeed.

In an earlier publication, Lillis (1997:182) noted that greater access to higher education in Britain for groups that were previously excluded offered an opportunity for new voices to be heard in the academic context. However, the dominant academic linguistic conventions and practices repress alternative voices and inhibit their potential for meaning-making. The established view is that educators do not teach academic conventions explicitly, but take them as 'common sense.' Because students from previously excluded groups have not been socialised into the discourse practices of higher education institutions, they cannot know these conventions. This is a valid point made by Lillis, but the same applies to all novices in higher education environments. Academic language remains a challenge to non-traditional as well as traditional students. The valuable point that Lillis is making, however, is that provision should be made in higher educational contexts for a multiplicity of voices, and that this multiplicity should inform curriculum content and teaching practices.

Lillis (1997:186) concludes that it is vital that educators make conventions explicit so that students who are outsiders to the academic context can "learn the rules of the game" and participate on a more equal footing in higher education. However, she (1997:187) cautions that "making explicit" does not mean giving hand-outs at the beginning of courses. Lecturers/tutors and their students must establish a framework for dialogue to familiarise students with the various discourse practices and to raise language awareness. This would entail that lecturers/tutors should describe the dominant practices in detail, exploring and problematising them so that students can

[5] As will be shown in section 2.6, Wingate and Tribble (2012:490) question this dichotomy between the normative and the transformative approaches, arguing instead for an integration of the Academic Literacies and English for Academic Purposes approaches.

take control of their own meaning-making. Practically, it is doubtful whether lecturers with heavy teaching and research loads will find the time to implement these teaching strategies. This practical reality emphasises the need for collaborative approaches as suggested by some South African scholars (Jacobs, 2010; Carstens, 2013).

The strength of the Academic Literacies approach is that it does not assume that students assimilate into the academic culture by merely engaging with the established discourses and practices. It recognises that literacy practices vary across cultural contexts, just like the various disciplines or subject-fields within the university context. The relationship of students to the dominant literacy practices and discourses of the academy is thus more complex than existing studies on understanding student learning might suggest (Lea, 2004:741), which points in the direction of collaborative approaches again.

Another positive outcome of Academic Literacies research is that it highlights the importance of integrating academic literacy within mainstream programmes, by helping lecturers to analyse the literacy practices of their subject fields and to make such practices accessible to their students. Lea notes:

> It is common in higher education for the teaching of, or support for, student writing to be separated from mainstream study in learning support programmes or specialist foundation courses for undergraduates. There have also been successful Academic literacies attempts to develop student writing in mainstream contexts through 'Writing in the Discipline' programmes. Such programmes—developed in the USA—approach the development of disciplinary knowledge through writing. This approach shares something in common with the work on academic literacies, since both conceptualize learning and writing in higher education as inseparable (Lea, 2004:742–743).

In Lea's further discussion of this communality of the Academic Literacies approach with 'Writing in the Discipline' programmes, she indicates that writing skills should be embedded in a wider disciplinary context. She argues:

> Research in the field of academic literacies has predominantly concentrated upon ... the essay or similar assignment, and on students' and tutors' interpretation of its production. To date, less attention has been paid to the other texts which are involved in course design: course materials, guidance notes for students, web-based resources, feedback sheets, or even policy documents concerned with quality assessment procedures. The approach illustrated here requires course designers to consider a broad range of written texts implicated in a course, not just its assessed texts (Lea, 2004:743).

As mentioned in Chapter 1, and as will be explained in the description of the research design in Chapter 3, the present study will give expression to this point by doing the empirical research in a specific disciplinary context, namely that of Political Science. The current study is thus an attempt to integrate academic literacy into a mainstream discipline.

According to Lillis and Scott (2007:22), an earlier criticism of the Academic Literacies approach was that larger scale research would be required to provide systematic and representative accounts of student experiences within this approach. Moreover, the Academic Literacies approach tends to focus mainly on "non-traditional" students and assignment writing. While the focus on such students and on the assessed product is valuable as a starting point, work still needs to be done in the field of course design (Lea, 2004:741-742). The question is whether traditional practices and established approaches in higher education would have been questioned in the first place had it not been for the initial research focus on "non-traditional" students. The fact that research showed that it is not only such students who struggle with the academic conventions of higher education makes it all the more urgent that these conventions are transparent, and, where necessary, to question them.

With regard to the second point of critique, Lillis and three scholars from diverse language and literacy fields collaborated to explore the potential of Academic Literacies in designing pedagogy and policy to help their fellow "researchers (those with a specific role in carrying out research about academic writing and reading) and practitioners (those with a specific role in working with students in their academic writing, such as teachers, curriculum designers, policy makers and academic administrators)" (Lillis, Harrington, Lea & Mitchell, 2015:3). In their 2015 publication, these scholars set out to identify the best ways of reacting to Academic Literacies' critiques of contemporary approaches to language and literacy in higher education, with a specific focus on policy design, curriculum, assessment and pedagogy. Their point of departure is a commitment to transformation instead of simple induction or reproduction and to problematise what is meant by "transformation" in contemporary higher education (Lillis et al., 2015:5). Harrington, one of the four scholars, views transformation "as located within self-understandings, in the perceptions we have of ourselves as students and as teachers" which leads her to ask the question: "What transformation might become possible in my own thinking and practice, particularly in my role as a teacher on academic and professional development programmes for other teachers in the academy?" (Lillis et al., 2015:3,5). Lea, in turn, stresses the urgent need to think about transformation institutionally in order to address the dominance of normative approaches to learning and literacies in higher education, which she views as a contested space of knowledge making. Thus, instead of focusing on marginalised students and their "deficit writing practices" in this contested space, it is important to examine the broader institutional practices that are involved in writing, assessment and feedback between students and their lecturers, that ultimately have an impact on students' writing (Lillis et al., 2015:13–15). The 2015 publication contains a wide variety of contemporary case studies from various disciplinary fields and makes a considerable contribution to transformative pedagogical approaches in higher education.

Kern (2000:34) proposes a theoretical framework for academic literacy that has much in common with the Academic Literacies approach. This framework for academic literacy

has linguistic, cognitive and sociocultural/psychological dimensions that assume that language practices are always rooted in social and cultural practices. In terms of this framework, reading and writing are communicative acts in which readers and writers position and express themselves in specific ways, using the cultural conventions and resources at their disposal.

According to Kern (2012:187), the autonomous model of literacy was originally associated with 'Great Divide' theorists who proposed a cognitive divide between oral and literate cultures. On to this view, literacy teaches certain forms of logic and abstract thinking, which offer benefits of economic progress, civilisation and social mobility. In contrast, the ideological model posits that the uses and advantages of literacy are determined by the customs and convictions of a given society or culture (in the broadest sense, including both oral and literate cultures). The implication is that, instead of literacy bringing about societal change, society's use of literacy constantly changes literacy. According to Kern:

> Literacy is not, then, a one-size-fits-all-matter. What this means for education is that we need to think of reading and writing less in terms of some monolithic standard and more in terms of dynamic, culturally and contextually embedded ways of thinking, reading and writing (Kern, 2012:187).

In this context, thinking, writing and talking are complementary and mutually dependent modes of language use, thought and action. Written and oral forms of communication will therefore overlap and interact. Accordingly, academic literacy cannot be limited to academic essay writing.

The implication for teaching language and literacy in a higher education context is that language is not only a means of communication or a tool for acquiring a set of skills. According to Kern (2012:192), it is primarily a tool for intellectual reflection and thinking, a paradigm for understanding the world, a doorway to new knowledge and a source for inspiration and imagination.

As will become clear from the research design described in Chapter 3, the present study will be situated within the Academic Literacies approach discussed above. The sensitivity to the social contexts of teaching and learning, as well as the broader perspective on the disciplinary environments within which teaching and learning takes place, seem to provide useful perspectives on the specific problems encountered in South African higher education contexts, as described in section 1.1.

2.4 Critical Theory in education

Even though Academic Literacies is a more recent approach, the origins and influence of Critical Theory in education – which underlies Academic Literacies – can be traced to the 19th century. This background information is particularly relevant in the context of Stellenbosch University where the current research project was conducted. Critical

pedagogy and the notion of a 'pedagogy of hope' (Shor & Freire, 1987) was explicitly adopted as a guiding principle for teaching, research and learning at this university (cf. Botman, 2011).

In tracing the history of Critical Theory in education, McKernan (2013:417) examines the pioneering work of the Fabian Socialists in 19th century England, the critical theorists of the Frankfurt School in Germany, and the 'social reconstructionist' thinkers in the USA. McKernan (2013) describes the impact of scientific Fabian Socialist thinking as the major force in the development of Critical Theory in higher education in Britain. He (2013:418) claims that the Fabians' most remarkable achievement was the establishment of the London School of Economics and Political Science (LSE) in 1895. This was part of a reform strategy to study and eradicate social injustices and societal ills in Britain. The LSE began radical programmes of wide-reaching social reform and community action through research and higher education. To advance this cause, the LSE opened the first schools of Social Work and Sociology in Britain. Fabian Socialism in Britain also indirectly led to the establishment of the Labour Party as a political entity.

The new critical and social-minded reformers had a significant impact on higher education in the sense that they questioned the classical knowledge-centred world of traditional universities. These reformers established new forms of interdisciplinary inquiry with research reaching beyond the academic world to the public. The premise of a critical engagement with society was accompanied by a rigorous effort to offer new strategies for emancipating students through critical pedagogy in education, advocated by scholars such as Paulo Freire, Ivan Illich, and Henry Giroux (McKernan, 2013:430).

According to McKernan (2013:424–425), the establishment of the Institute for Social Research at the University of Frankfurt-am-Main in 1923 is generally considered as the founding date of Critical Theory. Horkheimer of the Frankfurt School made the important distinction between 'traditional theory' and 'Critical Theory.' A Critical Theory is 'critical' in the sense that it not only seeks to explain, understand and interpret society, but also seeks to change and "to liberate human beings from the circumstances that enslave them" (Horkheimer, 1972:242).

On the social reconstructionist theory, which was developed in the USA during the 1930s, schools and teachers are regarded as agents of social and cultural reform who have a role in addressing and solving practical social problems. In Giroux's (1988) view, the important contribution of the social reconstructionists, like Counts, Dewey and Brameld, is that they viewed education as part of an ongoing struggle to develop forms of knowledge and social practices that not only instil a critical disposition in students, but also empower them to address social problems in order to transform existing political and economic inequalities. Brameld's book (1946), *Minority Problems in the Public Schools*, was the beginning of a long commitment to

intercultural/multicultural education in the USA. He adopted an anthropological approach to the philosophy of education. In terms of this approach, he developed a method for studying 'cultural wholes,' called 'anthropotherapy,' where he examined educational issues in cultures. He advocated "a multicultural curriculum and the discussion of contentious cultural issues and concerns" (McKernan, 2013:428).

McKernan (2013:425–426) notes that developments in Critical Theory gave rise to a concern for teaching as a means of human emancipation. Critical pedagogy developed internationally as a response to teaching and learning within a Critical Theory of education. Giroux (2010:B15) describes the critical pedagogy movement as "an educational movement, guided by passion and principle to help students develop consciousness of freedom, recognize authoritarian tendencies and connect knowledge to power and the ability to take constructive action." The most widely recognised proponent of critical pedagogy was Paulo Freire.[6] Freire's notion of 'conscientisation,' that is, the coming to personal critical consciousness, is a key component of his conceptualisation of critical pedagogy. Freire (1970:19) uses the term to refer to "learning to perceive social, political and economic contradictions, and to take action against the oppressive elements of reality." According to Marcuse (1972), an important figure in the Frankfurt School, there can be no qualitative social transformation without a radical reorientation of the individual agents of change. In short, both critical theorists and critical educators regard the development of a critical perspective as the goal of education; what is more, however, is that this critical perspective also applies to educational systems and institutions that might inadvertently be perpetuating unequal divisions of power and social injustices.

McKernan (2013:430) notes that "critical theory as social reconstruction is both a theory for education and a theory directed at social and cultural change". It gave rise to new interpretations of institutions, ideologies, society and culture, and contributed to critical theories concerned with gender, race and ecological concerns. He points out, however, that the notion of 'critical theory and pedagogy' did not pretend to represent a grand, unified theory. Rather, it was a movement toward increased emancipation and democratisation of individuals and educational institutions through loosely connected thinkers and writers. They embraced notions of equality, the eradication of social injustices, multiculturalism, increasing levels of social consciousness and the discussion of controversial issues through employment of critical forms of pedagogy (McKernan, 2013:417).

Ever since the pioneering work of these critical theorists and educationalists, there have been calls on educational institutions to act as agencies of social change, as well as

[6] Paulo Freire's book *Pedagogy of the Oppressed* was first published in Portuguese in 1968, followed by the English translation in 1970. Freire's work forms the basis of the vision of a 'Pedagogy of Hope' of Stellenbosch University.

cultural restoration and reform through research, teaching and community service. After his examination of the origins of Critical Theory in education, McKernan (2013:430) concludes that Critical Theory as social reconstruction is still an appropriate theory for education and a theory that has the potential to achieve social and cultural change.

McLean (2006:1) is another scholar who supports Critical Theory in education. She argues that education can either be seen as a force for social change or as a vehicle for reproducing existing social hierarchies. In choosing for the former, she reflects on a question that she addresses in her book: "How can university teachers practise pedagogy which is attentive to how their students might as citizens of the future influence politics, culture and society in the direction of justice and reason?"

While McLean (2006:3) is aware that "critical theory and pedagogy do not appeal to mainstream interests", she proceeds to show the practical relevance of social theory and emphasises that it does not necessarily have to be remote and abstract. She expresses the hope that academics, university managers and government agencies responsible for university teaching will see the value and relevance of the social, political and ethical aspects of university education. Challenging other contending ideas of what constitutes good university teaching and learning, she argues that "there is a dynamic relation between the university education of a country and its democratic ambitions".

McLean (2006:9) acknowledges that Critical Theory is normative (in the ethical sense of the word, and not in the prescriptive sense) in that its purpose is to pursue a more just and free future. It is important to bear in mind, however, that the critical aspect does not only refer to a critique of social conditions, but also to self-examination of the limits and validity of our knowledge and understandings. This critique demands reflection on our common assumptions in university education, identifying the restrictions of injustice, and liberating ourselves to contemplate alternatives that are more just and fair.

Since cognitive/psycholinguistic theories do not account for the ways in which power relations shape literacy practices, this focus on power is an important contribution of sociocultural theories to the understanding of literacy and its use in the world (Perry, 2012:64). However, it is also important to make the historic link between prevailing literacy practices and the broader development of academic discourse over time.

In his discussion of contextual approaches to the study of academic discourse, Hyland (2015:125-126) makes the following observation about socio-historical studies:

> [s]ocio-historical studies trace the evolution of research writing to the advent of modern empirical science in the 17th century and…demonstrate the importance of situating cultural practices in their wider social contexts and represent a significant contribution to how we understand academic discourse. In particular, they show that the writing conventions familiar to us today are not timeless and self-evident means of establishing knowledge, but have been consciously developed over time in response to particular social settings.

With reference to the sociology of science, Hyland (2015) points out that studies of academic discourse have shown that academic papers are "socially situated in institutional and social contexts" and are written in such a way that the research activity is reformulated to conform to an appropriate, but often contested, disciplinary ideology. To understand knowledge, we must therefore understand what role it fulfils in the social justification of belief. A collective agreement of scientists establishes whether a claim has been adequately tested and a specially trained audience is authorised to establish that claim as knowledge. "Research is therefore less a search for truth than a quest for agreement, as claims must be critically assessed by other scientists before they can be regarded as 'well-established'" (Hyland, 2015:125).

With the help of Critical Theory, critical researchers can question the validity of their knowledge and the limitations of their understandings as these have been canonised into the disciplines over time. Critical Literacy, in turn, can shed light on our understanding of literacy and how it has been used to establish the distinctive ways of knowing in the various disciplines over time.

2.5 Critical Literacy

Perry (2012:60) gives an overview of influential sociocultural perspectives in the field of literacy, and distinguishes between three major directions: (i) Literacy as social practice, (ii) Multiliteracies, and (iii) Critical Literacy. The first two perspectives were mentioned in section 2.3.3 in the discussion of the Academic Literacies. Perry points out that while the first two sociocultural theories of literacy both refer to power relationships, Critical Literacy emphasises both power and empowerment, as well as agency and identity. Since cognitive/psycholinguistic theories do not account for the ways in which power relations shape literacy practices, this focus on power is therefore an important contribution of sociocultural theories to the understanding of literacy and its use in the world (Perry, 2012:64).

Critical Literacy seems to be a natural consequence of Critical Theory and a central tenet of critical pedagogy. It lies at the heart of the Academic Literacies approach. Critical Literacy challenges the existing state of affairs in an effort to explore alternative routes to individual and social development, trying to find the link between the political and the personal, the public and the private, the global and the local, the economic and the educational. Shor, another proponent of Critical Literacy, regards Critical Literacy as a means to reconceptualise our lives and to promote justice, describing it as follows:

> We are what we say and do. The way we speak and are spoken to help shape us into the people we become. Through words and other actions, we build ourselves in a world that is building us. [...] Yet, though language is fateful in teaching us what kind of people to become and what kind of society to make, discourse is not destiny. We can redefine ourselves and remake society, if we choose, through alternative rhetoric and dissident projects. This is where critical literacy begins, for

> questioning power relations, discourses, and identities in a world not yet finished, just, or humane (Shor, 1999:1).

Critical Literacy thus has implications for how we view the established disciplinary boundaries that we know, as well as the major theories and thinkers that every discipline regards as an integral part of its raison d'être today. It would thus be a mistake to confine Freire's work to the discipline of education, since his work on Critical Literacy and the notion of coming to personal critical consciousness have practical implications for a wide range of disciplines. The practical implications of the concept of 'Critical Literacy' will be illustrated in the discussion of contested terms in section 2.7.3 (The role of textbooks in providing epistemological access) and in section 2.8.2 (Technical terminology).

One of the implications of Critical Literacy in the contemporary university context is that the academic community cannot afford to confine itself only to those thinkers and theories that have traditionally been associated with specific disciplines. Wilson (1998: 14-15) recalls the Enlightenment dream of intellectual unity and the vision of secular knowledge for the promotion of human rights and progress, and how that dream was eventually shattered. He laments the fragmentation of knowledge that has characterised the 20th century and calls for consilience, the unity of knowledge across disciplines to create a common groundwork of explanation. He maintains that a balanced academic perspective cannot be acquired by studying disciplines in compartments and that consilience offers the prospect of understanding the human condition with a higher degree of certainty (Wilson, 1998:9).

Steyn (2010:52, 53) advocates a very specific literacy, Critical Diversity Literacy (CDL), that can be used as a conceptual tool for teaching and implementing transformation towards more socially just approaches in higher education contexts where deep social divisions and inequalities still persist. In essence, the notion of CDL requires that societies become "literate" in issues of diversity by developing a sensitivity for all forms of oppression and discrimination, working actively for the removal of injustices.

The CDL research position towards diversity, as outlined by Steyn (2010:54):

> (i) departs from a profound commitment to the values of democracy, social justice, equity and empowerment;
> (ii) recognises that the incorporation of people that have been marginalised should not involve a process of assimilation, but a transformation of the cultural milieu in order to bring about new social meanings and representations;
> (iii) rejects essentialised notions of identity, naturalised notions of race, gender etc, and discourses which reify homogeneity;
> (iv) stresses that identity and difference are constructed within specific historical, cultural and power relations".
> (v) works towards profound transformation, at the level of deep structure and values instead of managing difference as a form of window-dressing.

This notion of Critical Literacy can be a powerful tool in guiding discussion of contentious issues within the various disciplines. However, S. B. Makoni (2012) spells out the limitations of human rights discourses in Africa, including the notion of language rights discourses; such discourses claim to promote the rights of minorities, but do not always seem to benefit disempowered and lay people. Makoni (2012:8) describes how human rights discourses have been used by powerful colonial governments and African liberation movements to the detriment of the less powerful and vulnerable in society.

In justifying the importance of post-colonial indigenous research paradigms in higher education, and specifically post-colonial indigenous feminist research, Chilisa (2011) challenges researchers to use transformative methodologies that will benefit the less powerful and vulnerable in African society. She maintains that Western methodologies and research use Western women as the norm and often judge African women against this norm. In her discussion of post-colonial indigenous feminisms, Chilisa (2011:268) emphasises, however, that these indigenous feminist theories do not necessarily reject Western feminist theories. They use the latter to critique all forms of patriarchal oppression, but, additionally, they critique Western feminisms for marginalising non-Western women's voices and portraying them as lacking agency. It is illustrated in Chilisa (2011) how post-colonial theory can be used to challenge mainstream feminist perspectives.[7]

Another scholar, B. Makoni (2014), explores the link between language, linguistic human rights (LHR) and law, by analysing the Ndebele use of "isihlonipho sabafazi" (women's language of respect) in a courtroom setting. She argues that language is not only a tool for communication, but a central component of culture. By using a cultural approach to discourse as an interpretive framework, she shows that the LHR framework is not adequately sensitive to gendered forms of language discrimination. Since the premise of LHR is the protection of languages of minority ethnic groups, it does not take into consideration linguistic exclusion and social marginalisation that can occur within a minority ethnic group.

Makoni (2014) refers to the Asmara Declaration on African languages (2000) that was adopted in Eritrea in 2000, which declares that "African languages like all languages contain gender bias. The role of African languages in development must overcome this gender bias and achieve gender equality." Makoni (2014:40) points out, however, that

[7] To illustrate Chilisa's point, it is noteworthy that the one Political Science textbook (Heywood, 2007) used in the current study, defines 'feminism' in the textbook glossary as "An ideology committed to promoting the social role of women and, in most cases, dedicated to the goal of gender equality". Heywood (2007:64) makes a further distinction between two distinctive periods in (Western) feminism: 'first-wave feminism' (1840s and 1850s) and 'second-wave feminism' (from the 1960s). Another distinction is drawn between three contrasting feminist traditions: 'liberal feminism', 'socialist feminism', and 'radical' or 'revolutionary feminism'. However, 'post-colonial indigenous feminist theory' is not mentioned anywhere.

the gender bias in the Asmara Declaration refers to male generic terminology in languages (such as chairman, postman, fireman and mankind), and is unrelated to the intra-language variation that she addresses in her article.

In short, when using Critical Literacy as a means to promote the values of democracy, social justice, equity and empowerment, one should be prepared to problematise and critique also those values that are regarded as superior to those of other societies. The very values that we might want to promote in education and broader society can inadvertently end up serving the material interests of the state and the powerful to the detriment of marginalised individuals in society.

Since Critical Literacy constitutes an effort to explore alternative routes to individual and social development, it is a useful approach to explore alternative discourses, which students can use to redefine themselves. It can thus complement teaching and learning within the Academic Literacies approach.

The conceptualisation of literacy outlined above is much broader than the conventional, well-established view of literacy. If literacy is not a 'one-size-fits-all-matter,' the implication for academic literacy at university is that we must "think of reading and writing less in terms of some monolithic standard and more in terms of dynamic, culturally and contextually embedded ways of thinking, reading and writing" (Kern, 2012:187). This proposed paradigm shift has resulted in some tension between models assuming the conventional notion of academic literacy and those advocating a more comprehensive view of literacy.

Most of the conventional English language courses offered in international higher education contexts aim to improve students' writing and oral competency so that their English eventually conforms to the official requirements of a specific institution. The assumption is thus that there is something like "Standard English" and that there are objective norms and standards to measure this English. However, Trudgill (1999:118) points out that "there seems to be considerable confusion in the English-speaking world, even amongst linguists, about what Standard English is." He (1999:125) emphasises that this is simply one variety or dialect of English, although it is "unusual" in that it has become the most important variety in the English-speaking world "from a social, intellectual and cultural point of view". Furthermore, unlike other varieties, Standard English is no longer a geographical dialect, but has become a purely social dialect. In the course of time, Standard English came to be regarded as the standard variety because it was associated with the social group with the most power, wealth and prestige. The fact that it has additionally become the dialect of education (to which not all social classes had access in the past) has reinforced its social character (Trudgill, 1999:126).

With regard to the use of formal and informal styles in Standard English, Trudgill (1999:120-122) notes that there is no reason why speakers of nonstandard varieties of

English have to switch to Standard English in order to use formal styles. Stylistic differences can range from very formal to very informal, or colloquial style, and are most obvious at the level of lexis (vocabulary), although grammatical constructions can also distinguish informal from formal English, irrespective of the variety or dialect. What may be a real and important consideration why speakers of nonstandard varieties use Standard English is that they might want to avoid the social stigmatisation associated with speaking a nonstandard variety.

As far as register is concerned, one of the anticipated goals of the education system is to acquaint students with the academic, technical and scientific registers with which they are not familiar (as is typically the case in the various academic disciplines). However, Trudgill (1999:123) questions to what extent such registers have a purely technical function (e.g. providing unambiguous definitions for terms in specialised fields) and "how far they have the more particularly socio-linguistic function of symbolising a speaker or writer's membership of a particular group, and of keeping outsiders out", so-called "gate-keeping". The conventional practise is to use Standard English for scientific registers, but there is no reason why someone who does not use Standard English cannot acquire technical registers, just like one can use non-technical registers while speaking or writing Standard English (Trudgill, 1999:124).

Canagarajah (2015:420) is critical of the ideological dominance of monolingualism in the West and the assumption that non-English speakers must somehow try to imitate native speakers' writing and speaking. He regards the "native speaker" construct as an ideology "that confers power on those who consider themselves the owners of a language", pointing out the irony that English is already a "creole" language, having borrowed words and grammatical features from different languages over time (2015:417). Canagarajah goes on to state that the myth of the "native speaker" is damaging in that it deprives us from "appreciating the diversity in the repertoire of native speakers of English". One must bear in mind that learners of English are bringing with them many linguistic and educational resources from their repertoires that the "native speaker" label does not acknowledge. Moreover, even people who have never spoken any other language but English might still be treated as "non-native speakers" because they do not conform to the "native speaker" norm.

Kachru (1985:12) developed the Three-circle Model to conceptualise the different varieties of English in the world, or World Englishes. This model differentiates between the "norm-providing" Inner Circle (including the USA, the UK, Canada, Australia and New Zealand), the "norm-developing" Outer Circle (former colonies which use English as a second language) and the "norm-dependent" Expanding Circle (countries which were never colonised by Britain and where English is learned and used as a foreign language). Kachru (1992a:66) puts forward a "polymodel" approach to replace the "monomodel" approach that assumes that "English as an international language" is a homogenous, single variety, ignoring the fact that English is actually characterised by

variety and variation. While Kachru's model is useful to conceptualise World Englishes, it is important to note that stark differences also exist within the various circles. South Africa, which would be classified into the Outer Circle, is characterised by huge socio-economic differences between the various language groups. Access to Standard English, South African English (a Standard English variety) or academic English is privileged in institutions of learning, whereas non-standard varieties do not enjoy the same status as these standard versions. The implication for teaching and learning in higher education is that institutions must support those students who did not have equal access to the standard varieties of English.

According to Mauranen (2012:2), Standard English is, at least for the moment, the unquestioned prestige variety of English in the world, despite the fact that speakers who use English as an additional language outnumber native speakers by far. She (2012:8) defines English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) as "a vehicular language used by speakers who do not share a first language". In her discussion of ELF, she makes a distinction between Second Language Use (SLU) and Second Language Acquisition (SLA). In SLA, the focus is on attaining the discourse conventions and lexicographical standards of the target culture or native speaker and on controlling learner proficiency as closely as possible. Accordingly, practices like language mixing will be avoided. In contrast, ELF users are not specifically learning English and maintain their first or home languages. In ELF, there is a strong focus on content and achieving mutual comprehension, rather than using the "correct" form of English. Language mixing, code-switching and code-meshing are all practices that ELF speakers employ in the communication process.

In the current study, the potential of ELF was exploited in the weekly terminology tutorials where non-native speakers of English were encouraged to use any variety of English (or Afrikaans for that matter) to communicate with fellow students about the subject content of two Political Science modules. Their language use was not corrected in the dialogic model of teaching, since the aim of the tutorials was not to teach students Standard English, but to encourage them to participate confidently and on an equal basis in the discussion of the subject content. What is important from an educational empowerment perspective is that every student also had access to the technical terms and their definitions in Standard English, Afrikaans and isiXhosa. Their English language usage in the discussions was therefore scaffolded by their access to the key concepts of the discipline in their home languages.

After the discussion of Standard English and alternative models of teaching English, one of the more conventional models of teaching English to non-native speakers in higher education contexts, English for Academic Purposes, forms the topic of the next section.

2.6 English for Academic Purposes

Wingate and Tribble (2012:481) critically examine what they consider the two dominant approaches to academic writing in higher education: English for Academic Purposes (EAP), which is used internationally, and Academic Literacies, which has become an influential model in the United Kingdom. On the one hand, they note the concern that Academic Literacies has mainly focused on the circumstances surrounding 'non-traditional' students. On the other hand, they point out that EAP has generally been perceived as focusing mainly on the needs of non-native speakers of English. As a consequence they argue, this might be a reason why EAP has failed to make an impact on mainstream writing instruction.

Wingate and Tribble (2012:490) question the dichotomy between the normative and the transformative approaches identified in Academic Literacies research, arguing instead for an integration of the Academic Literacies and English for Academic Purposes approaches. They point out that, as far back as the mid-1990s, EAP researchers rejected a teaching approach where students simply have to imitate or adapt authoritative texts. In recent years, EAP teaching methods have become more student-centred and less one-directional; these methods now tend to focus on specific language features, discourse practices and teaching practices that take into account students' expertise (or lack thereof), subject-specific needs and the importance of genres.

The Academic Literacies approach, according to Wingate and Tribble (2012:481) has not acknowledged the theoretical and pedagogical potential of EAP for developing a mainstream instructional model. In their reaction to criticism from the Academic Literacies approach, Wingate and Tribble (2012:486–489) argue that the Academic Literacies model treats all categories of EAP alike under the broad label of 'academic socialisation,' without distinguishing between different Genre/EAP approaches and other varieties of EAP. In the process, this model has given a one-dimensional portrayal of EAP approaches, which explicitly teach the characteristics of writing in particular genres and disciplines. Wingate and Tribble point out that Genre/EAP has established practical pedagogic responses to student needs in different higher education contexts and have been primarily concerned with helping students to understand and control the conventions and discourses of their chosen disciplines.

Wingate and Tribble (2012:492) subsequently propose a model of discipline-specific, integrated writing instruction, which can take the form of three types of collaboration between EAP instructors and disciplinary lecturers. In the first, EAP instructors teach writing based on subject-specific texts and materials that they receive from the subject lecturer. In the second, EAP instructors and subject lecturers plan writing activities together. In the third, EAP instructors and subject lecturers carry out team teaching. In a fully embedded approach, the subject lecturer takes full responsibility to teach academic writing in the discipline. Wingate and Tribble maintain that this model can combine

both EAP and Academic Literacies principles and can offer real pedagogical solutions in a variety of higher education contexts if they are properly researched and evaluated. They conclude that the advantage of collaborative approaches is, firstly, that they are not exclusively reserved for certain types of students; in fact, all students who need academic support can benefit from them. Secondly, since collaborative approaches are discipline and context specific, and thus closely linked to the teaching of subject content, they can raise students' awareness of the communicative and social practices of a specific discipline.

The type of collaboration outlined above is relevant for the South African context, since it corresponds to the kinds of collaboration that have been undertaken at various higher education institutions in this country in an effort to integrate language and content in academic literacy interventions (Jacobs, 2010; Butler, 2013; Carstens, 2013; Van Dyk & Van de Poel, 2013; Van de Poel & Van Dyk, 2015). This issue will be discussed in more detail in section 2.9.

As mentioned above, EAP does not represent a single unitary approach to academic literacy. Harwood and Hadley (2004:356), for instance, subdivide EAP into three dominant approaches, namely Pragmatic EAP, Critical EAP, and Critical Pragmatic EAP. These approaches are briefly described below.

2.6.1 Pragmatic EAP

Pragmatic EAP is a skills-based, instrumental approach aimed at teaching students how to reproduce the dominant conventions in Anglo-American writing (Harwood & Hadley, 2004:356). It therefore resembles the Study Skills model outlined in section 2.3.1.

2.6.2 Critical EAP

Critical EAP is concerned with critically evaluating existing educational institutions and practices (Harwood & Hadley, 2004:356–357). It emphasises the differences between the various academic disciplines and the entrenched conservatism and undemocratic nature of the academic world with its preference for dominant discourse practices.

In their defence of EAP, Wingate and Tribble refer to critical EAP scholars like Benesch (2009) and Canagarajah (2005) who stress the importance of the socio-political contexts of writing, the role of students' and teachers' social identities, and the effect of power relations. These scholars are nevertheless some of the main critics of established academic literacy practices in English as a Second Language (ESL) and EAP (although they are criticised in some contexts for not providing practical solutions).

Benesch (1993:546–547) shows how the concept of 'critical thinking' (one of the key skills taught in conventional academic literacy courses) is often listed as one of several hierarchically ordered cognitive skills in ESL literature, such as evaluation, inference,

analysis, synthesis, and comprehension. Since the terms 'critical thinking' and 'cognitive thinking' are used interchangeably in the literature, the special meaning of *critical* is lost. She quotes Cummins (1989) who defines critical thinking as "a democratic learning process examining power relations and social inequities". Benesch's response to critics who argue that this type of teaching is political is that Cummins (1989) and Shor and Freire (1987) would claim that all curricula are political, since they either encourage or discourage students from questioning the status quo. The implication of Benesch's viewpoint is that even the resistance to curricular transformation and renewal is thus political in that it preserves the status quo.

2.6.3 Critical Pragmatic EAP

Critical Pragmatic EAP represents an attempt to reconcile the apparently incompatible approaches of Pragmatic EAP and Critical EAP. In line with Pragmatic EAP, on the one hand, Critical Pragmatic EAP contends that students must be exposed to the dominant discourse practices; on the other hand, like Critical EAP, it insists that students should have choices and be free to accept or challenge the dominant practices. Critical Pragmatic EAP therefore has two objectives: to help students perform well in their academic courses, and to encourage them to question the academic form and content presented to them.

The questions raised by Critical EAP and Critical Pragmatic EAP seem relevant for the lack of success of students from educationally and linguistically diverse backgrounds. However, while Critical Pragmatic EAP seems useful in providing practical support to students who need to master the dominant conventions in different academic contexts, it is unlikely that these students, many of whom still feel academically marginalised, will challenge the dominant practices and question the academic form and content presented to them. They might also lack the language competence to verbalise questions about such form and content.

Considering the premise underlying Critical EAP discussed above, it seems plausible that this approach can complement the Academic Literacies approach. However, as mentioned in section 2.3.3, the scope of the Academic Literacies approach is broader than student texts and disciplinary genres. As a critical field of enquiry, this approach interrogates and challenges academic norms and conventions, as well as institutional policies, particularly in relation to issues of identity and power.

Thus far, this chapter provided an overview of the various approaches to literacy, and specifically academic literacy, as developed and implemented in the United Kingdom, the USA and elsewhere. This overview serves as the background for the discussion of academic literacy in South Africa (in section 2.9), where a considerable amount of research has been done on the topic of academic literacy. The findings of international studies that emanate from new approaches to academic literacy could possibly complement current efforts in South Africa towards providing epistemological access

and academic support to students from diverse socio-cultural, linguistic and educational backgrounds. Likewise, the many innovative South African interventions can also enhance international reflection on the best ways of providing academic literacy to academic novices and non-traditional students. Changing conceptualisations of literacy also have implications for curriculum planning, teaching, learning and assessing at university.

Section 2.7 is accordingly devoted to a discussion of epistemological access and student success in university study, a prominent topic in current debates on academic literacy. The discussion focuses on three central issues relating to this topic, namely the distinction between formal and epistemological access (section 2.7.1), theories of teaching and learning (2.6.2), and the role of textbooks in providing epistemological access (2.6.3).

Two other issues related to epistemological access and student success will be discussed separately. The first issue relates to the role of vocabulary. Because this issue is an important focus in the present research, it will be addressed separately in section 2.8. The second of these, namely multilingualism as a resource for meaning-making, will form part of section 2.9 where academic literacy in South Africa is discussed, because of its specific relevance to that context.

In addressing academic literacy in South Africa, the following questions arise: Will students who struggle to adjust to the literacy practices of the university benefit more from (i) explicit teaching of study skills, (ii) the implicit or explicit induction into a specific discipline, (iii) Critical Literacy approaches such as Academic Literacies, or (iv) a combination of these three approaches?

In an attempt to answer these questions, section 2.9.1 will give an outline of three frameworks of academic literacy that are employed in some or other form in South Africa, namely the Academic Support model (2.9.1.1), the Academic Development model (2.9.1.2), and the Higher Education model (2.9.1.3). The role of multilingualism in academic literacy in the South African context will subsequently be discussed (2.9.2).

2.7 Epistemological access and student success

2.7.1 Formal and epistemological access

One of the long-standing debates in the field of Academic Development concerns the issue of epistemological access, in contrast to formal access to higher education, particularly in South Africa. Morrow (2009:36) is critical of the notion that students will realise their potential once they gain access to university and make use of their chances. He makes a distinction between formal and epistemological access to the university. Whereas formal access to university relates to conforming to its formal admission requirements, epistemological access requires an understanding of the epistemic values

of the university, which are the academic community's unique contribution to society. Morrow (2009:38) defines epistemic values as "those values that guide scientific inquiry with the aim of discovering the truth about some matter, irrespective of whether that truth is convenient or inconvenient, supports or does not support any particular predilections or sectional interests". He maintains that these epistemic values are content-neutral and should not be confused with curriculum content and vocabulary that will change over time.

As a rule, lecturers in the various academic disciplines are familiar with the conventions of their respective disciplinary discourses. In order to provide epistemological access to disciplinary novices, these lecturers should bear in mind that students who are new to a given discipline are generally not familiar with these conventions and should be explicitly taught the social and cultural contexts of the disciplines (Van de Poel & Gasiorek, 2012:295). In their study on curriculum responsiveness for epistemological access, Slonimsky and Shalem (2006:56) concur that "insiders to a practice tend to develop such an embodied and practised sense of their actions, activities, and forms of relation within it, they feel it in their bones, so to speak, so that they may cease to consider or reflect on that which informs, underpins and generates their activities".

Lange (2010:vi-vii) adds that epistemological access has political as well as educational dimensions in that it focuses on "the unconscious and unquestioned processes of concept formation and knowledge acquisition and on the assumptions that inform the manner in which teaching at university level takes place". She argues that it is in epistemological access where the greatest challenges remain in South African higher education. This is not unlike other international situations. Addressing these challenges requires an innovative approach to teaching and learning at university level, more investment in resources, renewed attention to the key role of the curriculum and a greater appreciation for the importance of research on teaching and learning. This has implications for universities as institutions, and also for how the various disciplines invest resources to promote an innovative approach to teaching and learning. The Higher Education Quality Committee (HEQC) stated in its Founding Document that it is committed to "a quality-driven higher education system that contributes to socio-economic development, social justice and innovative scholarship in South Africa" (CHE, 2001:9). Lange (2010:vii) maintains, however, there can be no social justice in South African higher education if students do not manage to achieve both formal and epistemological access.

Thesen and Van Pletzen (2006:22) point out, however, that academic discourse in its traditional format is rigid and inflexible. It is characterised by distinct power inequalities, where students struggle with fixed and predetermined language forms in trying to decode the meanings and values of the various disciplines. This necessitates more drastic and systematic approaches to deal with the effects of diversity, especially linguistic diversity, in order to provide epistemological access to students.

In an effort to engage with the issue of epistemological access, Boughey (2005:240-241) undertook an ethnographic study of first-year students at Rhodes University to establish what constitutes access in terms of language development. She found that students were drawing on cultural backgrounds as reference points that were different from those of their lecturers and the university as institution. She concluded that the provision of epistemological access involves more than introducing students to a neutral set of generic skills and strategies to cope with academic learning. Instead, the gaps between the respective worlds of the students and lecturers have to be bridged by making overt the unspoken academic conventions that apply in the construction of university knowledge. Possible obstacles to student success must be removed and there must be investment in resources to transform traditional approaches into critical and democratic ones. At the same time, there should be enough time for students to truly engage with subject content, which tends to be superficial if programmes are too "content heavy".

Barnett (2000:417-419) defines epistemology as "our ways of understanding how things are in the world, including notions of the relationship of our propositions to the world and to each other, within and across disciplines". In terms of the processes of being and knowing, the process of how students achieve understanding and get to know what they know is just as important as the knowledge they acquire. In other words, the whole teaching and learning experience is important, not just the summative marks students receive in the end.

According to Barnett (2000:416-419), there are several epistemological dimensions where the university can still justify its place in what he calls "the age of super-complexity", on condition that it makes drastic adjustments to its conventional paradigms of knowing. The first dimension relates to the university's system of producing knowledge, which should change from "an endorsing machine to one that seeks to produce radically new frames of understanding" (Barnett, 2000:417). The second dimension relates to how the new pragmatic knowledges are dealt with. Barnett (2000:418) argues that the university should perform its critical function by subjecting these knowledges to critical scrutiny, instead of simply rejecting or demonising them. Furthermore, the age of super-complexity requires therapeutic teaching that deals directly with the student's experience and restores the human being's dignity by "allowing space for meanings to come from within the person" (Barnett, 2000:419). Lastly, students should be equipped to fulfil a conscious purpose in an age where everything is subject to change and uncertainty.

Each one of these epistemological dimensions has practical implications for teaching and learning. Specifically, it requires questioning what is taught at university, how it is taught, how students are assessed, and what is presented as knowledge to students. These concerns are addressed in the sections below.

2.7.2 Teaching and learning for epistemological access

There are a variety of teaching and learning theories which could potentially promote epistemological access in higher education. The following three are selected for discussion in this section because they represent some of the dominant positions and discourses in the debate about the role of teaching and learning for epistemological access.

2.7.2.1 Genre theory

As was mentioned in section 2.3.2, the academic socialisation approach has a very strong focus on inducting or initiating students into the various disciplinary discourses. The premise is that subject fields and disciplines use different genres and discourses that remain relatively stable for the construction of knowledge; hence, it is claimed that students who familiarise themselves with the basic building blocks of a particular academic discipline will be able to reproduce its discourse. One of the theories of teaching and learning that is regarded as a useful way to induct students into the discourse of a discipline is genre theory, which has its roots in Systemic Functional Linguistics and is closely associated with Genre/EAP (cf. section 2.6).

Christi (2004:25) notes that one of the criticisms against genre theory (which she disputes) is the claim that in its concern to describe the various genres necessary for learning, it has produced formulas for teaching. Therefore, instead of teaching students to be independent learners, students are taught to uphold the status quo, and are incapable of using the dominant genres to forge new genres and to come up with new ways of making meaning. However, she (2004:26) emphasises that teaching genres does not underplay the importance of learning to question and challenge those genres. In truth, it is exactly because students develop sensitivity for the different contexts and ways in which genres are constructed, and of the purposes that they serve, that they can employ and use the genres to their own advantage. Genre theory therefore seems like a useful tool to induct students into a new discipline, particularly when it comes to essay writing. In the South African higher education context, Carstens (2009) has made a useful contribution in this regard. She investigated the effectiveness of genre-based academic writing interventions and came to the conclusion that "there is a clear indication that genre-based, scaffolded interventions do assist students in mastering the structural, conceptual and linguistic resources for meaning-making in academic discourse" (Carstens, 2009:229–230). Her recommendations about discipline-specific versus generic academic literacy approaches will be discussed in section 2.9.1.3.

The criticism of genre-based interventions from an Academic Literacies point of view is that pre-identifying students' so-called writing problems as textual in nature leads to pedagogy and research which take texts as the primary object of study, instead of privileging practices above texts. Lillis and Scott (2007:10) define 'textual bias' as "the treatment of language/writing as solely or primarily a linguistic object". Although this

criticism of the strong textual bias in genre-based interventions might be valid, the question is whether a privileging of practices above texts would indeed broaden epistemological access. It seems that a balance has to be found between a narrow focus on language/writing and students' broader literacy practices.

2.7.2.2 Constructivism

Biggs (2012a) discusses a number of theories of learning that could help lecturers improve their teaching. He (2012a:42) makes the following comments on what he regards as the most useful theory:

> While there are differences in flavour between constructivist-driven and phenomenologically driven teaching ... my own assumption is that helping teachers improve their teaching is best done using a theory that helps teachers reflect on what they are doing. For that they need a framework to aid reflection: a theory of learning that is broad based and empirically sound, that easily translates into practice, and that is readily understandable. To my mind this means constructivism, although there is a lot in common between the constructivist and phenomenological positions.

The main tenet of constructivism is that meaning is not imposed or transmitted by direct instruction, but is 'made' by the student's learning activities or 'approaches to learning.' On the one hand, a surface approach involves activities of an inappropriately low cognitive level, which produce fragmented learning outcomes; on the other hand, the deep approach involves learning activities that are appropriate for realising the task so that an appropriate outcome is achieved. Biggs (2012a:42) concludes that "the surface approach is therefore to be discouraged, the deep approach encouraged – and that is my working definition of good teaching".

Constructivism regards learning as a way of interacting with the world. As we learn, our conceptions of phenomena change, hence we see the world differently. The acquisition of information in itself does not bring about such a change, but the way we structure that information and use it in our thinking. Thus, learning is about conceptual change, not just the acquisition of information (Biggs, 2012a:42).

Biggs (2012a:42–43) distinguishes between two main teaching strategies, teacher/lecturer-focused and student-focused strategies. Teacher/lecturer-focused strategies are associated with transmission theories of teaching which focus on the transfer of knowledge from the expert lecturer to novice student. The basic premise of this strategy is that it is the lecturer's task to teach students the basic facts, subject-related concepts and principles needed to understand the discipline. For this purpose, lecturers must know their subject content well and must be able to explain it well. In teacher/lecturer-focused teaching strategies, the focus is not only on what the lecturer does, but also on student differences. This implies that there are good students and bad students. If the lecturer has done his/her duty to teach, it becomes the student's responsibility to attend lectures, to listen attentively, to take notes, to do the prescribed

readings, and to keep up with the pace. This conception of teaching assumes that teaching is constant, so that differences in student learning are explained by individual differences between students. When students do not learn, it can be blamed on the student. It is not considered that the teaching might be the problem if so many other students manage to pass (Biggs, 2012a:43).

In contrast, student-focused teaching is concerned with effecting conceptual change in students' understanding of the world; in other words, what is important is not only the lecturer's role in imparting understanding, but what students do to gain understanding (Biggs, 2012a:43). This teaching style actually cares whether teaching, irrespective of how much effort goes into it, uses student activities that lead to appropriate learning. Lecturers no longer exonerate themselves by blaming the student. According to this view, teaching is not only about covering the facts, concepts and principles of the discipline, but also about ensuring that students understand those concepts and principles in the way we want them to be understood. The question, then, is what kinds of teaching and learning activities are required to reach such understanding (Biggs, 2012a:44).

The dichotomy painted by Biggs between lecturer-focused and student-focused teaching put lecturers and students in opposing camps which does not make provision for the healthy partnerships that already exist between many lecturers and students at many institutions. The value of his theoretical analysis is, however, that he conscientises lecturers and institutions to critically reflect on their teaching and learning practices.

Theories of teaching and learning have wide-ranging repercussions for student success at university. Moreover, they also highlight the inappropriateness of some traditional approaches to lecturer development, which regard teaching as a mere collection of skills. According to Biggs (2012a:44), this view of teaching is popular among some administrators, because it is a convenient basis on which to assess the effectiveness of lecturers. This is very different from encouraging lecturers to reflect on their teaching practice and to consider a student-centred approach in their teaching, as is envisaged in Academic Literacies.

2.7.2.3 Dialogic teaching

McLean (2006:96) notes that Freire's critical pedagogy (cf. section 2.4) has its roots in literacy programmes in developing countries; however, in contrast to some radical pedagogies, Freire "provides principles and inspiration for thinking about how to connect personal and impersonal". McLean (2006:95) states that it might be difficult to see the relevance of Freire's theories to university teaching today, but points out that his ideas can provide a solid foundation for the development of students with critical mind-sets and worldviews.

Shor and Freire (1987:13) produced a 'talking book' in 1984 that was intended as a practical illustration of dialogic pedagogy. What emerges from their dialogue is an underlying tension between divergent views of teaching, involving (i) the individual versus the social; (ii) abstract versus concrete/social realities; (iii) authoritarianism/ domination versus democracy/freedom/empowerment; and (iv) passive versus active students. Shor introduces the dialogue with reference to the traditional lecture setting where the lecturer teaches didactically to large numbers of students (Shor & Freire, 1987:12). He notices that "[w]e are familiar with 'monologue' or teacher-talk, in the transfer of knowledge". In the same work (1987:14), Shor further states that the lecturer is presented as an authority in the didactic method, someone who transmits established facts and ideas to students. These established facts and ideas form part of traditional discourse, which reinforces "the inherited, official shape of knowledge".

At one point, Shor asks Freire how the dialogic method presents a different model of learning and knowledge and how it can bring about a transformation in communication. Freire (Shor & Freire, 1987:13) replies that if dialogue is used as a way to "make students our friends", it can be abused as a technique for manipulation instead of enlightenment; on the contrary, engaging in dialogue "must be understood as … part of our historical progress in becoming human beings", a moment where humans come together to reflect on their reality, and to exchange ideas as to how to act critically to transform their reality. Freire points out that, while the lecturer has academic knowledge of his/her subject area, in dialogic pedagogy the lecturer rediscovers the subject material by studying it along with the students (Shor, 2012:15). He contends that dialogue as a way of learning is ultimately a debate about epistemology, i.e. what counts as knowledge.

In Shor and Freire (1987), Shor maintains that dialogic inquiry is situated in the culture, language, politics of the students, and any topics raised by them. Hence, situated pedagogy enables the lecturer to discover what students regard as their biggest problems. He points out, though, that this subjective experience must also make provision for a global, critical dimension, which is an integral part of the dialogic method.

According to Freire (Shor & Freire, 1987:19), university teaching "tends to form us *at a distance* from reality"; the concepts that we study at university can likewise "amputate us from the concrete reality" to which they are supposed to refer. When concepts are abstracted from reality, they bear no relation to the concreteness of society. In situated pedagogy, the lecturer starts with the everyday, real life experiences of the students; following this concrete starting point, the student then proceeds to critical consciousness. Freire claims that by listening to students' portrayals of their understanding of the world, it is epistemologically possible to guide them in the direction of a critical, scientific understanding of the world, noting that "science is super-imposing critical thought on what we observe in reality, after the starting point of

common sense" (Shor & Freire, 1987:19–20). In short, in the dialogic classroom where students participate in discussions of the problems that they have raised themselves, the lecturer and students transform learning into a collaborative process which is in touch with reality (Shor & Freire, 1987:11).

Freire (Shor & Freire, 1987:21) underscores that he is not against a curriculum or a programme; he is only against the authoritarian and elitist ways of constructing knowledge which breeds passive and silent students. Shor (Shor & Freire, 1987:21) adds that students' "learned passivity" must be challenged so that they can motivate themselves to take on responsibilities outside the traditional curriculum. In this way, they can become active researchers instead of simply listening to a lecture.

In short, then, the dialogical method of teaching does not reject curriculum planning or the authority of the lecturer to structure the discussion of issues in the dialogic classroom. This method is, however, against an authoritarian approach to teaching that undermines students' critical participation in their education. It is argued that such an approach reinforces passivity among students, and inhibits them from taking responsibility for their own learning and the personal and societal challenges that they face. In contrast, the dialogic method of teaching favours collaboration between lecturers and students, where both parties can benefit from the teaching and learning experience.

Shor notes that the notion of empowerment in the United States society is rooted in individualism (Shor & Freire, 1987:23). In this regard, Freire refers to the ambivalent relation between individual versus social transformation, and in fact rejects the notion of personal self-empowerment. He argues that even when an individual feels free or liberated, and that feeling is not a social feeling – i.e. if an individual cannot use his/her personal freedom to help others to become free by transforming the whole of society – it amounts to an individualist attitude towards empowerment or freedom. Ironically, Freire points out that individual empowerment is absolutely necessary for the process of social transformation (Shor & Freire, 1987:23).

As mentioned above, the dialogical method of teaching does not reject curriculum planning per se. Such planning typically involves, amongst other factors, the choice of textbooks and recommended readings in the various disciplines. Clearly, what is taught and how it is taught will play a determining role in how textbooks and recommended readings are used in curriculum planning. This implies that the choice of study material can play a significant role in providing epistemological access to university study, as will be discussed below.

2.7.3 The role of textbooks in providing epistemological access

According to Hyland (2004), textbooks play an important role in professional practice, and are crucial for novices who want to access a specific subject field. Textbooks are

generally perceived to reflect the knowledge, methods and literacy practices of a discipline. They also play a major role in students' understanding of a discipline in that they provide a "coherently ordered epistemological map of a disciplinary landscape" (Hyland, 2004:105).

With regard to cognitive user situations, Tarp (2010:40) argues that "textbooks should be planned in such a way that they can satisfy not only global information needs but also punctual information needs; accordingly, dictionaries (and specialised dictionaries in particular) should be arranged in such a way that they give a systematic overview of or introduction to a specific subject field".

One of the criticisms that is often raised against textbooks, however, is that they change too slowly and are not updated regularly enough to keep up with the latest developments in the discipline. This applied to both Political Science textbooks that were prescribed in the current study. Both were published in 2007 and had not been updated at the outset of the empirical study in 2013. Another criticism is that textbooks have become too expensive and that poorer students cannot afford them. In South Africa, the issue of student poverty was the central focus of the student protests in 2015, when students refused to accept the annual increase in study fees. Apart from high study fees, expensive textbooks have become a pertinent issue in the lives of South African students who struggle financially.

Bates (2015:34) notes (in an open textbook that is freely available online) that open textbooks represent one of the developments in open learning over the last 10 years that has far-reaching implications for conventional educational institutions. Open textbooks are "digital textbooks that can be downloaded in a digital format by students (or instructors) for free, thus saving students considerable money on textbooks". As illustration, Bates notes three provinces in Canada which have agreed to work together on the production and distribution of peer-reviewed open textbooks for the 40 most popular subject areas in their higher education programmes. Open textbooks can be complemented by peer-reviewed open educational resources which are freely available on the Internet. These can be downloaded, adapted or amended under a Creative Commons license that protects the copyright of the original material. Digital textbooks can counter the criticism leveled in the previous paragraph against textbooks in that they are freely available online and it is also likely that they will be easier to update than conventional textbooks.

A further criticism of textbooks is that they do not encourage engagement in the rigorous kind of debate that is envisaged in dialogic teaching and expected in academic writing since they are typically presented as a coherent canon consisting of codified knowledge and uncontested facts. According to Hyland (2004:106), many scholars consider the textbook as "established basics aimed at an unsophisticated audience". He attributes this criticism to a pedagogical model where the process of teaching and

learning is seen as a one-way transfer of knowledge from the expert to the novice. Hence, it would seem that the problem is not necessarily with the textbook as such, but with the way that it is used in teaching and learning.

When evaluating the role of textbooks in providing epistemological access, it is important to distinguish between first-year students and senior students. While the textbook can be an effective tool to introduce first-year students to the theories, leading scholars and core concepts of a discipline, it could well be too restrictive a source for senior students.[8] Since the focus in the current study is on first-year students, the textbook can be an appropriate source in providing epistemological access to students who are new to a subject field and in assisting them in the desired meaning-making processes. It all depends on how the textbook is used within the broader teaching and learning context. If a lecturer works with an epistemology of literacy which uses a set of social practices with a normative ideological approach to the object of study (Lillis & Scott, 2007:12-13), it is probable that the textbook will be used as a one-way transfer of knowledge, and students will simply be required to give back the facts presented to them without critically engaging with the content. In the process, they will only be legitimising the status quo and will be unlikely to develop their own voices. In contrast, if the lecturer works with a transformative epistemology, as described by Lillis and Scott (see also section 2.3.3), the textbook can serve as a tool to teach students how to engage critically with the content in order to transform themselves and their respective worlds. Furthermore, if the textbook is used as a resource for meaning-making and to show students what counts as knowledge in the discipline, it can play a meaningful role in the teaching and learning process.

If textbooks represent a coherently ordered epistemological map of a disciplinary landscape, the question arises as to whether Critical Theory (section 2.4), which is also a theory for education, can help students to engage critically with the content and basic assumptions of a discipline, and whether this theory can help to effect social and cultural change in the social reconstruction of the established ways of knowing. This issue will be illustrated in the examples below.

The concept ‘the West’ is one of many that do not occur in the glossaries of the third (2007) and fourth (2013) editions of Heywood, one of the prescribed textbooks used in the current study. Instead, this concept is defined in a *concept box* in both editions. Heywood (2013:274) defines the concept ‘the West’ as follows:

[8] It should also be noted that the content of some (sub)disciplines changes at a very fast rate. Hence, it could be argued that it is not feasible to invest scarce resources in writing textbooks that will become dated in a relatively short time. Though there might be merit in this argument when considering textbooks for senior and postgraduate courses, it does not hold for introductory courses, which are intended to expose new students to foundational knowledge of the discipline.

> The term the West has two overlapping meanings. In the general sense, it refers to the cultural and philosophical inheritance of Europe, as exported through migration or colonialism. The roots of this inheritance lie in Judeo-Christian religion and the learning of 'classical' Greece and Rome shaped in the modern period by the ideas and values of liberalism. In a narrower sense, fashionable during the Cold War, the West meant the USA-dominated capitalist bloc as opposed the USSR-dominated East although Eastern Europe no longer belong to the East in this sense, it has always been unclear whether Russia belongs to the West in the broader sense.

If a lecturer works with an epistemology of literacy which uses a set of social practices embedded in a normative ideological approach using the textbook for a one-way transfer of knowledge, students are likely to be rewarded with good marks if they rote-learn this concept and regurgitate it during an assessment. From the academic socialisation point of view, one could say that students have been inducted into the subject field if they know the central concepts or paradigms of the discipline. However, in the current multicultural higher education environment, it is possible that a student who is not a member of this "inner circle" of 'the West' as defined above might identify better with the "migration" or "colonialism" part of the definition. It is then possible that the very textbook definition that is supposed to introduce the student to "the epistemological map of the disciplinary landscape" can become an epistemological obstacle to the student. Within a transformative epistemology, the student can engage critically with the basic building blocks of the subject-fields in a discipline. In this case, the textbook can serve as a tool to guide students in order to transform themselves and their respective worlds.

It is doubtful, however, that first-year students will have enough knowledge or self-confidence to question concepts that are presented to them as part of the established disciplinary knowledge in a textbook. That is why a transformative epistemology requires the disciplinary expert to take responsibility for "unpacking" the ideological underpinnings of contested concepts with students so that they can learn to engage critically with the content. It is also the responsibility of the disciplinary expert to focus attention on those thinkers, concepts and theories that have not been included in the textbook, or parts thereof, since these omissions can become epistemological obstacles for students in the long run.

The kind of Critical Literacy one would hope to inculcate in students in a transformative epistemology is to guide them to ask critical questions about concepts that occur, or do not occur, in a textbook or prescribed reading. In this specific case, it might be useful to make students aware of the concept of 'orientalism' (which, like 'the West', does not occur in the 2007 and 2013 glossaries of Heywood). 'Orientalism' is associated with the literary critic and founding figure of post-colonial theory, Edward Said, who is discussed in a *Thinker box* elsewhere in the 2013 textbook:

> [he] developed a humanist critique of the western Enlightenment that uncovered its links to colonialism and highlighted 'narratives of oppression', cultural and ideological biases that disempowered colonized peoples by representing them as

> the non-western 'other'. He is best known for the notion of 'orientalism', which operated through a 'subtle and persistent Eurocentric prejudice against Arabo-Islamic peoples and culture'. His key texts include Orientalism (1978) and Culture and Imperialism (1993) (Heywood 2013:161).

Two other concepts and their definitions seem useful to present students with a more balanced view of the concept of 'the West':

> Eurocentrism: A culturally biased approach to understanding that treats European, and generally western, ideas, values and assumptions as 'natural' (Heywood 2013:160).

> Consciousness raising: Strategies to remodel social identity and challenge cultural inferiority by an emphasis on pride, self-worth and self-assertion (Heywood 2013:161).

Elsewhere, Heywood (2013:12) discusses the various approaches to the study of politics. In line with the ideological assumptions of the construct of 'the West', under the heading of *The philosophical tradition*, the following is stated:

> Plato and Aristotle are usually identified as the founding fathers of this tradition. Their ideas resurfaced in the writings of medieval theorists such as Augustine (354-430) and Aquinas (1225-74).

Even though it might be argued that this is part of a brief introduction to the philosophical tradition in the textbook, the omission of the intellectual contributions of Abû al-Walîd Muhammad (Ibn Rushd, or Latinized in the West as Averroës) seems to confirm the orientalist bias of the textbook. Averroës was one of the most prominent Arab scholars who wrote commentaries on Aristotle's works. Many of his works were translated into Latin, Hebrew and other languages, and his texts were studied along with Aristotle's in medieval Europe. By explicitly deconstructing the concepts of 'the West' and 'Eurocentrism' that are defined in the textbook, a lecturer within a transformative epistemology can demonstrate to students what Critical Literacy means in practice. By adding the intellectual contributions of thinkers from "non-Western" cultures to the disciplinary canon (in this case Arab and Islamic intellectuals), a culturally and critically literate disciplinary expert will raise consciousness about cultural hegemonies in the process. This can affirm individual students' social identity and feeling of self-worth, and create a new space for authentic engagement.

The above examples show that, even though textbooks may have flaws from a particular perspective, lecturers can still use them to promote transformative literacy, and to stimulate critical literacy and critical thinking. As such, textbooks can be empowering tools for students from diverse educational and cultural backgrounds. The examples also show that what is omitted from a textbook may be just as significant as what is included. It is thus essential that lecturers and researchers collaborate with experts from other disciplines so that the former can be sensitised to blind spots in their worldviews

and often uncritical assumptions about the discipline whenever they venture into writing a textbook.

One of the consequences of Hyland's (2004:106) remark about the general conception that writing a textbook simply involves "the compilation of uncontested facts for impressionable undergraduates" is that textbook writing is often rejected as proper scholarship. Accordingly, lecturers and researchers are generally not encouraged or rewarded for writing textbooks. Practically, they have to choose between research articles that will benefit their own career paths (and generate subsidy for the university), and writing textbooks that will help students to gain access to a specific subject-field. From a transformative perspective, textbook writers are therefore deprived of the opportunity to explain the theoretical models and theories of the discipline using culturally, socially and politically relevant subject material with which students from diverse backgrounds can identify. While this is clearly an issue that can affect students' academic achievement and sense of identity, it is one that cannot be solved by individual lecturers or researchers; rather, it must be addressed by universities as institutions and the broader higher education sector of a country.

2.8 Vocabulary and student success

It could be claimed that an adequate command of vocabulary/terminology is but one of a number of factors that plays a role in student success. Scholars like Anderson and Freebody (1979), Corson (1997) and Meara (1980) nevertheless claim that vocabulary is a key factor in academic performance. An important consideration in evaluating the role of vocabulary in the current study is whether it can help students to participate meaningfully in disciplinary discourse.

One potential vocabulary source that can help students who are new in a discipline is specialised learners' dictionaries which are designed to assist users in both the learning of practical skills and acquisition of knowledge about a specific subject field (Fuertes-Oliviera, 2010:39). In his discussion of specialised dictionaries for learners, Gouws (2010:56) distinguishes between learners of the language in which the dictionary is presented and learners of the subject field treated in the dictionary. He classifies subject field learners into laypeople, semi-experts and experts and makes comprehensive recommendations for the development of optimal specialised dictionaries for learners to serve the specific needs of the end-users. These suggestions will be useful to consider when new textbooks with glossaries are developed specifically for South African students, as is recommended in section 6.4.

Nation (2001) distinguishes between high frequency words, or generic vocabulary, academic vocabulary and technical terminology. Generic vocabulary consists of the most widely used 2,000 word families in English, covering about 80% of most texts. Academic vocabulary occurs reasonably frequently in academic writing and comprises

approximately 8% to 10% of running words in academic texts. Technical terminology differs from subject area to subject area and covers up to 5% of texts.[9]

In the discussion below, the first two categories, namely generic and academic vocabulary, are grouped together, while technical terminology, which is the focus of the current study, will be discussed separately.

2.8.1 Generic and academic vocabulary

Even though the current study focuses on the role of technical terminology in students' academic achievement and meaning-making (cf. the first research question in section 1.3), the role of generic and academic vocabulary should not be underestimated in students' ability to express themselves meaningfully, and to improve their academic performance in the process. Along with technical terminology, generic and academic vocabulary not only helps to provide epistemological access to academic novices, but also forms a key component of academic essay writing.

In a study at a South African university on the role of vocabulary in academic performance, Cooper and Van Dyk (2003:68) found that one of the factors that may contribute to the academic difficulties experienced by first-year students is the discrepancy between the level of vocabulary expected from such students and their actual linguistic competence. They conclude that the larger a student's vocabulary, the more likely the student is to perform well in the interpretation and evaluation of arguments in a text or in their own writing (2003:76).

With reference to the level of vocabulary expected from first-year students, Bernier (1994:38) notes that students from non-English speaking and working-class backgrounds are confronted with many language and class barriers to the academic culture and curriculum that inhibit their ability to acquire the content of a mainstream subject like History. These students tend to struggle with the terms, phrases and references used in lectures, textbooks and in examinations that mainstream lecturers would consider 'common knowledge,' but with which students are not familiar. As a consequence, students frequently spend more time trying to decode general vocabulary than discussing the subject content. In fact, in their correlation of basic, academic and advanced vocabulary, Cooper and Van Dyk (2003:73) found that academic vocabulary had the greatest influence on students' performance.

According to Hyland and Tse (2007:235), the notion of an academic vocabulary is well established in teaching English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Specific Purposes (ESP). They associate the emphasis on teaching academic vocabulary with

[9] These three distinctions correspond to what Cooper and Van Dyk (2003) call 'basic', 'academic' and 'advanced' vocabulary.

EAP's typical approach to language teaching, which focuses on specific language features and communicative skills of specific target groups.

Since so many non-English speaking students learn through the medium of English or are expected to read and understand prescribed English texts, a useful academic vocabulary source that can promote academic literacy and ultimately facilitate students' entry into subject-specific discourse is the free electronic resource, the Academic Word List (AWL).[10] This list, developed by Coxhead (2000), comprises 570 word families. The aim of the AWL was to provide first-year students with the academic vocabulary they were likely to encounter at university, and which would thus be worth studying before and during their studies. The AWL was compiled from 414 written academic texts (such as textbooks, articles, book chapters, and laboratory manuals) from four different disciplines. The list accounts for approximately 10% of the total words (tokens) in academic texts, 4% of newspapers and less than 2% of the running words of novels. Over 90% of the words in the AWL have Latin or Greek roots (Coxhead, 2000:213). According to Boyle (2009:21), 85% of the 1,000 most frequently used words in English are of Germanic origin. However, Corson (1997:677) calls attention to the fact that Graeco-Latin words are "central to the formal expression of the academic meaning systems of the literate culture". On account of this observation, Boyle argues that "[t]he ability to read undergraduate textbooks, to write academic essays and to participate in seminar or tutorial discussions depends on a good command of the low-frequency Graeco-Latin lexicon" (Boyle, 2009:21). As mentioned above, more than 90% of the words in the AWL also have Greek and Latin origins, which can potentially be a very useful tool for teaching academic literacy at secondary school and in higher education. Moreover, since words of Graeco-Latin origin also occur in the more formal language used in newspapers, Nation (2006:71) argues that reading newspapers can be useful to encounter the vocabulary found in a range of academic texts.

The AWL is divided into 10 sublists, with the first containing the 57 most frequent word families, the second containing the next 57 most frequent word families, and so on. The list contains about 3,000 words altogether. Each word family consists of a stem, or base-word, and all its inflections (Coxhead, 2011:356). The inflective form that occurs most frequently in each word family (which is not always the base-word) is italicised, e.g.

hypothesis	hypotheses, hypothesise, hypothesised, hypothesises, hypothesising, hypothetical, hypothetically

When clicking on the base-word, students are taken straight to the Cambridge Advanced Learners' Dictionary where they can read a definition of this word in a particular

[10] http://www.uefap.com/vocab/select/awl.htm

context, and also see the other inflective forms in the word family that might occur in the dictionary.

Any academic text from a specific disciplinary field that is electronically available can be pasted into the AWL Highlighter,[11] which immediately highlights all the AWL words in the text. Coxhead (2000) is aware of the fact that vocabulary is more than individual words that stand on their own in discourse, and makes it clear that items should not be learned out of context. This function of the AWL Word Highlighter makes it possible to teach academic words in their disciplinary contexts, and not as isolated words, or in artificially constructed sentences.

Hyland and Tse (2007:236) point out, however, that it is doubtful whether it is useful for students to possess a general academic vocabulary, "because it is by no means certain that there is a single literacy which university students need to acquire to participate in academic environments." They argue that the practices and discourses between the disciplines are so divergent that general academic word lists are not particularly useful. Since academic argumentation plays such a key role in acquiring and validating knowledge, a more specialised, lexical repertoire will differ from discipline to discipline. Consequently, Hyland and Tse (2007:249) dispute the idea that students who are familiar with general academic vocabulary will be able to make the transitions between the disciplines; instead, they (2007:235) recommend that lecturers help new students to develop a discipline-based lexical repertoire. However, such help should not be restricted to technical terminology. For instance, Hyland (2002:230) points out that "[t]he use of directives varies enormously across the disciplines. In some fields they represent a major rhetorical resource, a way of setting out arguments and interacting with readers which have become regular practices."[12] Clearly, then, students should be explicitly instructed in the use of such directives and other rhetorical devices in a specific discipline, particularly where essay writing forms an integral part of assessment.

The fact that the discourses of the various academic disciplines differ, does not necessarily imply, however, that a general academic word list, like the AWL, is without merit as a tool to aid L1 and L2 students in speaking, writing and listening in a new academic environment. To illustrate this point, an electronic copy of Chapter 1 of one of the text books, *Politics* (Heywood, 2007), that was prescribed to students in the current study, was inserted into the AWL Highlighter to get an indication of how many AWL words occur in this subject-specific text. A remarkably high number of words from

[11] http://www.nottingham.ac.uk/alzsh3/acvocab/awlhighlighter.htm

[12] According to Hyland (2002:231), the use of directives (or discourse markers, such as 'suppose', 'consider', 'note', 'compare', etc.) "is one of the few rhetorical devices that scientists use … to explicitly engage their readers"; in this regard, he also notes the use of "personal pronouns, questions, digressions, hedges, and emphatics."

Sublists 1 to 10 of the AWL were highlighted in the chapter, as shown in the following extract (the relevant AWL words are italicised):

> Behaviouralism, however, came under growing pressure from the 1960s onwards. In the first place, it was claimed that behaviouralism had ***significantly constrained*** the ***scope*** of political ***analysis,*** preventing it from going beyond what was directly observable. Although behavioural ***analysis*** undoubtedly produced, and continues to produce, invaluable ***insights*** in fields such as voting studies, a narrow obsession with quantifiable ***data*** threatens to reduce the discipline of politics to little else. More worryingly, it ***inclined*** a ***generation*** of political scientists to turn their backs upon the entire ***tradition*** of normative political thought. ***Concepts*** such as 'liberty', 'equality', 'justice' and 'rights' were sometimes discarded as being meaningless because they were not empirically verifiable ***entities.*** Dissatisfaction with behaviouralism grew as interest in normative questions revived in the 1970s, as reflected in the writings of ***theorists*** such as John Rawls (see p. 58) and Robert Nozick (see p. 96).
>
> Moreover, the scientific credentials of behaviouralism started to be called into question. The basis of the assertion that behaviouralism is ***objective*** and ***reliable*** is the claim that it is 'value-free': that is, that it is not contaminated by ***ethical*** or normative beliefs. However, if the ***focus*** of ***analysis*** is observable behaviour, it is difficult to do much more than describe the existing political arrangements, which ***implicitly*** means that the ***status*** quo is legitimized. This conservative value ***bias*** was ***demonstrated*** by the fact that 'democracy' was, in effect, ***redefined*** in terms of observable behaviour. Thus, instead of meaning 'popular self-government' (literally, government by the people), democracy came to stand for a struggle between competing elites to win power through the ***mechanism*** of popular election. In other words, democracy came to mean what goes on in *the* ***so-called*** democratic political systems of the developed West (Heywood, 2007:14–15).

Hyland and Tse (2007:238) summarise their criticism against an exclusive teaching of academic vocabulary lists as follows: "[A] major difficulty of such lists, and not just the AWL, is the assumption that a single inventory can represent the vocabulary of academic discourse and so be valuable to all students irrespective of their field of study". Therefore, one should also attend to technical (subject-specific) terminology to provide epistemological access to students who are new to an academic discipline.

2.8.2 Technical terminology

Chung and Nation (2004:252) define 'technical terminology' as "subject related, occurring in a specialist domain, and part of a system of subject knowledge." Within the Academic Literacies framework, one can approach the teaching of technical terminology from several perspectives. From a Study Skills perspective, for instance, the assumption is that technical terminology can be taught in decontextualised and purely linguistic terms, and can be transferred to divergent academic contexts. In an Academic Socialisation model, in turn, the focus in teaching the terminology of a subject field is on assimilation into the discipline, and conforming to its academic conventions (cf. section 2.3.2).

In contrast, the Academic Literacies approach regards the terminology of a subject field as a resource for meaning-making, and not a mechanical device that students use to improve their marks (Lillis & Scott, 2007:19). In terms of this approach, the explicit teaching of technical terminology is based on the assumption that academic literacy is not simply a matter of imitating the discourses of a particular discipline. By making the convention of technical terminology overt, students are equipped for participating in meaningful debates in a discipline.

Like the writing conventions of the different disciplines, technical terminology can pose a major obstacle to epistemological access, and acquiring such terminology might seem like a daunting task.[13] In practical terms, teaching technical terminology is furthermore impeded by the fact that lecturers often have huge teaching responsibilities with no extra time to develop technical terminology lists. This is why the textbook glossary is a useful way of identifying technical terminology in the shortest possible time.[14] On a cautionary note, though, the use of glossaries should not be regarded as simply providing students with a list of definitions to memorise, since this could result in superficial understanding of concepts. As O'Hara and Pritchard (2009:11) point out, "[s]tudents must have both definitional and contextual information about words, as well as repeated exposures and opportunities to learn and review them." These considerations were taken into account when the decision was made to have the textbook glossaries in this research project translated into isiXhosa and Afrikaans.

The following two subsections will examine the potential of a relatively new initiative to teach technical concepts in disciplines in general (2.7.2.1) and in Political Science specifically (2.7.2.2).

2.8.2.1 Threshold concepts as a teaching tool in curriculum design

One of the ways of teaching subject-specific terminology within context is to make use of 'threshold concepts' as a tool for enhancing teaching and learning in undergraduate courses. The premise of this tool in curriculum design is that certain key concepts are essential to master in every academic discipline. Hence, instead of overloading the curriculum with vast amounts of information that students are expected to absorb and reproduce, lecturers focus on teaching the threshold concepts that are considered fundamental to a subject-field (Cousin, 2006:4).

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[13] Interestingly, Sutarsyah, Nation & Kennedy (1994) found that the vocabulary of a subject area is not as immense as was earlier expected; they estimate that approximately 3,500 words may be adequate preparation for independent reading in a discipline.

[14] In the absence of a prescribed textbook glossary, another approach to identify technical terminology is through term extraction software that is widely used in corpus linguistics. With this method, a vocabulary list or glossary can be built from scratch, based on the frequency and range of word forms in a specific subject field (Chung & Nation, 2004:259).

A threshold concept can be seen as a portal which opens up new ways of thinking about something that was previously inaccessible. It offers a new way of understanding, interpreting or viewing something, without which the student cannot progress. Once grasped, a threshold concept can transform the student's view of the subject matter, and it can lead to a new worldview. Such a transformed view may represent how people think in a particular discipline, or how they perceive, understand or experience particular phenomena within that discipline (Meyer & Land, 2003:3).

The unique contribution of the threshold concepts framework lies in its potential to identify troublesome aspects of disciplinary knowledge when students have to make transitions across conceptual boundaries. It is also a tool to assist lecturers in identifying appropriate ways of modifying or redesigning curricula to enable students to negotiate such transitions more successfully. Furthermore, as an analytical framework, the idea of threshold concepts can provide insight into how students learn, what epistemological or ontological barriers they face in their learning, and which pedagogical adjustments or modifications may be appropriate to overcome those barriers (Land, Meyer & Smith, 2008:xi).

Meyer and Land (2005:386) claim that the theoretical significance of the threshold conceptual framework lies in identifying troublesome aspects of disciplinary knowledge which must be mastered in the discipline. It can help lecturers in identifying appropriate ways of modifying or redesigning curricula to ease their students' epistemological transitions and ontological transformations. A threshold concept has the following characteristics:

- it is transformative (it involves a significant conceptual and ontological shift; as students' perceptions change, they also change from within);
- it is integrative (it helps the student to make connections that were previously hidden);
- it is irreversible (once understood, the student is unlikely to forget it even though it can be refined or modified later);
- it is troublesome (it is conceptually difficult, counter-intuitive, seemingly incoherent or alien (emanating from another culture or discourse or from a perspective that conflicts with our own);
- it is bounded (in that it serves as boundary-markers for the conceptual spaces that constitute disciplinary terrain; however, there must always be space for questioning the concept itself);
- it has a discursive nature.

According to Meyer and Land (2005:375), it is as if students who struggle to master a threshold concept in a subject-field move into a liminal space. This space can either become a transformative space when students grasp a threshold concept, or it can become an epistemological obstacle when the student gets stuck. If the student does not

get very specific guidance in this process, s/he might resort to mimicry or plagiarism out of desperation. As was mentioned in section 2.7.3, contested concepts that form an integral part of the disciplinary ideology can constitute epistemological obstacles or troublesome knowledge to students who are new to that discipline. However, if there is space for questioning the concept and discursive space to negotiate the meaning of the concept, the concept can not only become transformative for the student, but also for the lecturer.

In considering the "troublesome" aspects of disciplinary knowledge, one is reminded of the French philosopher, Gaston Bachelard (1884-1962), who coined the expression 'epistemological breaks' (or 'obstacles'; *coupure épistémologique*) which can eventually lead to scientific development. On the one hand, he argued, science requires a break from our common sense experiences and beliefs, since it "places everyday concepts under new concepts"; on the other hand, "scientific progress also requires breaks from previous scientific conceptions, which, as much as common sense, can become obstacles to our attaining scientific truth" (Nickles, 2003:50).

In an attempt to find an answer to the question "What is knowledge?" Perkins (2008:8-9) distinguishes between three kinds of knowledge: possessive, performative and proactive knowledge. In possessive knowledge the focus is on acquiring, memorising and reproducing factual information. Its spirit seems functional, a matter of direct retrieval and straightforward application. Perkins acknowledges that possessive knowledge can be "troublesome" because of its volume and the pressure to memorise so many facts.

When students recognise that they can reason within the parameters of disciplines and contexts, knowledge takes on a more active form, the performative conception (Perkins, 2008:6). The performative conception foregrounds not just how much knowledge you have, but also how much you can do with what you have. Even though you need possessive knowledge to progress to performative knowledge in the sense that you need to acquire it in order to think with it, performative knowledge goes beyond possession. On the performative view, understanding is reflected in flexible thinking, reasoning, making predictions, and the ability to critique, build and invent. Most lecturers are satisfied when their students have progressed beyond possessive knowledge to knowledge-as-understanding (Perkins, 2008:4).

Perkins (2008:5) points out, however, that "knowledge needs to function proactively if it is to function at all". In the complex contemporary world, it is vital that education prepares students to apply formally acquired knowledge beyond classroom settings. Proactive knowledge emphasises what we do with what we know, not only within but also outside of settings of formal study; proactive knowledge acquired in one context can be applied in another context. It is characterised by another mindset, a disposition

towards inquiry and creativity and the ability to make connections across diverse contexts (2008: 8).

According to Perkins (2013), organising teaching around threshold concepts can contribute to all three elements of proactive learning: the ability to apply knowledge with understanding, to engage actively with knowledge, and to apply knowledge actively, creatively and imaginatively in various contexts to form the basis for further inquiry. Threshold concepts constitute cognitive 'hooks' that the student can use to apply knowledge effectively. Moreover, knowledge structured around threshold concepts becomes richer and more meaningful. As such, it helps students to engage actively with new knowledge. However, as Perkins (2008a:14) points out, "educating for proactive knowledge calls for a shift from a culture of demand to a culture of opportunity. In a culture of opportunity, what learners do – the range of choice, the contexts of application, the spectrum of motives and feelings involved, and many other aspects – becomes more open and ranges more widely".

Korosteleva (2010:37) used the threshold concept approach to teach students European Politics. She expected that by laying conceptual foundations for the subject and exposing their interconnectedness with broader issues within and beyond the discipline, it would reduce the amount of information students had to retain and would motivate them to become independent learners. She concluded that the threshold-concepts approach provides students with sufficient core knowledge of the subject. It also gives them a valuable skill that increases their capacity for independently exploring broader issues by relating them to their learning and experience of the threshold concepts. Korosteleva found that students' experience of learning was far more memorable and satisfactory, ascribing this to the fact that they were learning to think rather than strategically regurgitating declarative information with the sole purpose of passing their exams. In the process, they were naturally expanding the boundaries of knowledge they acquired.

Korosteleva (2010:48) admits that it can be complicated to identify threshold concepts, since it ultimately involves a strategic minimisation where the whole discipline is effectively reduced to a few concepts; such concepts would then serve to provide "a road map for independent navigation of interrelated issues". She cautions lecturers to be aware of possible compromises one has to make when experimenting with learning that is more flexible. Furthermore, merely introducing threshold concepts may not be sufficient to ensure learning that is more effective. The approach will be more effective if it is aligned with the respective teaching and learning activities, and when students can learn actively (Korosteleva, 2010:48).

In the present study, technical terminology in the field of Political Science was taught within the broader Academic Literacies framework, while teaching was organised around threshold concepts. As already stated in section 2.3.2, however, it is important to

integrate academic support material into the mainstream curriculum. Accordingly, since the current study is aimed at supporting EDP students in their two mainstream Political Science modules, the course frameworks of these modules were consulted before the study was undertaken. Interviews were also conducted with the mainstream lecturers to establish what they regard as the most important concepts in their specific modules. These qualitative aspects of the study will be discussed in Chapter 5.

An important consideration in the design of the current study was that the technical terminology is not taught within an instrumentalist and skills-based approach to academic literacy, where technical terminology is taught as an autonomous skill that is not integrated into the discipline. Consequently, in order to do justice to a complex discipline like Political Science, it was necessary to clarify the role of key concepts in the discipline before considering how explicit engagement with these concepts can improve successful learning.

2.8.2.2 Teaching concepts in Political Science

As pointed out in section 2.3.1, Lea and Street (2006:369) contend that academic writing demands very specific skills, lamenting the fact that some skills that are required by the various disciplines are simply assumed and not made explicit to academic novices. While the Study Skills approach is widely criticised because it assumes that students will develop the ability to transfer their decontextualised skills from one context to another, Lea and Street mention the example of the writing and literacy practices within a law school, where a skills model focusing on the surface features of texts would fit into an Academic Literacies model.

Similarly, the Study Skills approach can be used effectively to introduce students step-by-step to the most important concepts in the subject field. Students would then be expected to familiarise themselves with a certain number of concepts individually before they arrive at a tutorial or class for a contextualised, deeper discussion of a topic that assumes basic knowledge of a certain number of key concepts. This method could even involve prior rote learning as long as the concepts subsequently become embedded in the subject-field through critical engagement and repeated discussions to achieve conceptual clarity.

As was mentioned in section 2.3.2, the Academic Socialisation approach is based on the premise that students must familiarise themselves with the basic building blocks of a particular academic discipline to be able to participate in its discourse. In this approach, the focus is on students' assimilation (or acculturation) into disciplinary and subject-based discourses and genres. A potential risk in the application of this approach (which may also apply to Academic Literacies), however, is that students may simply mimic the discourses of the disciplines without really understanding and engaging with the content.

What is required, instead, is that the teaching of concepts should be embedded in the discipline; furthermore, technical concepts should be taught explicitly as a resource for meaning-making to enable alternative voices to participate in established disciplinary discourses.

In this regard, it is noteworthy that Heywood (2000:7) makes the following remarks about the role of key concepts in Political Science:

> [C]oncept formation is an essential step in the process of reasoning. Concepts are the 'tools' with which we think, criticise, argue, explain and analyse. Merely perceiving the external world does not in itself give us knowledge about it. In order to make sense of the world we must in a sense impose meaning upon it, and we do this through the construction of concepts. Concepts, in that sense, are the building blocks of human knowledge.

The notion of concept formation thus opens up meaning-making possibilities for lecturers as well as students. This can expand the dominant linguistic conventions in that it enables alternative voices to participate in the process of concept formation, if provision is made for this possibility in the curriculum, learning material and teaching. In the case of a textbook glossary, students should be able to add relevant concepts from their cultural, political and linguistic communities. Through the knowledge production practices of the subject-field, new terms can then be coined, and their definitions can be proposed and discussed. Ultimately, this can contribute to the process of building human knowledge.

Heywood (2000:7) cautions that many political concepts are used in everyday political and social debates. It is therefore important to define terms and concepts meticulously and unambiguously to distinguish them from the misrepresentations that are common in everyday political debates. Furthermore, professional politicians also use political concepts. According to Heywood, they are primarily interested in political advocacy rather than political understanding. As a consequence, politicians often use language in a manipulative and confusing manner. Another reason to define political concepts accurately is that they are inextricably linked to ideological beliefs. These concepts are often ambiguous and 'loaded' with value judgements and ideological implications of which students may be unaware.

According to Heywood (2000:10), one should also be careful not to treat concepts as though they have a concrete existence, separate from and in some sense more important than the human beings who use them. Treating concepts in this manner would imply that they are regarded as things rather than devices for understanding things. He calls this "the fetishism of concepts", when they are in fact only analytical tools that should be regarded as more or less useful and not necessarily as 'true' or 'false.'

Heywood (2000:5) distinguishes as follows between normative and descriptive concepts: "Normative concepts are often described as 'values'; they refer to moral

principles or ideals, that which should, ought or must be brought about. His examples include 'liberty', 'rights', 'justice', 'equality', and 'tolerance"; descriptive (or positive) concepts, in contrast, "refer to 'facts' which supposedly have an objective and demonstrable existence". Heywood goes on to cite examples such 'power', 'authority', 'order' and 'law' which would be regarded as descriptive rather than normative since "[i]t is possible to ask whether they exist or do not exist". He acknowledges, however, that the problem with political concepts is that facts and values are inextricably linked, and that even concepts that seem descriptive are "loaded" with moral and ideological implications. It is therefore hardly possible to divorce a descriptive concept from value judgements.

Heywood (2000) notes that one particularly influential reaction to the value bias of political concepts has been the insistence on "political correctness" in the use of political concepts. Feminists, civil rights activists and representatives of minority groups have been proponents of political correctness in an attempt to create awareness of racist, sexist and other derogatory or disparaging language. The underlying assumption is that language reflects the power structure of society in general, and so entrenches the power of the dominant groups versus subordinate ones. Heywood mentions the concepts of 'man' or 'mankind' to refer to human beings, referring to ethnic minorities as 'negroes' or 'coloureds', and the concept of 'third world' or 'underdeveloped' to refer to developing world countries (even though 'developing world' is also criticised for implying that the Western model of development is universally applicable). The goal of political correctness is thus to develop unbiased terminology to facilitate political discussion with non-discriminatory language (Heywood 2000:6).

A further problem that Heywood (2000:6-7) raises is that there is no conceptual agreement about political concepts such as 'true' democracy, 'true' freedom and 'true' justice. Some scholars have therefore suggested that these concepts should be regarded as "essentially contested concepts" and that competing versions of the concept may be equally valid. Heywood emphasises, however, that no concept is "essentially" contested in the sense that disagreement is fundamental to its nature. Furthermore, some concepts are now contested while their meanings were previously widely accepted. For that reason, Heywood proposes that it is perhaps better to talk about "currently" or "contingently" contested concepts.

Heywood (2000:11) refers to an important thinker in Political Science, Max Weber (1864-1920), who attempted to deal with the definition of concepts by classifying particular concepts as 'ideal types'. Heywood points out that ideal types are explanatory tools, not representations of reality; they neither exhaust reality nor offer an ethical ideal. Concepts such as 'democracy,' 'human rights' and 'capitalism' are thus more clear-cut and coherent than the complex realities they describe. It should also be borne in mind that concepts are not fixed and eternal. Over time, they might change to reflect

new political realities and events. This has important implications for the teaching and assessment of concepts that form part of the research design discussed in Chapter 3.

This discussion of how concepts are treated in the subject-field of Political Science and how their meanings have changed over time illustrates why it is important that the teaching and assessment of the technical concepts of a subject-field must be embedded in that subject-field. This overview also has important implications for the teaching and assessment of concepts that form part of the research design discussed in Chapter 3.

Having discussed the teaching of technical terminology against the background of the various approaches to academic literacy, we now turn our attention to the manner in which the issue of academic literacy has been addressed in the South African context.

2.9 Academic literacy in South Africa

2.9.1 Approaches to developing academic literacy in South Africa

The history of Academic Development in South Africa is documented by Volbrecht and Boughey (2004) and Myers and Picard (2007). Volbrecht and Boughey (2004) distinguish three stages in Academic Development, although they admit that there are significant similarities between them. In fact, some of the Academic Development practices associated with each stage have overlapped and still co-exist in some cases. Myers and Picard (2007) refer to these three stages as 'models' in their overview of Academic Development in South Africa. Both groups of authors distinguish between the Academic Support (AS), Academic Development (AD) and Higher Education Development (HED) stages/models. A brief overview of these stages/models is presented below. This overview is relevant to the current study in that it sheds some light on how universities have dealt with the academic support needs of students from diverse backgrounds, and it also serves to contextualise the research that was undertaken in the present study. It should be noted, though, that the three models described below are not representative of all the approaches to academic literacy in South Africa. Moreover, they are not always clearly recognisable at the various institutions, and different faculties of an institution may also follow different models or combinations of models.

2.9.1.1 The Academic Support (AS) model

According to Volbrecht and Boughey (2004:59), the provision of academic support to university students started in the late 1970s. It was initially intended to provide support to a small number of Black students who gained admission to English-medium, historically White universities and who were considered 'underprepared' for study at higher education level. The premise of early Academic Support initiatives was that the phenomenon of 'disadvantage' or 'underpreparedness' was intrinsic to the individual. This meant that students' 'problems' were attributed to insufficient English language

proficiency or a lack of conceptual knowledge and study skills. These 'problems' were then addressed in adjunct courses (generally separate from mainstream courses) by academic support staff or language and/or literacy lecturers, as opposed to disciplinary experts or mainstream lecturers (Boughey, 2007:7).

Boughey (2013:26) states that this early stage of academic development in South Africa employed a model of language as a means of communicating fixed ideas and concepts, with the primary focus on language forms such as grammar and punctuation. She notes that this model was influenced by international developments in the field of English Language Teaching, where particular emphasis is placed on the functional purpose of language.

According to Weideman (2013:13), the conceptualisation of what constitutes academic literacy in South Africa has changed over time. The initial skills-based, restrictive view of academic language skills, rooted in behaviourism, has made room for a more open idea of academic discourse that acknowledges that competence in language is far more than the separate skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Interestingly, Boughey (2013:25) found in her analysis of submissions to the 2012 annual conference of the Higher Education Learning and Teaching Association of Southern Africa (HELTASA) that in practice, the most dominant discourse in academic literacy in South Africa still constructs literacy as a set of neutral skills. These observations of Weideman and Boughey seem to indicate that even though some academic literacy theorists might have realised that competence in language is more than the acquisition of a set of skills, the practical reality shows that a skills-based approach is still prevalent at many higher education institutions. This might be attributed to the fact that lecturers in the disciplines, as well as academic literacy lecturers, do not necessarily have wider institutional support to integrate academic literacy into the mainstream programmes.

2.9.1.2 The Academic Development (AD) model

Volbrecht and Boughey (2004:62–63) note that the initial explanation for the problems experienced by Black students entering tertiary institutions was gradually challenged. With reference to Tollefson (1991), they indicate that the neo-classical understanding of the constructs of 'disadvantage' or 'underpreparedness' was replaced by a more historical-structural explanation. Towards the middle of the 1980s, the National Education Crisis Committee (NECC) facilitated the establishment of the radical reform movement known as People's Education. The idea behind People's Education was that changes at curriculum level could empower and transform the wider society.

This initiative had an impact on the interventions employed in some academic support settings. The focus in these academic support interventions shifted to the development of higher education institutions in order to meet the changing demography of the student population, instead of focusing mainly on the development of the individual who had to meet the demands of the institution. The deliberate change of the name of 'Academic

Support' to 'Academic Development' was in line with the belief that the institution needed to develop the capacity to meet the changes in student population which were expected to follow from the shift to a new democratic order. According to Volbrecht and Boughey, 'Academic Development' was now defined as:

> an open set of practices concerned with improving the quality of teaching and learning in Higher Education and Training through integrating student, staff, curriculum, institutional and research development (Volbrecht & Boughey, 2004:58).

Whereas students' insufficient command of language was initially regarded as the source of all language and literacy related 'problems,' the BICS/CALP distinction[15] made Academic Development practitioners aware of the fact that the difficulties students were facing could not be ascribed to language use *per se.* The main challenge for students, it seemed, was to use academic language to do cognitively demanding tasks in a 'context-reduced' environment. This realisation moved the focus away from students as the 'source' of language and literacy problems (Boughey, 2013:27).

The 'infusion model' called for closer integration between Academic Development work conducted in adjunct special units, centres or programmes, on the one hand, and mainstream programmes and lecturers on the other. In this model, Academic Development professionals use their expertise and experience of student support to address issues of curriculum design, teaching and management, either on their own or in collaboration with lecturers.

In the infused approaches, a regular course is augmented by teaching intended to develop literacy and conceptual understanding. The periods allocated to teach the augmented course are then increased by a minimum of 50%. Boughey (2013:34) states that this kind of approach is preferable to what she calls 'stand-alone' courses that teach generic skills without collaborating with the disciplines. However, she admits that the success of these approaches depend on whether there is proper cooperation between the disciplinary experts and the Academic Development practitioners, who normally have to teach the augmented courses (2013:35).

Myers and Picard (2007:44) note that by 1999 most universities realised that the earlier Academic Support model (which was discussed above in section 2.9.1.1) was untenable in a situation where the majority of students were regarded as 'underprepared'. However, there were still some institutions, especially Afrikaans-medium universities, with fewer Black students, which persisted with the Academic Support model.

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[15] Cummins (1979) makes a distinction between two components of the construct of 'language proficiency.' The first, basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS), refers to conversational fluency, and the second, cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP), refers to "the extent to which an individual has access to, and command of the oral and written academic registers of schooling" (Cummins, 2000:67) .

In the Academic Development model, one possible way of integrating academic literacy into the various disciplines is described as follows by Myers and Picard:[16]

> Language and academic skills form part of the mainstream curriculum in order to integrate the student into the academic culture of the institution. Academic language and literacy professionals work in collaboration with subject experts to incorporate language and study skills within the mainstream curricula. Although assessment practices continue to have a traditional summative focus, new assessment methods and cultural assumptions underlying specific assessment tasks, are explored (Myers & Picard, 2007:45).

However, as is the case with the augmented courses mentioned above, the reality is that the capacity of academic language and literacy professionals to influence curriculum, teaching or management depends on the preparedness of mainstream lecturers to work with them, or on the influence they are able to wield at institutional (Faculty and Departmental) levels.

2.9.1.3 The Higher Education Development (HED) model

According to Myers and Picard (2007:45), the Higher Education Development (HED) model marks a shift in focus away from developing 'the underprepared student' to highlighting the need for changes in policy and practice within institutions. As in the Academic Literacies model (cf. section 2.3.3), the student is no longer regarded as the only one who must adjust to meet the expectations of academic study; the academic institution must also change to meet the diverse needs of students. Hence the HED model requires a critical evaluation of existing teaching and assessment practices. The pertinent questions raised in this model are whether the assessment practices are valid; whether assessment develops and evaluates learning; and whether assessment practices are transparent.

In line with the HED model, Leibowitz (2009) maintains that it is the responsibility of the academic institution to ensure that students from diverse socio-cultural backgrounds can participate freely in teaching and learning activities. In this regard, she (2009:96) specifically singles out lecturers who are responsible for structuring the curriculum, stating that this should be done responsively so that students can engage and grow academically; the students, in turn, have the responsibility to exercise agency and to learn.

According to Volbrecht and Boughey (2004:66), the radical transformation objectives of People's Education[17] were effectively abandoned after the 1994 elections, largely because of the lower priority given to academic reform objectives, the development of a

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[16] This approach corresponds with the collaborative approach advocated by Carstens (2013).

[17] The replacement of the 'revolutionary and populist discourse' of People's Education with the 'less radical and more reformist and consensual political discourse' of the African National Congress (ANC) and Congress of South African Trade Unions (COSATU) is discussed in more detail by Kraak (1999).

rigid macro-economic framework, the economic realities of globalisation and the filtering through of market forces into higher education. At the same time, the left socialist discourse of the struggle years was also replaced with a neo-liberal discourse and mindset. Globalisation[18] and its demands took precedence over the earlier transformation and redistribution discourse.

Balancing the claims of equity (linked to the democratic national project of reconstruction and development) and efficiency (linked to the neoliberal project of becoming globally competitive), became a major challenge to those concerned with managing change in higher education (Volbrecht & Boughey, 2004:68).

On the one hand, the newly imposed fiscal discipline and budgetary constraints had a detrimental impact on Academic Development in that practitioners faced even greater job insecurity. On the other hand, the sudden demand for 'high skills' to ensure that South Africa can compete in a rapidly globalising economy meant that there was now a need for the teaching and learning expertise of Academic Development practitioners. As a consequence, Academic Development practitioners moved away from the margins of academic life to the more prestigious fields of curriculum and staff (Volbrecht & Boughey, 2004:68).

In line with the development that Volbrecht and Boughey observed at some higher education institutions in South Africa, a topic that is generating debate in the context of academic literacy in South Africa is the issue of adjunct approaches versus collaborative approaches (Jacobs, 2010; Butler, 2013; Carstens, 2013; Jacobs, 2013; Van Dyk & Van de Poel, 2013; Van de Poel & Van Dyk, 2015). This debate centres around the question as to whether academic literacy should be taught in separate courses from the mainstream disciplines, or whether it should be integrated into mainstream programmes. Whereas Carstens (2013:119) categorises curriculum dimensions and teaching practices on a continuum from 'most collaborative/most integrated,' through 'intermediate,' to 'least collaborative/most autonomous' positions, Van de Poel and Van Dyk (2015:168–173) distinguish three distinct constructs. These are 'generic academic literacy courses,' 'subject-specific academic literacy courses,' and 'academic literacy taught in symbiosis with subject-specific content.'

Carstens (2009:228) undertook two separate studies to examine the effects of generic ('wide-angled') and subject-specific ('narrow-angled') academic literacy interventions. She found that the subject-specific interventions were more effective in helping students master the resources for meaning-making in academic discourse. Carstens (2009:244) attributed the success of these interventions to students' increased motivation at the prospect of improving their performance in their content subjects. However, she found that even though the effect of the generic approaches was not as significant as the

[18] For a discussion of the effects of globalisation on higher education in South Africa, see Eggins (2003).

subject-specific ones, it was still better than no intervention at all. Still, despite appearing to be more beneficial than generic interventions, subject-specific interventions may perhaps be unrealistic as very few higher education institutions have the resources to offer writing modules tailor-made for every discipline. As a result, Carstens suggests alternative models for subject-specific teaching of academic writing, such as collaboration with content lecturers in a team-teaching or adjunct-teaching context, or a combination of subject-specific and generic designs in the same course. In support of such alternative models, Carstens (2013:118) reports on a number of subsequent studies which show that an 'integrated' approach can be successful if the collaboration between the content lecturer and the academic literacy practitioner is conducted in a systemic manner.

According to Van Dyk and Coetzee-Van Rooy (2012:20), the advantage of 'disseminated approaches' is that students regard academic literacy as an integral part of their specific mainstream subjects and are better motivated to take the academic literacy component of those courses seriously. The disadvantage is that subject specialists will always treat language as something additional when they have the task of language development in mainstream modules. Subject specialists will necessarily give preference to content that has to be covered. Moreover, they can justifiably claim that language or academic literacy development is not their responsibility, because their primary concern is to teach the content of their particular disciplines. Van Dyk and Coetzee-Van Rooy further argue that it is unlikely that subject-specialists will know what academic literacy entails and how to include language and literacy development in a mainstream course. In a later publication, Van Dyk and Van de Poel (2013) come to the following conclusion:

> Current debates concerning ideological vs. autonomous approaches, integrated or embedded modules vs. stand-alone modules, generic modules vs. discipline specific modules, etc. do not seem to contribute to responsible decision making – as far as we know there is no conclusive evidence that one is necessarily better than the other; all have advantages, disadvantages and limitations. To strike a balance between being informed and being responsible seems to be key here (Van Dyk & Van de Poel, 2013:60).

After the overview of approaches to the development of academic literacy in the South African context, the discussion will now focus on an issue which is pertinent to the South African higher education landscape, namely multilingualism.

2.9.2 Multilingualism as a resource for meaning-making

The model of additive bilingualism in basic education referred to in Chapter 1 is generally regarded as the progressive stance on acquiring literacy in South Africa. The basic assumption is that language separation is good, that the two languages should be developed separately, and that their monolingual character should be protected. According to Garcia (2009:141-142), subtractive as well as additive models of

bilingualism regard the two languages as bounded, autonomous systems, a view that is not adequate to describe the linguistic complexity of the 21st century.

According to McKinney, Carrim, Marshall and Layton (2015:109), the "monoglossic" approach to bilingualism represents a unitary view of language. In contrast, in terms of the "heteroglossic" approach, language is viewed as a diverse set of resources that includes practices such as code-meshing, poly- and translanguaging as well as notions of contemporary urban vernaculars and linguistic repertoires. "Heteroglossia refers to the potential in all language use, across a range of domains (e.g. in and out of school); across geographical spaces (urban/rural and hybrids) and across modes, including spoken and written" (McKinney et al., 2015:110).

Garcia (2009:143) proposes two other models of bilingualism to address this linguistic complexity, namely recursive and dynamic bilingualism. Recursive bilingualism occurs when the ancestral language practices of a community have been suppressed or neglected for a long time even though the community may still be using their language in traditional ceremonies. This form of bilingualism does not start out from monolingualism, but has its origins in linguistic communities that are already bilingual. These language practices are reconstituted for new functions as they gradually take their rightful place in society.

Recursive bilingualism aims to revitalise ancestral languages, especially languages that have been neglected both institutionally and socially. When the media of instruction are not seen in higher education as compartmentalised and bounded entities that should be kept apart, the opportunity arises for African language students in academic literacy contexts to come up with new terms where existing African language dictionaries or glossaries do not make provision for them. Students with African home languages can engage critically with their fellow African language students in an effort to find consensus on technical concepts that do not occur in the dictionaries. In this bottom-up approach they can help to reclaim African languages as intellectual languages. With reference to the key role that dictionaries can play in the intellectualisation of African languages, Nkomo and Wababa (2013:355) caution, however, that the revitalisation of an African language like isiXhosa requires a critical re-evaluation of cultural prejudices and offensive vocabulary to consider the legal, as well as ethical imperatives of contemporary South Africa.

Sauls (2013) analysed various isiXhosa texts which were published from 2000 to 2013 to focus on the current orthography of isiXhosa. He notes various anomalies and inconsistencies in the spelling of isiXhosa words in the different texts. He concludes that "there should be definite progress towards greater standardisation of isiXhosa. This will empower the language and will enable it to fulfil its role more effectively within the current constitutional environment where the principles of multilingualism and more

comprehensive recognition of all the official languages within the spheres of education, trade and industry as well as science are advocated Sauls (2013:224).

In the case of "dynamic bilingualism", bilingualism/multilingualism is used as a resource for meaning-making to deepen students' learning (Garcia, 2009:144). This approach to bilingualism recognises the value of heteroglossic discourses and language practices, and acknowledges the student's home language practices by using them to scaffold more complicated content in English. Garcia suggests that "translanguaging" be used as a strategy to help multilingual students to make meaning of what they learn.

Williams (1996:193) was the first to use the Welsh word "trawsieithu", which was later translated as "translanguaging". The term means receiving information through the medium of one language (e.g. English) and using it through the medium of another language (e.g. Welsh). The one language is thus used to reinforce the other. Both languages are used in an integrated and coherent way to organize and mediate mental processes in learning so that students can make sense of their learning.

Garcia (2009:140) defines translanguaging (which includes code-switching) as:

> the linguistic features and practices which bilingual people employ to maximise communicative potential in the process of making sense of their world. It is an approach to bilingualism that is centered, not on languages as has often been the case, but on the practices of bilinguals in order to make sense of their multilingual worlds.

Stroud and Kerfoot (2013:401) acknowledge the contribution of Academic Literacies in that this approach creates new spaces of engagement and an awareness of the disputed traditions of academic discourses in knowledge-making. Academic Literacies might also contribute to the possibility of problematising and questioning the discursive conventions associated with different academic discourses and traditional notions of knowledge construction and the prescriptions of what counts as academic writing. This paves the way for the study of neglected dimensions in knowledge construction, such as issues of power and authority, identity and identification. However, Stroud and Kerfoot (2013:397) point out that what is further needed is a radical re-conceptualisation of the design of academic language and literacy programmes, and a transformative understanding of multilingualism in higher education and its role in teaching and learning. To achieve this, they argue for the provision of transformative academic language and literacy programmes, which are not restricted to academic writing.

Stroud and Kerfoot (2013:402) argue that the multiple languages and language varieties which students bring to university should not be seen as an obstacle, but as an advantage in their construction of knowledge. They propose the use of "translanguaging" as a pedagogic resource, for scaffolding and deepening conceptual understanding in academic disciplines. In the process, translanguaging can contribute to building academic registers in African languages through bottom-up processes in which

students become co-creators of knowledge. This will have the added bonus that it will contribute to the intellectualisation of African languages.

Hornberger (1990) proposes a comprehensive, ecological model, the continua of biliteracy, as a way to position research, teaching, and language planning in multilingual environments. The "continua of biliteracy model" defines biliteracy as "any and all instances in which communication occurs in two (or more) languages in or around writing" (Hornberger, 1990:213). She explains that "[t]he purpose of using the continuum as the basic building block of the model is to break down the binary oppositions so characteristic of the fields of bilingualism and literacy and instead draw attention to the continuity of experiences, skills, practices, and knowledge stretching from one end of any particular continuum to the other" (Hornberger, 2004:156). After a study that was conducted in 2000 in South Africa, examining the community and classroom challenges inherent in implementing multilingual language policies, Hornberger concluded that multilingual interaction in the classroom is inevitable and desirable if multilingual learners are to be encouraged to participate in the classroom, in academic success, and, ultimately, in a truly democratic society. She points out, however, that linguists and language educators must work with language planners and language users to work towards the implementation of multilingual language policies (Hornberger, 2002:45).

Lillis and Scott (2007:19) acknowledge that much of the initial Academic Literacies research originated in Anglophone contexts; therefore, it is not surprising that the emphasis has been on monolingual writing practices and writing in the medium of English. They point out, however, that multilingual practices are becoming pertinent at school level and in professional academic writing in Academic Literacies research.

There have been a number of multilingual interventions in higher education in South Africa over the past decade. What is noteworthy of these interventions is that their focus is not on language per se, or the promotion of minority languages as media of instruction as such. These multilingual projects aim to facilitate multilingual students' understanding of subject-specific content and concepts in a language that will help them to make sense of their learning.

Mawonga, Maseko and Nkomo (2014:55) highlight the importance of translation in the development of educational resources in African languages at South African universities. They note that the language legislation governing higher education includes, inter alia, the Higher Education Act (1997) and the Language Policy for Higher Education (2002) provides clear guidelines for the implementation of language policies at higher education institutions. This legislation is aimed at promoting multilingualism and developing previously marginalised indigenous African languages (Mawonga et al., 2014:60). They point out that several South African universities have benefited from multilingualism projects facilitated by the SANTED Programme which

was intended to assist the national Department of Education in the transformation of the South African higher education sector. These universities include the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN), Durban University of Technology (DUT), Rhodes University (RU) and the University of Cape Town (UCT). UKZN, in collaboration with DUT, developed an English-isiZulu terminology list and glossaries in the following disciplines: Education, Nursing (midwifery), Psychology, and Dental Assisting. UCT developed multilingual (English-isiXhosa-Afrikaans) glossaries in Statistics, Mathematics, Economics and Law. RU developed various multilingual glossaries, including bilingual (English-isiXhosa) glossaries in Computer Science and Political Philosophy (Mawonga et al., 2014:66-67).

The Centre for Political and Related Terminology in Southern African Languages (CEPTSA) aims to promote the usage of political and related terminology in Southern Africa. They published the bilingual Modern Political Dictionary (MPD) in 2011. Their source language is English and Afrikaans was initially their target language. However, the Centre has also compiled a list of 1000 core Political Science terms in Tswana, Northern Sotho, Zulu and Xhosa. It provides a terminological and subject-related service to lecturers and students in a wide variety of subject-fields (Alberts, 2015:461).

At Stellenbosch University, where this study was undertaken, similar multilingual (English-isiXhosa-Afrikaans) glossaries have been developed by the Language Centre. This culminated in the launch of its trilingual terminology website on 23 November 2015[19]. Currently there are approximately 6 000 terms available on the website. These terms are sorted into terminology lists covering a wide variety of subject-fields. Users can select the subject-field, type the required term in the search bar, click on the search icon and then the term is displayed with its definition in all three languages. The Education Faculty at Stellenbosch University has developed a similar online multilingual platform, Mobilex, where staff and registered students have access to seven different multilingual (English-isiXhosa-Afrikaans) glossaries. These initiatives have made a laudable contribution to the intellectualisation of isiXhosa and Afrikaans as academic languages at Stellenbosch University and in higher education in general. They have also debunked the myth that isiXhosa is not suitable for higher education.

The development of these multilingual glossaries can play an even more significant role in creating a transformative teaching and learning environment if students and staff can benefit optimally from them. Currently, this wealth of technical terms seems difficult to use in a curriculum where the disciplinary or language support lecturer endeavours to integrate the technical terminology into a multilingual teaching and learning environment. Firstly, the comprehensive trilingual glossaries are not readily available online which makes it difficult for students to get an overview of all the terms that occur in a specific glossary; students must know (and be able to spell) the specific term that

[19] http://www1.sun.ac.za/languagecentre-terminologies/

they want translated. Secondly, it is not always clear from which academic source the technical definitions are derived. This makes it difficult for the disciplinary or language support lecturer and for the students to verify the scientific validity of the definitions, or to get more information about a specific term and its definition. Thirdly, glossaries cannot function in an epistemological void. It has to reflect a true commitment from a discipline to renegotiate its key concepts, basic assumptions and knowledge building processes in a new multilingual and multicultural higher education landscape. These reservations are not unassaible and can be addressed by closer cooperation between the terminologists, translators and subject experts.

To illustrate this point, Antia and Dyers (2015:1-2) caution that several issues must be resolved before the ideal of using languages other than English in South African Higher Education can be realised. If universities want to achieve the goals of transformation, they will have to address entrenched language practices, convictions and language management attitudes in order to create epistemological access to previously marginalised communities. The scope of what constitutes epistemological access ranges from curriculum planning, students' understanding of the content, their participation in creating, negotiating and using knowledge, to acquiring authoritative behaviour, e.g. through reasoning and writing and questions about the very nature of the knowledge offered, its relevance, constitution and intended uses.

Antia and Dyers (2015) point out that the failure of many mother-tongue programmes can be ascribed to the fact that they refuse to recognise that the standardised varieties of languages used in education are sometimes like foreign languages to many learners and do not resemble their home languages. It is necessary that both formal and informal varieties of isiXhosa be maintained and developed. In the case of Afrikaans, there may also be a need to mainstream informal varieties of Afrikaans in the language of teaching and learning. If students identify with a home language, as they are expected to do at registration, the university cannot assume that the student has literacy competence, or academic language proficiency in that language (Antia and Dyers, 2015:20-21).

Carstens (2015) points out in this regard that it is crucial that roleplayers in South African Higher Education develop a multilingual mind-set to acknowledge the reality of the multilingual student corps. She undertook research drawing on students' strongest languages while supporting them to study through the medium of their second language. In this, she investigated the translanguaging processes multilingual students used to create meaning in the teaching and learning context by drawing on all their available linguistic resources. An innovative aspect of her study was that she examined students' opinions about translanguaging as a teaching strategy and as a means for the development of terminology, particularly in African languages. Carstens (2015:1) concludes that "[t]he majority of the respondents reported experiencing cognitive and affective benefits. Despite reservations among some African language speakers about complexity and dialectical variation as barriers, the majority were positive about using

translanguaging as a platform for creating technical terms in African languages". She recommends that translanguaging strategies be investigated systematically from a lecturer and a student perspective with the aim of drawing on students' full linguistic repertoires. This process can have the added benefit of contributing to the intellectualisation of African languages.

Kotze and Hibbert (2012:22) also advocate a bi- or multilingual learning environment where all discourses in African languages and Afrikaans are valued and mobilised for learning. They contend that the multiliteracies approach, supported by multimodal resources, might change the perception that African languages are not suited for learning in higher education. This approach will also contribute to the validation and inclusion of African languages and Afrikaans in higher education. According to Kotze and Hibbert (2012:13), there has been a shift from second language acquisition theories to theories of cognitive and linguistic development in social and discourse theory. The notion of additive bilingualism or mother-tongue based bilingualism has made room for simultaneous biliteracy where it is common that language users move between languages to facilitate teaching and learning. The aim of literacy development, regardless of language, is then to empower communities and individuals to use the languages at their disposal in order to promote their own wellbeing (Kotze and Hibbert 2012:17).

According to Van der Walt (2013:8), students are deprived of practices and tools that they can access and mobilise with relative ease when they are discouraged from using the languages at their disposal for learning, either actively or merely by pretending that other languages do not exist. Van der Walt (2013:14) spells out how students' variety of languages can be used as a resource to improve their understanding in higher education. Most importantly, the literacies that students have already developed must be recognised so that learning and teaching can be improved. Furthermore, the monolingual orientation in higher education which privileges only one medium of instruction must be replaced with a multilingual orientation, since the monolingual orientation does not make provision for intermeshing of languages, within individuals, in communities, and across social domains and communicative practices. Moreover, the monolingual view of teaching inhibits the optimal development of multilingualism. Van der Walt proposes a balanced bilingualism where students and lecturers develop the ability to use languages equally well in all domains and moods. She admits that the challenge will be to develop multilingual teaching and learning practices for widely divergent contexts. However, the development of this multilingual educational material and the acknowledgement of the full repertoire of South African languages can make a substantial contribution to elevate the status of indigenous languages in higher education (Van der Walt, 2013:5).

Paxton (2009) explored how students at the University of Cape Town responded in an Economics course when they have the opportunity to discuss technical concepts in their

mother-tongue. The Economics course had English as medium of instruction, but multilingual students had the opportunity to discuss new Economics concepts in their mother-tongue in peer learning groups, where they code-switched from English to their mother-tongue, to understand the meaning of technical terms with which they were not familiar. She came to the conclusion that learning of economic concepts was restricted by using only students' second language in that they had difficulty grasping new concepts in their second language. Their learning was scaffolded by discussions of concepts in their mother-tongue to broaden their understanding of the subject material.

Madiba (2010) confirmed Paxton's findings when he found that corpus-based multilingual glossaries contributed to ESL students' understanding of complex statistical concepts in their different contexts. He also found that definitions based on concordances are more helpful than de-contextualised dictionary definitions. He cautioned, though, that mere memorizing of definitions will not result in a deep understanding of a concept. In order to develop a deep understanding of a concept, students must understand the meaning of terms in different contexts. Direct vocabulary instruction and explicit concept teaching that make provision for learning in a student's mother-tongue can create new zones of learning possibilities (2010:243).

Van der Walt and Dornbrack (2011:102–103) examined the strategies and processes that successful bilingual (Afrikaans and English) post-graduate students at Stellenbosch University use when different languages are available to deal with discipline-specific content. They describe how these bilingual students successfully used the languages at their disposal for meaning-making when they had the possibility of engaging with bilingual modes of delivery. The results of their study challenge the practice of having a single language of teaching and learning in higher education and provide scientific evidence of how the institutionalised use of two (or more) languages in a higher education institution can boost the development of academic discourses.

Banda (2011:77) became aware of Xhosa students' spontaneous code-switching at the University of the Western Cape in an effort to deepen their conceptual understanding in disciplinary subjects. What was noteworthy, though, was that even though they conducted all their discussions and preparations on academic topics in their mother tongue in an effort to try to construct meaning of the content, they insisted on English as medium of instruction. They also wanted to do all their academic writing in English. He noted, however, that students struggled to translate isiXhosa and English texts systematically while they were discussing them and that they would benefit from translated texts (2011:73). Banda cautions, however, that if a student reads a technical concept in his/her mother-tongue, or even translates it, that is no guarantee that reconstruction of knowledge or transfer of cognitive skills has taken place. Students must learn the necessary strategies to translate knowledge between linguistic and cultural barriers for academic mediation to be useful (Banda, 2011:85).

Klapwijk and Van der Walt (2016:69) link the deteriorating national literacy levels in South African and the fact that the majority of learners in the country have to learn in English, and not in their mother tongues, implying that the latter might have led to declining literacy levels. They investigated multilingual university students' attitudes and perceptions about language where English is used as the medium of instruction. They found that these students demonstrated an increased awareness of their potential to make multilingual contributions in a classroom and an increased desire to include their own languages in education.

According to Klapwijk and Van der Walt (2016:68), students' preference for English as medium of instruction seems to be based mainly on the perception of the importance of English to "succeed" in life and work rather than the actual dominant use of English by the majority of the population. They note that multilingual students often draw on resources they have in other languages. Therefore, it is not uncommon that they use strategies like code-switching and translation to engage with academic material. Students' and lecturers' translanguaging practices furthermore show that they use their available languages as strategic choices in order to understand and negotiate meaning. In short, while students realise the importance of English proficiency, they do not seem convinced that English should be used to the exclusion of their own languages in education; nor do they seem prepared to assimilate into a perceived English culture. Instead, students' home language identity remains strong while their affiliation with English seems to be "largely functional in nature" (Klapwijk & Van der Walt, 2016:78).

Notwithstanding the success of the above-mentioned initiatives, Madiba (2010:327) and Van Dyk and Coetzee-Van Rooy (2012:19) rightly argue that despite South Africa's exemplary policy frameworks for multilingualism in all spheres of life, higher education institutions in South Africa focus primarily on the implementation of multilingualism in general communication while multilingualism in teaching and learning contexts of higher education has not been addressed comprehensively to date.

According to Ramani et al. (2007:207–8), one explanation for the lack of implementation of multilingualism in higher education is the perception that African languages cannot be used as languages of modern rational thought, science and technology in South Africa. From their experience in implementing a dual-medium undergraduate BA degree in Sesotho Sa Leboa and English at the University of Limpopo, they challenge the notion that massive corpus planning is necessary before African languages can be used as media of instruction. They show how terminology as educational resource can be developed in response to the conceptual and communicative needs of students when terminology is developed in the various discipline-specific discourses. Moreover, African languages in their current state are suitable to be used as media of instruction if the focus is on getting learners to grasp new concepts. Lecturers can compensate for the absence of specialist terms by creating terminology through the

well-documented practices of translators, such as transference, transliteration and omission (2007:212).

In considering the possibility of implementing African languages as media of instruction at university, Mesthrie (2008:336–337) notes a number of points to illustrate the complexities of developing Xhosa[20] as a scientific language. In his critique of the 'word list syndrome,' he questions the usefulness of developing multilingual glossaries in higher education. He admits that Xhosa is a lexically rich language, like all African languages, and therefore has the necessary grammatical resources to develop scientific terminology. Nevertheless, the borrowing, neologisms and semantic extensions that characterise ordinary spoken Xhosa have been achieved in close collaboration within language communities. Conversely, he argues, developing multilingual word lists in higher education will not lead to an academic register. The translators who develop the technical terminology lists are entrenched in another language system and thus their expertise comes from the outside, while subject-specific meaning should ultimately be determined by experts and practitioners engaging with the technical terms (2008:331). This means that an African language like Xhosa will have to be used by experts who debate issues with one another, and contribute to science and popular journals to develop as a proper scientific language in higher education (2008:337–338).

This reflects a hierarchical view of knowledge production, an argument which puts first-year students with African languages as mother-tongue at the mercy of experts and practitioners who must first engage with the technical terms and debate issues with one another. However, the studies by Ramani et al. (2007:207–208), Paxton (2009) and Madiba (2010) indicate how students can contribute to an academic register by using technical terminology in their mother languages.

2.10 Synthesis for the present study

In a study where the role of technical terminology in student success is examined, the researcher might be tempted to approach the study from a narrow linguistic perspective. The literature review in this chapter which explored various international and South African approaches to academic literacy (for the purpose of providing epistemological access and to enhance student success) has shown, however, that reading and writing vary in terms of context, culture and genre, and that there is no standard form of academic literacy. As Lea and Street (2006:368) summarise the Academic Literacies model, "[t]he literacy practices of academic disciplines can be viewed as varied social practices associated with different communities. In addition, an Academic Literacies perspective also takes account of literacies not directly associated with subjects and disciplines, but with broader institutional discourses and genres".

[20] Mesthrie consistently refers to the language, isiXhosa, as "Xhosa" in his article.

It seems, therefore, that an Academic Literacies approach which takes its point of departure in Critical Theory on education and Critical Literacy is appropriate for addressing the complex educational, cultural and linguistic situation in South African higher education. The Academic Literacies approach emphasises the importance of making the academic conventions of a discipline overt to academic novices, without subjecting them to an uncritical assimilation into the discipline. This approach therefore implies a focus not only on general academic vocabulary, but also on technical vocabulary which differs from discipline to discipline. It furthermore implies a close integration between language/academic support interventions and disciplinary fields.

The decision was subsequently taken to focus on technical (subject-specific) terminology and to follow an integrated (assimilated) pedagogical approach in the current study, and not an adjunct model. These factors were incorporated into the research design which will be explained in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

As described in Chapter 1, the current study aims to contribute to research on drop-out rates among 'underprepared' first-year students at South African universities. It is hoped that the findings will provide additional insights for developing teaching strategies, curricula and assessment methods to address the broader challenges of epistemological access and student success in an integrated manner.[1] The particular contribution of the research undertaken in the current study is to establish whether subject-specific multilingual terminology can contribute to improving Extended Degree Programme (EDP) students' pass rates, and their experience of success in a mainstream subject. The research design and methodology were accordingly chosen with this specific objective in mind.

The reasons why the description of the research design and methodology follows only after the literature review in Chapter 2 are as follows:

- The literature review in Chapter 2 highlighted the importance of technical (subject-specific) terminology for providing epistemological access to 'underprepared' students (see section 2.8.2). This issue was a determining factor in developing the Political Science glossaries in the current study (as will be described below).
- The literature review also showed that multilingual linguistic resources can contribute to students' meaning-making in culturally and educationally diverse contexts (see section 2.9.2). Since EDP students come from diverse cultural, linguistic and educational backgrounds, the development of multilingual glossaries in the current study was aimed at contributing towards this end.
- The literature review of Chapter 2 also indicated that there can be educational advantages in integrating subject-specific terminology into mainstream subjects (see section 2.3.3). The experiments that were designed for the present research therefore followed an integrated pedagogical approach where the terminological support to EDP students was not provided in a stand-alone or an adjunct academic support course, but was integrated into the mainstream modules in such a way that students could engage critically with the content.

As part of the regular monitoring of mainstream and EDP students' academic progress during 2010-2011, it was noticeable that EDP students consistently had lower pass rates

[1] These broader challenges which form the backdrop of the specific intervention undertaken in the current study were described in detail in chapter 1.

than their mainstream peers in some mainstream modules.[2] These observations led to the literature study on academic and language support, and of educational practices that could offer potential solutions to this problem. This initial stage of theoretical research gave rise to the pilot project (which will be described in more detail in section 3.2 below). One of the insights from the pilot project was that the epistemological framework within which an intervention is done is a determining factor in the approach to the research problem. It was therefore crucial to reflect on this theoretical aspect before a research design for the main study was chosen (see section 3.3 below where the critical realist epistemology which underlies the research design of the current study will be discussed).[3] In terms of a critical realist paradigm, both quantitative and qualitative research methods can be used to find answers to the research problem. The convergent parallel research design was deemed appropriate for the purpose of the main study. This research design, consisting of simultaneous quantitative and qualitative empirical procedures, will be described in more detail in section 3.4.

3.2 Pilot Study

A pilot study is meant to experiment with the research techniques and methods which the researcher envisages, to see how well they will work in practice. Where necessary, these can then still be adapted and modified before embarking on the main study (Blaxter, Hughes & Tight, 2010:138). Although the problem that is investigated in the current study emerged from EDP students' relatively poor pass rates in some mainstream subjects, the pilot study preceding the current study was conducted in an EDP support subject. The aim was to experiment with various pedagogical strategies and language support modes in order to gain deepened insight into the above-mentioned problem, and to explore possible solutions. The pilot study was therefore not conducted as a separate and independent research project, but formed part of the constant reflection in the EDP programme on how to support EDP students towards critical engagement with their mainstream subject content, and to improve their pass rates in the process.

The next subsection (3.2.1) describes the process that was followed, while the subsequent subsections (3.2.2 to 3.2.4) will discuss further issues relating to the pilot study in more detail.

3.2.1 Description of the process

A pilot study is normally done on a smaller sample of the bigger group that will be involved in the main research project with the aim of testing whether the intervention will be effective in a bigger group. The study that would eventually serve as a pilot for the 2013 empirical study was done in a natural educational setting from July to

[2] See section 1.1 where the factors that gave rise to the current study were outlined. It was also indicated in the introductory chapter that Ndebele (2013) observed similar tendencies nationally.
[3] See the discussion in section 1.5.1 where this point was already briefly discussed.

September 2011 in the EDP of the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences at Stellenbosch University. The EDP group that formed the pilot study in this natural educational setting consisted of 112 students with ten different home languages. Of these students, 79 were historically disadvantaged, 58 had Afrikaans as mother-tongue and 15 had African languages as mother-tongue.[4] The main empirical study would eventually be done with groups comparable in profile to the group involved in the pilot study.

A module called 'Politics in practice' was one of the modules that formed part of the EDP support subject, 'Introduction to the Humanities' in 2011. In this EDP support subject, students are introduced to eight different disciplines by eight different experts in their subject fields over a two-year period. The module 'Politics in practice' introduced students to the most important South African, African and international political role-players and issues.

In the pilot study of 2011, the timetable for this EDP academic support subject consisted of three periods per week and one subject tutorial. In the first period of the week, the focus was on language support. The other two periods served as content lectures. While written weekly assignments had to be submitted during most tutorials, oral discussion formed an integral part of students' engagement with the course content.

Written feedback and continuous personal interviews with EDP students about their academic progress in their main and EDP support subjects before the pilot study revealed that the technical terminology presented a major obstacle for their optimal engagement with the content in the various subject fields. In all the first-year modules of the EDP support subject 'Introduction to the Humanities', this initiated a process of collaboration between the researcher/language support lecturer and the guest lecturers from the various disciplines. The language support lecturer started attending content lectures when they were presented for the first time, studied guest lecturers' notes and prescribed readings and compiled technical terminology lists from these sources. The terminology was defined in English, and translated into Afrikaans, after which it was explained, discussed and tested in the weekly language periods. This initial development of terminology lists (or glossaries) for all the first-year modules in 'Introduction to the Humanities' gave rise to a more formal process of compiling glossaries in the 'Politics in Practice' module. This process formed part of the pilot study and will be discussed below in section 3.2.2, but a more detailed description will follow in section 3.4.3.1 where the research design of the main study is provided.

[4] Of the students in this first-year EDP group who were exposed to the pilot study, 26 would eventually form Control Group 3 of the current research project (see description in section 3.4.3) which consisted of second-year EDP students with Political Science 112 and 122 as mainstream modules in 2012. It should be noted, however, that these 'second-year' EDP students were still academic first-years, since EDP students do their first academic year over a two-year period.

The pass rate at the end of the module was 69.6%, which was relatively high for a module in the 'Introduction to the Humanities' EDP support subject compared to the previous years. What was also encouraging, however, was the positive feedback from the diverse student corps about their ability to engage meaningfully with the subject material if they are familiar with the technical terminology of the particular discipline. In discussions about their academic progress students reported that the technical terminology of the support subject also helped them in their two second semester Political Science mainstream modules that year.

The development of the technical terminology lists for the pilot study will be discussed in the subsection below.

3.2.2 Initial development of technical terminology lists

As mentioned above, technical terminology lists were compiled by the EDP language support lecturer in the first-year modules forming part of 'Introduction to the Humanities,' based on the prescribed material of the various guest lecturers. The compilation of technical terminology lists was thus an informal process until the pilot study in 2011. The pilot study required a more formally compiled glossary.

Before the decision was taken to develop a technical glossary for the pilot study, an overview was done of the relevant literature. Various studies show the benefits of multilingual discipline-specific terminology as educational resource in response to the conceptual and communicative needs of multilingual students who struggle with subject-specific terminology, and those who succeed when different languages are available to them when they use them to deal with discipline-specific content.[5] From the studies that were reviewed it was clear that the development of multilingual glossaries should be much more than a practical tool to improve students' marks. The technical terminology of a discipline is one of the academic conventions that inhibit students from meaning-making, or making sense from what they learn in an academic setting. If technical terminology is available in the mother-tongue of 'underprepared' students who must learn through the medium of English, it can help them to make more sense of what they learn. It is also an acknowledgement that students' mother-tongue is a valuable resource that they use when they interact with one another in different academic contexts.

The researcher was tasked with teaching 'Politics in practice' in the second semester of 2011. In preparation for this task, a more formal basis was required for the compilation of a technical terminology list that would be integrated into the content of that module. A comprehensive survey was first done of existing Political Science dictionaries and glossaries in use at South African universities. Thereafter, the researcher consulted

[5] See the literature review in chapter 2 (particularly section 2.9.2).

lecturers in the mainstream Political Science discipline on the prescribed textbooks for their modules in 2011. It emerged that *Politics* (Heywood, 2007) and *Power, Wealth and Global Equity* (McGowan et al., 2006) were used in the first and second terms of the year. Both these books have English glossaries at the back.[6] A comparison was made between terms in those multilingual glossaries available at other institutions and the English terminology in the two prescribed textbooks. Since there were many terms in the textbooks that did not occur in the available glossaries currently in use at other institutions, the decision was taken to have the complete glossaries of the two Political Science textbooks translated.

The first phase of the development of the envisaged trilingual glossaries was started at the beginning of 2011 with funding from the Fund for Innovation and Research into Teaching and Learning (FIRLT).[7] Stellenbosch University established this fund in 2005 to encourage innovation and reflection in teaching and learning.[8] When the pilot study started in July 2011, the isiXhosa translation of the Heywood glossary was only partly completed, and only the English and Afrikaans versions of this glossary were used in the module 'Politics in practice.'[9] After consultation with mainstream lecturers in Political Science, the researcher prescribed a selection of Heywood's chapters which contain core content that must be mastered in the discipline. In this way, the content of the module and the technical terminology support could be integrated into the EDP support subject, but could also serve to support students who would take Political Science as main subject in the following year (2012).

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[6] In the third term, the focus in the mainstream module of Political Science was on African politics for which a reader compiled by the lecturer was provided, while the fourth term concentrated on South African politics. The textbook for the latter module was Butler (2004). The textbook and reader for the third and fourth term modules which would overlap with the pilot study did not have any glossaries, however.

[7] The reason why the glossaries that were used for the current study were initially translated into Afrikaans and isiXhosa is that Afrikaans and isiXhosa, together with English, are the most common home languages of students enrolled at Stellenbosch University where the current study was done. (See http://www.sun.ac.za/english/_layouts/15/WopiFrame.aspx?sourcedoc=/english/Documents/Statistics/2014/Statistiese%20Profiel%202013%20-%20Figuur%205.xlsx&action=default – accessed 17 March 2015.) As was mentioned in Chapter 1 (section 1.1), the drop-out rates in higher education are the highest among Black and Coloured students of all population groups in South Africa. Since most of the Black students at Stellenbosch University have isiXhosa as home language, and most of the Coloured students have Afrikaans as home language, it seemed appropriate to do the initial translation from English into these two languages.

[8] See http://www0.sun.ac.za/ctl/awards-grants/firlt/ (accessed 17 March 2015).

[9] While the methodology used in the translation of the glossaries is not the focus of the present study (for further discussion, cf. Snell-Hornby (2006), a few remarks are in order about the theoretical approach to the translation process. The brief given to the professional Afrikaans and isiXhosa translators was, firstly, to remain as close as possible to the source language, considering that the focus was on technical terms and their definitions, and not on literary texts which require a more dynamic translation methodology. Secondly, they had to consider the expected function of the translated glossaries, namely to make technical terminology accessible to disciplinary novices. Thirdly, they had to be sensitive to the fact that language is embedded in the target community's culture and worldview. Cf. Gutt (1998; 2014) and Nord (2014).

In the next section, a description will be provided of the teaching and learning approach that was followed in the pilot study.

3.2.3 Teaching and learning approach in the pilot study

In the approach to teaching and learning in the 'Introduction to the Humanities' EDP support subject, there is an appreciation for students' divergent educational, cultural and linguistic backgrounds. This is a determining factor in curriculum planning, language support and the choice of assessment methods. Even though the curriculum is planned to cover foundational knowledge from the various subject fields, provision is made for topics that relate to students' everyday realities. In language teaching, grammar skills and vocabulary are taught using subject-specific content taken from guest lecturers' prescribed readings, as well as their readings for enrichment. The language and content lectures are thus closely coordinated.[10]

Some technical terms from the bilingual translation of the glossary (Heywood, 2007), with their definitions, were discussed during the weekly language component periods. Apart from that, students had to learn approximately 20 technical terms with their definitions every week. To help them prepare for the weekly assessments, there were self-assessment questions on the University's Learning Management System that they could practise in their own time.

In the two weekly content lectures, these terms and their definitions were used in bilingual lecture notes and concepts were discussed in depth during lectures. Sometimes a documentary was shown during a lecture to highlight the complexity of one single concept (like 'xenophobia', or 'the Truth and Reconciliation Commission'). At other times a few lectures were devoted to one key concept (like 'democracy', 'the state' or a specific ideology), because these terms have such wide-ranging theoretical and practical implications in the subject field. The fact that students had to learn the technical terminology for the language period meant that they already had a general idea of the concepts when these came up during the content lectures and in prescribed readings.

Students built their knowledge over time through a variety of assessment methods. Some formative assessments that did not count for marks had the purpose of familiarising students with particular core concepts, political role-players and issues. Other assessments took the form of questionnaires for discussion, electronic quizzes, multiple choice questions, free writing, shorter essay questions, oral discussions and presentations.[11]

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[10] The same teaching and learning strategy was eventually followed in the main study. The only difference was that the intervention was integrated into a mainstream subject, and not into an EDP support subject.

[11] The teaching and learning strategy was based on the dialogic model of teaching. See e.g. Shor & Freire (1987) and Alexander (2003). Teaching and learning in the module were further closely aligned with

The above-mentioned teaching and learning approach assumed that the technical terminology lists had the purpose of illuminating the subject content. The focus was therefore not on teaching terminology to second language or foreign language students to make them more fluent in another language in the first place (see section 2.1). The terminology was rather a linguistic means to the end of facilitating understanding and meaning-making in a specific discipline and in a multicultural context (see section 2.3.3). The Academic Literacies framework (the chosen theoretical framework for the current study) emphasises that the cultural environment within which teaching and learning takes place is a determining factor in facilitating understanding and meaning-making, and that various literacies are used in multicultural and multilingual contexts.[12] The teaching and learning strategy used in the pilot study was deliberately chosen to make provision for EDP students' multicultural backgrounds. The multilingual nature of the subject-specific glossaries was therefore a central factor in the teaching and learning approach. The educational goal with the glossaries was to unlock subject-specific content within a multilingual context, and thereby to contribute towards understanding and meaning-making as envisioned in the Academic Literacies framework.

3.2.4 Learning from the pilot study

The experience gained in the pilot study informed the design of the main empirical research. Because the observations of the pilot study were made within a natural educational setting (that is, a setting which was not especially created for the pilot experiment, but formed part of the normal EDP curriculum), no additional empirical data collection was done apart from the marks and pass rates of students (quantitative data) and the informal discussions with mainstream lecturers about prescribed material and with students about their experiences (qualitative data). The following are the most important insights that were gained from these data and the practical experience of the pilot phase:

(i) A determining factor in the choice of any research methodology is the philosophical framework underlying the research. These philosophical frameworks often remain

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various forms of assessment. For a theoretical discussion on this constructivist approach, see Biggs (2012b) as well as section 2.7.2.2 in the literature review. It should be noted that the main study differed in terms of assessment methods. Because the intervention was integrated into a mainstream subject the assessment methods were determined by the mainstream lecturers, and not by the researcher.

[12] In theoretical reflection on the teaching of English as a second and foreign language, some scholars in that field also criticise the disregard for cultural diversity in their teaching practices and curriculum design. See e.g. Pennycook (1990; 1994), Kumaravadivelu (2002; 2003), and Savignon (2007). The latter states the following: "Recognition of the complexity and diversity of language learning contexts has led some to suggest that we have moved 'beyond methods' to a postmethod condition ..., that the quest for a better method has been or should be abandoned in favor of the identification of practices or strategies of teaching designed to reflect local needs and experiences. ... Confrontation of so-called 'real world' issues in language teaching as in linguistic pragmatics generally requires careful documentation of social interaction where and when it takes place. When it comes to methods of language teaching there is clearly no one size that fits all" (Savignon, 2007:218).

hidden or covert in academic enterprises. This does not mean, however, that their presuppositions do not play a significant role in the research methodology and interpretation of the results. It is therefore scientifically accountable to be overt about the underlying philosophical framework(s) which influence a research project. The researcher became aware of this aspect when the experience in the pilot study (where she was still experimenting to find an appropriate method for the main study) converged with her literature study on the topic. In the main study, the researcher therefore took a critical realist epistemology as point of departure, a position that was taken on account of the initial literature review, as well as the experience gained in the pilot study. In order to be overt about this presupposition, the next section (3.3) will be dedicated to a discussion of critical realism as a philosophical framework.

(ii) The findings of the pilot study in the EDP support subject (from the marks and related pass rates, but also from informal discussions with students) seemed to indicate that students benefited from the close integration between the technical terminology support and the subject-specific content of the lectures.

(iii) Consulting lecturers about the prescribed books that were used in the mainstream Political Science subject, and exposing EDP students to some of the content and technical terminology, meant that the language support in the EDP module might have reinforced the mainstream content. From the informal discussions with first-year EDP students who took Political Science as mainstream subject during 2011 (24 in total),[13] it appeared that this aspect might have contributed to their better performance in the EDP support subject, and their more positive experience in the mainstream subject.

(iv) Formal (through the normal student feedback system) and informal (through discussions) feedback from students during and after the pilot study revealed that their engagement and familiarisation with the technical terminology not only seemed to improve their pass rates, but also enhanced their self-confidence and experience of success.

To conclude, while students ostensibly benefited from explicit teaching of the Political Science technical terminology in their EDP support subject in the 2011 study in the EDP module, the relationship between better pass rates and the enhanced experience of success, on the one hand, and the technical terminology intervention, on the other hand, was not yet scientifically proven. The research design of the main study which will be described in detail in section 3.4 below had the purpose of investigating this relationship.

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[13] These 24 EDP students were eventually included in Control Group 2 of the main study. That control group consisted of 39 students in total. However, that group also included second-year EDP students together with the 24 first-year EDP students of 2011. For a description of the control groups and focus group of the main study, see section 3.4.3.3 below.

3.3 Critical Realism as Philosophical Framework

According to Bryman (2012b:29), there are two major forms of realism. The premise of empirical realism (also called naive realism) is that we can understand reality by using the appropriate research methods. The assumption in this form of realism is that there is a close relationship between reality and the terms used to describe it. From the empirical realist perspective, there will thus be a close correspondence between 'student pass rates', which are empirically observable, and the reality described by the term 'student success or failure'.

Critical realism, on the other hand, acknowledges that the categories used to describe and understand reality are only provisional. Accordingly, a distinction is drawn between the objects that are the focus of research and the terms that are used to describe the objects. With reference to Bhaskar's use of the term 'generative mechanisms,' Bryman (2012b:29) notes that critical realism "recognize[s] the reality of the natural order and the events and discourses of the social world and holds that we will only be able to understand and change the social world if we identify the structures at work that generate those events and discourses. ... These structures are not spontaneously apparent in the observable pattern of events; they can only be identified through the practical and theoretical work of the social sciences". Although these generative mechanisms (i.e. "the structures at work that generate events and discourses") are not directly observable, their effects are observable. Therefore, generative mechanisms should form part of theoretical explanations for phenomena. The same applies to the contexts that interact with these mechanisms to produce an observed regularity in the social world.

The pilot study made the researcher aware of the fact that technical terminology support cannot be viewed in isolation without considering further generative mechanisms that contribute to the outcome of an intervention. Although it seemed that the academic intervention of the pilot study had a positive effect on the observable outcome, namely students' pass rates, it was realised that there might have been a complexity of factors that influenced the effect of the intervention. For a richer understanding of this effect, non-observable generative mechanisms thus had to form part of the eventual theoretical explanation.

Bryman (2012b:29) points out that critical realism is 'critical' in that the identification of generative mechanisms offers the prospect of effecting changes that can transform the status quo. In the examination of interventions aimed at improving students' academic literacy/ies and eventual pass rates, this critical philosophical framework complements the Academic Literacies model which was described in section 2.3.3 in the previous chapter. The latter model supports a transformative epistemology of literacy which uses a set of social practices with an explicitly transformative, ideological approach to the object of study. It thus seemed that critical realism as philosophical framework can be a determining factor in finding an appropriate research

design for investigating a complex phenomenon such as the one addressed in the current study. Creswell and Clark (2011:44) indicate that critical realism "is a philosophical framework that validates and supports key aspects of both quantitative and qualitative approaches" in the identification of generative mechanisms. They continue: "While identifying some specific limitations of each, realism ... can constitute a productive stance for mixed methods research and facilitate collaboration between quantitative and qualitative researchers" (Creswell & Clark, 2011:44–45).

Creswell and Clark (2011:45) point out that, while philosophical frameworks or worldviews are not necessarily linked to research procedures, their guiding assumptions often shape how research procedures are constructed. In that sense, worldviews often determine the type of mixed method design that is eventually chosen.

As indicated above, it was realised in the pilot study that there might be a complexity of factors influencing the effect of the intervention. In order to gain insight into this complexity, and to avoid simplistic explanations on account of a limited number of observable generative mechanisms, a convergent parallel research design, based on a critical realist philosophical framework, was chosen for the current study. This research design will now be described in the next section.

3.4 Convergent Parallel Research Design

3.4.1 Introducing the convergent parallel design

The main empirical study that is described in section 3.4 used the convergent (or parallel or concurrent) mixed methods design where both quantitative and qualitative data are collected simultaneously to shed light on the research problem. The researcher analyses the two datasets separately, compares the results of these analyses, and makes an interpretation as to whether the results support or contradict each other. The data is thus merged to inform the research problem. The convergent mixed methods design is used when the researcher regards both quantitative and qualitative data as equally important and relevant as sources of evidence in the study (Creswell, 2012:541). The procedures for these two strategies of data collection and analysis will be described in sections 3.4.3 and 3.4.4 respectively, and the results of the data analysis will be reported in Chapters 4 and 5 respectively.

Creswell (2012:536) further notes that an experimental study can yield useful information about outcomes, but supplementary qualitative data will facilitate a more in-depth understanding of how the experimental intervention actually worked. According to Creswell and Clark (2011:12), the advantage of mixed methods research is that it helps answer research questions that cannot be answered by quantitative and qualitative approaches alone. When used together, the two approaches provide more evidence to measure and observe phenomena in order to find answers to the research problem than quantitative or qualitative research alone. In that sense it provides a

double check for the results of the findings. The procedure for this double-checking, or triangulation, of the quantitative and qualitative results will be described in section 3.4.5 below, and the results of the triangulation will be reported in Chapter 6.

When it comes to educational interventions, such as the current study, the most frequently used research designs are those where two or more groups are compared to one another to evaluate whether a particular intervention reaches its goal(s). This is referred to in the literature as a 'quasi-experiment.'[14] A typical research design will have one group who is exposed to the intervention and one who is not (Bryman, 2012b:57). Pascarella, Terenzi and Feldman (1991:509) note that educational interventions are potentially problematic in that the effects of interventions are not always adequately explained. When this happens, it not only makes an intervention difficult to replicate; it also makes it difficult to replicate an intervention in a different context. Pascarella et al. (1991:516) suggest that qualitative research methods can be used in educational research to complement quantitative approaches. In this way, they can explain the causal effects of academic interventions, since their central concern is understanding. Furthermore, qualitative research methods are also more sensitive to students' divergent academic and non-academic backgrounds and prior experiences.

3.4.2 Description of stages of current study

As is often the case in the Convergent Parallel Design, some of the data collection processes in the current study followed a linear progression and others ran concurrently. This means that some of the quantitative and qualitative phases overlapped in the course of the study. Before the quantitative and qualitative empirical procedures are described (in sections 3.4.3 and 3.4.4, respectively), the table below gives an overview of the various phases of the project. Although not part of the main empirical study, the pilot study is included in the table below in 2011 (in italics) in order to show how the pilot study paved the way for and informed the main empirical study.

Table 3.1 Overview of the phases of the main empirical project

Date	Phases	Explanation
2011	*Exploratory literature review*	*In preparation for the pilot study*
	Development of Afrikaans translation for the 'Introduction to Political Science' glossary (Heywood, 2007)	*In preparation for pilot study*
	Pilot study in the Extended Degree Programme (formal and informal observation of the effect of technical terminology support in an EDP support subject done in a natural educational setting, as described above in section 3.2)	*First exposure of EDP students to technical terminology intervention in an EDP support subject*

[14] The way in which 'quasi-experiments' were employed in the current study will be discussed in more detail in section 3.4.3.3 below.

	Development of isiXhosa translation for the 'Introduction to Political Science' glossary (Heywood, 2007)	*In preparation for main empirical study in 2013*
2012	Further literature study	Reflecting on the seemingly positive results of and procedures used in the pilot study
	Collection of statistical data of 2010-2012 cohorts for main empirical study	Quantitative data collection: (i) Marks of EDP students with Political Science as mainstream subject (modules 112 and 122) (dataset 1) (ii) Marks of all mainstream students in the same Political Science modules (dataset 2)
	Development of Afrikaans and isiXhosa translations of 'International Relations' glossary (McGowan et al., 2006)	In preparation for main empirical study in 2013
Feb-March 2013	First quasi-experiment in mainstream subject 'Introduction to Political Science' (Political Science 112) using Heywood trilingual glossary	First formal experiment of current study
	Document analysis: module outcomes	Qualitative procedure
	Semi-structured interviews with lecturers	Qualitative procedure
	Student questionnaires	Qualitative procedure
	Content analysis (students' writing)	Qualitative procedure
Apr-May 2013	Second quasi-experiment in mainstream subject 'International Relations' (Political Science 122) using McGowan et al. trilingual glossary	Second formal experiment of current study
	Document analysis: module outcomes	Qualitative procedure
	Content analysis (students' writing)	Qualitative procedure
June-Dec 2013	Collection of statistical data of 2013 cohort	Quantitative data collection: (i) Marks of EDP students with Political Science as mainstream subject (modules 112 and 122) (dataset 1) (ii) Marks of all mainstream students in the same Political Science modules (dataset 2)
2014	Statistical analysis of quantitative data (in consultation with SU Statistical Services)	Quantitative procedure
	Analysis of qualitative data	Qualitative procedure
2014-2016	Writing of research report	---

While it should be clear from the above table that the quantitative and qualitative stages of the research process overlapped and were sometimes difficult to distinguish from one another, the two empirical methodologies will nevertheless be treated separately in the

discussion below for the sake of theoretical clarity. Furthermore, the two methodologies employed different sets of data, as well as different strategies of analysis.

Before the research project was initiated, ethical clearance was obtained from the Stellenbosch University Research Ethics Committee: Human Research (Humanities). Documents that were approved included the Informed Consent forms and questionnaires for students participating in the research project, as well as the structured interview schedules for lecturers of the mainstream modules. Official permission was also obtained to use statistical data available at the Stellenbosch University Student Information System and the Department of Political Science in the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences.[15]

Furthermore, before the trilingual technical terminology glossaries were developed, permission was obtained from the publishers of the two textbooks (McGowan et al., 2006; Heywood, 2007). Permission was granted that the English glossaries of these textbooks could serve as sources for the Afrikaans and isiXhosa translations.

3.4.3 Quantitative study in main empirical study

One factor that emerged in Chapter 1 of the current study is that students' pass rates are calculated on the basis of hard statistics, as is evident in university departmental records, official university statistics and Higher Education publications. When it comes to students' pass rates, the same statistical norm applies to everyone. This is why the decision was taken to include a quantitative study in the research design to test if systematic exposure to multilingual technical glossaries has any statistically significant effect on students' pass rates.

As was indicated above (in section 3.4.1), quasi-experiments are often used in educational interventions. The most frequently used research designs are those where two or more groups are compared to one another to evaluate whether a particular intervention reached its goal(s). In order to conduct the quasi-experiments for the current study, it was necessary to develop specific research tools, namely the trilingual glossaries. The development of the trinlingual glossaries is described in section 3.4.3.1.

In contrast to the pilot study which was done in an EDP support subject, the current study employs the integrative model where the experimental intervention is integrated into a mainstream subject. This model will be described in section 3.4.3.2.

Changes in pass rates cannot be observed in a short span of time (such as the once-off example of the pilot study). In this regard, Ndebele (2013:48) points out that sufficient longitudinal data are essential for rigorous trend analysis of students' pass rates in higher education in South Africa. This is the motivation for including a longitudinal

[15] All documents pertaining to the ethical clearance are included in Appendix A.

cohort study, stretching from 2010 to 2013, in the current quantitative procedure. It should be noted that in the current study the aim was not to track one specific cohort's progress over time. Rather, a comparison was drawn between the pass rates of four different EDP cohorts in four consecutive years. A more detailed account of this process will be provided in section 3.4.3.3.

The last subsection in the description of the quantitative study will deal with the strategy that was used in the data analysis (section 3.4.3.4). The results of the quantitative data analysis will be reported in a separate chapter, namely Chapter 4 below.

3.4.3.1 Further glossary development

As was described in section 3.2.2, the first phase of developing trilingual glossaries was completed before the pilot study. That entailed an Afrikaans translation of the Heywood glossary, the version that was used in the pilot study. After the Afrikaans translation was finalised, both English and Afrikaans terms and definitions were sent to the isiXhosa translator to add the isiXhosa terms and definitions. This was completed by the end of 2011, and the Afrikaans and isiXhosa translations were edited during 2012.

The development of the second trilingual glossary (McGowan et al., 2006) commenced at the beginning of 2012. The Afrikaans and isiXhosa translations were completed during that year, as well as the final editing.[16] At the beginning of 2013 the two trilingual glossaries were thus ready for use in the two quasi-experiments.

3.4.3.2 Integration into mainstream modules

After consideration of literature discussing the advantages and disadvantages of 'stand-alone' academic support interventions and 'integrated' or 'disseminated' approaches, and after the experience of the pilot study where the intervention was situated in an EDP support subject (independent of the mainstream), the decision was taken to collaborate with the mainstream lecturers in order to situate the envisioned quasi-experiments of the current study within the mainstream subject. While the effect of this collaboration with the lecturers and integration into the mainstream modules on the results achieved in the current project forms part of the qualitative study, a more in-depth description of the procedures that were followed will be provided in section 3.4.4. In order to explain how the quasi-experiments were set up for the quantitative study, an overview is provided here of how the integration of the language support intervention into the mainstream subject was achieved.

[16] The same brief was given to the translator as in the development of the first glossary. See the description in section 3.2.2.

The researcher liaised with the mainstream Political Science 112 and 122 lecturers to get access to their module frameworks. There were mainly three aspects of these frameworks that were used to develop an integrated approach for the quasi-experiments. Firstly, the aims and outcomes of the two modules were studied in order to ensure that the weekly technical terminology tutorials would support the aims and outcomes of the mainstream modules and would not function as an autonomous academic support module. Secondly, the timeline of the weekly technical terminology tutorials was structured to correspond with the mainstream weekly programme. Thirdly, EDP students' engagement with the technical terminology was informed by the assessment topics that were stipulated in the module frameworks.[17]

3.4.3.3 Process of data collection: two quasi-experiments

As briefly discussed in section 3.4.1, quasi-experiments are often used in educational contexts to compare two or more groups to establish the effect of an educational intervention on one specific group. What quasi-experimental designs have in common with randomised experimental designs is that both involve the manipulation of an independent variable, but in the case of quasi-experiments participants are not randomly assigned to treatment groups. Because quasi-experiments do not provide full control in this regard, it is important that researchers are aware of the threats to internal and external validity (Ary et al., 2013:339). According to Creswell (2012), educational researchers often choose quasi-experiments as research design when they have to use existing, intact groups in educational settings for their research. This has the advantage that they can do research in a natural setting and do not have to find volunteers to participate in their research. However, the quasi-experimental approach is considerably more prone to internal invalidity than the true experiment (2012:310–311). 'Internal invalidity' refers to "the possibility that the conclusions drawn from experimental results may not accurately reflect what went on in the experiment itself" (Babbie, 2007:230). This means that it is more difficult to prove that what the researcher did with the independent variable (in the case of the current study, the educational intervention that was done with the EDP students in 2013) caused the differences in the dependent variable (in the case of the current study, the 2013 focus group's pass rates in Political Science 112 and Political Science 122), or that there is a possible cause and effect relationship between the independent and the dependent variables. According to Babbie (2007:222), "[e]ssentially, an experiment examines the effect of an independent variable on a dependent variable. Typically, the independent variable takes the form of an experimental stimulus, which is either present or absent. That is, the stimulus is a dichotomous variable, having two attributes, present or not present. In this typical model, the experimenter compares what happens when the stimulus is present to what happens when it is not. ... The independent and dependent variables appropriate to

[17] For a further description of these aspects, see subsection 3.4.4.1 below.

experimentation are nearly limitless. Moreover, a given variable might serve as an independent variable in one experiment and as a dependent variable in another." Similarly, quasi-experiments can also be prone to external invalidity. This refers to the lack of generalisability of experimental findings to the real world. Babbie (2007:233) notes that, even if the results of an experiment provide an accurate reflection of what happened during that experiment, they do not necessarily tell us anything about life in the real world.

Bryman (2012b:56) points out, however, that although the absence of random assignment casts doubt on the internal and external validity of quasi-experiments since the groups may not be equivalent, the results of such studies are nevertheless significant, because they are not artificial interventions in social life and because their ecological validity is therefore very strong. The ecological validity of a research study means that the methods, materials and setting of the study must approximate the real-world that is being examined (Brewer, 2000). Scholars (see e.g. Shadish et al. (2002) indicate that the terms 'ecological validity' and 'external validity' are often confused. While they are closely related, they are independent. A study may possess external validity but not ecological validity, and vice versa.

While it is true that quasi-experiments lack randomisation, they can employ other strategies to provide some control over extraneous factors. Even though artificial groups cannot be created in the quasi-experiment, a researcher can match individuals in the focus group and control groups by identifying one or more characteristics that these groups have in common. The more similar students' characteristics or attributes are, the more these characteristics or attributes are controlled in the experiment. This approximates to what Babbie (2007) calls 'nonequivalent control groups.' He indicates that "[s]ometimes, when researchers can't create experimental and control groups by random assignment from a common pool, they can find an existing 'control' group that appears similar to the experimental group. Such a group is called a non-equivalent control group" (Babbie, 2007:359).

Before providing a description of the two quasi-experiments and the comparison with control groups' performance, an overview of all the groups involved and the types of data collected in the project are presented in the table below:

Table 3.2 Overview of groups and data collected in the main empirical project

GROUP	DESCRIPTION	N	DATA COLLECTED
Control Group 1	The EDP cohort of 2010 with whom no intervention was undertaken	31	i. National Senior Certificate (NSC) average % ii. Afrikaans Language Placement test (ALPT) % iii. English Language Placement test (ELPT)
Control Group 2	The EDP cohort of 2011 with whom no intervention was undertaken	39	
Control Group 3	The EDP cohort of 2012 with whom no intervention was undertaken, but who were exposed to the pilot project of 2011	26	

Control Group 4	EDP students from the 2013 cohort who did not participate in the quasi-experiments	9	% iv. Political Science 112 final % v. Political Science 122 final %
Focus Group (in some literature called 'experi-mental' or 'treatment' group)	The EDP cohort of 2013 with whom the intervention of two quasi-experiments was done	22	

Although the biographical data of EDP students (e.g. race, home language) were available to the researcher on the Stellenbosch University Student Information System these were not analysed or cross-tabulated with the results from the intervention. This data were used to get a profile of each EDP cohort in terms of multiculturalism and multilingualism. However, because the problem statement of the current study focuses on the pass rates of EDP cohorts with Political Science as mainstream subject, the analysis taking place in the quantitative study was not done in terms of the biographical profiles of groups or individuals. However, in the qualitative study which will be described in section 3.4.4, the home language differentiation was taken into account in the analysis of the EDP student interviews on their experience with the multilingual terminology intervention.

The Access Test (AT) and National Benchmark Test (NBT) results were initially also sourced for every EDP student in the current study. The NBTs substituted the ATs for admission in 2013. After consultation with the statistician of the Centre for Statistical Consultation at Stellenbosch University, it was decided that for the purposes of the current study, it would not make sense to compare the AT results of the 2010-2012 cohorts with the NBT results of the 2013 cohort.

It should furthermore be noted that the data numbered (i), (ii), and (iii) in the last column of the table above are available on the SU Student Information System for all students, independent of their subject or programme choices, or placement in EDP or mainstream programmes. The NSC is the final qualification in the secondary school educational system, while the ALPTs and ELPTs are written after first-year students have been formally admitted to Stellenbosch University. The data numbered (iv) and (v) are the results of two first-year mainstream Political Science modules. These are the final marks given by the Department of Political Science in their mainstream subject assessments. Because control groups 1 to 4 were not exposed to any formal technical terminology support in the mainstream modules, their marks could not have been influenced in any way by the intervention undertaken in 2013. Movements in the focus group's marks (the dependent variable) could potentially be related to the intervention of this project (the independent variable), and the quantitative analysis will therefore examine the focus group's marks for the two modules in comparison to those of the control groups that had not been exposed to the intervention.

The following procedure was followed for setting up the two quasi-experiments:

The intervention was conducted with first-year and second-year EDP students who registered for the first time for Political Science 112 and 122 in 2013.[18] That means that students who repeated the module after a previous unsuccessful attempt were not included. EDP students who enrolled for the two Political Science mainstream modules, and attended the weekly terminology tutorials that were based on the trilingual glossaries of the two prescribed textbooks, formed the focus group in the current study. The group constituted 22 EDP students (out of a total of 31). There was also a 2013 control group consisting of the EDP students who preferred not to attend, or could not attend, the weekly terminology tutorials (the other 9 students). This group will be described below together with the other control groups.

If the statistical analysis proves that systematic exposure to multilingual glossaries improved students' pass rates in a mainstream programme, the research design has to be replicable, so that other students in similar contexts can benefit from such an intervention. In that case, the teaching methodology has to be described in depth so that clear teaching strategies can be incorporated in the replication of the research design.

The decision to follow an integrated teaching approach in the current study where the academic support did not function as an adjunct, stand-alone module, implied that the academic/language support lecturer did not have control of the following components of the curriculum design:

- Module frameworks;
- Module contents;
- The choice of the textbooks;
- The disciplinary lecturers and individual teaching styles;
- The contents of the mainstream subject tutorials;
- Assessment methods.

In an effort to address first-year drop-out rates very early in the academic year, Stellenbosch University instituted an early warning system to monitor the academic progress of first-year students. This is known as Early Assessment. These assessments are done within the first three to four weeks of the first term of the academic year to ensure that the results are available by the end of the first term so that timeous corrective academic support can be arranged. The Political Science 112 module framework stated that the Early Assessment mark consists of the first essay (50%) and

[18] Since EDP students do their first academic year over two calendar years, some choose Political Science as mainstream subject in their first EDP year, while others choose the subject in their second EDP year. This explains why the focus group consisted of first-year and second-year EDP students.

the class test (50%).[19] The latter takes the form of an unannounced class test that is administered in one of the lecture periods. The fact that this class test was written within the first three to four weeks meant that the planning of the terminology tutorials had to take that into consideration.

The framework further stated that there would be five mainstream subject tutorials (small group classes which should not be confused with the technical terminology support tutorials described below) during the first term. Attendance of these tutorials which were aimed at skills building, was compulsory. These subject tutorials focused mainly on essay writing skills (including referencing), but students were also invited to contact the tutors about any specific issues with which they were struggling. To further support students' essay writing skills, the third content lecture of the term was devoted to a special session with the Political Science librarian. During this session, students were introduced to doing research in the library.

Apart from establishing the aims and expected outcomes of the modules, as well as the number and format of the assessments, it was important in planning the two quasi-experiments to get greater clarity on the teaching of Political Science concepts in the mainstream modules. This was done in structured interviews that were conducted with the mainstream lecturers before the technical terminology tutorials started in 2013.[20] The lecturers were asked whether there were key Political Science concepts which they regarded as 'threshold concepts' that are essential to master in the discipline of Political Science.[21] The concepts that they mentioned in the structured interviews were taken into consideration in the planning of the terminology tutorials.

After consideration of the module frameworks and the structured interviews with the lecturers, technical terminology relating to the following themes treated in the mainstream lectures was chosen for discussion during the terminology tutorials in the first term (Political Science 112):

- Political ideologies (focusing on liberalism, socialism and feminism);
- Democracy (focusing on positive and negative freedom);

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[19] According to the module framework, the first term assessments consisted of two essays, a class test, a semester test and an examination. The predicate mark was calculated in the following ratio: Essay 1 (20%) + Essay 2 (20%) + Class Test (10%) + Semester test (50%). The predicate and examination grades contributed in a 40 (predicate) : 60 (examination) ratio towards the final grade. Although the term module Political Science 112 ended at the end of the first term, the examination was only written at the end of the semester, i.e. at the end of the second term, and after Political Science 122 had been completed.

[20] The structured interviews were analysed as part of the qualitative study and will be discussed further in section 3.4.4.1.

[21] According to Meyer and Land (2003:3), a threshold concept can be considered as a portal which opens up new ways of thinking about something that was previously inaccessible. It offers a new way of understanding, of interpreting, or viewing something without which the student cannot progress. Once grasped, a threshold concept can transform the student's view of the subject matter, and it can lead to a new worldview.

- The state and the government;
- Power and legitimacy;
- Regimes/political systems.

Technical terminology relating to the following themes was chosen for the second term (Political Science 122):

- Conservative and transformative/critical theories;
- The crisis of democracy;
- States and international organisations;
- Versions of power in international relations;
- International political economy;
- Globalisation and regionalisation.

Since the framework stated that essay writing (including formulating and defending an argument) would be addressed during the regular mainstream tutorials, it seemed justified to concentrate on the key Political Science concepts and their definitions during the special weekly terminology tutorials for the purpose of the current project, instead of focusing on essay writing skills.

After the deliberations with the mainstream lecturers, all 31 first and second-year EDP students with Political Science as main subject were invited to join the weekly technical terminology tutorials, over and above their compulsory subject tutorials. Those students who decided to join the weekly technical terminology tutorials (the focus group) had to sign a consent form,[22] agreeing to participate in the research project.

At the beginning of the first term, the focus group also had to complete a student questionnaire to test their attitudes towards the pedagogical and professional value of multilingual glossaries, and to establish what they were doing from their side to achieve academic success in the module.[23] The questionnaires will be discussed as part of the qualitative study (see section 3.4.4.2).

It was difficult to find a timeslot that suited all first-year and second-year EDP students. Eventually the only time that suited everyone was on a Thursday morning at 08:00am. Even though it was foreseen that not everyone would be able to attend every weekly tutorial, students put in effort to attend the tutorials. Eventually, there was an 80% attendance of the tutorials.

Six technical terminology tutorials were presented in the first term, with the first tutorial starting in the very first week that the mainstream lectures commenced. It was important to provide academic support to students so that they would succeed in their mainstream

[22] See Appendix A.
[23] See Appendix B.

module, without placing an additional academic burden on them. In the overall planning of the terminology tutorials, the dates of the formal mainstream assessments were thus instrumental in the design of the schedule. Their essay submission dates, semester and examination dates were all clearly indicated on the technical terminology tutorial schedule.

Every week EDP students had to read the same prescribed chapters from the textbook (Heywood, 2007) for the technical terminology tutorials that they had to read in preparation of the mainstream lectures (which the researcher did not attend in the first term). Apart from that, students received a weekly list of technical terms with their definitions that occurred in the specific chapters that they had to prepare for discussion in the terminology tutorials. All students had access to the electronic versions of the trilingual glossaries. This meant that those students with Afrikaans and isiXhosa as home language had the opportunity to read the technical terminology and their definitions in their mother-tongue, together with the original English terms and definitions.

Every week students also had to do eight multiple choice questions on the contents of the relevant chapter(s) they had to read. These questions were downloaded from the educational support section of the website accompanying the prescribed textbook (Heywood, 2007). The motivation for this decision was based on the fact that various formal assessments in the mainstream module consisted of multiple choice tests.

Students were never formally assessed on whether they had done the readings or whether they had prepared the terminology for the tutorials. As formative assessment they wrote an informal 30 mark test in Week 3 of the technical terminology tutorials to help them prepare for the unannounced class test that would form part of their formal assessment in the Political Science 112 module. Despite the fact that they were not assessed formally in the technical terminology tutorials, it was clear that the EDP students could participate with confidence in discussions on the so-called ‘threshold concepts’.

After the Early Assessment results were released at the end of the first term (with the marks of one essay, the semester test and the examination still outstanding), the module average of the whole EDP group was 41% and that of the mainstream students 42%. The researcher was faced with the ethical dilemma to give priority to the research project by keeping the two quasi-experiments as similar as possible or, alternatively, to offer additional support that might help EDP students to pass the second module. The decision was eventually taken to keep the format of the second quasi-experiment as similar as possible to the first one. However, whereas the researcher did not attend the mainstream lectures during the (first) Political Science 112 module, the decision was taken to attend the (second) Political Science 122 lectures in an effort to align the discussions of key concepts in the technical terminology tutorials even closer with what

was discussed during the main lectures. That was the main methodological difference between the first and the second quasi-experiments.

The outcome of the independent variable (the educational intervention that was done with the 2013 focus group) was not measured by separate pre- or post-tests especially designed for the focus group who attended the terminology tutorials. The idea with the intervention was that it was supposed to measure whether engagement with multilingual technical terminology can improve EDP students' pass rates in the natural setting of a mainstream programme. The influence of the independent variable was therefore examined by analysing the final marks in both Political Science mainstream modules. Accordingly, the 2013 focus group and control group 4 (see description below) did the same number and format of assessments and final examinations as the 2013 mainstream students.

What was evident from the module framework was that quite a long period would elapse after students finished their first term module (Political Science 112) and before they wrote the examination for this module. The last essay was due on 25 March and the semester test was written on 26 March 2013. The first examination opportunity was only two months later on 30 May 2013, and the second examination opportunity only three weeks after that on 21 June 2013, almost three months after the module was concluded. It was foreseen that this one aspect might have a negative effect on students' eventual pass rates, irrespective of all the different teaching and learning components.

The final marks of EDP students in the two mainstream modules in which the intervention was done were subsequently compared to the final marks of the control groups from 2010 to 2013, which will be the focus of the further discussion.

In order to conduct a longitudinal study of EDP students' performance in a mainstream subject, it was decided to compare the 2013 cohort (with whom the terminology intervention was done) to the 2010 to 2013 control groups (with whom no terminology interventions were done). It was already mentioned above that this longitudinal study did not observe the same cohort over time, but rather intended to compare nonequivalent groups in consecutive years. In the quasi-experiments that were conducted in the current study, it was therefore important that the EDP cohorts in the period under review (2010 to 2013) had to be as similar as possible in order to achieve internal validity. Since all four EDP cohorts were intact groups, because they were enrolled for the same Political Science modules in the first two terms of the period under review (2010 to 2013), it was not possible to randomly assign individuals to the groups to control for extraneous variables. However, the four EDP cohorts were comparable and constituted academically homogeneous samples in the following ways:

- All the students were placed in the EDP because their NSC/matric marks did not allow them access to the mainstream programme of the Faculty of Arts and Social

Sciences. This means that they were all considered 'underprepared' for university study and needed extra academic support.
- All repeaters' names were removed from the four first-year cohorts. This means that only the final marks of EDP students who enrolled for the two mainstream modules for the first time, were included in the eventual group comparisons.
- Since EDP students do their first year over two years, all four cohorts had first-year and second-year students in every cohort.

In terms of the contents and the teaching and learning contexts of the modules offered in the four years under review, there were also various factors that made the marks achieved in the modules comparable over time. The following factors were considered:

- The course aims and outcomes in both modules remained unchanged from 2010 to 2013;
- The same textbooks were prescribed in both modules from 2010 to 2013;
- The course contents has been based in similar ways on the two textbooks from 2010 to 2013;
- The same lecturer taught Political Science 112 from 2010 to 2013. (This was not the case in Political Science 122 where three different lecturers taught this module from 2010 to 2013);
- The format and number of assessments remained unchanged in both modules from 2010 to 2013, although the contents of the essay questions and tests differed from year to year;
- All the EDP students in the 2010 to 2013 cohorts with Political Science 112 as main subject were subjected to the same time lapse with regard to the writing of the examination only at the end of the semester.

Control group 4 consisted of the nine EDP students (out of a total of 31) who enrolled for the two mainstream Political Science modules in 2013, who could not, or did not want to, attend the special terminology tutorials. The researcher realised that this group was probably too small to deliver statistically significant results in comparison to the focus group. After discussing the matter with the statistician, the decision was nevertheless taken to treat Control group 4's statistics separately even though they were part of the same cohort as the EDP students who formed the focus group.

3.4.3.4 Rationale behind quantitative data analysis

The overview table at the beginning of the discussion in section 3.4.3.3 above indicated that the following data were collected (as dataset 1) for all control groups (2010-2013) and the focus group (2013):

- National Senior Certificate (NSC) average %
- Afrikaans Language Placement test (ALPT) %
- English Language Placement test (ELPT) %

- Political Science 112 final %
- Political Science 122 final %

The statistics of the 2013 cohort were only available after the quasi-experiments were completed.

The reason why the first three of the above lists were included in the data collection was to determine whether the groups were statistically comparable. The results of the analyses will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 4 below.

It was subsequently decided to collect another dataset (dataset 2), namely the final pass rates of all mainstream students in Political Science 112 and 122 in the same cohorts (2010-2013). A comparison of the focus group and control groups' pass rates was expected to show whether there were any statistically significant changes in the focus group's performance after the educational intervention. The rationale behind this decision was that it could serve as a statistical cross-checking mechanism if those pass rates (and differences) were viewed within the context of the mainstream students' performance. Dataset 2 was therefore collected to contextualise the interpretation of dataset 1, which is the primary quantitative outcome of the current project.

The analysis and results of the quantitative study will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 4. The attention now turns to a description of the qualitative study.

3.4.4 Qualitative study in main empirical study

Whereas quantitative research is interested in identifying statistical patterns in data that were collected from representative sample populations, qualitative analysis is more concerned with the deeper understanding of phenomena.[24] Suter (2011:351, 353) describes this approach to empirical research as follows:

> Conclusions in qualitative research are typically derived from identified patterns and uncovered conceptual, not statistical, relationships. ... Qualitative research is often described as 'exploratory' (not confirmatory) because a researcher's goal is to generate a hypothesis (not test one) for further study—a hypothesis that may generalize well beyond the data collected. ... Qualitative data analysis is not intended to generalize to a larger population in the same sense that a statistically analysed large-scale survey would. The generalization often sought is the *generalization of ideas* so that they can be applied in many contexts. In this sense, ideas generated by a single-person or single-institution case study may be broadly applicable.

Various techniques can be used in qualitative studies, depending on what phenomena are studied. These include, inter alia, literature reviews, (semi-)structured interviews,

[24] See the following publications on qualitative research for more in-depth discussions on the matter: Mason (2002); Henning, Van Rensburg & Smit (2004); Babbie (2007:ch 13).

direct observations, and focus group[25] discussions. Many qualitative researchers agree that data trustworthiness, whether collected from direct observations, focus groups, or interviews, is proven by the following:[26]

- Transferability: This relates to the question as to whether there is evidence that would support the transfer of findings to other contexts. This resembles the notion of external validity used by quantitative researchers. At a theoretical level, transferability can be achieved if it is possible to apply the same ideas more widely, and when it can be shown that they also apply in other fields (Suter, 2011:363). Although the quasi-experiments were specifically done within the context of the mainstream subject Political Science, the researcher's exposure to the broad spectrum of subjects taught in the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences and to lecturers in these subject fields confirmed to her that the findings will also be valuable, at least in other social science and humanities educational contexts. The same problem that was identified in Political Science and that was addressed by the current intervention was also observed in other mainstream subjects taken by EDP students. The intervention in Political Science was therefore a case study, but it will be possible to transfer its findings to other subjects in the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences, and possibly to other humanities fields.
- Dependability: This resembles the concept of reliability in quantitative research. Dependability is achieved when the qualitative researcher can produce evidence for the claim that similar results would be achieved if the study were repeated (Suter, 2011:363). In order to ensure dependability in the current project, the researcher ensured that the teaching strategy used in the quasi-experiment will be fully described and therefore available to replicate in other contexts (see section 3.4.3.3 above). The fact that the quasi-experiment was repeated twice with similar results (in two different modules of Political Science) was a first attempt to confirm the dependability of the results.
- Confirmability: This relates to the notion of objectivity (neutrality) and the minimisation of researcher bias. Bias is a constant concern in qualitative research. Unbiased interpretations are not easily achievable (if at all), but become more likely when a researcher would recognise his/her biases overtly and factor them into the research design. Confirmability is also more likely when the qualitative research results show consistency with quantitative research findings (Suter, 2011:363). The researcher therefore deliberately included in the research design an explanation of the philosophical framework that underpins the empirical research (see section 3.3 above), and chose for a convergent parallel research design in which the

[25] The use of 'focus group' and 'focus group discussions' mentioned here as techniques used in qualitative studies should not be confused with the use of 'focus group' (or experimental group) in the quasi-experimental design in this study which consisted of those students who were exposed to an educational intervention while the control group was not exposed to the same intervention.
[26] See also the discussion in Schwandt, Lincoln & Guba (2007:12).

researcher's bias is minimised in the interpretation of both the quantitative and qualitative findings through a process of triangulation.

- Credibility: This refers to whether the research findings are plausible. It is enhanced when research participants confirm the evaluation of conclusions, when multiple sources of evidence converge, when unwanted influences are controlled, and when theoretical fit is achieved. The concept of credibility resembles the idea of internal validity in quantitative designs (Suter, 2011:363). The researcher therefore deliberately included a spectrum of qualitative analytical strategies in the research design (see in the subsections following below) in which multiple sources of evidence (module frameworks, lecturer interviews, student questionnaires, students' written essays, and test and examination papers) were analysed and correlated.

These important factors were taken into consideration in the qualitative research design of the current study. The following subsections describe the various qualitative methods that were used to attain a deeper understanding of the research problem, of the context within which the quasi-experiments were undertaken, as well as the results that were achieved in the assessment of EDP students' academic performance. The literature review that was undertaken at the beginning, but also throughout the study, forms an important part of the qualitative study. It assisted the researcher to achieve a more profound understanding of the problem statement of the research project, of the different epistemological frameworks according to which the problem can be approached, as well as different approaches followed in other contexts. Since the literature review was done in Chapter 2, no further discussion will be dedicated to this part of the qualitative research process. In the first subsection below (section 3.4.4.1), an analysis will be done of the module outlines of Political Science 112 and 122, as well as of the semi-structured interviews with the respective lecturers. These processes contributed towards a deeper understanding of the pedagogical contexts within which the quasi-experiments were conducted. The qualitative analyses described in this subsection did not generate data that could be triangulated with the quantitative results. Rather, they contributed to a better understanding of the context of the quantitative study.

The next three subsections describe the qualitative methods that were used to generate a variety of data that will be discussed and analysed in Chapter 5. In subsection 3.4.4.2, the rationale behind the questionnaires that were used to document the focus group's experiences of success, and the usefulness of multilingual technical terminology, is discussed. These questionnaires were completed at the beginning, and after completion, of the quasi-experiments in order to acquire a deepened understanding of students' experiences. The procedures for the analysis of students' written assignments (subsection 3.4.4.3) and their formal tests and examinations in the mainstream modules (subsection 3.4.4.4) are also explained below.

3.4.4.1 Understanding the context of the mainstream modules: module frameworks and lecturer interviews

As described above in section 3.4.3.2, the researcher liaised with the mainstream Political Science lecturers to get access to the module frameworks of Political Science 112 and 122 in 2013. The aims and outcomes of the modules, the planned timeline, and the topics for the formal assessments were studied in order to ensure that the technical terminology tutorials would be synchronised with the mainstream modules.

According to the module framework of Political Science 112, the aim of the module was:

> ... to develop students' understanding of the building blocks of the discipline. In order to achieve this aim we direct our attention to sets of ideas and institutions that inform the structure and functioning of political systems. In addition we examine a number of concepts. These concepts are the analytical tools that we will use to analyse complex phenomena such as political systems.

The expected module outcomes were briefly summarised as follows:

> (i) identify definitions of concepts and provide definitions of concepts. (This includes the central characteristics of, for example, various regimes, ideologies, government systems and democratic government institutions); (ii) formulate and defend an argument; and (iii) apply your knowledge of political science concepts.

It is thus clear from the above that concepts and their definitions played a key role in the module contents of Political Science 112, and that a technical terminology intervention would reinforce the achievement of these outcomes.

The module framework for Political Science 122 stated that the module had the following aim:

> It is an introductory module to the systematic study of international relations, designed to introduce you to the basic concepts, questions and theoretical perspectives which we deal with in this field. We shall, amongst others, explore some of the most important actors in world affairs, and the interactions between them. We shall also attempt to develop explanations for the way in which the international system operates.

The following outcomes were envisaged in this module:

> After completing this module you will have a solid foundation and understanding of the dynamics of International Relations and of the unique challenges that the international system poses to an array of state and non-state actors, be they students, captains of industry, women or sport stars. You will also develop the ability to apply knowledge gained in this module to the way in which international politics influences your daily life and to ask critical questions about the impact of globalization on South Africa; how wealth and power is distributed in the world today and whether this distribution can be ethically, politically and economically justified. More specifically, you should be able to discuss the following questions in an intelligent manner:

- What are states, when did they become the main actors in the international system, and is their power currently being undermined?
- What is the role of non-state actors in the international system?
- What is power in the context of international relations?
- Who benefits most from the current global order?
- Why do states sometimes choose to cooperate?
- How do international law and international organisations function?
- How do the main theoretical approaches to International Relations differ? Which theory provides the best explanation for the most important challenges facing the international system today?

It should be clear from the above that an acquaintance with key concepts is indispensable in understanding international relations and world affairs and that a technical terminology intervention would accordingly support the aim and outcomes of this module.

The module frameworks also set out the formal assessments that would be used for summative purposes. In Political Science 112, students had to do two essay type assessments (20% each), one class test (10%), and one semester test (50%) which contributed in the indicated ratios towards the predicate grade. An examination also had to be taken (first and/or second opportunities), and the final mark was calculated in a 40:60 ratio (predicate grade:examination grade). The two essay type assessments had to be done on the following two topics:

- Distinguish between the following ideologies: Liberalism, Marxism, and Feminism;
- Which electoral system offers 'the people' the best opportunity to keep their representatives accountable? Provide evidence to support your argument.

The unannounced class test which was administered in one of the lecture periods was intended to "examine your knowledge of concepts that we discussed in the preceding lectures". It would consist of short-answer questions, while the semester test and examinations would consist of multiple-choice questions.

In Political Science 122, students had to do two essay type assessments (25% each), and one semester test (50%) which contributed in the indicated ratios towards the predicate grade. An examination had to be taken (first and/or second opportunities) as was the case with Political Science 112, and the final mark was calculated in a 40:60 ratio (predicate grade:examination grade). The two essay type questions read as follows:

- Select one of the following three topics:
    - Compare and contrast Realism and Idealism/Liberalism as theories used in the study of International Relations;
    - Why are critical/transformative theories more useful than conservative theories of International Relations?
    - Why are critical/transformative theories less useful than conservative theories of International Relations?

- Select any one of the following four topics:
    - In our foreign policy, what is in South Africa's 'national interest'?
    - Is globalisation a non-reversible process?
    - How can Africa improve its international relations?
    - What is the future of the Westphalian (state-centric) global system?

Although not stated in the module framework, the lecturer indicated that the semester test for Political Science 122 would be in the form of multiple-choice questions. Whereas the first examination would consist of various paragraph style short questions, the second examination would consist of one long essay question.

The information on aims, outcomes, timeline and assessments that was obtained from the module frameworks provided the researcher with the context within which the technical terminology intervention could be planned and designed. It was evident that conceptual understanding was very important in both modules and that the technical terminology intervention would be appropriate and desirable in this context. The one module framework in fact stated that one of the criteria for evaluating the essays would be: "Are concepts clearly defined?" It therefore became clear that the essay type assignments would provide appropriate material for the qualitative analysis which had the aim of cross-checking the quantitative results. The student essays would be interesting not primarily for the marks that the students achieved, but rather to get an impression of whether technical terminology was internalised by the students.[27] The other assessment instruments used in the 112 module (class test, semester test, and examinations) posed a challenge to the researcher, however. The design of the data analysis of this data had to take into account that the majority of these assessments were in the form of multiple choice questions which do not necessarily reflect students' understanding and application of concepts.[28]

The semi-structured interviews with the respective lecturers of Political Science 112 and 122 in 2013 provided another opportunity to get a deepened understanding of the context of the mainstream modules. The interviews were conducted in February 2013 in preparation of the two quasi-experiments. The following pre-interview data were completed by the lecturers in a written form:[29] (i) number of students enrolled in the mainstream module; (ii) number of lectures per week (new and repeated); (iii) medium of instruction in the lectures; and (iv) medium of instruction in the mainstream tutorials. Thereafter, the semi-structured interviews were conducted by the researcher alone with each lecturer. The researcher made summary notes of the responses to each question by the respective lecturers. Afterwards, the researcher forwarded the written summaries to

[27] The design to analyse the essays is described below in subsection 3.4.4.3.
[28] The design to analyse the multiple choice tests is described below in subsection 3.4.4.4.
[29] The full interview schedule is provided in Appendix C. The lecturers completed the first part of this schedule in written form at the beginning of the semi-structured interview.

the lecturers for their verification, and also submitted the qualitative analysis (as described in Chapter 5 of the current study) to them for their feedback.

The semi-structured interviews focused on the following topics (according to the interview schedule):

- Lecturer support: In this section, lecturers were asked about the extent of institutional support they can rely on in teaching multilingual first-year Political Science students. They were also asked whether it would help them in their preparation of bilingual lectures if they had formal technical terminology translations of the textbook glossaries at their disposal.
- Teaching Political Science concepts: The aim with this section was to find out whether lecturers considered 'threshold concepts' important in teaching their modules, and if so, which ones they considered to be 'threshold concepts'. Subsequently, they were asked whether they expected students to do prior reading for lectures, and, finally, whether they make provision for the discussion of the reading material during lectures.
- Assessments: Even though this information was available in the module frameworks, lecturers were asked about the aims of assessments in their modules from a qualitative perspective.
- Student preparedness and support: In this section, lecturers were asked about their experience of students' preparedness for university study and whether provision is made to support students who might be 'underprepared' for their studies. Subsequently, they were asked about their experience of students' mastering of key concepts during and after their first year of study. Finally, lecturers' views were asked on whether technical terminology support in students' mother tongues could potentially contribute to non-native English speakers' academic integration and success in the subject field of Political Science.

The results of the qualitative analysis of these interviews will be presented in Chapter 5. Because the lecturer interviews were intended to gain a deepened understanding of the pedagogical contexts within which the intervention of the two quasi-experiments would be undertaken, it was not deemed necessary to analyse the two responses in terms of patterns of thought or the like.

3.4.4.2 Understanding the students' experiences: student questionnaires

At the beginning of the first quasi-experiment, the 22 EDP students in the 2013 focus group who attended the weekly trilingual technical terminology tutorials had to complete a questionnaire (Q1).[30] The main goal with the questionnaire was to establish what learning strategies students had in place to make sure that they pass the modules

[30] The Q1 questionnaire is presented in Appendix B.

(especially if they should feel that they were not educationally adequately prepared for university study), and to find out their sentiments about multilingual education.

After completion of both modules, the same 22 EDP students of the 2013 focus group had to complete two questionnaires, the first with more open-ended questions (Q2A), and the second with evaluations on a set scale of the weekly technical terminology tutorials and the trilingual glossaries (Q2B).[31] The aim of the first questionnaire (Q2A) was to establish students' experiences of the weekly technical terminology tutorials on the one hand, and the trilingual glossaries on the other hand. The second questionnaire (Q2B) contained more guiding questions with the aim of getting more specific feedback on their actual experiences of the teaching strategy followed in the weekly technical terminology tutorials. Furthermore, it explored whether students with different home languages used different modes of engagement with the trilingual glossaries (e.g. only the English terms with definitions, or in conjunction with one of the two translations provided). Although the aim of the current study was not to correlate students' mother-tongue with their quantitative performance in their mainstream subjects, the distinction between home language groups in this questionnaire was aimed at achieving a deepened qualitative understanding of the pedagogical context.

The analysis of these questionnaires was done by means of a categorisation and ordering of the student responses, according to the broad themes of preparation for and adjustment to university education, attitudes towards Political Science, making links between theory and practice, engagement with educational resources, and feelings towards multilingual education. The categorisation and ordering will be done to gain insight into students' self-perceptions in terms of preparedness, as well as into their experiences of the mainstream modules and the technical terminology interventions.

The results of this analysis will be reported in Chapter 5.

3.4.4.3 Understanding students' academic performance: written essays[32]

As indicated in section 3.4.4.1, the written assignments in essay format were part of the mainstream curriculum planning, and the present researcher did not have any influence on determining the topics for the assignments or their format of delivery. However, the qualitative analysis of the module frameworks and the lecturer interviews – corroborated by the presuppositions of an Academic Literacies approach (see section 2.3.3) – convinced the researcher that a qualitative analysis of the written essays could contribute to a deeper understanding of the EDP students' academic performance as reflected in the quantitative study. The written essays presented the researcher with the

[31] The Q2A and Q2B questionnaires are presented in Appendix B.
[32] 'Written essay' may sound pleonastic, but it is an acknowledgement of Freire's 'talking essays' and 'talking book' which involved recording and editing conversations. He regarded these as powerful tools to encourage students to explore composing as a social dialogic act (Palmeri, 2012:70).

opportunity to gain an impression of students' conceptual understanding (or not) in their engagement with mainstream subject content.[33] Two factors that could be considered in the qualitative analysis of students' written essays are (i) the frequency of students' use of technical terminology that were taught with the aid of the technical glossaries, and (ii) the correct use of terms and their definitions, based on the technical glossaries. The former may be a reflection of students' increased confidence as a result of their familiarity with the subject field's technical terminology and their resultant meaning-making capacity. The latter may reflect students' conceptual clarity in the field and the extent to which technical terminology support can contribute to epistemological access.

The instrument that was used to do the analysis is the software package Atlas.TI which is often used for qualitative data analysis.[34] This software is aimed at assisting the researcher to do coding of textual material and to make patterns of understanding more visible. According to Babbie (2007:384), the purpose of using coding in qualitative data analysis is to discover patterns among the data that reflect theoretical understanding of the results that were achieved in the research project. In contrast to quantitative analysis where standardised units of analysis have to be defined before the coding process, coding data for qualitative analysis is quite different:

> The *concept* is the organizing principle for qualitative coding. Here the units of text appropriate for coding will vary within a given document. ... [A] given code category may be applied to text materials of quite different lengths. ... Whereas standardization is a key principle in quantitative analysis, this is not the case in qualitative analysis (Babbie, 2007:384–385).

Babbie also describes the different strategies of coding that can be followed, namely open coding, axial coding, and selective coding (2007:385–386). Open coding is defined as "the initial classification and labeling of concepts in qualitative data analysis. In open coding, the codes are suggested by the researchers' examination and questioning of the data" (Babbie, 2007:385). Henning, Van Rensburg and Smit (2004) describes open coding as follows:

> In open coding codes are literally made up as the researcher works through the data. The better a researcher knows the data, the more competent she will be in labelling units of meaning. ... Because open coding is an inductive process, whereby the codes are selected according to what the data mean (to the researcher), you need to have an overview of as much contextual data as possible. It thus makes

[33] According to Lillis and Scott (2007:9), "[s]tudents' written texts continue to constitute the main form of assessment and as such writing is a 'high stakes' activity in university education. If there are 'problems' with writing, then the student is likely to fail. Clarifying the nature of the 'problem', however, is far from straightforward and for this reason it is the definition and articulation of what constitutes the 'problem' that is at the heart of much academic literacies research ..."

[34] For a discussion of the use of computer programs for qualitative data analysis, see Henning (2004:126–137), Babbie (2007:390–398), and Corbin and Strauss (2015:11).

> good sense to read all the relevant transcriptions[35] before any formal meaning is attributed to a single unit (Henning et al., 2004:104–105).

After the coding has been done, the related codes can be grouped or categorized. "The ensuing categories are again named inductively, using the data as a guide in deciding what a category should be called" (Henning et al., 2004:105).

In the current study, however, it was decided to approach the qualitative analysis of the student essays deductively. In a deductive approach to coding a preconceived set of codes is defined by the research design. In the current study the trilingual glossaries were key instruments in the educational intervention. In the current study, the researcher wanted to establish whether technical terminology support could enhance EDP students' pass rates and experience of success in a mainstream subject. The focus was thus strongly on the use of technical terminology in students' meaning-making processes. In order to make the analysis manageable for the purpose of the present study, it was decided to work with a selection of technical terminology from the trilingual glossaries. The selection was determined by what the two mainstream lecturers considered as threshold concepts in their respective fields, in the lecturer interviews, as well as those themes that were outlined in the module outlines and essay topics, and which were also discussed in the technical terminology tutorials. The coding of student essays was done according to this selection of concepts and themes (and will be explained further in sections 5.4.2 and 5.4.3 of Chapter 5). The codes were applied to textual units of different lengths in order to gain insight into students' understanding of those threshold concepts.

The result of this analysis will also be reported in Chapter 5.

3.4.4.4 Understanding students' academic performance: tests and examinations

As indicated in section 3.4.4.1 above, the students had to write certain formal tests and examinations in both Political Science modules 112 and 122. The lecturer interviews revealed that the majority of the tests and examinations would consist of either multiple choice questions[36] or short-answer questions[37] which do not necessarily test students' understanding and application of concepts.[38] Furthermore, all mainstream tutorials were

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[35] Although reference is made to transcriptions of texts in this quotation, the same principles apply in the analysis of other types of written data, such as student essays.

[36] In Political Science 112: semester test; first and second examinations. In Political Science 122: semester test.

[37] In Political Science 112: class test. In Political Science 122: some questions in the first examination.

[38] The exceptions were the two examinations in Political Science 122. The first examination paper consisted of a mixture of short-answer questions, longer-answer questions, and essay type questions, while the second examination consisted of one essay type question. Only a third of the students (7 out of 22) made use of the second opportunity, either by own choice (two students) or for re-examination purposes because they failed the first examination opportunity. Of the 22 students, 20 therefore wrote examination 1. Since a qualitative analysis of the written essays of both modules will be made (as

dedicated to developing students' essay writing skills, argumentation abilities, and engagement with subject-specific bibliographic resources. No mainstream tutorials were devoted to preparing students for answering multiple choice questions, even though students come from diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds that are rooted in different literacy practices.

However, since the tests and examinations using multiple choice questions formed such a central component in the composition of students' final marks for the modules, it seemed useful to determine to what extent the multiple choice questions relied on or made use of the technical terminology and/or their definitions in the two glossaries. It was assumed that the prevalence of technical terminology taken from the glossaries could potentially benefit students' success in this kind of assessment. Furthermore, it was assumed that if the specific formulation of multiple choice questions corresponded with how the technical terms had been defined in the provided glossaries, students could benefit from this type of assessment.

Due to the format of students' responses to multiple choice questions, the researcher decided not to analyse these responses in students' tests and examinations. Rather, the decision was taken to analyse the test and examination question papers in order to establish the prevalence of technical terminology, and to determine whether questions were formulated in such a way that students could relate them to the technical terminology and definitions contained in the glossaries.

The results of this analysis will be reported in Chapter 5.

3.4.5 Triangulation

In his discussion of the convergent parallel design, Creswell (2012) indicates that there are several ways in which the comparison of quantitative and qualitative data may occur:

> The most popular approach is to describe the quantitative and qualitative results side by side in a discussion section of a study. For example, the researcher would first present the quantitative statistical results and then provide qualitative quotes to either confirm or disconfirm the statistical results. Another approach is to actually merge the quantitative and qualitative data in a single table. For each major topic in the study, the researcher could array the quantitative results and the qualitative themes in columns that match each topic. A third approach is to transform one of the datasets so that they can be directly compared with the other dataset. For instance, qualitative themes identified during interviews are "quantified" and given a score as to their frequency. These scores are then compared with scores from instruments measuring variables that address the same ideas as the themes (Creswell, 2012:542).

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described above in section 3.4.4.3), it was decided not to analyse these smaller scale essay questions in the two examinations of Political Science 122.

The first approach seemed most appropriate for the present study. The aim of the triangulation process was to let the results of the qualitative study dialogue with and inform the results of the quantitative study. This enabled the researcher to interpret the quantitative results within the broader framework of student success and epistemological access. While the quantitative analysis showed some improvement in terms of student marks and pass rates, the researcher remained aware that those results cannot be attributed solely to the 2013 technical terminology intervention. Students' pass rates depend on a complexity of factors, and the results of the quantitative analysis therefore had to be cross-checked against the qualitative analyses.

3.5 Conclusion

This chapter provided a detailed description of the convergent parallel research design that was followed in the main empirical study. Chapters 4 and 5 report on the results of the quantitative and qualitative analyses, respectively. Chapter 6 presents the triangulation of the respective results, as well as the main findings of the empirical research project. Additionally, suggestions are made for further research that emerged from the present study.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS: QUANTITATIVE STUDY

4.1 Introduction

As stated in Chapter 1 (section 1.3), the research problem that informed the current study was the observed discrepancy between Extended Degree Programme (EDP) students' pass rates compared to their mainstream peers in a mainstream subject. In order to gain insight into this problem, the study set out to examine how EDP students' pass rates could be brought on a par with their mainstream peers. It was hypothesised that multilingual technical (subject-specific) terminological support that is integrated into the mainstream teaching strategy has the potential to improve EDP students' pass rates in their mainstream subjects, as well as their experience of success, with the ultimate aim of contributing towards epistemological access and improving academic literacy. It was argued in the previous chapter (section 3.4) that a convergent (or parallel or concurrent) mixed methods design where both quantitative and qualitative data are collected simultaneously, but analysed separately, was deemed an appropriate instrument for investigating the research problem and for testing the above hypothesis outlined in more detail in section 1.3.

The quantitative analysis in the present chapter contributes towards answering the first research question that was formulated in Chapter 1 (section 1.3), namely "What is the quantitative impact (in terms of mean percentages and pass rates) of systematic exposure to multilingual subject-specific terminology on EDP students' performance in a mainstream subject?" In Chapters 1 and 2 (sections 1.6 and 2.6), it was explained that 'student success' is a complex and broad concept which cannot be restricted to students' pass rates. It was nevertheless decided to limit the quantitative study to an analysis of students' pass rates since such rates are the standard criteria used in higher education cohort studies to determine student success. However, the results of the qualitative analysis which seeks to provide deeper insight into the research topic will be considered together with the results of the quantitative analysis in order to ascertain whether the chosen intervention was indeed influential in the effect observed in the quantitative analysis.

In the quantitative study of the main empirical research project, the focus was on two sets of raw data of four control groups (2010–2013) and a focus (or experimental) group (2013). A description of these groups was provided in Chapter 3. As noted in section 3.4.3.3, the 2013 EDP cohort was divided into the focus group and a control group on account of the fact that some students (those included in Control Group 4) did not take part in the educational intervention (the weekly technical terminology tutorials). The data collection process for the quantitative analysis has been described in the same section in Chapter 3.

Dataset 1 consists of the mean percentages of the different EDP control groups and the EDP focus group in terms of the following variables:

i. Matric/National Senior Certificate (NSC) averages;
ii. Afrikaans Language Placement test (ALPT) marks;

iii. English Language Placement test (ELPT) marks;
iv. Final Marks for mainstream module Political Science 112;
v. Final Marks for mainstream module Political Science 122.

The first three variables were not influenced by the current study, but were collected for the sake of contextualisation, that is, for the purpose of determining whether the control groups and focus group were comparable in terms of their academic preparedness when entering the university system. However, the last two variables, namely the marks achieved in Political Science 112 and 122, were dependent variables of the educational intervention that was undertaken in the current study.[1] T-tests (which assess whether the means of two groups are statistically different from each other, or not) were done on all these mean values, and the statistics will be shown below in section 4.2.

Dataset 2 consists of the pass rates of the EDP students (all control groups and the focus group) in their mainstream modules Political Science 112 and Political Science 122, as well as the pass rates of the mainstream students in the same two modules. The EDP students' pass rates were compared to those of the mainstream students in the period 2010-2013. The comparison served to create a context within which variations in EDP students' pass rates could be interpreted. Non-passing students included those who failed the module, who did not qualify for admission to the examination on account of their predicate marks, and those who got access to but did not write the final examination. T-tests were done on all the pairs for the whole period (that is, EDP and mainstream pass rates in each module from 2010 to 2013) in order to establish whether they were statistically different or not, and the statistics will be shown below in section 4.3.

In Dataset 1, those EDP students who were repeating modules because they did not pass in previous academic years were excluded from the analysis. The reason for restricting the analysis to students who enrolled for the Political Science modules for the first time was to make the cohorts of the control groups and the focus group more comparable in terms of previous exposure to the subject. Furthermore, EDP students who formally deregistered for the module during the course of the first semester of 2013 were also excluded due to the fact that they were no longer officially part of the module.

The statistical data for the study were collected from the Stellenbosch University Student Information System and cross-checked against the data of the Department of Political Science. The statistical analyses of the raw data of Datasets 1 and 2 were done by the Centre for Statistical Consultation at Stellenbosch University.

The statistical analysis of each variable in Dataset 1 will be discussed in section 4.2 below (specifically sections 4.2.1 to 4.2.3). Some preliminary observations will be made at the end of each of those discussions. This will be followed by a discussion of some background

[1] As discussed in section 3.4.3.3 in chapter 3, the independent variable of the current empirical research project was the technical terminological intervention.

factors that could have affected the results (in sections 4.2.4 and 4.2.5), together with a summary (section 4.2.6).

In section 4.3, the statistical analysis of Dataset 2 will be discussed. The chapter will close with section 4.4 in which the overall results achieved in the quantitative analysis will be summarised.

4.2 Dataset 1: Focus group's performance in comparison to control groups' performance

4.2.1 Matric/NSC (including Senior Certificate) performance

As indicated above, the National Senior Certificate performance was not influenced by the present study, but is nevertheless presented here to provide a context for the comparability of the control groups and focus group. The majority of the EDP students in the current study (88.18%) wrote the National Senior Certificate (NSC) examination. It should be noted, however, that in 2008 the NSC examination replaced the Senior Certificate examination in South Africa. The remainder of the sample population wrote matric before 2008 and therefore obtained the Senior Certificate. For the purpose of the current study no distinction was made between students who wrote the NSC and Senior Certificate examinations, because both these qualifications were used by the Stellenbosch University to place these students on the EDP.

The following table contains the mean Matric/NSC percentages of the control groups and the focus group:

Table 4.1 Mean Matric/NSC percentages and standard deviation

(p=0.08)

Group	N	NSC Mean %	NSC % Std Dev
Control Group 1 (2010)	31	56.84	5.50
Control Group 2 (2011)	39	58.21	5.70
Control Group 3 (2012)	26	60.08	5.01
Control Group 4 (2013)	9	60.33	2.29
Focus Group (2013)	22	57.59	1.47

The homoscedasticity test showed homogeneity of variance and the t-test could therefore be done. On account of a p-value > 0.05 (p=0.08), the null hypothesis (that there is no statistical difference between the groups) was confirmed, and it can therefore be assumed that the mean Matric/NSC percentages of the different control and focus groups showed no significant statistical differences. Since these groups gained admission to the Stellenbosch University from a similar 'starting point,' a comparison between the various EDP cohorts thus seemed justified as an approach that could yield potentially meaningful results.

According to the standard deviation statistics, the mean Matric/NSC percentages of the groups ranged from 56.84% (Control Group 1: 2010) to 60.33% (Control Group 4: 2013),

which is a relatively small divergence. It is noteworthy for the eventual results that the focus group had the second lowest Matric/NSC mean percentage with 57.59%.

4.2.2 Language Placement Test Performance

The data of the Afrikaans and English Language Placement Tests (ALPTs and ELPTs)[2] were also initially included for statistical analysis. As explained above, this was done for the purpose of creating a context to determine the comparability of the respective EDP groups.

The following tables provide the results of the statistical analyses for these two variables:

Table 4.2 Mean Afrikaans Language Placement Test percentages and standard deviation

(p=0.70)

Group	N	ALPT Mean %	ALPT % Std Dev
Control Group 1 (2010)	31	38.77	14.56
Control Group 2 (2011)	39	38.33	16.36
Control Group 3 (2012)	26	42.04	12.24
Control Group 4 (2013)	9	36.67	14.37
Focus Group (2013)	22	36.06	13.07

The p-value achieved in this analysis was > 0.05 (p=0.70) which means that the null hypothesis (that there is no statistical difference between the groups) was confirmed. The mean percentages of the various EDP groups' ALPTs can therefore also be used to assume that they had a similar 'starting point' when entering the university system. Furthermore, it is noteworthy that the focus group had the lowest mean percentage of all groups.

Table 4.3 Mean English Language Placement Test percentages and standard deviation

(p=0.01)

Group	N	ELPT Mean %	ELPT % Std Dev
Control Group 1 (2010)	31	52.77	13.75
Control Group 2 (2011)	39	58.87	15.00
Control Group 3 (2012)	26	63.81	13.79
Control Group 4 (2013)	9	62.78	12.41
Focus Group (2013)	22	51.83	14.75

In the statistical analysis of the mean percentages of the ELPTs a p-value < 0.05 (p=0.01) was achieved and the null hypothesis (that the groups are statistically similar) was therefore rejected. It can thus be assumed that there are statistical differences between the groups.

[2] The abbreviations 'ALPT' and 'ELPT' are used here as generic references to the language placement tests (Afrikaans and English) that were done at Stellenbosch University. The test that was used for the ALPTs during the period of 2010 to 2013 was 'Toets van Akademiese Geletterdheidsvlakke' (TAG), while 'Test of Academic Literacy Levels' (TALL) was used for the ELPTs during the same period. Both these tests are copyrighted tests of the Inter-institutional Centre for Language Development and Assessment (ICELDA). See http://icelda.sun.ac.za/. For a discussion of these tests, see Van Dyk and Weideman (2004a; 2004b).

When the results of the ALPTs and ELPTs are compared, it is conspicuous that the mean percentages of the ELPTs are markedly higher than those of the ALPTs. These variables were not dependent on the intervention undertaken in the current study, but are offered here for contextualisation purposes only; they fall outside the limited scope of the current study and will not be further discussed here. However, it should be pointed out (based on personal communication with Prof Tobie van Dyk, co-supervisor for the current study and one of the co-drafters of the TAG and TALL tests) that the TAG and TALL tests that were used for the ALPTs and ELPTs do not work with absolute percentages, but rather with risk indications (on a scale of codes 1 to 5). A higher percentage in TALL may theoretically be assigned with the same risk code as a lower percentage in TAG. The percentages reflected in the ALPT and ELPT statistics above may therefore be misleading when they are considered alongside each other. After consultation with a statistician on the incomparability of the ALPT and ELPT statistics, as well as the p-value achieved in the t-test on the ELPTs, the decision was taken to exclude the ELPT results as a point of comparison for the tendencies that are observed in other variables[3].

It should be noted, however, that once again (as was the case with the ALPTs) the focus group had the lowest mean percentage of all the groups.

The description above of the three variables that were not dependent on the current intervention showed that at least two of them (the Matric/NSC and ALPT results) confirmed that the EDP control groups and focus group are indeed comparable. The interpretation of the dependent variables (namely the EDP students' performance in the mainstream modules Political Science 112 and 122) can therefore be done against the background of the various EDP groups' comparability. The following section will present the statistical analysis of the results of the two quasi-experiments.

4.2.3 Performance in Political Science 112 and 122

The strategy for the collection of data by means of two quasi-experiments, as well as the strategy for the quantitative data analysis, has already been discussed in Chapter 3 (sections 3.4.3.3 and 3.4.3.4).

The statistical analyses of the EDP control groups' and focus group's mean percentages in the mainstream modules Political Science 112 and 122 were done by the Centre for Statistical Consultation at Stellenbosch University and the following results were achieved:

[3] While this decision is statistically justifiable to avoid false explanations for the changes that occurred in the dependent variable, first-year students' different levels of English proficiency is an important factor that is often not properly addressed in their academic acculturation process.

Table 4.4 Mean percentages for Political Science 112 and standard deviation

(p=0.01)

Group	N	Mean %	% Std Dev
Control Group 1 (2010)	31	36.35	20.84
Control Group 2 (2011)	39	32.21	25.09
Control Group 3 (2012)	26	57.42	9.43
Control Group 4 (2013)	9	41.11	16.11
Focus Group (2013)	22	46.27	15.64

A p-value < 0.05 (p=0.01) was achieved in the analysis of the Political Science 112 mean averages and the null hypothesis is therefore rejected (that there are no statistical differences between the groups' performance). The conclusion, then, is that there are significant differences between groups in terms of performance. It can therefore be assumed that the movement in mean percentages from the similar 'starting point' suggested by the Matric/NSC and ALPT statistics may be significant. In terms of the mean percentages for Political Science 112, the control group of 2012 had the best performance (57.42%), while the focus group of 2013 had the second best performance (46.27%).

Table 4.5 Mean percentages for Political Science 122 and standard deviation

(p=0.19)

Group	N	Mean %	% Std Dev
Control Group 1 (2010)	31	33.26	22.43
Control Group 2 (2011)	39	34.67	25.81
Control Group 3 (2012)	26	44.46	22.81
Control Group 4 (2013)	9	38.22	22.13
Focus Group (2013)	22	45.05	19.31

A p-value > 0.05 (p=0.19) was achieved in the analysis of the Political Science 122 mean averages and the null hypothesis (that there are no statistical differences between the groups' performance) can therefore not be rejected. In terms of the relative mean percentage performance for Political Science 122 the focus group in 2013 had the best performance (45.05%), while control group 3 of 2012 had the second best performance (44.46%).

Before attempting to interpret the statistical analyses of these modules, two additional factors which could potentially have influenced the results will be discussed, namely the sequence of presentation of the modules, and background to the composition of the 2012 EDP group (Control Group 3).

4.2.4 Sequence of modules

One factor that should be considered concerning the two Political Science modules is the fact that the two modules were presented in two consecutive university terms (as described in Chapter 3, section 3.4.3.3). In the first university term of 2013, the focus group with Political Science 112 as main subject received extra language support in the form of weekly technical

terminology tutorials (the first quasi-experiment). The expectation was that this factor would have a cumulative effect on their marks in the second term of 2013 when they did Political Science 122. If the academic level of the two modules were the same, one would expect better marks in Political Science 122 than in Political Science 112. However, this effect was not confirmed by the relative mean performance in the two modules.

The data show that, with one exception, all EDP groups in the current study had lower mean percentages in Political Science 122 than in Political Science 112. The one exception is Control Group 2 (2011) which had the lowest mean percentage of all groups for Political Science 112 (32.21%), but then moved up slightly to 34.67%, the second lowest mean percentage for Political Science 122. The table above shows that in the case of Political Science 112 a mean percentage of 41.45% was achieved by all groups in the whole period under review, while this mean percentage dropped to 38.38% in Political Science 122.

While these observations were made on the mean percentages of the raw data, the effect of the sequence of the modules will be interpreted in the light of the analyses of Dataset 2. Furthermore, differences in the complexity of the subject matter, the curriculum design, and teaching styles of three different lecturers over four years could not be controlled by the second quasi-experiment and cannot be analysed quantitatively. These factors could also have had an influence on the fact that the mean percentages of Political Science 122 were lower than expected; the qualitative analysis presented in Chapter 5 should shed more light on this matter.

4.2.5 The 2012 EDP group (Control Group 3)

The data show that Control Group 3 (2012) outperformed the other groups significantly in Political Science 112. It also had a second position in Political Science 122, slightly below the focus group, which had the best mean performance in the latter module. However, three factors should be kept in mind in the interpretation of the statistics of Control Group 3:

(i) The data show that the 2012 group was academically the strongest group in terms of their NSC results (see section 4.2.1).

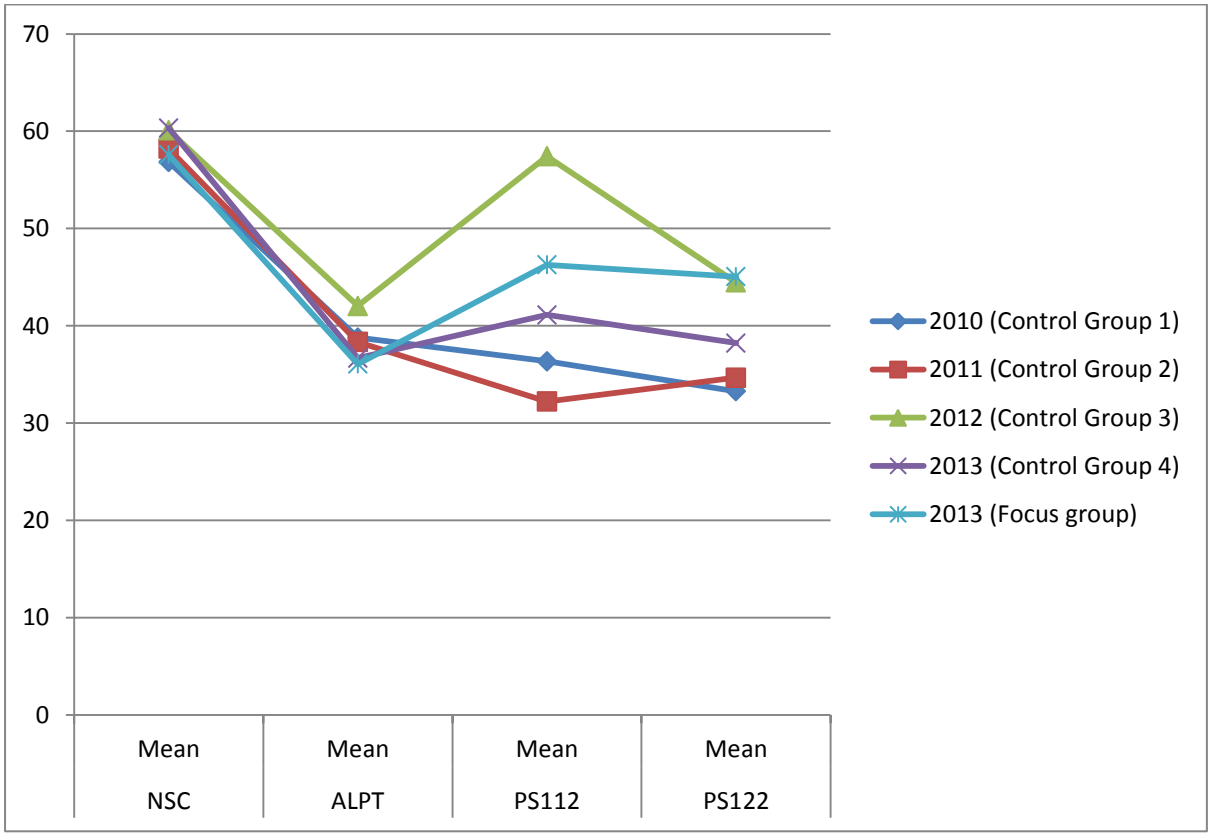
(ii) Control Group 3 was the only control group which was exposed to the pilot study in 2011, where multilingual technical terminology was used to support EDP students in an EDP support subject (‘Introduction to the Humanities’). Although multilingual technical terminology was used in this EDP support module, it was not integrated with the Political Science mainstream subject content – as was the case with the 2013 focus group. However, Control Group 3’s earlier engagement with the technical terminology could have influenced them positively, which might explain their higher mean performance in the mainstream Political Science modules.

(iii) Control Group 3 included a cohort of students who came over to Stellenbosch University from Huguenot College in Wellington. Due to the fact that this College was closed by Government and some academic programmes were transferred to Stellenbosch University, some of these students were placed in the EDP of the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences,

although they had already completed their first year of study at Huguenot College. They did not get credit for any subjects completed at Huguenot College and enrolled as first-year EDP students in 2011. However, their previous exposure to higher education might have benefited them in their further studies at Stellenbosch University, resulting in higher mean percentages in the observed Political Science modules.

4.2.6 Summary: Mean performance of focus group

The following graph is a visual representation of the above statistical observations. The Matric/NSC and ALPT results are included in order to show the context of the groups' entrance profiles, while the results of the two quasi-experiments in Political Science 112 and 122 are also represented.



Graph 4.1 Mean percentages for NSC, ALPT, PolSci 112, and PolSci 122

The most prominent aspect of this visual summary of the data is that the relative positioning of the focus group in comparison to the control groups changed significantly throughout the intervention. Whereas the focus group had the second lowest mean percentage in the Matric/NSC results, and the lowest in the ALPTs, they moved up to second-best position in Political Science 112 and the best position of all groups in Political Science 122. Although the researcher remains aware of the fact that a variety of factors may have contributed to this improvement in the focus group's results, the intervention undertaken in the current project could well have been a contributing factor towards the relative increase in mean percentage

performance. However, these mean percentages should not be interpreted in isolation. Dataset 2 was therefore collected in order to cross-check the observations in Dataset 1 against mainstream students' performance in terms of pass rates for the period under review. A description of the analysis of this dataset follows in the next section.

4.3 Dataset 2: Focus group pass rates within the context of the mainstream module pass rates

4.3.1 Introduction

Pass rates are important indicators of the success of any academic intervention, whether in mainstream teaching or in academic support programmes such as the EDP. The main intention with the EDP is to provide academic support to students who do not conform to the official entry qualifications of the university. The expectation is that the extra academic support should enable them to achieve comparable or better pass rates than their first-year peers in mainstream disciplines. Although some EDP students' performance in their mainstream subjects improve significantly after an extended period of academic support, the success of the EDP is not measured in terms of improved module averages or mean percentages, but rather in terms of an increase in pass rates which eventually result in a higher throughput rate.

It was therefore decided to analyse the pass rates of the control groups and focus group, and to compare those analyses with the pass rates of their peers in the mainstream programme. Such a comparison complements the analyses of mean percentage performance (Dataset 1) that were presented in the previous section.

As was noted in the introduction to this chapter, EDP students who were repeating Political Science modules in the period under review were excluded from the eventual analysis. This means that no repeaters were included in the EDP comparisons. Furthermore, although the EDP students in the control groups and focus group formed part of the whole mainstream class in the two Political Science modules over the four years, their data were excluded from the mainstream modules for the sake of comparison. The comparison which will follow is therefore between the pass rates of the mainstream Political Science students and the EDP students.

4.3.2 Statistical analyses of pass rates

The tables below document the statistical analyses that were done by the Centre for Statistical Consultation at Stellenbosch University. The p-values are indicated in the top row of each table.

Table 4.6 Comparison of EDP and Mainstream pass rates: Control Group 1 (2010)

2010	**PolSci 112 (p=0.00031)**		**PolSci 122 (p=0.00041)**	
	EDP (N=31)	**Mainstream (N=376)**	**EDP (N=31)**	**Mainstream (N=386)**

Pass rate %	48.39	79.26	38.71	70.73

Table 4.7 Comparison of EDP and Mainstream pass rates: Control Group 2 (2011)

2011	**PolSci 112 (p=0.00015)**		**PolSci 122 (p=0.00000)**	
	EDP (N=39)	**Mainstream (N=395)**	**EDP (N=39)**	**Mainstream (N=402)**
Pass rate %	43.59	73.92	46.15	83.08

Table 4.8 Comparison of EDP and Mainstream pass rates: Control Group 3 (2012)

2012	**PolSci 112 (p=0.09356)**		**PolSci 122 (p=0.28586)**	
	EDP (N=26)	**Mainstream (N=281)**	**EDP (N=26)**	**Mainstream (N=255)**
Pass rate %	84.62	94.31	61.54	71.76

Table 4.9 Comparison of EDP and Mainstream pass rates: Control Group 4 (2013)

2013	**PolSci 112 (p=0.00316)**		**PolSci 122 (p=0.41277)**	
	EDP (N=9)	**Mainstream (N=387)**	**EDP (N=9)**	**Mainstream (N=400)**
Pass rate %	33.33	79.59	55.56	68.75

Table 4.10 Comparison of EDP and Mainstream pass rates: Focus Group (2013)

2013	**PolSci 112 (p=0.79763)**		**PolSci 122 (p=0.69135)**	
	EDP (N=22)	**Mainstream (N=387)**	**EDP (N=22)**	**Mainstream (N=400)**
Pass rate %	81.82	79.59	72.73	68.75

The following can be observed in these tables:

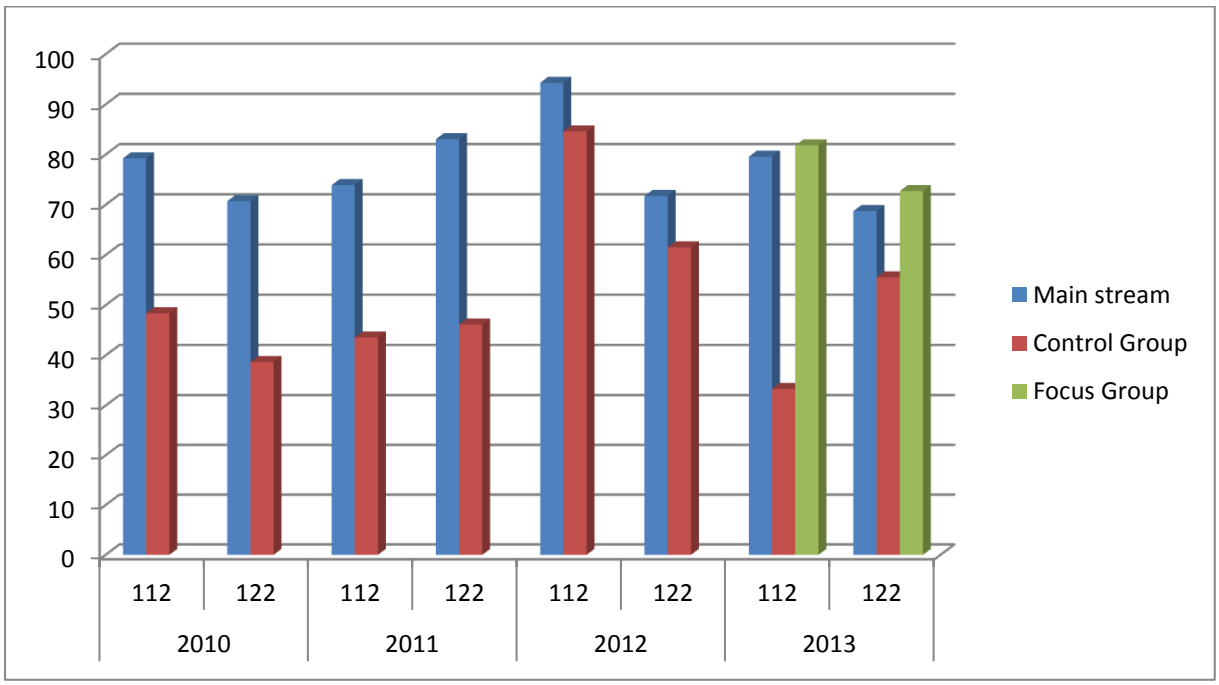
Considering the null hypothesis that there are no statistical differences between the group performance in each year under review, an interesting statistical shift can be observed in the data. In the comparison of the control groups with the mainstream groups in 2010, 2011 and in the case of Political Science 112 in 2013, p-values < 0.05 were achieved and the null hypothesis can therefore be rejected. This shows that there were statistical differences between the groups' performance. However, in the comparison of Control Group 3 in 2012 and the focus group to the mainstream groups in 2013 p-values > 0.05 were achieved (and the

null hypothesis can therefore be confirmed) in both Political Science 112 and 122. The same tendency occurred in the Political Science 122 performance of Control Group 4 in 2013. This suggests that there were no statistically significant differences between the EDP and mainstream groups' pass rate performance. As indicated above, Control Group 3 of 2012 was exposed to the pilot project in 2011, and therefore had some technical terminological support, albeit still not in the format of the quasi-experiments that were conducted in 2013.

The set of p-values > 0.05 shows an increase from the values of 2012 (0.09356 and 0.28586) to the values of 2013 (0.79763 and 0.69135), signifying an even greater similarity between EDP and mainstream student pass rate performance in the latter year. The shift observable in the pass rate performance might be an indication that the gap that existed in the earlier years of the period under review between EDP and mainstream students, and their concomitant pass rates, had closed in 2013, particularly in the group with which the technical terminology intervention was undertaken. These statistics seem to confirm the hypothesis that was formulated for the current study (see section 1.4).

4.3.3 Summary of pass rate performance

In order to consolidate the data from the above-mentioned tables, the following summary is provided in graph form:



Graph 4.2 Pass rates for PolSci 112 and PolSci 122

The graph shows that in the case of all the EDP control groups, the pass rates in the two Political Science modules were markedly lower than the mainstream pass rates. The wide gap in pass rate performance between EDP and mainstream students, particularly in 2010 and 2011, was one of the main reasons why the present study was undertaken. It showed that the

risk of EDP students dropping out or failing these mainstream modules in their first year was much higher than that of their mainstream peers.

In 2012, the pass rates of the EDP control groups were still lower than the mainstream pass rates, even though the gap between the pass rates was smaller in that year. The 2012 EDP group had the best module mean averages (see the analysis of Dataset 1 in section 4.2.3) and pass rates of all EDP students in the period under review. In section 4.2.5, three possible explanations were provided for the 2012 EDP group's improved performance. From the graph, it is clear that there might be a fourth explanation for their better performance, relative to the other EDP groups in the study. In 2012, the overall performance of the whole mainstream group was better than all the other years in Political Science 112. In Political Science 122, the 2012 mainstream group achieved the second highest pass rate performance in the period under review (with the 2011 pass rate in this module the highest). Although these figures could be an additional explanation for the better performance of the EDP group in 2012, it should also be noted that the gap between mainstream students' pass rate performance and that of EDP students was markedly smaller in 2012.

The explanation for the three bars for 2013 in the graph is that two EDP groups (control group 4 and the focus group) were compared to the mainstream group in terms of pass rate performance. EDP Control group 4 in 2013 had markedly lower pass rates than the mainstream group, but also compared to the focus group. The EDP focus group that was exposed to the quasi-experiments had slightly better pass rates than the mainstream group. The focus group's pass rates were thus on a par with those of their mainstream peers. This statistic shows that the gap in pass rates which existed in 2010 and 2011 between mainstream and EDP students appears to have closed in 2013 with the EDP focus group performing on the same level as their peers. The change in p-values over the period under review (as described above in section 4.3.2) confirms this observation. Since pass rates determine throughput rates directly, this improvement in the 2013 EDP focus group students' pass rates relative to the mainstream students in 2013 seems to be significant. It seems plausible to associate this improvement with the intervention that was undertaken in the present study.

4.4 Summary of the results of the quantitative analysis

From the discussion of Datasets 1 and 2 above, changes can be observed in the focus group's pass rates in relation to the (i) EDP control groups and (ii) mainstream groups. Two tendencies that emerge from the data converge to show the success of the quasi-experiments that were conducted in the current study:

(i) Although the focus group in 2013 had the lowest mean Matric/NSC averages, they outperformed three of the four control groups in Political Science 112, and had the best performance in Political Science 122 compared to all control groups;

(ii) The gap in pass rate performance that was salient in 2010 and 2011 between EDP and mainstream students was closed in 2013 when the focus group's pass rates in both Political Science 112 and 122 were highly similar to those of the mainstream group.

Although the quantitative data suggest that the quasi-experiments could have led to the improved mean averages and pass rates of the EDP focus group in 2013, these results will be cross-checked against the data that emerged from the qualitative analysis before any final conclusions can be drawn. The next chapter will therefore focus on the qualitative analysis.

CHAPTER 5

DATA ANALYSIS: QUALITATIVE STUDY

5.1 Introduction

The quasi-experiments described in the previous chapter were designed to observe under controlled circumstances whether systematic exposure to multilingual subject-specific terminology can improve EDP students' success rates in a mainstream programme. The results of the quantitative analysis were discussed in Chapter 4, and the preliminary conclusion based on those results suggests that the terminology intervention likely contributed to the better relative performance of the focus group in terms of their mean percentages for the two mainstream modules, as well as improved pass rates relative to their mainstream peers after the intervention.

According to the problem statement in Chapter 1 (section 1.3), the ultimate aim of the current study was not primarily to determine which strategies can be employed to increase mean percentages and pass rates of individual EDP students, but also how the research can contribute to epistemological access and the improvement of academic literacy support for students who are considered 'academically underprepared'. The quantitative results of the previous chapter should therefore not be interpreted in isolation, but should be understood within the different contexts influencing the results.

A distinction was drawn in Chapter 3 (section 3.4.4) between quantitative research, which is concerned with determining statistical patterns in data collected from representative sample populations, and qualitative analysis, which seeks a deeper understanding of phenomena. In terms of the convergent mixed method design that was used in the current study, the qualitative analysis is aimed at deepening the understanding of the quantitative results and to cross-checking them in the process.

As a first step, the module frameworks and lecturer interviews were analysed in order to gain a better understanding of the pedagogical context within which the intervention was done. The results of these analyses will be discussed in section 5.2. The analysis of the student questionnaires in section 5.3 was aimed at gaining a deeper understanding of the focus group's experience of success, whereas the analysis of their written essays (section 5.4) and tests/examinations (section 5.5) aimed to gain deeper insight into what kinds of knowledge were reflected in their marks.

5.2 Module frameworks and lecturer interviews

As discussed in section 3.4.4.1, the aim of the qualitative analysis of the module frameworks and lecturer interviews was to gain a deepened understanding of the teaching contexts of the two Political Science mainstream modules. The module frameworks were discussed and analysed in detail in section 3.4.4.1, because the

information gained from that analysis (aims of modules, expected outcomes, assessment strategies, scheduling) was a determining factor in the design of the quasi-experiments. For that reason, the module frameworks will not be discussed in detail here again.

The format of and procedure for the semi-structured interviews with the respective lecturers were also explained in detail in section 3.4.4.1.[1]

5.2.1 Pre-interview data

From the pre-interview data that were collected from the lecturers, the following emerged:

(i) *Number of students enrolled in the mainstream module*: Both modules, Political Science 112 (387 students) and Political Science 122 (400 students), had large classes. Because such large classes do not fit into the available venues, and the different subject combinations on students' timetables do not allow for lectures to take place in one plenary group, the classes in both modules were divided into two groups, with the same lecturer repeating the mainstream lectures. Considering the large number of students in the mainstream lectures, it seemed unlikely that students who did not understand key technical concepts would ask for further clarification during such lectures. Furthermore, it did not seem realistic that lecturers would have time to explain concepts to individual students in a lecture, given the fact that they are under pressure to cover a certain number of textbook chapters during lectures.

In the mainstream tutorials, the class was divided into 20 small groups which were not presented by the mainstream lecturers. Instead, six postgraduate student tutors were responsible for the mainstream tutorials. In these smaller groups, more personal interaction was possible, and students who struggled to understand difficult theoretical concepts had the opportunity to raise their questions. However, the focus in the mainstream tutorials, as explained in section 3.4.4.4, was on developing students' essay writing, argumentation, and referencing skills. It thus seems that the class dynamics of large classes, combined with the primary focus of the mainstream tutorials, created a learning environment where there was limited opportunity for engaging with key concepts in the subject field.

(ii) *Number of lectures per week*: In both Political Science modules, the lecturers had to teach three lectures per week that had to be repeated due to the class size and timetable considerations, as discussed above. Since the two lecturers involved both indicated in the respective interviews (as discussed below) that they did not only teach first-year modules, but also had other teaching and research responsibilities, it seemed unlikely that they would be in a position to provide additional language support to students who struggled to adjust academically.

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[1] See Appendix B for the lecturer interview schedule.

(iii) *Medium of instruction in the lectures*: According to the language plan of Stellenbosch University – that was in place in the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences during 2013, when the current study was done – the lectures in both modules were presented according to the so-called T-option, which meant that both English and Afrikaans were used in the same lecture.[2]

(iv) *Medium of instruction in the mainstream tutorials*: The mainstream tutorials were also offered in the so-called T-option, where both Afrikaans and English are used in the same class. The expectation was that the tutorials would create a teaching environment where students who struggled to understand difficult content in the prescribed English textbook and bilingual lectures would receive additional support.

Some general questions were included in the lecturer interview schedules to elicit information about the wider context of the lecturers' teaching experiences. In addition, several insights which are directly related to the current study emerged from the semi-structured lecturer interviews, as will be discussed in the next four subsections.

5.2.2 Lecturer support

When lecturers were asked about the extent of institutional support that they could rely on in teaching multilingual first-year Political Science students, the following emerged:

One lecturer indicated that s/he[3] had adequate support with regards to the preparation of bilingual lectures; the other lecturer experienced that there was not adequate support in this regard, which meant that the translations of the Powerpoint class notes had to be done by the lecturer. One lecturer mentioned that there was too little institutional guidance in implementing the so-called T-option of bilingual tuition in practice. S/he indicated that it is up to the lecturer to implement the T-option in the classroom.

With regard to institutional mechanisms to provide support for lecturers if there were first-year students in their modules who could not understand either Afrikaans or English in lectures, both lecturers indicated that there was none at the time.[4] Students

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[2] At the time, the following language options were available in the Stellenbosch University language plan: A-option: Afrikaans only tuition; E-option: English only tuition; T-option: Bilingual tuition in Afrikaans and English; and P-option: tuition in Afrikaans and English in separate parallel classes. In all options, class notes had to be prepared in both Afrikaans and English, while prescribed literature was mainly in English. The choice for the T-option in the Political Science lectures was a result of the fact that the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences deliberately opted for the bilingual model of teaching and learning in order not to perpetuate the racial and language divides of the past, a likely consequence of separate Afrikaans and English lectures.

[3] In order to protect the anonymity of the respective lecturers, their gender is concealed through the use of the generic pronoun form.

[4] When the quasi-experiments were done, simultaneous interpretation services were not yet available in the Department of Political Science in the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences. In January 2015, the university implemented its revised language policy and plan. See http://www.sun.ac.za/english/about-us/language (accessed 26 February 2015). Section 7(c) of the revised language policy states: "Parallel-medium teaching and real-time educational interpreting are used as preferred options where practically

had to get support from tutors after lectures, or arrange private meetings with the tutors or lecturers. (One interesting observation from the questionnaires that the focus group had to fill in after using their multilingual glossaries in the two modules was that the majority of students who do not have English as mother-tongue took the translated trilingual glossaries along to the lectures to look up technical terminology that they did not understand. The glossaries could thus fulfil a similar role for mainstream students who do not have either English or Afrikaans as mother-tongue. This aspect will be discussed again in section 5.3 where the focus will be on the data from the student questionnaires.) In the case of written language support, one lecturer indicated that students could consult the University's Language Centre for additional support in academic essay writing.

In response to the question as to whether lecturers have adequate support to deal with culturally and religiously sensitive concepts and issues (which is not only a pertinent issue in South African Political Science, but also a contentious issue internationally) both lecturers indicated that there is no specific institutional support or guidelines. Both lecturers also agreed that there was hardly any time to explore local or international teaching innovations.

Both lecturers furthermore indicated that it would help them in their preparation of bilingual lectures and the setting of test and examination papers if they had the trilingual technical terminology of the textbooks available online. The trilingual technical glossaries thus constitute an institutional mechanism that could potentially provide tangible support to first-year lecturers, especially when they are faced with a heavy administrative, teaching and marking load, which undermines their capacity to do sustainable research in their subject field.

5.2.3 Teaching Political Science concepts

In response to the question as to whether there are concepts in the subject field of Political Science that they regard as 'threshold concepts'[5] that are essential to master the discipline, the respective lecturers listed the following:

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feasible and affordable." In June 2016, a new language policy was adopted by the SU Council, which will take effect in January 2017. See: http://www.sun.ac.za/english/Documents/Language/Final%20Language%20Policy%20June%202016.pdf (accessed 2 August 2016).

[5] See section 2.8.2.1 in chapter 2 for a discussion of the importance of 'threshold concepts'.

Table 5.1 Threshold concepts mentioned by lecturers

Introduction to Political Science	**International Relations**
Politics	Politics
Power	Power
Institutions (e.g. executive, legislative)	Institutions
Government	The state
Parliamentary and presidential systems	Economic analysis
Ideologies	Control and authority
Democracy	Global vs International

In addition to the concepts that appeared in the module outline, it was useful to get an idea of what each lecturer regarded as threshold concepts in the discipline. As mentioned in Chapter 3 (section 3.4.3.3), concepts from several themes were eventually discussed in the weekly terminology tutorials, in line with the information on threshold concepts that emerged from the module outlines and lecturer interviews:

In the first term (Political Science 112), concepts relating to the following themes were discussed:

- Political ideologies (focusing on definitions of ideology, liberalism, socialism and the various related concepts in the glossary);
- Democracy (focusing on positive and negative freedom);
- The state and the government;
- Power and legitimacy;
- Regimes/political systems.

Technical terminology relating to the following themes was chosen for the second term (Political Science 122):

- Conservative and transformative/critical theories;
- The crisis of democracy;
- States and international organisations;
- Versions of power in international relations;
- International political economy;
- Globalisation and regionalisation.

In response to Perkins's (2008:12–15) definition of proactive knowledge, both lecturers agreed that students must learn to apply their knowledge and mobilise their formally acquired knowledge beyond classroom settings (in contrast to possessive knowledge). According to both lecturers, students should be challenged right from the beginning of their first year of study to make connections between concepts used in class and their applications beyond the classroom. This view was taken into account in structuring discussions about technical terminology in the weekly technical terminology tutorials. Technical terminology was not only taught with the aim of having surface knowledge of

the terms and their definitions, but with the focus on linking concepts to thinkers (where applicable) and the broader reality outside the classroom.

In the discussion with lecturers about teaching large classes, both noted that they expect students to do prior reading for their lectures. One lecturer indicated that s/he normally used show of hands and oral questions and answers during lectures to establish whether students had done the reading. This lecturer indicated that s/he normally tried to make time for discussion and did not regard discussions as disruptive, since "students are interested if they are making contributions during lectures". This lecturer indicated that s/he latched onto students' practical experience, and then taught them the theory behind the experience. It was clear that the lecturer had an innovative approach to teaching. While s/he was conveying expert knowledge in the transmission mode of teaching (see section 2.7.3.2), s/he was providing the necessary scaffolding so that students could use their prior learning and practical life experience to understand the theory behind political phenomena.

While the other lecturer also used the transmission mode of teaching, s/he was also prepared to allow discussion during lectures. These discussions were normally in response to individual students' comments or questions during lectures.

5.2.4 Assessments

The formal aspects concerning assessments were set out in the module outlines, as discussed in section 3.4.4.1 in Chapter 3. However, the specific aims pursued with these assessments were established in the semi-structured interviews with the two lecturers.

In the case of the module 'Introduction to Political Science,' the lecturer noted in the structured interview that the primary aims of assessment in this module were to test (i) knowledge, (ii) understanding and (iii) writing skills and argumentation. All the tests and examinations were set by the lecturer personally. S/he normally used the multiple choice format for tests and examinations because of the large number of students in the first-year Political Science classes. The written essays, by contrast, were marked by the post-graduate Political Science tutors who also presented the mainstream tutorials. The latter were specifically aimed at skills building (including essay writing and referencing). Since the lecturer's colleagues expected students to be at a certain level after the introductory module to Political Science, students were expected to master these skills during the scheduled mainstream tutorials. This meant that there was little time to discuss the course content with struggling students during mainstream tutorials.

According to the lecturer in the 'International Relations' module, the primary aims of assessment in this module were that students had to learn 'to analyse' rather than 'to describe', and that they had to understand the world rather than simply describe theories. Students had to learn how theory was applied in the world. The established format and number of the assessments in this module were described in section 3.4.4.1

in Chapter 3. The lecturer noted, however, that it would be useful to align students' subject knowledge with the realities of the divergent professional careers for which they were preparing themselves. The following examples were given by the lecturer: Students should develop the capacity to write short newspaper articles, to do thorough political analyses, and to extract the essence from huge amounts of information. The lecturer was aware of the fact that the existing assessment format did not facilitate such outcomes. It seemed that the large number of first-year Political Science students and the heavy teaching and administrative loads inhibited the lecturer's creativity, and his/her willingness to reflect critically on the established format of assessment in the department.

Whereas the multiple choice assessments were marked by technical assistants and the two term essays were marked by tutors, the lecturer normally marked the examination essays personally.

It was thus clear from the lecturer interviews that – apart from the examination essays in the second module – lecturers were not exposed to how students engaged with the academic content of their lectures in any written format. Although lecturers had access to students' marks in the assessments during the semester, they did not necessarily know what understanding was reflected by students' marks in order to focus in their lectures on students' misconceptions that might need further attention.

5.2.5 Student preparedness and support

Lecturers were asked about their experience of students' preparedness for university study and whether provision was made to support students who might be considered 'academically underprepared'. Both lecturers agreed that students were not adequately prepared for university study by the school system. This 'underpreparedness' related to the following aspects: academic essay writing; use of technical subject-specific terminology; critical thinking skills; basic grammar rules; research skills and the use of academic language. One lecturer mentioned that it might appear that students have a limited worldview and a lack of general knowledge, but it should be borne in mind that students possess other forms of knowledge and skills that are not necessarily tested in formal assessments.

Since both lecturers also taught senior Political Science students, they were asked whether their impression was that first-year students master the key concepts of the subject area by the end of their first year. Both lecturers agreed that this was not the case. One lecturer felt that some students still did not seem to master key concepts by their third year of study.

In the case of non-native speakers of English, both lecturers agreed that it could contribute to these students' academic integration and success in Political Science if

they had access to the technical terminology of the subject field in their mother-tongue, even if they were taught in English at school.

In reply to the question as to whether the lecturers regarded the prescribed textbooks as providing (i) appropriate academic support for the students they teach in a South African context and (ii) a comprehensive introduction to the subject of Political Science, Heywood was regarded as a good introduction to the subject field.[6] McGowan et al. (2006) was considered more appropriate to the South African context, but the criticism of the lecturer was that the content of the textbook had not been updated since 2006, even though it had been reprinted in 2007 and 2010.

From the lecturers' responses, it was clear that the textbooks, together with their multilingual technical glossaries, could potentially help students to master the key concepts of the subject area in their first year. Furthermore, while mainstream tutorials seemed to address students' academic 'underpreparedness' in terms of academic essay writing and technical skills (such as referencing and library research techniques), it seemed that there were not adequate resources to support students who might be considered 'underprepared' in terms of a limited worldview, a lack of general knowledge, critical thinking skills and basic language proficiency. It emerged from the second set of the student questionnaires which will be discussed below that some of these aspects were addressed in the weekly technical terminology tutorials, even though that was not the main purpose of the tutorials.

5.3 Student questionnaires

The methodology for the two sets of student questionnaires was discussed in Chapter 3 (section 3.4.4.2). These questionnaires were only completed by those EDP students in the focus group who took part in the intervention in 2013. It was stated in section 3.4.4.2 that the aim of the first questionnaire (Q1), which was completed before the start of the intervention, was to establish students' self-perception about their preparedness for university study, as well as their views on multilingual education.

After completion of the intervention, a set of two questionnaires was completed by the focus group students. The first of these (Q2A) documented the students' intuitive experiences of the weekly technical terminology tutorials on the one hand, and the trilingual glossaries on the other hand. The second questionnaire of this set (Q2B) contained more leading questions with the aim of getting more specific feedback on the focus group's actual experiences of the teaching strategy followed in the weekly technical terminology tutorials. Furthermore, it explored whether students with different home languages used different modes of engagement with the trilingual glossaries.

[6] After this interview was conducted with the lecturers a new updated and expanded edition of Heywood appeared in 2013 that contains more discussions of contemporary international issues.

The analysis of these questionnaires is done below by means of a categorisation and ordering of the student responses, according to the broad themes addressed in the respective questionnaires.[7]

5.3.1 First student questionnaire (before intervention) (Q1)

The language profile of the students in the focus group was established by means of two questions in this questionnaire, namely those about their home language and their language of teaching and learning at school level. The distribution was as follows:

Table 5.2 Language profile of the students in the focus group

	Home language (N=22)	**Language of instruction on school level**
Afrikaans	6	Afrikaans: 6
Afrikaans/English	2	English: 2
English	8	English: 8
isiXhosa	2	English: 2
isiZulu	1	English: 1
Portuguese	1	English: 1
Sesotho	1	English: 1
siSwati	1	English: 1

The majority of students in the focus group (16 of 22) felt that high school education prepared them adequately for university. Those students who felt that they were not adequately prepared noted that they were never taught to write an academic essay at school. The majority of these students did not have a strategy in place to find out how to write an academic essay. Two other students mentioned that high school is too easy in comparison to university, and that students are spoon-fed at high school. Another student mentioned incompetent teachers and the fact that time was not used efficiently for learning as the reasons for her 'underpreparedness' for university study. Most students indicated that their biggest adjustments from school to university were the increase in workload, the fast pace and time management.

The majority of the students (17 of 22) indicated that they took Political Science because they were interested in the subject. They expected that the subject would increase their knowledge of politics. Five students indicated that they just wanted to pass.

The majority of the students (14 of 22) felt that they had a good general knowledge and engaged regularly with news programmes and documentaries. They also indicated that they intended to employ other strategies to broaden their general knowledge such as

[7] See Appendix C for the three student questionnaires.

watching news on television, discussions with other students, reading books and newspapers, and social networking.

All students bought a copy of the prescribed textbooks, Heywood (2007) and McGowan et al. (2006). Only 14 students attended the library visit organised by the lecturer during the first two weeks, and 20 students indicated that they knew how to search for sources in the library. Eighteen students indicated that they had received a copy of the Language Centre booklet on referencing and 18 students indicated that they knew the Harvard referencing system, which is used by the Department of Political Science.

Eighteen students felt that a trilingual glossary would help them to understand technical concepts of the subject field better, 17 felt that a glossary would help them to achieve better academic results, 17 felt that a glossary would help them to feel more confident to participate in class discussions, and 13 students indicated that they intended to use the glossaries during lectures. Sixteen students indicated that they understood bilingual lectures (two languages in one class), 18 students felt that a multilingual educational environment would benefit their future careers and 18 students indicated that hearing multiple languages in class has educational advantages.

In summary, the responses to the questions of the first questionnaire indicate that the students had overly optimistic views of their preparedness for higher education, even though they were critical of some aspects of their high school education. As students started grappling with the mainstream workload and essay deadlines, they started realising that they were not as well prepared as they had initially anticipated. Whereas they previously thought that they knew how to search for sources in the library and that they had mastered the Harvard referencing system, they expressed confusion and uncertainty after receiving back their first graded essays. While the majority of the students furthermore indicated that they had a good general knowledge, it emerged in the technical terminology tutorials that some actually had a very limited worldview and no the general knowledge that was assumed in the subject field. Often when a technical term was discussed it was not enough to work with the term and its definition, because students did not have the prior knowledge that was assumed in the technical terminology definition. They also seemed to lack the historical consciousness that was necessary to interpret contemporary events and were not able to interpret concepts in their historical contexts. The researcher's experiences with the students in the technical terminology tutorials therefore stood in contrast to the self-perceptions of students that were expressed in response to the questionnaire before the terminology tutorials.

5.3.2 Second student questionnaires (after intervention) (Q2A and Q2B)

In questionnaire Q2A, students were again asked about their home language and whether they had ever been instructed in their home language. In Q2A, a distinction was made between language of instruction at pre-school level, and in grades 1-3, 4-7, 8-10 and 11-12.

With regard to the question about home language, it is interesting to note that two students who had indicated in Q1 that their home language was English, changed this to isiXhosa in Q2A after the module. Another student who also indicated that her home language was English in Q1 later said that her home language was actually Setswana. She deregistered during the module and therefore did not complete Q2A, however.

As regards the question about the language in which they had received instruction at pre-school and school level, only three students with African home languages (one each with isiXhosa, Sesotho and siSwati) indicated that they had been instructed in their home language at pre-school level. These three students, together with all the other students with African home languages, received instruction in English from grade 1 to 12. The Portuguese student was instructed in Portuguese until grade 7, and he switched to English in grade 8. All Afrikaans students were instructed in Afrikaans from pre-school to grade 12, with the exception of one student who changed to English in grade 11. All the Afrikaans/English and English students received instruction in English from pre-school until grade 12.

In Q2A, students who failed one or both modules were prompted to reflect on why they thought they had failed the module(s). The following reasons were given in response to this question (direct quotations from Q2A):[8]

- "I didn't get enough time to study; there were other modules at that time that I needed to study too and I felt that the workload was too much."
- "Essay writing was not structured correctly and did not meet the requirements of the papers."
- "I did not hand in assignments in time."

In the first part of students' intuitive responses in Q2A about the weekly technical terminology tutorials, they were asked what they considered the most useful aspects of these tutorials. These aspects are categorised below, and they are illustrated with direct quotations from the students' responses. Note that the categories in Table 5.3 allow for a measure of overlap so that some comments occur in more than one category.

Table 5.3 Student responses about weekly technical terminology tutorials

Most useful aspects of weekly	**Quotations from students' responses**

[8] Six of the 22 students in the focus group failed one or both Political Science modules. Three of these completed Q2A and Q2B, but the remaining three deregistered earlier and did not complete the questionnaires after the intervention.

technical terminology tutorials	
1. Facilitating learning and understanding	• "The tutorials helped with questions that I had or something I did not understand regarding the work." • "Basically, discussions in class made me understand the work better than having to go to lectures and listen to lecturers teach us." • "I was able to recognise and understand the work and assignments better." • "It creates a better understanding of the module." • "There were a couple of aspects that really helped me grasp my understanding of Political Science 112 and 122." • "I think that the most useful aspect of the terminology tutorials was that it forced us to engage with our work more and with better understanding." • "It was a amore in-depth discussion of the lectures so it ... and made sure that I understood the work we were doing." • "It helped me study concepts in brief and understand them." • "The weekly terminology tuts helped a lot with understanding the kind of terminology used in academic texts." • "The tutorials helped me to understand the work better." • "The tutorials gave us time to understand the work in depth." • "It allowed students to ask questions of things they were uncertain about or of concepts that they did not understand properly while in class." • "Students would not get many opportunities to clarify their doubts in class, and the tutorials gave them a chance to clarify the things they were confused about." • "Help met sekere terme wat mens nie dadelik verstaan nie." *(Helps with certain terms one does not understand right away0.* • "The weekly terminology offered a clear broad overview of the work that had been covered in class." • "Whatever I did not understand during the lecture, it was made clear during the tutorial." • "I felt that the contextualizing and vocalizing of terms and concepts openly in class helped me to absorb and process the information more efficiently." • "Because students are obligated to interact on a more fraternizing basis, understanding not only becomes better but can sometimes go beyond the standard of the curriculum."
2. Simplifying and explaining content	• "Going over key concepts that are applied towards political science terminology, it creates a better understanding of the module." • "The Terminology tutorials helped me a lot; it gave a

	broader view of the different topics that had been discussed." • "They gave us an added advantage to the mainstream students as they broke down the work we did in class." • "The terminology lists were a vital source as they helped not only to fully engage and develop my political science vocabulary, they allowed me to be able to define concepts, notions and terms used in Political Science." • "It showed us how one word could put the entire sentence or paragraph in context." • "The weekly terminology provided brief and concise explanations and examples of the concept under study."
3. Engaging class discussions	• "The one thing I found helpful in the weekly terminology was the discussion in the tutorial, when the lecturer would pose a question and one of the class members would answer, I would understand the work because they explain the work using simple terms that makes it easier for me to understand." • "I could place things in my own words easily and prove that I understood what I read and could elaborate on that." • "I think that the most useful aspect of the terminology tutorials was that it forced us to engage with our work more." • "I liked the fact that it was engaging and that we were asked to answer questions and give our opinions." • "The tutorials were plausible for giving students a chance to participate and get more engaged with the topics in discussion than they would in class." • "The tutorials were interactive." • "The most useful aspect of the tuts was ... the conversing part of it." • "The fact that the class is structured to motivate students to come up with the answers for themselves helps to broaden their knowledge."
4. Facilitating essay writing	• "Writing the different essays for the topics given was also a lot easier, because of the terminology tutorials." • "It was a more in-depth discussion of the lectures so it contained more detail that prepared me better for tests and essays."
5. Disciplined learning	• "Falling behind with work was no longer an issue." • "Help om op datum te bly met wat in die spesifieke module aangaan." *(Helps to stay updated with what is happening in the specific module).*
6. Becoming familiar with Political Science concepts	• "Going over key concepts that is applied towards political science terminology." • "The terminology lists were a vital source as they helped not only fully engage and develop my political science vocabulary, they allowed me to be able to define concepts, notions and terms used in Political Science." • "It showed us how one word could put the entire

	sentence or paragraph in context." • The weekly terminology provided brief, and concise explanations and examples of the concept under study." • "It helped me study concepts in brief and understand them." • "...as well as broaden our vocabulary and finally helped us articulate ourselves better." • "The most useful aspects were the terminology lists."
7. Emotional support	• "The tutorials were not only a place where you could learn the work, but also a supportive system." • "[Students] were under less pressure since there were not too many students in the tutorial groups." • "Also, because students are obligated to interact on a more fraternizing basis, understanding not only becomes better but can sometimes go beyond the standard of the curriculum."

In the second part of Q2A, students were asked to reflect on the value of the trilingual glossaries in Q2A. Those aspects that students considered most useful, are categorised below and illustrated with direct quotations from the students' responses:

Table 5.4 Student responses about most useful aspects of trilingual glossaries

Most useful aspects of trilingual glossaries	**Quotations from students' responses**
1. Understanding difficult terms	• "... it would in most cases make more sense and in that way I get to understand the term." • "Having to translate it made it easier to understand." • "Provides clarity in class when they refer to concepts in your second language." • "The trilingual glossary for me served as "quick access dictionary" for definitions of words and terms I did not know or understand." • "The definitions were also easy enough to understand as they were not as formal, and they often had examples of relatable terms which I already knew, which made it even easier to understand." • "... one could easily refer to the glossary for quick understanding." • "Again making it easier to map and understand exactly what you are studying and what it relates to." • "... this made the diverse subjects debated in the class easier to understand." • "... verstaan die terme van die verpligte leeswerk beter." *(understand the terms in the prescribed readings better)* • "The glossary gave clear definitions of terms in Political Science which helped a lot with my studying and understanding of the work."
2. Help with assessments	• "We knew which definitions were important and might be asked in the tests."

	• "Finally the glossary was a very practical tool since it not only had definitions but also chapter references which helped a lot while writing essays or studying." • "The glossary made it easier to learn the work."
3. Facilitate multilingualism	• "It taught me about two other languages that was not my home language." • "The fact that I can read and understand both English and Xhosa made things simpler. The minute I would not understand the English term I would go straight to the Xhosa definition and it would in most cases make more sense and in that way I get to understand the term." • "By seeing the definitions in one language and then having to translate it made it easier to understand, because u had to understand the topic to translate it." • "Knowing the key concepts in all three languages provided." • "The trilingual glossary was great because it exposed me to Afrikaans words and isiXhosa words." • "It helped me learn what the terminology meant in another language." • "The glossary was extremely useful. I am English, but being a linguist I take an interest in learning other languages."
4. Facilitate mother tongue learning	• "The minute I would not understand the English term I would go straight to the Xhosa definition and it would in most cases make more sense and in that way I get to understand the term." • "Provides clarity in class when they refer to concepts in your second language." • "... it helped having the additional knowledge of academic political terms in your own language." • "It makes learning much easier to study some of concept in one's native language especially if English is not your mother tongue." • "The glossary with definitions described the words for non-English speaking people better." • "People usually find being instructed in their own home language easier to cope with than to learn in a different language." • "The trilingual glossary made it much easier for students to understand things not only in English but also in their home languages."

The expectation before Q2A was that students with Afrikaans, Afrikaans/English, isiXhosa, and isiXhosa/English would find the trilingual glossaries most useful. This was confirmed by the overwhelmingly positive responses of these students. However, those students with English, siSwati, and Portuguese as home languages also found the intensive engagement with the technical terminology as such useful. It seems that it was not the trilingual aspect of the glossaries that benefited these specific students most, but

rather the fact that the glossaries contained technical terminology with their definitions which were explained in accessible language.

As was mentioned in section 5.3, Q2B contained more leading questions to find out how students experienced the teaching strategy in the weekly terminology tutorials. In the first question (with a spectrum of possible answers), the aim was to get a more nuanced impression of the particular aspects of the weekly technical terminology tutorials students found most useful. They had to provide an evaluation of six aspects on a scale of 'not helpful at all' (0), 'quite useful' (1), and 'very useful' (2). Since four students deregistered for the mainstream subject during the semester, they did not complete Q2B. A further three students made various errors in the completion of Q2B. Where no response was available it is indicated in the 'No' column in the table below. The students responded as follows:

Table 5.5 Students' evaluation of weekly terminology tutorials

Aspect evaluated	**No**	**0**	**1**	**2**
I could read and understand the meaning of the technical terminology in my home language before the tutorials.	4	1	8	9
We received a limited number of technical terms to prepare in depth every week before the tutorials.	5	1	6	10
We discussed the terms and actively engaged about their meanings during the tutorials.	4	1	6	11
I realised that I was not the only one who struggled to understand difficult concepts and other students were just as confused and anxious about them.	5	3	8	6
I felt that my own opinion about the practical application of a concept to my own cultural or language group made a contribution to the discussion of the concept in the tutorial.	5	6	2	9
The technical terminology with definitions helped me to pass the modules.	4	1	3	14
TOTALS	27	13	33	59

The aspect of the terminological tutorials that was evaluated most positively was the technical terminology with definitions, which the students felt helped them to pass the mainstream modules. Another aspect that was also evaluated positively was the fact that the students could discuss the terms and actively engage about their meanings during the tutorials.

In the second question (with a spectrum of possible answers) in Q2B, the aim was to get a more nuanced impression of the purpose for which students used the trilingual glossaries. First, it was established with which language version(s) the students typically engaged in preparing for the weekly technical terminology tutorials. The same students mentioned in the discussion of the first question of Q2B above did not provide responses. The results were as follows:

Table 5.6 Students' usage patterns of trilingual glossaries

Language version of glossaries used	**Number of students (N=22, with 4 students not responding)**	**Home Languages of students selecting this option**
Original English terms with their definitions	13	Afrikaans (1) English (5) isiXhosa (4) Portuguese (1) Sesotho (1) siSwati (1)
isiXhosa terms with their definitions	0	--
Afrikaans terms with their definitions	2	Afrikaans (2)
English/isiXhosa terms with their definitions	0	--
English/Afrikaans terms with their definitions	3	Afrikaans (2) English/Afrikaans (1)

From the table above, it seems as if nobody made use of the isiXhosa version of the glossaries. However, this does not correspond to the intuitive responses obtained in Q2A where one isiXhosa student mentioned: "The fact that I can read and understand both English and Xhosa made things simpler. The minute I would not understand the English term I would go straight to the Xhosa definition and it would in most cases make more sense and in that way I get to understand the term." Another isiXhosa student said: "Even though I have only studied in English, the trilingual glossaries with definitions allowed me to related [sic] to terms in the various languages." Another student who indicated that her home languages were Afrikaans/English noted "the trilingual glossaries were great because it exposed me to Afrikaans words and isiXhosa words." One possible explanation for the discrepancy in isiXhosa home language speakers' responses in the two questionnaires can simply be that they were in a hurry to fill in the questionnaire and that they did not read the question carefully. Another reason might be that all of them learnt in English at school and might therefore find it more practical to work intuitively with the English terminology and their definitions, and that they only consulted the isiXhosa versions when they did not understand an English technical term.

Subsequently, students had to indicate how often they used the glossaries for various purposes on a scale of 'never' (0), 'sometimes' (1), and 'always' (2). Where no response was available it is indicated in the 'No' column in the table below. The students responded as follows:

Table 5.7 Students' use of trilingual glossaries for academic purposes

Purpose evaluated	**NO**	**0**	**1**	**2**
Reading (e.g. textbook)	4	1	10	7
Listening / understanding (e.g. lectures)	4	1	12	5
Writing (e.g. essay writing)	4	1	3	14
Preparing for tests/examinations	4	0	3	15
Preparing for weekly terminology tutorials	4	1	11	6
Understanding meaning of concepts	4	0	2	16
Class engagement	4	1	7	10

The three purposes that stood out were 'understanding the meaning of concepts,' 'preparing for tests/examinations,' and 'writing (e.g. essay writing).' The majority of students stated that they always used the glossaries for these purposes. It is also notable that there were very few instances where students indicated that they never used the glossaries for the mentioned purposes.

In summary, students' responses in Q2A and Q2B confirmed that the teaching strategy of engaging with technical terminology in special support tutorials was deemed helpful and successful to facilitate learning and understanding, and to simplify and explain content. It is also clear that the trilingual glossaries helped students to become familiar with Political Science concepts and to understand difficult terms. Students indicated that they used the glossaries most frequently for the purpose of writing essays and studying for tests and examinations.

These two aspects, namely the use of technical terminology in written essays and in other assessments, will be the focus of the next two subsections (5.4 and 5.5).

5.4 Written essays

5.4.1 Procedure and assumptions of analysis

As noted in section 3.4.4.4 in Chapter 3, all mainstream tutorials in Political Science 112 were dedicated to developing students' essay writing skills, argumentation abilities, and engagement with subject-specific bibliographic resources. However, the module framework made no specific reference as to how written work would be evaluated, apart from specifying the technical and plagiarism requirements. From discussions with the lecturer, it seemed that these evaluation criteria were supposed to be discussed in detail with students in the mainstream tutorials.

In Political Science 122, the term framework made specific reference to the criteria which would be used in the evaluation of written work, which included the following:

1. Does the essay respond to the question posed in a satisfactory manner?
2. Does the answer/paper develop a solid, logical argument? In other words, does the student adopt a position, and is it supported by evidence and convincingly presented?

3. How well is the essay structured in terms of an introduction, conclusion and clear paragraphs, and is there coherence across paragraphs (in other words, does the argument 'flow'?)
4. Are statements and sentences clearly and unambiguously formulated?
5. Are concepts clearly defined?
6. Does the paper/answer reflect critical, independent thinking?
7. Are references correct and complete – both in the text and in the bibliography?

It is noteworthy that not one course framework referred to Bloom's taxonomy, or to how command words are defined in Political Science.

It should be borne in mind that the formal criteria for the two modules were used by the tutors who marked the written essays in both modules.[9] A close analysis of tutors' feedback on graded assignments showed a variety of reasons why students lost marks for their essays, which are not only related to the fact that some students were learning in an additional language and not using an academic language register. These include late submission of essays, not conforming to technical essay writing requirements (including in-text referencing and bibliographic references), not answering the specific essay question, poor formulation and incoherent argumentation. The occasional inconsistencies in the allocation of marks for the written essays might need further scrutiny, but were not the focus of this qualitative study.

In Chapter 3 (section 3.4.4.3), it was postulated that a qualitative analysis of EDP students' written essays could potentially contribute to a deeper understanding of their academic performance, which was partially reflected in the quantitative study. The written essays might shed some light on students' conceptual understanding (or not) in their engagement with mainstream subject content. So instead of focusing on the reasons why students lost marks in their written essays, it was decided to consider two factors in the qualitative analysis of the written essays, namely (i) the frequency of students' use of technical terminology that was taught with the aid of the technical glossaries, and (ii) the correct use of terms and their definitions, based on the technical glossaries. The former may be a reflection of students' increased confidence as a result of their familiarity with the subject field's technical terminology and their resultant meaning-making capacity, even though frequent use of a technical term does not necessarily constitute understanding. The latter may reflect students' conceptual clarity in the field and whether the technical terminology and their definitions increased their understanding and facilitated epistemological access in the process.

[9] It was not in the scope of the current study to do inter-marker reliability analyses, but this aspect should be investigated further.

The coding of the student essays was done by the researcher using the software package Atlas.TI (version 7.5.4).[10] The following strategy was followed:

(i) The essays were grouped into four primary documents according to the four essays that had to be written for the two Political Science modules (two essays each for modules 112 and 122).[11] This grouping was done irrespective of whether the essays were submitted in Afrikaans or English.

(ii) The primary documents were 'cleaned' from all written textual data that might compromise the anonymity of the work (such as students' names and student numbers, as well as lecturers' and tutors' names). All bibliographic references that could lead to the coding of insignificant textual data in the semi-automatic process of coding were also eliminated.

(iii) In line with qualitative data analysis methodology, the assumption was that there was no need to compare the use and understanding of all technical terminology contained in the trilingual glossaries with all the student essays, but rather to use a well-motivated and substantiated selection of technical terms for the analysis in order to arrive at a deepened understanding of the textual data. The analysis of the lecturer interviews and the module outlines in Chapter 3 (section 3.4.4.3) led to the identification of certain threshold concepts and relevant themes that were considered important in the mainstream modules.[12] That selection was used to do the planning for the technical terminology tutorials; and technical terminology related to these threshold concepts and relevant themes were accordingly chosen from the glossaries to discuss with the students in the focus group tutorials. In order to gain insight into students' understanding of this selection of terminology, the researcher decided to restrict the qualitative analysis of the student essays to the same selection of threshold concepts, which eventually served as codes in the coding process.

(iv) The coding took place through a manual process where the selected codes were assigned by the researcher to quotations of various lengths. The selection of quotations in Atlas.TI and the coding with selected terms remain subjective processes in qualitative research, and can therefore not yield objective results as such. However, subjectivity was controlled in the coding process by the fact that only one person did the coding, and the results were not interpreted in isolation,

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[10] See the discussion in section 3.4.4.3 on how coding functions in qualitative analyses.

[11] Each set of essays consisted of all the essays that were submitted for the particular assignment. Although there were 22 students in the focus group in 2013, not all students submitted essays every time. The four sets therefore contained different numbers of essays (17, 17, 18, and 20 respectively). Furthermore, in the two assignments of Political Science 122, students had a short list of different essay topics to choose from in each case. All the essays, irrespective of the topic chosen, were grouped together in one set, however. Since the aim of the qualitative analysis was not to show any representative patterns, but rather to gain a deepened understanding of EDP students' use of technical terminology in their essays, these factors were assumed to be irrelevant to the outcome of the analysis.

[12] See the discussion of the results of that qualitative analysis in section 5.2.3 above.

but rather in conjunction with the other qualitative research strategies used in the current study.

(v) The frequency of the use of each concept/theme and related terminology was determined by means of the number of quotations for each term. This was not done for quantitative purposes, but rather to reflect the relative richness of the usage of the selected terms in the reporting process.

(vi) All quotations from the coded textual data for a selection of concepts/themes were exported for the report in the present discussion.[13] This implies that each group of essays (represented in the primary documents analysed in Atlas.TI) was analysed with a small selection (three or four) of significant threshold concepts (which were defined in the trilingual glossaries) in order to arrive at a deepened understanding of how those concepts were used by EDP students in their essays. No claims are therefore made by the researcher that the selection is representative of terms in the glossaries, or the subject field, or exhaustive in terms of students' understanding of threshold concepts in the subject field. In line with qualitative methodology, however, the motivated selection of terminology for coding the essay textual data can lead to better insight into the students' use of technical terminology.

(vii) The quotations – irrespective of grammatical correctness and academic formulation – were analysed to gain insight into EDP students' understanding of the technical terminology, and their resultant meaning-making capabilities. In each case, the extracted quotations were categorized in terms of a three-tiered shading system. No shading means that no aspect of the concept's definition is reflected in the quotation. It should be noted, however, that those quotations without any shading do not necessarily provide 'wrong' information. The statement(s) in the quotation might give relevant information within the broader context of the essay (e.g. about the background of the concept), but this information does not necessarily reflect anything of the student's understanding of the concept. The second tier, which reflects a partial understanding of the concept in terms of the definition, is indicated with lighter shading while those quotations reflecting a fairly good understanding of the concept in terms of the definition are indicated with darker shading.[14] At the beginning of each

[13] It should be noted that the quotations were left in the students' original formulations, and were not edited for the report below.

[14] It should be noted that in essay-writing different aspects of a definition will typically be discussed in separate sections (and therefore not necessarily in single sentences or paragraphs). The coding that was done on the written essay data typically included sentences or paragraphs as units in the marking of quotations. This implies that where definitions were provided over greater textual units than sentences or paragraphs (such as in different sections), the quotations marked in light shading which reflect only a partial understanding might accumulatively reflect an enriched understanding of a concept which would result in more 'fairly good' understandings indicated by the darker shading. However, because the quotations are not traced back to individual essays in this analysis, such richer understanding will not be reflected in the selected quotations.

discussion, the relationship between the shading and the aspects of the definition is explained.

The discussion below is structured in accordance with the selection of threshold concepts/themes that was used in the coding of and reporting on the textual data. However, in order to differentiate between the two modules, the selection of terms is presented in two groups (sections 5.4.2 and 5.4.3). In order to ensure conciseness and manageability for the purpose of the current analysis, it was decided to report on only one set of student essays in each module, namely the first essay in Political Science 112, and the second essay in Political Science 122. Chronologically, these were students' first and last essays during the semester of the intervention, and it could be interesting to see whether there was any improvement in students' understanding over time. Whereas the first essay in Political Science 112 required students to describe some abstract ideological categories, the second essay in Political Science 122 challenged students to reflect on issues such as foreign policy, globalisation and international relations.

With reference to Perkins's distinction between possessive, performative and proactive knowledge (Perkins, 2008), it was decided to use different strategies in the analyses in sections 5.4.2 and 5.4.3, respectively. Perkins defines possessive and performative knowledge as follows: "According to th[e] possessive conception, knowledge is money in the cognitive bank. ... The performative conception foregrounds not just how much knowledge you have but how much you can do with what you have" (2008:4). Perkins distinguishes 'proactive knowledge' from the above, however, and notes:

> Just as performative knowledge includes but goes beyond possessive knowledge, so proactive knowledge includes but goes beyond performative knowledge. ... For the kind of learning we want, important as understanding is, we need to step beyond understanding. ... [T]he world often speaks with a softer voice. Knowledge needs to function proactively if it is to function at all. In the complex contemporary world, the mobilisation of formally acquired knowledge beyond classroom settings is becoming ever more of an urgent and neglected priority (Perkins, 2008:4–5).

Perkins (2013) further contends that organising teaching around threshold concepts can contribute to all three elements of proactive learning: the ability to apply knowledge with understanding, to engage actively with knowledge, and to apply knowledge actively, creatively and imaginatively in various contexts to form the basis for further inquiry. Threshold concepts constitute cognitive 'hooks' that the student can use to apply knowledge effectively. Moreover, knowledge structured around threshold concepts becomes richer and more meaningful. As such, it helps students to engage actively with new knowledge. However, as Perkins (2008:14) points out, "educating for proactive knowledge calls for a shift from a culture of demand to a culture of opportunity. In a culture of opportunity, what learners do – the range of choice, the contexts of application, the spectrum of motives and feelings involved, and many other aspects – becomes more open and ranges more widely".

With reference to this distinction, the aim in section 5.4.2 will be to establish the focus group students' understanding of certain threshold concepts (i.e. possessive knowledge), while section 5.4.3, on the other hand, will examine to what extent they were able to apply a selection of theories of international relations in their discussion of the essay topics (i.e. proactive knowledge). The idea was to determine if students were able to transfer their learning, in that they could use knowledge in one context that they acquired in another.

The rationale for the selection of specific terminology, as well as for the analysis of extracted quotations from the data, will be described at the beginning of each of these subsections below.

5.4.2 A Selection of Concepts from Political Science 112 Essays

As was mentioned in Chapter 3 (section 3.4.4.1), students had to do their first essay in Political Science 112 on the following topic: "Distinguish between the following ideologies: Liberalism, Marxism, and Feminism." This theme focused on 'Ideology' which was identified as one of the threshold concepts in the lecturer interviews, and it challenged students to describe three ideologies, namely Liberalism, Marxism, and Feminism.

As indicated in section 5.2.3 above, the researcher also focused on the threshold concept 'Ideology' in her weekly technical terminology tutorials with EDP students as part of the intervention in the current study. Related entries in the Heywood glossary had to be prepared by students. Those included liberalism (classical liberalism and modern liberalism) and socialism (Marxism, neo-Marxism, communism, and social democracy). These interrelated concepts were then discussed in the weekly terminology tutorials.

In the light of the above factors, the researcher selected the first set of essays in Political Science 112 for reporting in this section. For the qualitative analysis of this set of essays, it was decided to select four terms for the coding process, namely Ideology, Liberalism, Marxism (as a subcategory of socialism), and Feminism. As mentioned in section 5.4.1, students' whole essays had to reflect their understanding of these terms whereas the coding process only focused on those quotations from the essays that would capture their understanding of these terms best.

5.4.2.1 Ideology

While this threshold concept formed the umbrella term in Essay 1, three expressions of ideologies had to be discussed. The term 'ideology' is defined as follows in the Heywood glossary (and its Afrikaans and isiXhosa translations):

Ideology	**Ideologie**	**Izimvo ezilawula izenzo**
A more or less coherent set of ideas that provides the basis for some kind of organized political action.	'n Min of meer samehangende stel idees wat die grondslag lê vir een of ander soort georganiseerde politieke optrede.	Uluhlu lweezimvo ezininzi okanye ezincinci ezinikeza isiseko sohlobo oluthile lwesenzo sezopolitiko esilungelelanisiweyo.

Two important aspects are included in the definition, namely (i) 'a more or less coherent set of ideas,' and (ii) it 'provides the basis for some kind of organized political action.'

The coding of the first set of essays for Political Science 112 (primary document 1) yielded a total of 37 quotations. These quotations are listed in the table below. The quotations are furthermore categorised by means of different types of shading. Those quotations without any shading (12 in total) did not give any indication of the two aspects included in the definition above. Those with lighter shading (13 in total) reflect one of the two aspects, while the quotations with darker shading (12 in total) reflect both aspects in their descriptions. As was mentioned in section 5.4.1, grammatical incorrectness and poor academic formulation were not used in assessing students' understanding in this coding process.

Table 5.8 Quotations coded with 'ideology'

Ideology (37 quotations)
1. These ideologies often correlate yetoften clash, but strive to reach a mutual consensus, as human beings are all unique and have different outlooks on the world they inhabit, different needs and wants based on present circumstance, social status, class, race, gender and creed that are not always necessarily catered for
2. This is the delicate ice, politics and the thresholds of this ideologies exist and operate in, not everyone is happy, nor can everyone be happy and satisfied regardless of matter of circumstance no Utopia is attainable
3. Views change as time goes on, and the future isvague or luminant as it might be, the paradigms that operate in individuals will not always be the same, therefore these ideologies will be detonated and all its connotations thereafter stated, with references from various texts to validate or substantiate the views that will be expressed in the following texts.
4. This has been found to be true because when onereviews the above ideologies in the sense of that they are all different and yet similar in some regards. The saying that the more things change, the more they stay the same, means that nothing is new under the sun.
5. All the above hegemonies are views and methodologies used to governed countries and are visible in today's democracy, where liberal principles are practised in conjunction with those of feminists, and Marxist views are still paramount even today as they serve as precautionary measures this is what politics is, the art of governance.
6. According to Andrew Heywood an ideology can be defined as a set of principles, thoughts and theories that symbolise the awareness of a class in society in the past. These sets of principles and theories are as result of social, economic and historical factors ideology is a set of ideas that inspire political action and are thought systems and doctrines.
7. Barbara Goodwin states that all coherent political doctrines are ideological, as is our use of political ideas themselves
8. Karl Marx portrayed ideology as a science of ideas. Two of the most dominant ideologies in the world today are known as Marxism and Liberalism. However without fear of contradiction one can successfully equally compare the feminist ideology as a historically successful and progressive ideology.
9. ... a meta-ideology is an advanced ideology on the grounds whereby ideological debate may take place. It is an ideology based on a commitment to individualism, freedom, toleration and consent. This ideology is centred on the concept of freedom and individualism.

10.	All these ideologies aimed contribute to a better social life.
11.	Ideologie beteken hoofsaaklik verskillende uitkyke of sienings oor die lewe en dit bepaal hoe mense Politiek benader.
12.	Verskillende Ideologieë het verskillende kenmerke of ideale wat mense na streef om die gewenste toekoms te bereik. Dit streef daarna om verandering te laat plaasvind en ook hoe dit moet plaasvind word in ŉ plan voor gestel.
13.	‘n Ideologie word algemeen gedefinieer as ‘n liggaam van idees wat die sosiale behoeftes en aspirasies van ‘n individu, groep, klas of kultuur, reflekteer.
14.	Heywood (2007:45) beskryf ‘n ideologie as ‘n samehangende stel idees wat die basis vorm van ‘n georganiseerde politieke aksie.
15.	Al drie beklemtoon ‘n sterk strewe na sosiale en politieke gelykheid en vryheid. Die sosiale boodskap kom duidelik na vore wat pleit vir die lot van armes, verdruktes en algemene onregverdigheid in die samelewing. Die politieke boodskap verskerp die oproep tot ‘n bestel waar alle mense seggenskap kan he in die orde en stelsel om die samelewing te struktureer.
16.	Ten slotte kan die opmerking gemaak word dat watter ideologie ookal ondersteun word, het elkeen tog ten doel om ‘n beter samelewing vir almal te bewerkstellig. Hulle verskil egter radikaal in sekere opsigte oor hoe daardie *utopia* bewerkstellig of bereik moet word. Elke ideologie het sy bepaalde tydvlak van relevansie asook sy impak op die samelewing. By nadere ondersoek kan positiewe elemente geleen word by al drie van hulle ten einde die sosiale maatskappy te transformeer tot ‘n beter plek vir almal.
17.	There are different views made by different ideologies. These ideologies argue on the basis of political action and system of power. Each Ideology has a specific perspective of a visionable picture of the future
18.	In its simplest definition, Ideology may be defined as a political philosophy or world view. The aim of an Ideology is to bring about understanding and peace to the world view as well as to unite everyone that forms part of the ideology and believes in it.
19.	Everyone is entitled to an ideology of their own, simply because humans are different and have a different view on the world. Ideologies therefore reason people and unites people believing in their chosen ideology.
20.	There have been many people in the history of the world who thought they knew the perfect way the world should be run. Each person had a set of ideas which constructed goals, established systems for society, politics and the economy, which they thought would make countries easier and better to run. These individual set of ideas are called an ideology, and are formed by ideologists. There have been many ideologists who had a way in which they thought things should or should have been constructed, each focusing on different social, political or economic issues. Ideologies have been formed from all over the world, by all sorts of people, but not all are or were seen as ideologies that would benefit the country or even the world.
21.	The three ideologies focus on different social issues, but aim at creating equality for the individual in a social and political structure.
22.	Each ideology relate to one another and have the same elements, as they work toward the common goals of liberation for the oppressed and equality.
23.	Ideologieë, ‘n word wat kan lei tot verskille asook onenigheid in ‘n skool, werksplek, gemeenskap of self land. Wat mense nie besef nie is dat elke person daagliks sy eie idée van ‘n ideologie toepas. Ideologie verwys eenvoudig na ‘n groep of stel van gedagtes of idees hoe ‘n person sy situasies wil hanteer of beheer
24.	Die term ideologie kan dus in die algemeen toegepas word op en vir verskillinde situasies.
25.	The use of political ideologies has been implemented and has been displayed throughout government systems and regimes in the past all over the world. Political ideologies has a combination of definitions according to varies of scientists and philosophers. The world view definition is a model of a desired future and an outline of change that should be brought about.
26.	It can be concluded that these ideologies can partly be adopted to perfect the govern societies in the present modern age.
27.	The term ideology literally means ‘the science of ideas’ (Goodwin, 1982:17.). Ideology presents ideas and knowledge which entails certain kinds of beliefs and actions (Goodwin, 1982:22.) According to the Oxford Advance Learner’s Dictionary, ideology is a set of ideas that an economic or political system is based on.
28.	Political Ideologies can be understood as the economic and social structure or political belief systems

of a society or country. Political ideas can also help to shape the nature of political systems (Heywood, 2007:3.).
29. Each ideology believe in their own set of principles, which allow for organised structure.These different Political ideologies also carries out their own political analysis on the basis of their specific ideology.
30. Social-science defines 'ideology' as a coherent set of ideas which provide a basis for organised political action with the intention of preserving, modifying or overthrowing the existing system of power relationships.
31. Any given ideology will have various interpretations depending on the context which they are implemented in. There is no one set way for an ideology to play out. It is unlikely that an ideology will be implemented in the exact same way by different people. They can be manipulated to suit the implementer and should thus always be considered through the lens of objectivity.
32. The word Ideology means 'the science of ideas' (Goodwin, 1987:17). An ideology therefore is made up of different ideas that a specific person or a group of people have come up with.
33. There are characteristics that describe an ideology. Namely, "Ideology presents ideas and knowledge in a way which entails certain kinds of beliefs and actions" which entails the change of the world over time and ideologies change based on for example the beliefs of that time.
34. Ideology is one of the most indefinable words in the political dictionary.
35. 'n Politieke ideologie word gedefinieer as 'n ontwikkelde sosiale filosofie of wêreld seining
36. Dis 'n voorstelling van bestaande orde, 'n model van die gewenste toekoms en 'n plan van verandering en hoe dit plaasvind. Dis die denkwyse van politieke partye, vorm ook die basis van politiese aksie en hoe hulle in 'n magtigheid posisie sal optree om die land te regeer. Elke Politieke ideologie het sekere elemente wat dit beskryf, dus het elkeen unieke elemente.
37. Heywood (2007:44) also states that an ideology can be understood as a neutral term assigned to worldview or a developed social philosophy. In other words, ideologies allow us to organize the ideas of the world into categories and in a sense explain the happenings of the world and thinking's behind them.

At the first reading of these direct quotations from students' written essays, one is struck by the grammatical errors and poor formulation of sentences in students' use of generic academic language. While generic academic language is not the focus of the current study, it is obvious that students need explicit support in this regard. The question is whether mainstream tutors and lecturers have the time and expertise to develop these generic language skills within a mainstream module.

However, one of the explicit goals of the qualitative analysis is to analyse students' quotations irrespective of grammatical correctness and academic formulation in order to gain insight into their understanding of the technical terminology, and their resultant meaning-making capabilities. What is interesting is that the table of categorised quotations shows that more or less two thirds of the quotations reflect a fairly good or partial understanding of the threshold concept 'ideology', and reflect some attempts by students to put the definition in their own words. This insight could perhaps be lost if one were to concentrate only on grammatical correctness, academic formulation and whether students conformed to the technical requirements of essay writing.

5.4.2.2 Liberalism

This term is defined as follows in the Heywood glossary (and its Afrikaans and isiXhosa translations):

Liberalism	**Liberalisme**	**Ukukhululeka**
An ideology based on a commitment to individualism, freedom, toleration and consent; modern liberalism differs from classical liberalism.	‘n Ideologie wat gebaseer is op ‘n verbintenis tot individualisme, vryheid, verdraagsaamheid en instemming; moderne liberalisme verskil van klassieke liberalisme.	Ingcingane esekeke ekuzibopheleleni kumntu ngamnye, inkululeko, ukunyamezela nemvume; ukukhululeka kwanamhlanje kuhlukile kukukhululeka kwamandulo.

Four core values of liberalism are mentioned in the definition, namely (i) ‘individualism,’ (ii) ‘freedom,’ (iii) ‘toleration,’ and (iv) ‘consent.’ It should be noted that the glossary definition is only a partial reflection of the more detailed discussion of the concept ‘liberalism’ in the textbook (Heywood, 2007:45–46), where three more elements of liberalism are included, namely (v) ‘reason’, (vi) ‘equality’ and (vii) ‘constitutionalism’. The definition furthermore (viii) makes a distinction between ‘modern’ and ‘classical liberalism’. Heywood’s glossary does not contain separate definitions for classical and modern liberalism. However, there are more detailed discussions in the textbook of these two terms (Heywood, 2007:47–48). The correct distinction between ‘modern’ and ‘classical liberalism’ therefore forms another element that will be used in the analysis below.

Another term that is defined in the Heywood glossary that students can easily confuse with modern liberalism is ‘neoliberalism’ which is defined as follows: “An updated version of classical political economy, dedicated to market individualism and minimal statism. / ‘n Hersiene weergawe van klassieke politieke ekonomie wat gerig is op mark-individualisme en ‘n minimale staat. / Uhlelo oluhlaziyiweyo lwezoqoqosho lwezopolitikoi lwamandulo, nolujolise kurhwebo lomntu ngamnye nokuncipha kongenelelo lombuso kubomi babantu.” The term ‘neoliberalism’ is not discussed under the heading ‘Liberalism’ in the textbook, but under the heading ‘Conservatism’ which should be an indication of the divergent meaning of the latter term. The main goal of ‘neoliberalism’ is to “roll back the frontiers of the state” (Heywood, 2007:52), whereas ‘modern liberalism’ is “characterised by a more sympathetic attitude towards state intervention” (Heywood, 2007:47).

The coding of the first set of essays for Political Science 112 (primary document 1) yielded a total of 149 quotations for this concept. These quotations are listed in the table below and are categorised by means of different types of shading. Those quotations without any shading (35 in total) did not give any indication of the eight elements included in the definition and broader discussion of ‘liberalism’. Those with lighter shading (104 in total) reflect one to four of the eight aspects, while the quotations with darker shading (10 in total) reflect five or more aspects in their descriptions.

Table 5.9 Quotations coded with 'liberalism'

Liberalism (149)
1. In essence Liberalism in terms of politics, has the aim to preserve the rights of the 'individual'and to ensure the concept that one has 'freedom of choice' wether in a social context or political forum.
2. Liberalism retains the basic principleof improving present social conditionsthat correlate with the idea of development and progress, which was widely accepted during that era.
3. *Paul Dworkins* believed that, apart from the concern of equality, rights and amelioration, they have focusedin the space of availability in which indiviudals can pursue ambitions in which the personal goals and freedom can be attained. Mass society suppresses individual initiative and eliminates the space of personal ambition
4. In a nutshell neo-liberalists still believe in the classic principles of Liberalismand its hegemony's threshold rest upon, the freedom and the consent of the individual rather than the state enforcing law[15]
5. These neo-liberalists now believe in a more practical ideal that government should be more proactive in the economy as it is not static.They believe that government has a more dynamic meaning that is evolving,which allows the state to be more involved, thus the idea of a free market being the only principle to be discarded, as the economic growth and individualism complement one another, as the greater the economic situation of a country so does the standing of living, it too increases[16]
6. Liberalism can be often interpreted as aselfish ideal that only serves a very small percentage of a countries populous, especially when looking at the demographics of most Southern African countries.Despite this, the ideology itself has seen a paradigm shift since the classical liberal ideologies where based on negative freedom,where the liberals of the time believed that government should not infringe in the individuals personal ambition in all spheres whether it be economical, social or political
7. Also, it shouldn't interfere in the economics of the country as they feared government having too much power would discard the rights of human and place limitations freedom and the state and civil society would be intertwined leading to detrimental effects.
8. Neo-liberalist still share the classic ideals of consensus, freedom, and equality and have seen that the economy needs to be facilitated by government as their reluctance is valid, even though theoretically sound.In reality individuals need the state to steer the country and facilitate trade on a global stage so that the people can benefit from such developments.
9. liberalism formulates a foundation for political practice and is sometimes depicted as a meta-ideology
10. English Philosopher and politician John Locke is a key figure in the expansion of early liberalism. John Locke's thinking's about Liberalism, emphasised 'natural' or God-given rights which are commonly known as the rights to life, liberty and property.
11. Liberalism is often represented as the primary reason of the breakdown of feudalism. The ambitions of an expanding and growing industrial class can be reflected in the first stages of liberalism.
12. A market society, without a doubt can be traced back to the roots of liberalism and therefore capitalism and liberalism have been linked ever since then. In its early stages, liberalism criticized and argued against the ideas based around absolutism and feudal privilege.
13. This liberal economic doctrine which had developed became the primary focus that established the emergence and growth of what is known as classical liberalism which concentrated more positively economic involvement and welfare reorganization.
14. Liberalism developed its central and fundamental elements through the struggles against absolutism and absolute monarchy.
15. In contrast, due to the rise of socialism in the early twentieth century, a more state-centred element of liberalism was established in Britain that wanted a balance between equality and freedom of

[15] This quotation is marked with light shading because it reflects two elements of the definition of 'liberalism' (albeit in a poorly formulated statement). The student's reference to "neo-liberalists" in this quotation is totally wrong, however.

[16] This quotation is not shaded because it does not reflect any elements of the definition of 'liberalism.' However, if these quotations were used to inform teaching, it would have been noteworthy that the student confused 'neoliberalism' with 'modern liberalism'.

	individuals
16.	A clear and concise self-consistent model of society is established when elements of liberal thought are joined.
17.	In order to get a worthy understanding of liberalism, a concise analysis of the elements which form the liberal model of society need to be taken into account, rather than through historical reviews of authors
18.	Therefore the main elements of the ideology can be summed up as the belief in reason, individualism, freedom, equality, consent, and toleration. One of the essential values of liberalism is 'reason'. The capability of human beings to make concrete choices forms the basis of individualism which is the central theme of liberalism.
19.	Liberalism does not involve democracy, however democracy is the best guarantee for liberalism to work which is central to the notions of contract and consent.
20.	The liberal doctrine is centred on freedom whereby an individual follows his/her happiness, faith and benefits.
21.	Liberalism can be distinguished in two distinctive ways: Classical Liberalism and Classical Liberalism.
22.	commitment to an extreme practice of individualism, is the focal subject of classical liberalism. Classical Liberalism refers to an atomist understanding of society which is based on the acceptance of negative liberty, which can be summed up as the non-interference or the lack of control and limitations upon the individual from external forces. Atomism is a view in which the general public is made up of independent beings who feel that they don't owe anything to one another. Added, Classical Liberalism is associated with economic liberalism which is closely attached to the idea of a market as a self- regulating device which aims to promote overall wealth and opportunities for all.
23.	Modern Liberalism is distinguished by an approach in the direction of state interference.
24.	Unlike Classical Liberalism, Modern Liberalism focuses on Positve freedom, which is the individual growth of an individual and the ability of the individual to gain fulfilment. This interpretation established the emergence and foundation of welfare liberalism which acknowledged that individuals can be safeguarded from social evils that might harm their existence through state interference.
25.	In the late nineteenth century, Neo-liberalism emerged which was beleived that unregulated market capitalsim brought upon prosperity.
26.	In Liberalisme word daar gefokus op die individu om die beste moontlike geleenthede vir hom/haar te skep in die ekonomiese en sosiale sfeer en daar deur vorentoe te gaan.
27.	Die doel van Liberalisme en veral in sy vroeë vorm was om vir die laer klas/middele klas mense van 'n land die geleentheid te gee om ekonomies te ontwikkel en deur dit die land se ekonomie sterker te maak. In die later stadiums van die 19de eeu het 'n vorm van sosiale liberalisme begin ontstaan wat baie positief bygedra het tot die herontwikkeling van baie ekonomiese waardes. Dit het 'n basis gevorm en eienskappe daarvan oorgedra aan die moderne liberalisme
28.	Heywood verwys in sy beskrywing van die ideologie na verskillende konsepte wat in belang is van die individu waardeur hy/sy bevoordeel word bv. individualisme, vryheid, rede, gelykheid, verdraagsaamheid, toestemming en konstitusionalisme. In hierdie konsepte bespreek liberale die doel van elkeen en hoe elke konsep werk en wat dit beteken om liberaal te wees. Dit dra by tot die definisie en uitwerking van liberalisme.
29.	Individualisme is die kern van liberalisme.
30.	In die konsep word daar bespreek oor die hoogs belangrikheid van die individu en dat Die Mens eerstens gesien word as 'n individu. Almal word op gelyke waardes geklassifiseer en behandel. Vryheid is weer die belangrikste waarde van liberalisme en handel oor die vryheid van die individu in die mate van gelykheid, geregtigheid, spraak ens. Die vryheid word wel gemonitor deur die wetlike vereistes van die land wat beteken daar is 'n grens aan vryheid vir die individu
31.	Daar is egter n groot probleem rakende liberalisme en dit is die vermoë om self te ontwikkel as 'n individu.
32.	Dit is algemeen dat as 'n persoon as 'n individu wil of moet ontwikkel hy/sy die nodige opvoeding en vermoë hê om dit te kan bereik. In 'n land soos Suid-Afrika sal daar egter 'n groot persentasie mense daarin misluk, omdat die land se –werkloosheids- en armoedekoers baie hoog is. Die individu sal nie die ervaring of kennis hê om te ontwikkel tot sy volle potensiaal sonder enige bystand van die staat of persoonlike hulp nie. Dis hier waar liberale die fout maak deur nie te besef dat baie mense gaan sukkel om as individue te bestaan.
33.	Daar word onderskei tussen twee tipes liberalisme naamlik Klassieke Liberalisme en Moderne

	Liberalisme. Klassieke liberalisme word beskou as 'n negatiewe seining teenoor die vryheid van die individu, terwyl moderne liberalisme beskou word as die positiewe seining.
34.	klassieke liberalisme is as die individu geen betrokkenheid het in die land se sosiale-en ekonomiese aktiwiteite nie en dus geen belangstelling toon om te ontwikkel as persoon nie
35.	Moderne liberalisme is weer die teenoorgestelde as Klassieke liberalisme. Dit word beskou as die positiewe siening teenoor vryheid van die individu. Dit is meer vry en openbaar teenoor die staat en regering. Deelname in die ekonomie is vir almal belangrik en die individue gebruik dit om beter te ontwikkel en die beste moontlike lewenstandaard daardeur te skep vir hulself. Hulle benodig geen hulp van die regering af nie, behalwe die basiese behoeftes, maar andersins is hulle tot volle in staat om op hul eie te groei.
36.	Op die ou einde gaan Liberalisme oor die individu en hoe hy/sy wil ontwikkel en of hulle wil ontwikkel. In 'n land soos Suid-Afrika sal die gaping tussen ryk en arm eers kleiner moet word en gelykheid sal baie drasties in ag geneem moet word, voordat 'n individu vir homself sal kan sorg, sodat daar genoeg geleenthede vir elke burger van die land is. Die regering speel ook 'n groot en belangrike rol in die bewerkstelling van liberalisme deur ekonomiese aktiwiteite te verskaf.
37.	Feudalisme was 'n sosiale en politieke stelsel in terme waarvan die aristokrate ("nobles") grond ontvang het van die koninklike inruil vir militêre diens. Die aristokrate het weer op hul beurt hierdie grond verhuur inruil vir arbeid, eer en respek asook produkte. Die feudalistiese-stelsel het die ongelykheid van die sosiale status van mense beklemtoon en ook gediskrimineer teen mense op grond van sosiale en politieke status. Die stelsel het sterk geleen op sosiale klasse-onderskeiding wat grotendeels bepaal was deur materiale welvaart, wat in elk geval gesirkuleer het binne 'n uitgesoekte groepie mense van die sosiale maatskappy. Dit was binne hierdie konteks dat liberalisme sy onstaan gevind het. Liberalisme was die direkte teenvoeter vir die feudalistiese stelsel.
38.	Liberalisme het bestaan uit omtrent vyf kern elemente, naamlik vryheid van alle mense, ongeag sosiale status; gelyke behandeling van alle mense, ryk en arm; redenasie of logika; verdraagsaamheid en individualisme.
39.	Met hierdie teorie is gepoog om weg te doen met groepsbelang en die bevordering daarvan na 'n klemverskuiwing op die individu en sy belange en regte. Mens sou reeds met hierdie benadering kon "lees" dat menseregte, alhoewel nie baie pertinent so genoem, na vore begin kom het. Die feit dat aanspraak gemaak word op regte van individue, dui op sterk ooreenkomste met die basiese begrip "menseregte" soos wat dit vandag beskou word en vergestalt in die totale menseregte-kultuur.
40.	Liberalisme het 'n sterk aanval geloods op die onderdukkende neiging van feudalisme en het gestreef na 'n bevrydende, heelende gemeenskap, vry van diskriminasie. Om dit te behaal het hulle gepleit vir 'n grondwetlike en demokratiese bestel waarin alle inwoners gelyke seggenskap kon geniet.
41.	Staatsinmenging moet tot die absolute minimum beperk word sodat die samelewing "vryelik" sy gang kon gaan.
42.	Twee tipes van liberalisme word onderskei, naamlik klassieke liberalisme en moderne liberalisme.
43.	Die fokus in klassieke liberalisme is op 'n sterk geloof in individualisme
44.	Weereens word daar dus in 'n onderdrukkende wyse na alle vorme van staat inmeging gekyk. Hierteenoor neig liberalisme egter om met 'n meer simpatieke oog te kyk na die staat.
45.	Nieteenstaande hierdie standpunt, was moderne liberale nog altyd skepties oor regeringsbetrokkenheid en was van mening dat enige vorm van staatsinmenging op bepaalde voorwaardes geskoei moet wees
46.	Liberalism is a philosophy or world view based on liberty and equality for all. Liberalists believe in fair and freedom for all.
47.	According to Heywood (2007) any account of political ideology must have started with liberalism. This is because liberalism is in effect the ideology of the industrialized West, and is sometimes portrayed as a "meta ideology that is capable of embracing a broad range of rival values and beliefs.
48.	Liberalism originated from the first century empowering the immerse of men and women to be more materialistic in knowledge.
49.	English philosopher and politician John Locke was a key thinker in the development of early liberalism , placing particular emphasis upon "natural" or God given rights, identified as right to life, liberty and property.
50.	Individualism is considered to be the main principle or rather the main element of liberalism . In Heywood's view (2007) Human beings are seen first and foremost , as individuals. This implies both that they are of equal moral worth and that they posses separate and unique identities.
51.	Liberalism is also based on freedom to do whatever one wants to do, whenever one wants to do it,

	however under the rules made by the state.
52.	Furthermore, Liberalism believes in the element of equality.
53.	he furthermore states that this is reflected in liberal commitment to equal rights and entitlement, notably in the form of legal equality (equality before law) and political equality (one person, one vote, one value) .
54.	Liberalism can be classified into two groups, Classical Liberalism and Modern Liberalism.
55.	Classical Liberalism is based on core individualism. It is characterized by a belief of everyone for himself/herself without the state of government having to intervene on any developments. Heywood (2007: 47) Modern Liberalism however, in contrast believe that the state needs to intervene in terms of social as well as economical development .
56.	Liberalism is based on equality of every individual, where people can make decisions for themselves,
57.	Liberalism is a political philosophy or worldview founded on liberty and equality. This means that the ideology incorporates and supports ideas such as "individual freedom", "equal rights", "equality of opportunity" and "political diversity.
58.	Liberalism was created by and "[e]nglish philosopher and politician (ibid, 47). He "was a key thinker in the development of early liberalism as he placed importance and "particular emphasis upon 'natural' or God-given right," which can be identified as the "right to life, liberty and property." (ibid) it can therefore be said that the ideology of liberalism was set in place or was created for the liberation of the oppressed individual, so that he or she will be able to be equal in every sense of the word.
59.	The essential goal in the ideology of liberalism is to be able to construct a society where the individual will be able to develop and be successful in whichever area of work he or she decides, to the best of his or her ability. Liberalism is neutral in the sense that it sets 'rules' that allow the individual to follow their own path, give them the right to do so freely and also make their own moral decisions.
60.	There are two forms of liberalism, namely Classical Liberalism and Modern Liberalism. Classical Liberalism focuses extremely on the individual and is only interested in the individual's protection as it is deeply unsympathetic to government intervention. This means that there is no interference in individual decisions or ventures. Therefore the individual is allowed liberty to do as he or she pleases. This allows all types of liberation, not only in social or political aspects, but economic liberation, meaning that the individual is allowed and is free to take any market venture he or she is interested in. Modern Liberalism also supports the success and equality of the individual but is more sympathetic to and allows the intervention of the government. The government plays a role in the structure the individual is allowed to roam freely in, as the government sets regulations that the individual should comply with. The individual is still given freedoms, but has to adhere to government regulations to ensure a positive freedom.
61.	The main three focal points and elements of a Liberal Ideology are Freedom (or Liberty), equality and individuality. Liberty (or freedom) is the individual's right to do or act as he or she pleases. The individual can decide which party he or she will vote for in a liberal country. The individual has the right to freedom of expression, which enables him to express concerns about the political system (as it influences his life) and also his personal political view. Freedom also allows the individual to practice the religion of their choice and follow their own belief system. The individual has the right and freedom to be who they want to be and the ideology of liberalism supports the individual to strive to be unique. All citizens or individuals have these rights as everyone is seen as equal. Equality revolves around the idea that no matter what a person has, believes in or lacks etc, they are not of higher or lower rank. Everyone is of equal importance. Because everyone is encouraged to be a unique and successful individual, they have equal opportunity to achieve the concept of 'self-creation'. The individual has many rights, seen as natural right, but emphasis is placed on self-creation. It revolves around the idea that the individual does whatever he or she needs in order for him or her to be successful in their chosen field. This means that they create their own success and better their position because they all have the equal opportunity to do so.
62.	Locke was een van die sleutel figure in liberalisme. Hy het klem gelê op die normale en basiese regtig soos bv. die reg tot lewe, regverdigheid en eiendom.
63.	Liberalisme- leer van die liberale; vrysinnigheid op godsdientige, ekonomiese, kulturele en politieke gebied. HAT(2009:666).
64.	Die term liberalisme kan na gekyk word uit verskeie oogpunte. Soos bv. uit 'n ekonoiese oogpunt asook 'n politieke oogpunt.

65.	‘n Persoon kan dink en sê dat die belangrikste deël van liberalisme is die fokus op die morale waardes wat die ideologie behels, net soos persone soos John Locke in die 17de eeu, Imannuel in die 18de eeu, John Stuart Mill in die 19de eeu en John Rawls in die 20ste eeu dit verduidelik het. Hulle het almal gepraat van die styl en manier van lewe soos bv. die reg van die individue om te leef soos hulle wil solank hulle net die regte van ander ook gerespekteer het.
66.	Individualisme: Die belangrikste element van liberalisme. Dit verwys na die belangrikheid van die individu teenoor enige sosiale groep of beheerligaam. Mense word as individië beskou en dit beklemtoon die feit dat almal gelyk gehanteer moet word. Die idée is om almal tot hulle volle potensiaal te ontwikkel en almal ontwikkel beter as hy/sy oor dieselfde kam geskeer word.
67.	Vryheid: verwys na die vryheid van keuse, spraak, geloof, politieke siening en alle sosiale kwessies. Die individu is vry om sy eie keuses en leefstyl te besluit.
68.	Rede: Liberale glo in kritiese denke, wat lei tot ‘n bevraagteken van baie konsepte. As daar redes is vir persone om betrokke te raak of om nie aktief te word nie, sal dit lei tot beter besluitneming.
69.	Gelykheid: Almal word met gelyke regte gebore. Liberaliste glo in ‘n gelyke speel veld. Daarna hang dit af van die person se vermoë om harder te werk as ook sy inovasie vermoë.
70.	Verdraagsaamheid: liberaliste glo dat elke individu vryheid van spraak en optrede het. Dit lei na die kans om te leer en tyd vir die individu om sy eie sienings en opinies te ontwikkel.
71.	Ons kry ook verskeie vorme van Liberalisme bv. Klassieke Libealisme en Moderne Liberalisme. In kassieke liberalisme word die individu gesien as self sugtig en egosentries. Hy skuld niks vir sy gemeenskap, omgewing of vir die samelewing nie. Almal werk om jouself as person te verryk. Die individu is ook dan sterk getant teen enige inmenging vanaf die staat of enige regering onderneming. Moderne liberalisme is daar ‘n groter aanvaarding vir inmenging vanaf die staat of regering ondernemings. Vryheid beteken ook nou nie net om alleen gelos te word nie maar ook die kans om jouself te verbeter en te strewe na ‘n beter leefstyl. Die individu groei ook deur self vervulling.
72.	Ideologies used in western parts of the globe and particularly in America are called liberalism.
73.	Liberalism believes in an individual perception where it adapts variety of values and beliefs. It was not widely used as today in the past as it only come forward as a developed political belief.
74.	Social liberalism was created to reform and create economic intervention and provide a sense of equality of opportunity in the quality of law in society.
75.	The centre element of liberalism is individualism; it displays a more significance on the individual than the community, social group or collective body. Seen as humans put first as individuals with unique personalities have been favourable over the centuries. This gives individuals the opportunity to thrive and grow by chasing a better society as they see it.
76.	Individual freedom as main attractive component in liberalism gives the desire for each person is able to act as he or she pleases or chooses. With this comes freedom within the law as the independence of a person may be a threat to the independence of others, freedom may become licence
77.	The reason for this is that liberals consider the world as rational structure and the best choices by individualist are made out of their own interests. Thus the promotion of progress and to encourage humans to resolve there differences through question and argument rather than bloodshed and war
78.	Individualism philosophy of equality is a belief in everyone is born equally regardless to their ethnic group, race or financial background but on there more determined on their moral worth. In the concept of legal equality and political equality, the principle of “one person, one vote, one vote, one value” is a way of liberal obligation to equal rights and those responsibilities.
79.	Liberals tolerate liberalism as regarding it as a balance or natural harmony between rival views and interests, and thus try to prevent the idea of negativity and conflict.
80.	Liberals are aware of the danger of government becoming a tyranny in an individualist society, due to the power could become corrupt
81.	Therefore liberalists trust in a limited government.
82.	Classical liberalism stresses the need to preserve and uphold traditional morality
83.	Modern liberalism also characterized as a state intervention and bases a social or welfare liberalism. This concept is to believe to protect or defend individuals from the social evils, “five giants” namely: want ignorance, idleness, squalor and disease. Modern liberals maintain that government interventions and collective provisions should remain intact in modern liberalism
84.	Definition of liberalism: The word Liberalism comes from Liberalis which is a Latin word. Liberals always stand for civil rights, equal and fair elections, freedom of press. They also believe that people may own their own land or private property and trade can take place. To say that you liberal in the country means you have all these rights and have that kind of freedom that was mentioned.

85.	What it is basically saying is that liberalism came after the 'breakdown of feudalism' which means there was a controlled society. After they broke it down and liberalism rose up everything started to change, all of that at the end resulted in growth of markets because capitalism came about. So much more people got jobs and could now support their families, something they could never have done before.
86.	Liberty does not just stand for freedom it is much more than that, people often hear liberalism and think of freedom but it goes much deeper then freedom itself.
87.	The person is the most important part of the puzzle in liberalism and what it stands for. Everyone is seen as a person or individual which means that everyone has the same/equal right or moral worth. We all differ from each other and offer different stuff to the country or community. Does not matter if we have a degree in something, if I went to university or not I must have the same right I might have something excellent to offer the country. People who often not have a degree sometimes start their own businesses and create jobs even though they have nothing behind their name. We as the people make our own decisions on how and what we are going to do without being influenced by the government.
88.	They said that the state should not interfere with the economy because they doing too much already people have to think for them self a bit more, the state is basically looking after us like a parent would look after a child. The state checks everytime if stuff is still alright and going smoothly
89.	To liberals freedom to the people in the country is at the top of their list of what they stand for as a group. But there is also laws which we still have to follow although we are free we cannot just breakdown other people's property as we please. The point I am trying to make is that there is positive and negative freedom.
90.	Freedom is basically about how you see it because it is going to differ from one person to another, some people are more radical about liberalism and others are more laid back. I think in society today everyone know their rights and also have heard the word liberalism in their life before.
91.	They say the founder of liberalism was John Locke and that he stood up for all the rights of the people. Liberalism stood through some tough times also it was not always just smooth sailing. Liberalism had a battle against new comers, from the likes of fascism to communism. These were tough times for liberalism but it came out stronger on the other side.
92.	In today's society liberal groups have much more power and know much more. Liberals don't always work alone sometimes they works with other parties such as the socialist, social democratic parties. This is what happened in Britain and in Western parts of Europe. Liberalism is known worldwide, and in USA modern liberalism goes as far back as Franklin Delano.
93.	Liberalism is probably the best thing someone has come up with so far. Freedom to the people is critical in today's time, people have to fight for what they believe in and that would not be possible if we weren't liberalised.
94.	In contrast to liberalism, feminism had less struggles to deal with then liberals. Liberalism is also a much bigger deal then what feminism was. People know more about liberalism then feminism because feminism only touches women where liberalism is about everyone all over the world.
95.	Liberalism is a political tactic that aims to protect and enrich the freedom of the individual. In other words, the aim of a liberal group would be ensuring that there is freedom present among the individuals. It can also be seen as the pledge to liberty or freedom, toleration, consent and individualism.
96.	Liberals trust that government is essential to defend individuals from being hurt, abused or offended by others. However, these same liberals are aware of the threats that the government poses to the society, due to the rules that affect the people and that are created or established by the government itself.
97.	The main elements or characteristics of liberalism are: Freedom; Consent; Reason; Individualism; Equality; Constitutionalism; Toleration;
98.	While still at early states, liberalism was seen as a political principle or doctrine. It was against feudal privilege and absolutism. One of the main characters to take into consideration when studying the origin of liberalism is John Locke. Locke was a vital thinker during the 1660s and he created ideas that contributed to the growth of liberalism. It was Locke himself who identified the rights to life as liberty and property.
99.	It can then be said that liberalism was originated with the purpose of generating a world that was less dependent from the authorities.
100.	there are two types of liberalism: modern liberalism and classical liberalism. Modern liberalism is

	that type which is comfortable with interventions from the state. It also allows the formation of a big government, failure of industrial capitalism, welfare liberalism, redistribution, positive freedom, regulated capitalism, etc. On the other hand, classical liberalism would prefer a very deep individualism, in such ways that constant interventions from the state are highly dismissed. Classical liberalism is the opposite of modern liberalism.
101.	the main goal of liberalism was to achieve freedom and individualism
102.	it is seen that liberals believed that government was there to protect the interest of the people.
103.	Yet, liberals pursued a world where the government would not do everything for the citizens, a world where everyone was free to do what they wanted to do without supervision from the authorities and a world where people were to be totally free.
104.	Liberalism can be defined as a political ideology which mainly focuses on individualism and equality. Liberals believe in equality and opportunities, within the context of the law or constitution. Individualism puts human individuals first as to any other social group (Heywood,2007:45.) hence 'equality is also one of the fundamentals of liberalism supported by the notion 'born equal' (Heywood,2007:46.).
105.	The main goal of liberalism is to maintain individualism and society happiness. The person is seen to be as sacred. This individualism is based morally which enforces equal respect for all.
106.	In contrast with liberalism, although the individualism focuses on men and women hardly if ever are mentioned in works of Liberalists before J.S Mill. This clearly indicates that liberalism has nothing to offer the feminist movement
107.	One of the most influential liberal ideas is that the aim and justification of government is to protect life, liberty, and property of the citizens living under it. The formulation of this idea is John Locke's
108.	Liberalism is classified into three categories namely Classical Liberalism, Modern Liberalism and Neoliberalism. Classical Liberalism's central theme is commitment to an extreme form of individualism (Heywood,2007:47.). Humans are believed to be self-reliant and owe one another nothing and they can entirely depend on themselves. This was the 'atomist view' of society pinned by the belief in 'negative liberty', meaning noninterference of an individual (Heywood,2007:47). Economic liberalism is the belief that the market is self revolving and will produce wealth and opportunities on its own. While Modern liberalism is infact in contrast with Classical liberalism as it incorporates state intervention, capitalism and positive freedom.
109.	Liberalism is all for individualism and equality but does not incorporate women yet Feminism is all about gender equality.
110.	The political ideology and concept know as liberalism was founded on the principles of freedom and equality. This means that in liberalism everyone is believed to be of equal importance in soceity and that man was born free.
111.	Liberals believe in tolerance and allow for others to voice their opinions (even though they may not agree) and they embrace and accept diversity, as it as seen as healthy and is allowed in democractic soceities.
112.	Liberals believe in consent and agreement. This means, that rule and power in soceity should be based on popular consent and can only be granted through the people. Liberals believe in the governance, as it as it constitutes a set of rules that allow order and structure.
113.	However, liberals believe in limited involvement by government. This can be done by Liberalism focuses on individualism, uniqueness of man and helps to promote the progress and interests of mankind. Liberalism is the most popular and practised ideology followed in the west.
114.	The main focus of Classical liberalism is an extreme belief in the individualism of man. In this form of liberalism, focus is put on man's self-centeredness. Believing they owe nothing to soceity, as each one is incontrol of their own destiny.
115.	Modern liberalism is the more tolerant approach to government intervention.This form of liberalism was born due to the economic injustice brought upon by industrial capitalism, which had left many destitue. This allowed for the recognition of the state, especially the social welfare of the people and the economy and that growth and prosperity can be maintained through regular capitalism and redistribution.
116.	When accounting for political ideologies, one should always start with Liberalism because it is the ideology of the industrialised west.
117.	Simply, it means 'openness' or open-mindedness and has been directly linked to the thoughts of freedom and choice
118.	John Locke is often credited for the existence of liberalism as a distinct philosophical tradition.

Liberalism is tightly linked to capitalism(Heywood 2007:23). At the beginning it was" a political doctrine that attacked absolutism and feudal privilege"(Heywood, A 2007:47), that instead proposed a government based on a constitution and representation.
119. Individualism is the core principle of liberalism. It emphasises that humans must be seen as individuals. Liberals want to construct a society in a way that individuals can flourish and develop to their full potential (Heywood 2007:46). This makes liberalism viewed as morally neutral as it consists of laws that enable people to have the freedom of choice (preferably moral decisions). Individual freedom is the core value of Liberalism and is seen as more of a priority than equality, justice or authority (Heywood 2007:46). It comes from the belief in the individual and the desire to ensure one's freedom of choice.
120. Liberals believe that the world generally thinks rationally and that people will make good decisions by themselves and will resolve their differences with others through debate and argument, to avoid conflict and ensure the achievement of progress(Heywood 2007:46).
121. Foundational equality is also an element of liberalism. Liberals are committed to equal rights and entitlements. However, since individuals do not have the same talent level or willingness to work (Heywood, A 2007:46) liberals opt for equality of opportunity instead of endorsing 'social equality' or 'equality outcome' and support the meritocracy principle (Heywood 2007:46).
122. Heywood claims that liberals believe in tolerance and that through it, one can guarantee their liberty and a means of social enrichment (Heywood 2007:46).
123. Pluralism is seen as healthy as it promotes debate and intellectual progress by ensuring a balance between rival views and interest.
124. Liberals also strongly argue that consent should be the base of social relationships and authority and that therefore, government should be based on the consent of 'the governed' (Heywood 2007:46). This doctrine leads liberals to favour representation and democracy. Constitutionalism is a big part of liberalism. Liberals advocate that there be a limited government, to avoid the possibility of tyranny against the individual. This can be achieved through the fragmentation of power, by inventing checks and balances amongst the different government institutions, and by the creation of a written constitution that consists of a bill of rights which defines the relationship between the state and the individual (Heywood 2007:46).
125. The central theme of Classical liberalism is the commitment to an extreme form of individualism. It had an atomist point of view on society, pinned by a belief in 'negative liberty' (non-interference of external constraints against the government).
126. The classical liberal ideal is the construction of a 'night-watchmen' state, which has a role limited to the protection of citizens from the encroachments of other people. In the form of economic liberalism, this position is supported by an immense faith in laissez-faire capitalism to ensure prosperity, uphold individual liberty and to ensure social justices as laissez-faire capitalism allows individuals to rise and fall, depending on merit.
127. n the late nineteenth century social liberalism developed that included welfare reform and economic intervention. These attributes became the distinguishing differences between modern liberalism and classical liberalism.
128. New liberals supported a more 'positive' view of freedom which is linked to personal development and the succeeding of the individual. This belief gave the basis for social liberalism which is described by the recognition of state intervention (mainly in the form of social welfare) can expand liberty by keeping people safe from social evils. Modern liberals rejected laissez faire capitalism, mostly because of J.M Keynes' insight. Keynes believed that growth and prosperity could only be maintained through a system of regulated capitalism, with important economic responsibilities being placed in the hands of the government. Despite this, modern liberals only support collective provision and state intervention conditionally. Their concern is with the individuals that cannot help or fend for themselves and their goal is to raise those individuals to a stage where they can once again take control and responsibility for their own circumstances and make their own moral decisions.
129. In order to life a good life , Liberals believe that all people should live in good quality conditions, this goes back to the idea of Liberalism and how it's all about the people and equality amongst the people.
130. Although liberalism implies freedom, liberals still believe you as a person should be rewarded for above average contributions and extra effort that is put in at the work place.
131. Domination by government is a harmful attribute according to liberals and they try their best to prevent this from happening.

132.	There are two types of Liberalism, namely, classical and modern. Classical liberalism believes the state should have minimal input whereas Modern liberalism believes that government should intervene where they feel their help is needed. This is evident by the grants government has installed and also the minimum wage. Modern liberalism has widened the capacity of equality by adding and demolishing certain laws so that it is beneficial to the people.
133.	According to Andrew Heywood there is seven "elements of Liberalism"(b.Heywood, 2007:45). Individualism being the first and most important element and liberalism therefore strives to create the best environment for the individuals in order to enjoy freedom but still in the boundaries of the law. Secondly Freedom, this by design follows the aspect of individualism. This entails that all individuals are able to do what they want and when they feel like it. It is believed that if there is this freedom, there is more of a chance to be a productive individual. Thirdly Reason, Liberals believe that people do not need government intervention in order for them to move forward and grow. Liberals consider people to talk about their conflicts and resolve them, rather than to fight and create hostilities. Fourthly is Equality, this entails that everyone is equal in every way. Therefore no one can be discriminated against. This creates less conflict between individuals. The fifth is Toleration, this entails that all individuals are allowed to speak up if they do not believe in something, liberals believe this is healthy for individual growth. The sixth element is Consent, this means that individuals should always first agree with government and make sure government has always got the individuals best interest in mind. If that is not the case they stand together and rise up. The last element is Constitutionalism, individuals are always aware of their government and how it can turn into a tyranny. Individuals stay clear of this at all times "Liberal ideal entails no particular form of government, as long as that government does not encroach upon individual rights" (Goodwin:)
134.	Liberalism is a philosophy of government and society that emphasizes "liberty," a word of great power down the ages.
135.	As John Locke declared that government which receives power from the people should maintain the inherent rights of the individual which are Life, Liberty, and property.
136.	In his book (Gray, 2000: 2) describes liberalism having two faces. The first recognises toleration in liberalism as the pursuit of an ideal form of life. The other recognises liberalism as the search for terms of peace among different ways of life.
137.	The basic tenets of liberalism include the replacement of the belief in natural hierarchy by a belief in the essential equality of human beings, and the placing of individual freedom before any integrated construction of "the good"
138.	Equality is another important element of liberalism. Liberals believe that everyone is born equal at least in terms of moral worth. This is seen with the liberal commitment to equal rights and entitlements, particularly in the eyes of the law. Meaning "one person, one vote; one vote, one value" (Heywood, 2007:46).
139.	Classic liberalism is often criticised, as it is seen, in the words of Thomas Paine as state being a 'necessary evil'. State intervention is 'necessary' as it institutes order and security as well as ensuring that contracts are enforced. However, it is perceived as 'evil' in that it inflicts a collective will on society, hence limiting the freedom and responsibilities of individuals (Heywood, 2007:47). Classical liberals believe in the mechanism of the free market and that the economy works best without any state intervention. Simply put "every man for himself."
140.	Modern liberalism on the other disregards the ideals of classic liberalism. Modern liberals such as T. H. Green (1836-82) and J. A. Hobson (1858-1940) favoured state intervention as they believed that intervention is linked to personal development and the flourishing of the individual. This means that state intervention in the form of social welfare is enlarges liberty by safeguarding individuals from social evils identified as: want, ignorance, idleness, squalor and disease (Heywood, 2007:48).
141.	Eerstens die individu speel 'n belangrike rol. Jy as individu is uniek en het persoonlike beginsels wat van belang is. Tweedens het jy as individu die vryheid van keuse binne perke van die grond wet. Derde is alle mense gelyk, almal word met gelyke regte gebore Elkeen het die reg om te stem vir party van hulle keuse solank daar meer as een party is. Verdraagsaamheid speel 'n belangrike rol, elkeen het die Vryheid van spraak en elkeen moet gerespekteer word waarmee hulle tese het. Die staat moet teen alle tye binne perke van die grondwet optree om die individu te beskerm.
142.	Waar daar gefokus word op net die individu alleenlik. Daar is geen invloed van eksterne partye soos die staat nie. Byvoorbeeld mense wat in armoede leef sal nie gehelp word nie. Klasieke liberalisme sien Vryheid as negatief, omdat elke individu alleen gelos word en keuses wat gemaak word, is individualisties (a)Heywood, 2007:31)

143. Wanneer daar meer klem gele word op die staat wat in meng op byvoorbeeld die individu wat gesondheid betref bou hulle klinieke ens. Moderne liberalisme sien Vryheid as positief, omdat jy self die keuses maak om as individu te groei en te ontwikkel (a)Heywood, 2007:31).
144. Liberale glo nie dat daar ’n gebalanseerde en tolerante samelewing natuurlik sal ontwikkel nie, maar dat daar ’n regering en wette in plek gestel moet word om dit te verseker (a)Heywood, 2007:36). Dus kan mens se dat liberale teen ’n anargie is sodat daar nie chaos in land sal wees nie.
145. Liberale glo dat alleenlik in die individu, die individu het sy/hy eie potensiaal om sukses te bereik, eie keuses te maak in die lewe met ander woorde die individu het individuele vryheid binne perke van wette.
146. Liberalism or its elements rather existed long before it could be identified as an ideology. It speaks to the belief that promoting freedom will produce peace (Doyle, 1986:1151).
147. Heywood (2007:45-47) offers an explanation of the differences between classical liberalism and modern liberalism , he explains classical liberalism as one that maintains an almost extreme devotion to individualism as human beings are viewed as self-reliant creatures. This atomist view downplays the need for a “stronghold” government although it is recognized that government is helpful for establishing order and security. Capitalism is very closely tied with liberalism because of this atomist view and expectation of society. A *laissez-faire* approach is applied to their economy as it is believed by liberalists that businesses and economies function better when left alone. Modern liberalism is in favor of more intervention from state as it recognizes that social and corporate injustices were on the rise. The idea of freedom was reworked with the realization that people are very different and more guard needs to be placed within society however the appreciation for individualism was still upheld (Arditi, 2007:38).
148. the elements of liberalism : Individualism; the individual is of more importance than the group he/she belongs to. Freedom; closely related to the principle of individualism and speaks to the individual having the allowance to be an individual by being able to do as he/she chooses. Reason; Liberals believe all humans have an innate ability to be rational although not necessarily to the same degree and also believe that progress is inevitable and man can resolve differences through debate rather than bloodshed. Equality; a belief that although man are individuals, everyone is born equal, specifically in terms of moral worth and hence laws are devised to protect this worth. Toleration; Liberals believe that allowing one another to express our individual freedom in different ways is healthy and always progress both socially and economically. Consent; the view of the liberals is that nothing should be done to you or for you without your consent (in laymen’s terms). Constitutionalism; Liberals hold on to government being necessary for order and stability however keeping that power limited and this can be done through the establishment of a bill of rights which defines the relationship between the state and the individual.
149. The state is trusted to protect civilians and keep the order however they are not to play any role that infringes on the human rights established in the constitution. The economy is also structured in a way that allows and promotes creativity within the market. There is little interference from the state and a laissez- faire mindset is applied.

The table of categorised quotations shows that a small minority of the quotations reflected a fairly good understanding of the technical concept ‘liberalism’ (10 out of 149). A further minority showed no understanding (35 out of 149), while the majority reflected a partial understanding of the concept.

The instruction for oral discussions in the weekly technical terminology tutorials was that students had to prepare the glossary terms and their definitions, but that they also had to read the chapters of the textbook that were prescribed in the module framework for that week. It is clear from the table of quotations that some students reflected the additional elements of the concept ‘liberalism’ in their written essays. This could mean that they did not only use the glossary definition, but looked up the term where it was discussed in more detail in the textbook. The same applies to the definitions for classical and modern liberalism, which did not appear as separate definitions in the Heywood

glossary but were discussed in more detail in the textbook as part of the ideology of 'liberalism'. In that sense, an important principle that was established in students' oral discussion of technical terminology could have been transferred to their use of technical terminology in the glossaries in their written essays, that is, to use the glossary terms and their definitions to complement the textbook, and not to substitute it.

5.4.2.3 Marxism and neo-Marxism

The term 'Marxism' is defined as follows in the Heywood glossary (and its Afrikaans and isiXhosa translations):

Marxism	**Marxisme**	**Inkqubo kaMarx yezopolitiko**
The theoretical system devised by Karl Marx, characterized by a belief in historical materialism, dialectical change and the use of class analysis.	Die teoretiese stelsel wat deur Karl Marx ontwikkel is en wat gekenmerk word deur vertroue in historiese materialisme, dialektiese verandering en die gebruik van klasseontleding.	Inkqubo yethiyori eyaqalwa nguKarl Marx, ephawuleka ngenkolo yembali yokuphathekayo, ukutshintsha kweengxoxo nokucalulwa koluntu ngokwamanqanaba.

Three core values of Marxism that are mentioned in this definition are (i) 'belief in historical materialism,' (ii) 'dialectic change,' and (iii) 'the use of class analysis.' As was the case with 'liberalism', it should be noted that the term 'Marxism' is discussed in much greater detail in the Heywood textbook (2007:55–57). Other elements of Marxism that are included there are (iv) 'alienation,' (v) 'surplus value,' (vi) 'proletarian revolution,' and (vii) 'communism.' Furthermore, some of these are terms are defined in separate entries in the Heywood glossary.

It should be noted that for the weekly technical terminology tutorials students had to prepare the glossary definition of the threshold concept 'Marxism', the more in-depth discussion of the term in the textbook (including the other elements of Marxism), as well as other related terms and definitions in the glossary. Moreover, they had to read the relevant chapters where the other four elements of Marxism were discussed in more detail. Students were also encouraged to identify all ideologies with specific thinker. This more comprehensive understanding of the concept 'Marxism' was taken into account in the categorisation of the quotations below.

The coding of the first set of essays for Political Science 112 (primary document 1) yielded a total of 77 quotations for the concept 'Marxism'. These quotations are listed in the table below. The quotations of Marxism are categorised by means of different types of shading. Those without any shading (25 in total) do not give any indication of the seven elements included in the more comprehensive definition above. Those with lighter shading (45 in total) reflect one to three of the elements mentioned above, while the quotations with darker shading (7 in total) reflect four or more of these elements.

Table 5.10 Quotations coded with 'Marxism'

Marxism (77)	
1.	Marxism was an idea that Karl Marx (a German, Jewish philosopher that converted to Protestantism to escape legal restrictions along with Engels formulated a politic hegemonic that latter was known as Marxism). Marx lived in the era of the'Bipolar war'where he was particularly interested in an Imperial Ireland and India
2.	Marxism is an alternative to Capitalist ideals, which implies that they don't favour the bourgeois. Marxists believe in a classless society thatwould be attainable through a Dictatorship to prevent the possibility of a coupe by the citizens.This would be organized through a principle of comparing one's capabilities to others
3.	Since the demise of communism, Marxism is often discardedas an ideology. However, it is tool of analysis as Marx's research was profound in the sense that his view of capitalism and his fears of an 'excessive capitalistic state' that will disregard theproletariat and only cater for the bourgeois is evident even today. This is when Marxist principles and teachings are relevant to a concise criticism of the state as they cater for economic growth rather than basic human rights, thereforeneglecting their duty to the people.
4.	Marxism has seen its demise due to the dissimilation of communism it still serves a great purpose, even though Marx and Engels were wrong in their assumptions of Capitalism falling as anideology, because the increase in production and wealth that the industrial sector offered was contrary to their beliefs
5.	This in turn saw the rise of capitalism to greater accolades' in economic dominance, and ,empowering the bourgeoisies saw a better standing of living increase in countries that practised or encompassed such hegemonies even though their observations were somewhat flawed in that regard, their other observations were sound and revealed the downside of Capitalism that a great inequality will creep into society and therefore having a debilitating effect on the conditions of the labour, latter on industrialist or companies, as Globalization threaten politics as the importance of economy place economic constraints on political actions that are meant to serve the people not business.
6.	Marxism is a system introduced by Karl Marx, which is categorized by a belief in historical materialism, dialectal change and the use of communism. Marxism is often portrayed as the rival and enemy of western capitalism.
7.	Marxism can also be defined as a family of principles, ideas, and political theories which are structured according to the thinking's of Karl Marx (1818-1883) in the nineteenth century. The theory behind Marxism is that capitalism symbolizes a system of class manipulation and that Marxism symbolizes social order in which private ownership and class manipulation are eradicated. Karl Marx believed that socialism could be attained through a form of revolution
8.	The Origins of Marxism grew out of socialism. The most significant thinker of the ideology of socialism was Karl Marx, whose thoughts delivered the basis for twentieth century communism.
9.	Karl Marx believed that capitalism had created a class of proletariat which according to Heywood was a Marxist term, which signified a class that existed from the sale of its labour power
10.	the elements of Marxism take account of: an importance of economic life and good standard of living whereby society is allowed to produce their means of subsistence which was reflected in historical materialism. Alienation is an important element in this framework as it is the procedure in which, workforce is decreased to being just a service and work becomes a depersonalized action in a capitalistic society. The class struggle whereby a division between the proletariat and capitalist class is created. Proletarian revolution whereby Karl Marx believed that capitalism was hopeless and that the proletariat would wipe capitalism away.
11.	According to Karl Marx, capitalism would go through emergencies of overproduction. Communism can be seen as the most significant element of Marxism. Marx believed that the proletarian revolution would lead an emerging socialist revolution whereby the bourgeoisie would be wiped out. This was based on Marx's ideas of a communist society which would be classless and that wealth and private ownership would be distributed for the greater good of the community
12.	Orthodox Communism is best understood as a system of Marxism-Leninism because it is characterized by a set of Leninist notions and doctrines. Lenin's idea of a revolutionary party is seen as his biggest influence to Marxism. This theory reflected Vladimir Lenin's fear that the proletariat, were deceived by bourgeois ideas and beliefs
13.	Opponents have argued that Marxist thoughts are too economistic and focused too much on subjects relating to class. They felt that Karl Marx's thinking's excluded other practices of repression that

	occur in society including those centred on ethnicity, sex and race
14.	Marxisme het baie soortgelyke kenmerke as kommunisme. Die klem lê op idealistiese gelyke samelewing waar almal gelyk is in die sin van almal kry gelyke en dieselfde voordele en behandeling. Alles in die land behoort aan die staat bv. grond waarop daar geboer word behoort aan die staat en die inkomste wat deur daai boer verdien word, gaan alles aan die staat en hulle besluit hoeveel en vir wie hulle dit wil gee. Dieselfde geld in die besigheidsektor. Alle inkomste wat deur maatskappye verdien word, gaan aan die staat, sodat gelykheid bewerkstellig kan word in alle dele van die land se ekonomie. Die man wat in 'n kafee werk verdien dieselfde as bv. 'n prokureur of rekenmeester wat gewoonlik meer geld verdien.
15.	Marxisme is heeltemal gekant teen kapitalisme. Kapitalisme is die teenoorgestelde as kommunisme met ander woorde kapitaliste probeer die individu laat vooruitgaan en streef na groot sukses. Marxisme is teen die idee van ontwikkeling van die individu en is van belang dat almal gelyk bevoordeel moet word, sodat daar nie klasse verskil ontstaan nie. By kapitalisme is daar geen of min inmenging van die staat nie en kapitaliste wil he die land se mense moet vooruitgaan ten spyte van ander. Die staat verskaf die nodige basiese behoeftes en behandel dan elke individu gelyk.
16.	Die Duitse filosoof, Karl Marx, het met die idee van Marxisme opgekom en word beskryf as die hoof Marxiste van die politieke ideologie. Hy het geglo dat hy 'n nuwe vorm van sosiale en historiese ontwikkeling, wat sielkundige was, ontdek het, eerder om voort te gaan met die normale vorm van kapitalisme
17.	Marx het beweer dat die vernietiging van die werk van kapitalisme sal lei tot die vermindering van klasse verskil in 'n land. Marxisme was definitief 'n baie groot ideologie in die 20ste eeu en daar word tot vandag toe nog daarvan gepraat en in ag geneem
18.	Mense het baie kritiek gelewer oor die idee en in baie lande was dit teen hulle beginsels. Baie mense het te veel simpatie vir die armes gehad en dit dra by tot Marx se mening dat 'n land beter sal groei en sterker sal wees as alle individue ewe gelyk behandel word en dat die staat in beheer is van alles in die land. Hy het geglo dat kapitalisme veroorsaak te groot klasse verskil wat lei tot ander vorme van konflik soos rassisme en geloofsverskille bv. diskriminasie
19.	Soos in liberalisme is daar sekere elemente van Marxisme wat die kern is van die ideologie volgens Heywood. Historiese materiaal, dialektiese verandering, vervreemding, klas verskil, meerwaardigheid, proletariese rewolusie en kommunisme
20.	Marxisme word deurgans erken as 'n ekonomiese en sosiale sisteem, gebaseer op die ekonomiese en politieke teorieë van die Duitse filosoof, ekonoom en politieke ontleder, Karl Marx (1818-1883), sowel as Friedrich Engels. Hulle was van mening dat die proletariaat in opstand sou kom en die heersende klas oorneem, wat dan op sy beurt 'n klas gebaseerde samelewing tot gevolg sou he. Marx het geglo dat dit slegs sou plaasvind in 'n gemeganiseerde samelewing.
21.	Netsoos Liberalisme, fokus Marxisme op kern sosiale elemente, naamlik historiese materialisme; dialetiese transformasie; vervreemding; klasse-onderdrukking; surplus waarde en massa rewolusie. As teoretiese sisteem, het hy die alternatiewe ideologie gebied tot die liberale-logika
22.	Terwyl Marx en Engels geglo het dat die werkersklas sou rebelleer, huldig Vladimir Ilyich Lenin (1870-1924) kompleet die teenoorgestelde standpunt. Hy was van mening dat die werkersklas nie in opstand sou kom nie. Lenin het geglo dat die proletariaat gelei moes word deur, wat hy genoem het, professionele revolusioniste. Hy het verder meer geglo dat 'n klein groepie mense of uitverkorenes moes oorneem en voortdurend moes beding vir revolusie en verandering, selfs nadat die revolusie aanvanklik sy aanslag geneem het.
23.	Dit is nie duidelik wat Lenin bedoel met "professionle" rewolusioniste. Sou hy bedoel het 'n bevoorregtes of mense in gesagsposisies van die samelewing, dan skep dit opsigself heelwat kontradiksie vir Marxisme. Hierdeur word die klasse-onderskeiding net verder verdiep en bevorder. Dit laat ook die vraag ontstaan of Lenin van mening is dat slegs hierdie "bevoorregte" groepie leiding sou kon gee, met die gevolg dat die werkersklas nie oor die vermoe beskik om hulle eie bevryding uit die juk van sosiale onderdrukking kan bewerkstellig.
24.	Nogtans kom dit by nadere ondersoek na vore dat Lenin tog gekant was teen sekere tradisionele Marxistiese oortuigings, omdat hy geglo het dat professionele revolusioniste die hele proses na kommunisme moes lei. Ironies, het hy nie 'n sterk geloof gehad in demokrasie nie, omdat dit volgens hom nie voortuitstrewend sou wees. Lenin se kern siening of oortuiging was dus dat die werkersklas in beheer moes wees, maar dat dit net bewerkstellig kan word met die hulp van sy sogenaamde "professionele rewolusioniste".
25.	According to Nomos (1983:17) an ideology ,for Marx is a system of beliefs and attitudes that distort

	reality and that results from social forces, tendency to bring idea in line with reality.
26.	In contrast to Liberalism, Marxism is bases on the world view that was dominated by wealthy men, where people we classified according to their wealth . fundamentals such as equality (element of Liberalism) were not taken into consideration. In every society the means of production – determine the course of that society. Those who lack property have their fate determined by others
27.	Marxism is named after a German philosopher and economist Karl Marx. Marxism started during the culmination of the enlightment when there were slaves in America, and women did not have the right to vote.
28.	Marxism is characterized by Historical Materialism.
29.	Marxism can also be identified by the proletarian revolution. Marx believed that capitalism was doomed and according to his analysis, capitalism would pass through a series of increasingly serious crises of owner production .
30.	whereas in a Marxism Ideology, people are classified in different classes, meaning those who were wealthy make decisions for others and there's no equality for people.
31.	There are three characteristics of Marxism, which are historical materialism, dialectical change and the use of class analysis.
32.	Karl Marx wanted the lines between classes to blur because he wanted equality. Dialectical changes, according to Marx, formed when the working class were unhappy with their position of being the bottom of the social ladder. This caused dialectical change, as the two opposing forces (upper and working class) interacted and made that the working class were able to become equal to the bourgeoisie. The bourgeoisie opposed a change in class difference and wanted it to stay static, as they grew up and were happy with the way social structure was in society.
33.	By marxisme word die klem afgehaal van privaat eiendom en sodoende word daar weggedoen met klasse verskille.
34.	Marxisme is die mees ambiseuste, sistematies en mees invloedryke filosofie in die kontemporêre wêreld. Dit het nie net die basis gelê vir poletiese bewegings nie maar ook die basis van regimes in 'n groot hoeveelhede van lande gelê. Marxisme bevat 'n inhoud van studies van samelewing, geskiedenies van ekonomie veral oor kapitalisme, filosifie oor geskiedenis en konsepsie vir politiek krag.
35.	Karl Marxism, a German philosopher who is the farther of twentieth-century communism. Created a theory that constituted an alternative to the liberal concepts of the western culture. As a result, Marxism has been seen as an enemy of the western capitilsm for being a form of international communist movement
36.	The attractions of Marxist class have been boosted by the less stimulating alternative offered by academic sociology. No principle for the class boundary seems to enjoy such a widespread of acceptance among those who conduct study into family structure, political attitudes, social imagery life-styles, educational attainment that keep the experimental sociology endlessly turning.
37.	Alienation as a main principle of Marx early theories, defines a state or process of depersonalization and separation from a human's essential nature. This theory is a process where under capitalism; work is condensed to being more of a product, and work has becomes a depersonalized activity. This aimed to separated the workers from the product, from the process of labour, from fellow workers and from themselves and strip workers of a social life and being imaginative as human beings
38.	There is a clashing conflict between the bourgeoisie and the proletariat due to the fact that the bourgeoisie is exploiting the proletariat under capitalism. Derived from this it can be said that capitalism could be unstable, reason for the proletariat cannot be permanently reconciled to exploitation and oppression. Marx seen calculated that capitalism is doomed and that the proletariat is going to be the cause of it. He also believed that a proletariat revolution was inevitable through gaining control of the earnings of production
39.	Marxism is also linked to the soviet communism and particularly to the first two Soviet leaders, Lenin and Joseph Stalin. Marxism that was adjusted by Leninist theories and doctrines created Marxism-Leninism. This was a main factor to the contribution to the theory of the revolutionary or vanguard party.
40.	One of the key things of this is the theory they had of 'class struggle' all the different classes fight against each other and look down on one another. Back then the world was rule by a few very wealthy men. Marxism wasn't based on who was rich or poor. Bourgeois and proletariat were the big classes focused on by Marx.
41.	Marx was trying to help the working class to get out of the predicament they found themselves in. the

	workers class did all the hard, tough work but the elite class just took the final product and made money but gave the worker basically nothing of that money.
42.	Karl Marx wanted to improve the lives of the workers class and make then earn more money. He knew in the long run it would never work out if people in the workers class stayed in that class all their lives, something will have to give sometime. In conclusion it is very clear to me that liberalism is the most popular ideology between the three.
43.	Marxism is an ideology in which the concept of class struggle is important in understanding society's inevitable development from bourgeois oppression under capitalism to a socialist and ultimately classless society. In other words, Marxist ideas believed that one day there would be a revolution directed by the poorer community, seeking a world with the same economic opportunities.
44.	Heywood (2007:453) defines Marxism as an ideology characterised by dialectical change, use of class of analysis and faith in historical materialism.
45.	During his active years, Marx evaluated the social differences regarding economic opportunities, and he believed that the poor would revolt someday and turn the world into a place where wealth is spread more evenly.
46.	The main elements or characteristics of Marxist ideas are: Class struggle; Proletarian revolution; Surplus value; Communism; Alienation; Historical materialism; Dialectical change.
47.	it was also seen that Marxism cared more about the development of a classless society instead of neither a non-discriminant gender world nor a world full of individualism or freedom.
48.	Yet, Marxists are seen has an enemy to the western capitalists.
49.	Marxists believed capitalism was unfair to the proletariat and the working class since the wealth owners would only retain their money through the work of labour. This means that if there was no proletariat or working class, there would not have profit for the rich. Therefore, Marxists believed that wealth should be evenly shared since it was contributed by many.
50.	Marxism can be viewed as a theoretical system that only came into practice after death in 1883 mainly through his writings. Marxism can also be understood as a classless society where resources are distributed equally.
51.	Marxism was inspired socialism as it possessed elements that were infact the fundamentals of Marxism such as social equalty, social class and common ownership to name a few.
52.	The core elements of Marxism are historical materialism, dialectical change and the use of class analysis. Historical materialism highlighted the importance of economic life and the conditions under which people produce and reproduce their means of substance (Heywood,2007:56.)
53.	Marxism is the political and economic theories of German philosopher, economist and political thinker Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels. This theory is based on the belief, that man's actions and institutions are economically determined and that the classification of class struggle is vital to help create historical change and that capitalism will be replaced by it enemy, communism.
54.	Marxist elements are: Historical materialism is the cornerstone of this ideology. This highlights importance of economic life. Marx believed that the economic base consists of mode of production, or the economic system, conditions or determines the ideological and political superstructure. Marx believed that the force of historical change lies with intereaction between competing forces, giving rise to a more advanced stage of development.
55.	Alienation has to take place, from one which seperates one from one's genuine or essential nature. Class struggle is the central contradiction within the capitalist soceity that rises from the existance of private property. This creates strife between bourgoisie and the proletariate, who do not own any property.
56.	his Marxist practice was linked to Soviet communism, especially with the contribution of the two Soviet leaders, Lenin and Stalin. Communism better understood as a form of Marxism. Orthodox Marxism was a set of Leninist theories. Lenin's main contribution was his revolutionary party. This reflected Lenin's fear of the proletariate being swayed by bourgeois ideas and beliefs and would never realize the full potential of the revolution, due to its lack of trade –unm.ion consciousness. The desires to improve the working and living conditions, rather than to revolt against capitalism. Lenin's revolutionary party, aimed to serve the working class people and claims to act in the interests of the people. This form of communism was also practiced by some Asian and South American countries. After Lenin's death, Stalin took over the leadership and then turned the USSR into a totalitariate state, practicing absolute power.
57.	Essentially however, Marxism was a call for reform in economics. Marx and his supporters were against the lower class being exploited by those that were better off. The solution to this then

	according to Marx was to "even the playing field."
58.	The ideology of Marxism was seen as an alternative to liberalism and came across as a treat to Western Capitalism.
59.	Marxist historians emphasised the importance of class relations in determining the form and pace of development of the productive forces.
60.	According to Andrew Heywood, there are seven elements that make up Marxism. They are as following; Historical Materialism, "which highlighted the impotents of economic life and the conditions under which people produce and reproduce their means of subsistence".(b.Heywood, 2007:56). Dialectical change, Marx believed that if there is competition between two entities, it would result in a higher production rate. Alienation, Marx believed that if the labourers were reduced to a "commodity" and he believed this would lead to a better self-realization. Class struggle, this is the divide between the group of people who own property and those who will never own property. Surplus value, this was an idea of Marx that stated that labourers needed to be paid less than what they are worth and then production would be higher. Proletarian revolution, Marx believed that there will be an over production and that workers will rise up against the government when this happens and therefore be doomed.
61.	It is believed that Marxism is the theory and communism is the practice, otherwise both are confusing combinations of theory and practise.
62.	Marxism convicts capitalism for its demolition of human creativity.
63.	Marxisme glo in 'n samelewing sonder enige klasse, dus is almal in een klas waar almal gelyk is. Marxisme is deel van die sosialistiese perspektief maar word ook geassosieer met kommunisme.
64.	Belangrike elemente van Marxisme is eerstens historiese materialisme, wat die ekonomie en die omstandighede waarin mense vervaardig beklemtoon en tweedens die klas element. Karl Marx het geglo dat as gevolg van klas sal die kapitalistiese stelsel val omdat die lae werkers klas sal teen opstand kom. In 'n kapitalistiese stelsel raak ryk mense ryker en arm mense armer, daar is nie 'n gelyke inkomste verdeling nie.
65.	Klasieke Marxisme: Dit is die oorspronklike vorm van Marxisme, die oorspronklike filosofie van Karl Marx en Friedrich Engels. Dit is gebaseer op die seining van die val van die kapitalistiese stelsel en die opkoms van die sosialisme. Karl Marx het voorgestel dat die werkers klas in opstand gaan kom teen die ryker klasse wat 'n revolusie sal veroorsaak en daarna sal daar een gelyke klas vorm.
66.	Marxism is a movement and /or ideology that fights for the self-emancipation of the working class and discourages domination by the ruling classes
67.	Marxism is considered another form of communism however the collapse of communism did not necessarily mean the collapse of Marxism as an ideology. Marxism carries its own elements which the ideology is then a manifestation of : Historical materialism; this emphasized the necessity of economic life and the circumstances under which society and its individuals produce and reproduce their means of subsistence. Dialectical change; this element referred to the belief that progress or lack thereof was a result of the network and relationship between competing forces. Alienation; this refers to the detachment of an individual from the product, fellow workers, the process of the labour and even possibly themselves and how this would have negative consequences for the worker and his/her fulfillment hence alienation was discouraged as far as possible. Class struggle; the bourgeoisie (ruling class) holds economic and political power and this is believed to cause division between societal groupings hence Marxism holds an opposing stance to the establishment classes altogether. Surplus value; Marxists hold the belief that surplus value – encouraged by a capitalists - could only be achieved through the exploitation of proletariat(working class) therefore making capitalism an unstable venture. Proletarian revolution; Marx proclaimed that after multiple crisis' of overproduction, the working class would eventually revolt and aim to seize control of the means of production, therefore capitalism's doom seemed inevitable although Marx later considered the possibility of a civil transition into socialism.(Heywood,2007:56).
68.	In a Marxist society, there are two proposed views/possibilities. The one being that the state interests may lie predominantly with the leader being sheltered which is a aversion of the equality Marxism aims for. The second being the state maintains the class system however attempts to mediate class conflict to such an extent that classes may still be in play however not be so easily apparent to the society.
69.	Karl Marx believed that socialism was related with the concern of an oppressed and subjugated working class and he considered the working class as a representative of social revolution and shared ownership. Added, socialism is also based on the values that material welfares should be shared and

	spread for the greater good of the community instead of on the basis of excellent work
71.	Marxism was inspired socialism as it possessed elements that were infact the fundamentals of Marxism such as social equalty, social class and common ownership to name a few.
72.	Na aanleiding van die bogenoemde kan mense se dat Marxisme sosialisties en kommunisties is, daar is wel sekere vereistes waar aan elke party of regering moet voldoen om as sosialisties of kommunisties geklassifiseer te word.
73.	According to Karl Marx, capitalism would go through emergencies of overproduction. Communism can be seen as the most significant element of Marxism. Marx believed that the proletarian revolution would lead an emerging socialist revolution whereby the bourgeoisie would be wiped out. This was based on Marx's ideas of a communist society which would be classless and that wealth and private ownership would be distributed for the greater good of the community
74.	Marxism is also linked to the soviet communism and particularly to the first two Soviet leaders, Lenin and Joseph Stalin. Marxism that was adjusted by Leninist theories and doctrines created Marxism-Leninism. This was a main factor to the contribution to the theory of the revolutionary or vanguard party.
75.	Surplus value refers to the relationship, between the bourgoisie and the proletariate. This relationship is one of irreconcilable conflict, as the bourgoisie represent capitalism, which expoits the proletariate and lastly. Marx firmly believed that the proletariate revolution would bring to the end of capitalism and lastly, communism would flourish.
76.	Karl Marx (1818-1883) was a German philosopher, economist and political thinker who is generally portrayed as the father of twentieth-century communism (Heywood 2007:55). Marx along with Friedrich Engels, developed his ideals in his writings, the most famous being the 'Communist Manifesto' (Heywood 2007:55). This document outlines the divide - following the feudal area – between middle class/capitalists and the proletariat (Ormerod 2008:1573-1574). It draws on the idea that the bourgeoisie misuse the proletariat for their own gain. The tone of the document is revolutionary (Ormerod 2008:1574). It encourages and promotes action among those that Marx feels are being economically and socially oppressed. Throughout the years, the document has been re-interpreted and implemented in many different forms across the world. It has been the main instigator for a number of social revolutions (Ormerod 2008:1584). From the time of its inception the concept has been controversial. It was the starting point for what later became known as Communism, which did a lot to tip the balance of power in the political realm globally (Ormerod 2008: 1759).
77.	Marxism is considered another form of communism however the collapse of communism did not necessarily mean the collapse of Marxism as an ideology.

The table of categorised quotations shows that more or less a third of the quotations reflected no understanding of the concept 'Marxism' while the majority showed a partial understanding of the concept, and only a small minority reflected a fairly good understanding.

In their discussions of Marxism in the essays some students also referred to the concept 'neo-Marxism'. This concept was also discussed in the technical terminology tutorials, and was therefore also coded in the essays. The definition provided in the glossary (with the Afrikaans and isiXhosa translations) is the following:

Neo-Marxism An updated and revised form of Marxism that rejects determinism, the primacy of economics, and the privileged status of the proletariat.	**Neo-Marxisme** 'n Nuwe en hersiene vorm van Marxisme wat determinisme, die vooropstelling (of voorrang) van die ekonomie en die bevoorregte status van die proletariaat verwerp.	**Uhlaziyo lobungxowa-nkulu lukaMarx** Uhlobo olutsha noluhlaziweyo lukaMarx olukhaba ukugxila kuqoqosho kunye namawonga obungxowa-nkulu.

Three elements are reflected in this definition, namely (i) 'rejects determinism,' (ii) 'rejects the primacy of economics,' and (iii) 'rejects the privileged status of the proletariat.'

The quotations of neo-Marxism are categorised by means of different types of shading. Those quotations without any shading (5 in total) do not give any indication of the three aspects included in the definition above. Those with lighter shading (1 in total) reflect any one of the three aspects, while the quotations with darker shading (1 in total) reflect two or more of the aspects in their descriptions.

Table 5.11 Quotations coded with 'neo-Marxism'

Neo-Marxism (7)	
1.	Neo-Marxism: Marxists mean to recast the classical ideals of Marx as they still hold a great deal in the preservation of the principles. In a nutshell they basically refuse to accept that Marxism enjoys a monopoly of the truth.They also refuse to accept primacy of economics, or assign the proletariat a privileged role. They are also concerned with arguing the failure of Marx's predictions, and observations in particular: the analysis of ideology and state power.
2.	Modern Marxism emerged in Western Europe and is seen as a complicated and indirect form of Marxism (Heywood, 2007:58). Modern Marxism is also known as Western Marxism or Neo-Marxism. According to Heywood, Neo-Marxism is a term that attempts to reform and revise the traditional ideas of Karl Marx yet at the same time remain faithful to particular Marxist principles
3.	Modern Marxism that developed in Western Europe has been adopted by Hegelian ideas that from the Soviet Marxism that stresses the concept of 'Man the creator'. Marxists were able to break free from the base structure ideology.
4.	When analysing Marxist ideas, it is important to remember the concepts of Neo-Marxism and determinism Mention proletariat. These two ideas differ in ways that Neo-Marxism rejects determinism, primacy of economics and the privileged status whereas determinism Mention proletariat would allow these things. (maak logies geen sin)
5.	Is a more complicated and complex form of Marxism developed in Eastern Europe and differs with the scientific notions compared to the Soviet Union. In this brand of Marxism, it is believed that human beings were seen as history makers and are not controlled by material forces and is linked between economics and politics, situated between circumstances of life. The emphasis is on how mankind, have the power to change their destiny.
6.	This is a more complex yet subtle form of Marxism which was developed in Western Europe. In contrast with the robotic and openly scientific notions of Soviet Marxism, western Marxism is further influenced by the Hegelian ideas. This is the idea that human beings are seen as makers of history, not puppets controlled by objective material forces. A more explicitly Hegelian brand of Marxist was developed by the so-called Frankfurt School, of which the leading members were: Theodore Adorno (1903-69), Max Horkheimer (1895-1973) and Herbert Marcuse (1898-1979) (Heywood, 2007:59)
7.	Moderne Marxisme: Daar is twee faktore vir hierdie vorm van Marxisme. Eerstens is klasieke Marxisme oor na gedink, en van die elemente daarvan gehou en ander radikale elemente verwyder. Karl Marx se voorspellings oor die val van kapitalisme is ook op sy gesit omdat sy voorspelling nog nie gerealiseer het nie.

Although there were only a small number of quotations referring to 'neo-Marxism', it seems that the majority of these did not reflect any of the aspects of the definition, and only one quotation could be characterised as a fairly good understanding.

5.4.2.4 Feminism

This term is defined as follows in the Heywood glossary (and its Afrikaans and isiXhosa translations):

Feminism	**Feminisme**	**Ukulwela amalungelo abasetyhini**
An ideology committed to promoting the social role of women and, in most cases, dedicated to the goal of gender equality.	'n Ideologie wat daartoe verbind is om die sosiale rol van vroue te bevorder en, in die meeste gevalle, gendergelykheid as 'n doelstelling nastreef.	Ingcingane enikezelwe ekuphakamiseni indima yamakhosikazi ekuhlaleni kwaye, kwiimeko ezininzi, inikezelwe kwinjongo yokulingana ngokwesini.

Two aspects are central to this definition, namely (i) 'committed to promoting the social role of women,' and (ii) 'dedicated to the goal of gender equality.' In the textbook (Heywood, 2007:64) a distinction is furthermore made between (iii) two distinctive periods in feminism: first-wave feminism (1840s and 1850s) and second-wave feminism (from the 1960s). Furthermore, a distinction is made between (iv) three contrasting feminist traditions: liberal feminism, socialist feminism, and radical or revolutionary feminism.

The coding of the first set of essays for Political Science 112 (primary document 1) yielded a total of 91 quotations for this concept. These quotations are listed in the table below and are categorised by means of different types of shading. Those quotations without any shading (10 in total) did not give any indication of the two aspects included in the definition above whereas those with lighter shading (81 in total) reflect one or two of the above-mentioned aspects. No quotations were found which reflect three or more aspects in their descriptions.

Table 5.12 Quotations coded with 'feminism'

Feminism (91)	
1.	Feminists criticize the notion of a patriarchal society as a form of governance as 'total inequality'.Feminism is based on the principles of gender equality and the fight for basic human rights, especially that of women and children. Their greatest challenges are those of the emancipation of women from the clenches of patriarchal society and instilling a sense of self worth and consciousnesses of their basic human rights as woman.
2.	There also different types of feminists like,"the *Marxist, anarchist, radical and liberal feminists*". They deal with issues like; race, sexuality, class and ethnicity.
3.	Feminists have served to ensure the unity of woman. The description of different types of feminists gives one an idea of how they fulfil their goals
4.	"Are women feminists?" The notion 'we' implies either universal humanity or requires some sort of specification, at least some justification in a sense of the limitations of the exact category of the question? They cannot speak for 'we' in terms of humans or females, feminists without specification of the limitations they speak of. Therefore, researchers cannot simply take women as subject of feminism, nor can they simply assume based on the notion of womanhood they are feminists.
5.	Than given the methodology of feminism has distinctive rules, given those rules if ever a man would be politically sympathetic he would adopt them and he too would be a femists.
6.	Feminism in Africa as an ideal needs a bigger audience, as the continent has a patriarchal mentality, whereas females are subordinate. Barriers need to be broken down and a new culture of equality instilled as the culture of the native land still lacks a great deal in the empowerment of women
7.	Feminism is necessary as it at brings about positive change in that it decreases domestic violence, nepotism and, gender and racial inequalities. Feminism bridges the gap between 'state' and 'society' without infringements, with their belief that politics starts at home. An equilibrium needs to be found between matriarchal and patriarchal paradigms where they complement one another, ideals such as equality and individualism can be recognised.
8.	Theories and ideologies that aimed at bringing social, economic and political equality to women can

	be defined as feminism.
9.	The origins of the first wave feminism are often traced back to the abolitionist movement which was a period of attempting to get slavery abolished. The second period of the feminist movement began in the early 1960's in the United States. This is the most well-known time period in which the feminist theory emerged.
10.	Tremendous developments in education, employment and marital laws to the advantage of women primarily in North America and Europe were establish as part of the first wave of feminism. Much of these laws however, were ignored in relation to women and their rights. In the first wave, women fought for the right to vote.
11.	In the 1960's, the rise of the second wave feminism emerged. In this movement women fought for employment and reproductive rights. The movement was primarily influential in the United States, but rapidly spread in different parts of the world, particularly Europe. This movement expressed radical and revolutionary demands of the growing Women's Liberation Movement.
12.	The second wave feminism refers to the feminist movement that began in the 1960's. In this movement, women fought for the right to employment as well as rights to choose when they wanted to have children and start families.
13.	the fundamental subjects of feminism are that society is characterized by gender inequality and male-dominance.
14.	In this movement, women fought against discrimination and prejudices.
15.	Added, women fought for better rights in terms of maternity leave, nursery schools for married women and for divorce rights.
16.	Feminism can be primarily be distinguished into four types which are commonly known as Liberal, Radical, Marxist and Socialist feminism. All four of these concepts are different in that they have different views about the different social structures which are responsible for repression.
17.	Liberal feminists are known as the most common. These feminists acknowledge that gender dissimilarities do occur but argue that social, economic and legal chances must be equal for males and females.
18.	socialist feminists draw attention to women being subject to sexism, in other words the belief that women are not equally as important as men in society. They argued that women should be given the same social status as men in society.
19.	Radical feminists believe that men are responsible for the repression of women and that such male-controlled beliefs must be supplemented in order for women to receive fairness in society.
20.	Marxist feminists believe that women's repression originates from economic oppression brought by capitalism
21.	Feminisme as 'n ideologie word gedefinieer as die ontwikkeling van die rol van vrouens en die doelwit van geslagsgelykheid. Dit is om diskriminasie teen vrouens as gevolg van geslag te stop en die stelling te maak dat vrouens ook belangrik is in die samelewing en dat hulle dieselfde werk as mans kan doen en gelyk behandel moet word. Dit is van uiterste belang dat die sê van 'n vrou ook in ag geneem moet word in die samelewing en dat hulle ook die reg het om hul mening te lig oor 'n saak. Tot vandag toe word daar nog gepraat dat stemreg vir vrouens as een van die grootste prestasies van die geslag gesien word. Vandag word vrouens as baie belangrike karakters in die samelewing gesien, maar daar is nog steeds gevalle van mans wat glo dat sekere werke nie vir vrouens bedoel is nie.
22.	Die ontwikkeling en opstand van vrouens het wêreldwyd baie gewild geword in die 19de eeu, omdat vrouens ongelukkig was oor die onregverdige behandeling as gevolg van hulle geslag.
23.	Regoor die wêreld het vrouens in opstand gekom oor die bekommernis en tot vandag toe is daar vroulike organisasies wat die regte van vrouens beskerm in die lewe. Goewermente regoor die wêreld het sulke organisasies ingestel om seker te maak daar word nie deur vrouens gediskrimineer nie.
24.	Feministe se doel was om die mag van mans in die wêreld om te draai en dat die samelewing gesien word as geslags gelykheid
25.	Onderwys, gesondheidsorg, werksgeleenthede ens. was onder andere van die redes hoekom vrouens in opstand gekom het en die organisasies begin vorm het. Hulle was nie opgevoed nie en het heeldag in hul huise gebly, terwyl die mans buite was om te werk.
26.	Sekere organisasies het tot geglo dat die regstelling van vroulike waardes en geleenthede is die belangrikste eienskappe in die samelewing. Daar was dele waar mans ontevrede was oor die instelling van feminisme, omdat manlike werksgeleenthede minder geword het as gevolg van die kompetisie met die vroulike geslag. Dis moeilik om te dink as daar gekyk word na die moderne

samelewing waar die rol van vrouens so groot en belangrik is en dat dit regverdig is om te sê dat meeste mans nie kan lewe sonder vrouens nie.
27. Feminsme is ‘n veelsydige dissipline na geslagsgelykheid, met inaggenome sosiale teorieë en aktiewe politieke oortuigings.
28. Histories gesproke, het feminisme ontwikkel en omgeskakel vanaf die kritiese evaluering van geslagsongelykheid na ‘n meer benaderende fokus op die sosiale en werkende konstruksies van geslag en seksualiteit.
29. Netsoos Liberalisme en Marxisme, kan feminisme ook verdeel word in dire kategorieë of strominge. Liberale feministe se kern beginsels is gegrond op die verryking en verbetering van die legalistiese en politieke status van vroue, sowel as hulle opvoedkundige- en beroepsaspirasies
30. Tweedens voer Heywood (2007:64) aan dat sosialistiese feministe hulle aandag meer vestig op die verligting van mans se huishoudelike pligte, sowel as die opvoeding van die volgende generasie. Hierteenoor en in strenge kontras, het radikale feministe ‘n sterk oortuiging van seksuele revolusie, met spesifieke idees van herstruktuering van die persoonlike, huishoudelike en gesinslewe (Heywood, 2007:64).
31. Hedendaagse feministiese teorieë poog om alle vorme van geslagsongelykheid te onderdruk om sodoende verandering teweeg te bring in areas waar ongebalanseerde mag deur politieke geslagsongelykheid oorheers word. Ander fokuspunte sluit huishoudelike geweld, homoseksuele huwelike en werksplek-kwessies, in.
32. Feminism is the ideology that aims at establishing and defending equal rights for women on the basis of political, economical and social features, thus including education and empowerment.
33. In contrast to Marxism, feminism believes in equal opportunities for both genders. This can somehow tell us that the feminism ideology is similar to the Liberalism ideology. Feminism however puts an emphasis on the basis of equality for women.
34. Feminism can be classified according to two classes of historical development for feminism.
35. Feminism believed in encouraging equality for women in the basis of legal and political rights.
36. There are three contrasting feminist traditions that exist. Each tradition has a different opinion or rather outlook on the two above discussed Ideologies- Liberalism and Marxism Ideologies According to Kidd (2002:174) Liberal feminist seeks to resolve female inequality through the legal system , he furthermore states Marxist Feminist suggest capitalism and partriarchy are linked
37. Each tradition deals with different perspectives of the other Ideologies . the aim of these traditions are to rectify the injustices that have been brought to women by these ideologies and to encourage the development of women power within those ideologies.
38. Another Feminism tradition is known as Radical Feminist. In Heywood’s believe, Radical Feminist believe that gender division are the most fundamental and politically significant cleavages in the society
39. Feminism is aimed at created political, economic and social equality of the sexes.
40. The main purpose of feminism is that women realise that they are equal to men and that they are aware of their rights that ensure equal treatment.
41. This shows that even though society has evolved into a onewhere women and men are equal in all aspects, where men now stay at home or now have jobs that were reserved for women and women now have jobs that were generally reserved for men, people still have stereotypes concerning gender and gender equality. Stereotypically women are seen less powerful than men, less intelligent and as a nurturing figure who has to stay at home for ‘family use’.
42. The aim of feminism is based on the fact that “the structure of male power can and should be overturned.” (ibid) Women want and should be seen and treated equal to men.
43. Volgens die HAT (2009:425) is feminisme ‘n strewe vir gelyke regte vir die man en die vrou asook ‘n stryd vir die emansipasie van die vrou.
44. Die steoriotipe wat geskep word, in die daaglikse samelewing, is dat feministe ‘n groot groep radikale vroue is wat glo dat die vroulike geslag beter of belangriker is as die manlike geslag in vandag se samelewing. ‘n Persoon kan aflei dat hierdie stelling op geen feite gebasseer word nie, maar tog is daar ‘n klein deël van die stelling wat wel toepaslik kan wees.
45. Net soos al die ander ideologië vind ons dat elke person se siening nie heeltemaal dieselfde is nie. Dus vind ons klasse van Feminisme soos bv. liberale feminis asook die kritieke feminis.
46. Hoekom is vroue in die internasionale verhoudinge? (IR-internasional relations). Dit is ‘n vraag wat dikwels deur die liberale feminist gevra word. So word die rol van vroue reg rond die werêld beklemtoon. Sodoende verhoed hulle die onder repensintasie van vroue in mags posisies en

	beinvloed ook meer die internasiole verhoudinge/politiek. Deur spesifiek op vrouens te konsentreer, kritiseer baie liberale fiministe die IR vir afskeping van geslags navorsing. Liberale feminism was verwys na ‘n ontwrigting of ‘n geraas, wat vinnig aan aandag gegee was deur meer vrou aan te stel en meer vrou gebasseerde navorsing te gedoen het in die veld.
47.	Kritieke Feminisme deel tot ‘n mate aspekte van die marxistiese-feminis. Hulle fokus op geslags ongelykheid en verhoudinge. Tog het die Kritieke feminis geskei van die Marxistiese feminis en plaas nou weer die klem op die krag van idees en ideologië asook geslags verhoudinge. Daar word ook gefokus op die idees en strukture wat gelê word in die samelewing en hoe dit ‘n rol speel in die sosiale kwessies tussen geslagte.
48.	Feminist struggle has been easily co-opted to serve the interests of conservative and liberal feminists. Major contributions to be found in this study are the role of the liberal individualism in the creation of the feminist theory
49.	The second wave of feminism developed in the 1960s and articulated a more direct, radical and sometimes revolutionary were adopted by Women Liberation Movement.
50.	There are at least three feminist’s traditions that can be identified. Liberal feminists who focused on the unequal distribution of rights and opportunities in the community. Radical feminists found that gender diversity are more fundamental in the society. They tend to express the need for revolution that will restructure domestic and family life. Extreme feminists represent men as the enemy and that woman should separate from the male society and at times revert to political lesbianism as said in
51.	From the beginning of time it was always believed that men were the people that had to go out there and look for work. They were the people who brought money into the house. The woman on the other hand had to stay at home to make food and look after the children. That was there role for many years. Things are much different now since feminism kicked in.
52.	Definition of feminism: This is all of stuff put together like the movement and ideas that will defend woman and their rights whether it is politically or economically in the society. This means that woman was asking or actually demanding equal rights as men if they have the same qualification. They were looking for more opportunities, looking after children at home were not good enough for them anymore.
53.	In the 19th century women really started noticing that they were unfairly being treated, men were getting all the advantages. Anything a man said happened just like that but women didn’t get any say in society, nothing. These factors contributed to the women liberalism movement. The movement led to the uprising of feminism at the end.
54.	The feminist movement didn’t really make any impact in the beginning the same as the liberals until the radical group was formed in feminism and liberalism then things really started get going. This is all because the radicals act and make stuff happen were the normal feminist just talk and say they want changes but doesn’t do anything about it.
55.	Radical feminism: This is a very big part of feminism itself. Most of the things or ideas we see today about feminism came from the radical part of feminism. This is the way feminism got out there and got noticed by people and more women. The Radical feminism came alive between 1967 till 1975. They were the life of feminism at that time. They believed that woman that wasn’t threat right was the lowest form of undermining. Feminism also focuses on the rights of the individual but more specific da rights of women. The radicals were the big talking point at that time.
56.	In contrast to liberalism, feminism had less struggles to deal with then liberals. Liberalism is also a much bigger deal then what feminism was. People know more about liberalism then feminism because feminism only touches women where liberalism is about everyone all over the world.
57.	Heywood (2007:63) defines feminism as the philosophy dedicated to encouraging the public role of females and it is also dedicated to the goal of gender or sex equality. In other words, feminism is the process in which the male dominancy is targeted in such ways that there will be even comparisons between women and men avoiding gender discrimination and violations and proving equal political roles for both women and men within the society.
58.	The main goal of feminism is to promote gender equality.
59.	First-wave feminism is the type of feminist ideas that reached a wide number of communities for the first time in the middle of the 19th century. It highlighted the fact that women should have the same political opportunities as men. However, this wave was not expressed very radically so, it was not considered to a big extent. The second-wave feminism then followed. This was based in the fact that women expressed their demands more radically, and sometimes revolutionarily. This wave was more determined into promoting the social role of women whereas the first-wave feminism was not as

	demanding as this second one and it was also a lot more passive.
60.	There is a group of women who have a habit of understanding female subordination in terms of the uneven distribution of rights and chances in the society. These are the ones regarded as liberal feminists.
61.	there is a group of women who tend to highlight the connections between feminine subordination and the capitalist mode of production, drawing attention to the economic implication of females being limited to a domestic or family life in such ways that they relieve masculine labour of the weight of domestic work, rear and support the education of the following generation of capitalist labour, and function as a reserve army of work. These are the socialist feminists.
62.	the group known as radical feminists are the ones who trust that sex divisions or detachments are the most important and politically significant cleavages in society. According to them, every society is characterised by patriarchy. Therefore, radical feminists proclaim the necessity for a sexual rebellion which will reorganise individual, domestic and family life.
63.	we see that feminism was less focused on the pursuit of individualism or freedom, as it was chasing for a gender equality between different members of the society (in this case, women and men).
64.	feminists believed that women should not be only used for domestic purposes and that the government could have been being unfair by not proving women with the same opportunities as men.
65.	On the other hand, feminists did not really mind whether there was an economic superiority by some and inferiority by others. All they wanted was that women had the same rights and political opportunities as men. If there was to be some poorer than others then it would not be a concern for them.
66.	Feminists believe there is a fundamental power struggle between men and women
67.	Feminism is devoted to endorse the social task of women.
68.	A radically new development occurred in the 1960s and 1970s, the so-called 'second wave' of feminism, inspired by such writers as Simone de Beauvoir, *The Second Sex* (1953), Betty Friedan, *The Feminine Mystique* (1963), Kate Millet, *Sexual Politics* (1970) and, most famously, Germaine Greer, *The Female Eunuch* (1970). It shifted the entire debate from what might be generally considered *political* to the psychological, cultural and anthropological fields. These explorations extended the women's movement far outside the conventional bounds of political discourse and posed a formidable challenge to most basic assumptions of culture and civilisation.
69.	Women needed radical social change *and* political emancipation if they were to be 'liberated' from thousands of years of male oppression.
70.	Liberalism is all for individualism and equality but does not incorporate women yet Feminism is all about gender equality.
71.	Feminism is the ideology aimed at promoting, establishing and fighting for equal political, economic and social rights for women, establishing of equal opportunities for woman. With feminism, feminists want to make woman (and especially men) aware of their rights. They set out to prove, that woman are just as equal in soceity. That woman are not just wives and mothers, who are expected to stay home to cook, clean and be to "seen and not heard." They encouraged woman to be aware of their rights and be motivated woman to strive towards achieving their full potential. They believed that all women were allowed the same opportunities as men. Whether it is in the job sector, comes to education or human rights.
72.	liberal feminists have tended to understand female subordination in terms of unequal distribution of rights and opportunities in socaity
73.	In social feminism, a socialist feminist group focuses on reform in the public arena. As in Heywood's opnion (2007:64), enhancing the legal and political status of woman and improving their educational and career prospects, than with reordering their 'private' and domestic lives.
74.	Radical feminists believe in gender division, portraying men as the common enemy of females as they seemingly control the population. As in Heywood' s theory (2007:64), radical feminists call for a revolution, that will reorganise their personal, domestic and family life and proclaim, that woman need to withdraw themselves from male soceity. This brand of feminism is also seen as lesbianism.
75.	The case for Feminism is first made at the end of the 18th century following a fiery discourse in Europe around the subject of women. Supporters of the female sex made a passionate case for the need for a change in the nature of women (Clinton 1975:283). This discourse touched on the role of women in society, and their political rights (if any at all).
76.	In later years Feminism proved to be a movement that could not be contained. Although, it took longer in some parts of the world - particularly in patriarchal societies -, the movement eventually did

	catch on. Women today experience a number of "privilege's" that their predecessors could not partake in (Kavka 2002:30). despite this progress, many societies still objectify women and see them as inferior.
77.	During the late 1990s the concept of post feminism crept up. It is the idea that the ideals of Feminism have been achieved and that there is no longer a need for its fierce advocates. It is a movement that has come under fire by the more "orthodox," promoters of the cause (Kavka 2002:30).
78.	The two problems feminists bring up is, firstly the fact that there are gender inequalities and second the male dominance in high positions.
79.	The Feminist movement strive to create a society where woman are not suppressed because of law or culture and do not want be forced into a more passive role. Women also wanted to compete in the market space.
80.	The first wave of feminism consisted of the 'liberal feminists'. They wanted to be included in politics, not just seen as the mother or housewife that stays at home every day and conforms to traditions. Women felt they deserved equality, education and an opportunity to vote.
81.	The "second wave" of feminism started in the middle 1900s, this consisted of Radical Feminism. Radical feminism wanted to overturn the patriarchy in which men dominated. Radical feminists wanted the sexes to be equal and also not be seen as different in any way as men.
82.	Black feminism also started in reaction to liberal feminist. The black feminists did this as they believed there was racial issues that also needed to be resolved that liberal feminists over looked.
83.	In its broadest sense feminism is an ideology committed to promoting the social role of women and, in most cases, dedicated to the goal of gender equality.
84.	Within philosophic and political tradition, liberal feminism sees the subordination of women in capitalist society as a deviation from the general norms of equality and justice for all individuals. Sexual inequality can largely be corrected if women, now confined to the domestic sphere, are integrated into the public sphere as the equals of men
85.	Contrary to liberal perspective, Marxist argue that the poverty of the vast majority of women and men under capitalism is not a simple deviation. Poverty is only the symptom and exploitation its roots. The incongruity between the liberals and the Marxist regarding women's liberation is not new; it has a long history in the West. Modern Marxist point out that women's oppression is indissolubly tied with class oppression at national and international levels men (Bandarage, 2008:500).
86.	Liberale feminisme, wat beteken gelyke regte en status vir vrouens. Vrouens en mans het dieselfde sosiale status in die samelewing.
87.	Radikale Feminisme, wat se dat die onder drukking van vrouens is universeel en dat patriargie die hoof rede van ongelykheid is en glo dit is nog dat die sosiale samelewing anders gestruktureerd moet wees. Patriargie lei dus na seksisme en byt vrouens uit van sekere geleenthede.
88.	Marxistiese feminisme sien dat klas en gesag belangrike bronne van onderdrukking by vrouens. Kapitalisme speel kern rol.
89.	Swart feminisme, dit is belangrik om ras binne en buite die hoofstroom feminisme te hanteer. Dit het in die VSA ontstaan omdat die vrou mense wat vir hulle regte geveg het, het die swart vrou mense uitgesluit. Lesbiese feminisme bevraagteken die politiek van heteroseksuele verhoudings (Swartz et al.,2011:336)
90.	There is the conservative feminist that believes freedom for women is in coordination with the acceptance of biological necessity. The Liberal feminist believes freedom for woman means opportunities for education and professional advancement are equal to those of men whereas Traditional Marxist feminists consider liberal feminists to have an artificial view as they believe the oppression of woman is a result of 'class society'- although 'sex class is invisible' ,feminists aim to make it visible- and if a classless society was attained, only then would women be liberated. Radical feminists – the most generally recognized of feminists because of their sometimes bold demonstrations- believe female oppression is a result of the existence of the social institution of gender. Last but not least there exists Socialist feminism who believes women will not see liberation until the institutions of class as well as gender are removed.
91.	In a feminist state the primary goal is gender equality. Liberal feminists believe state bias can be overcome through the re-education and redefining of gender institutions. The radical feminist argues that the state is in fact built on a deeper structure of female oppression.

The table of categorised quotations shows that the overwhelming majority of the quotations (81 out of 91) reflect a partial understanding of the concept 'feminism' while

no quotations reflect a good understanding. A small minority of the quotations (10 out of 91) did not give any indication of the understanding of the concept.

5.4.2.5 Summary

Of the three ideologies put forward for discussion in the essay topic (liberalism, Marxism, and feminism) the discussion of 'liberalism' generated the highest frequency of quotations. Although there is no quantitative significance in the different frequencies of usage, the relative numbers suggest that students had a higher measure of confidence to use and define 'liberalism' compared to 'Marxism' and 'feminism'.

However, what seems to be more significant for the present study is that the majority of quotations reflect a partial or fairly good understanding of the concepts discussed. The verbatim quotations show that many students' generic academic language skills are fairly problematic (and would need further remedial intervention). However, even from poorly formulated quotations one can get some impression of students' understanding of the respective concepts. The overall impression from the analyses is that the majority of students had at least a partial, or even fairly good, understanding of the selected terminology.

5.4.3 A Selection of Concepts from Political Science 122 Essays

As noted in Chapter 3 (section 3.4.4.1), students had to do their second essay in Political Science 122 on one of the following topics: (i) "In our foreign policy, what is in South Africa's 'national interest'?", (ii) "Is globalisation a non-reversible process?", (iii) "How can Africa improve its international relations?" and (iv) "What is the future of the Westphalian (state-centric) global system?".

After perusing students' written essays, it emerged that no student chose to do the last topic, while the other topics were more or less equally represented.

In the first and third topics, it was implied that students had to apply theories related to the issues of foreign policy and international relations. In these theories, concepts such as 'realism' and 'idealism/liberalism' play an important role (McGowan et al., 2006:28–35, 121). According to McGowan et al. (2006:31), 'idealism' is sometimes also referred to as 'pluralism' or 'liberalism', but readers find it difficult "to distinguish between liberalism as a political philosophy about the limits of state power[17] and liberalism as a theory of international relations."

All the topics for the first essay in Political Science 122 dealt specifically with these theoretical concepts in international relations and foreign policy, and challenged

[17] The concept 'Liberalism' was also used as code in the discussion above of the first set of student essays in Political Science 112 (see section 5.4.2.2). There the concept was used within the context of a political philosophy about the limits of state power.

students to discuss and compare these concepts explicitly. In the second essay in this module, however, the expectation was that students had to apply these theories in their discussion of foreign policy and international relations, even though it was not explicitly stated in the essay questions. While it would have been useful to determine which understanding of these theories was reflected in the essays on the first topic, it was decided to rather analyse the second set of essays at the hand of these theories to determine whether there are any signs that students were able to apply the theories in other appropriate contexts with insight and understanding.

5.4.3.1 Realism

This term is defined as follows in the McGowan glossary (and its Afrikaans and isiXhosa translations):

Realism	**Realisme**	**Ukubona izinto ngobunjalo bazo**
A body of thought in International Relations that emphasises the insecurity of states and the necessity to seek security by maximising the state's relative power vis-à-vis other states (*contrast to* idealism).	'n Denkwyse in Internasionale Betrekkinge wat state se kwesbaarheid beklemtoon, asook die noodsaaklikheid dat hulle hulleself moet beveilig deur die staat se relatiewe mag teenoor ander state te maksimeer (*kontrasteer met* 'idealism').	Isiqu sengcinga kuBudlelwane bamaZwe oMhlaba esigxininisa ukungakhuseleki kwamazwe kunye nemfuneko yokufuna ukhuseleko ngokwandisa amandla elizwe ngokunxulumene namanye amazwe (*ngokuchasene* ne-'idealism').

Two related aspects are central to this definition, namely (i) 'emphasises the insecurity of states,' (ii) 'the necessity to seek security by maximising the state's relative power vis-à-vis other states.'

When this definition is compared to the discussion of the concept in McGowan et al. (2006:28–31), however, it is clear that not all elements of the concept are reflected in the above core definition. Five "fundamental assumptions" of 'realism' are mentioned in that text: (i) "The first is that states are selfish actors who always seek to maximise their own interests, even at the cost of risking the benefits that more than one state can share." (ii) "The second main assumption of realism is that the distribution of power between the actors in the international system is the one factor that has the biggest effect on what happens in international relations." (iii) "Thirdly, realists tend to be very sceptical about ... the role of morality in international affairs." (iv) "Fourthly, ... realists regard the state as the major actor in international relations." (v) "Fifthly, realists assume that there is a basic continuity in international relations."

The coding of the second set of essays for Political Science 122 on the three different topics mentioned in section 5.4.1 (primary document 4) yielded a total of 9 quotations for this concept. These quotations are listed in the table below. The quotations are furthermore categorised by means of different types of shading. Those quotations without any shading (1 in total) did not give any indication of the elements of the glossary definition above, or further assumptions mentioned in McGowan et al. (2006).

Those with lighter shading (7 in total) reflect one to three of the elements of the glossary definition and the further assumptions. None of the quotations reflects four or more elements and further assumptions of realism as discussed in McGowan et al.

Table 5.13 Quotations coded with 'realism'

Realism (8)
1. The modern and generally accepted understanding of FP is a combination between the Realist and Pluralist definitions. This view defines FP as a process which consists of activities that result in decisions and actions by actors, in order to; create, control, adjust and change outside situations/issues (including the individual activities of an actor and other actors) (McGowan et al. 1999:122). In concurrence with the Realist point of view, it assumes that the state is predominantly the official actor in the dealings and making of policies. It agrees with the Liberal assertion that FP is also significantly influenced by non-sate actors such as: intergovernmental organizations, non-governmental organizations and multinational corporations. The present focus of FP prefers a mixed and variable agenda which doesn't separate 'High' and 'Low' politics and strives to distinguish FP behavior from other governmental undertakings.
2. Realiste sien globalisaie as 'n gevaar aangesien dit besig is om die wêreld te oorheers. Ook vir die feit omdat dit die regerings van die verskillende state onder druk plaas (McGowan *et al*., 2006: 29). Realiste verkies dat die staat se belange in die hande van die regering moet wees (McGowan *et al*., 2006: 29).
3. The state-centric or realist "foreign policy is that area of governmental activity which is concerned with [a] relationship […] between the state and the other actors, [in particular] other states in the international system." *(ibid)* In the state-centric approach, the state mainly focuses on satisfying its own interest. They relate with other states in order to gain valid information or share their resources or natural resources (for example a natural resource like oil). The make use of this relationship to get what the state wants or needs. Furthermore, the state-centric aims at using the relationship to strengthen military and security forces, in order to achieve further national interest goals.
4. To describe the foreign policy in simple terms, it can be seen as "predominant as an official governmental activity that is put in place on behalf of the state that concerns interstate relations within the international system." (McGowen 2006: 120) the following policy can be seen as taking a strong liking to the concept of realism, as the policy consists of the self-interest of the state. "The purpose of the foreign policy is to control, adjust and alter external conditions and problems [that include] an actor's own activities and those of other actors." *(ibid: 121)*
5. To the realists and critical theorists, the state is an important political actor.
6. Firstly foreign policy is for the most part viewed as official government activity on behalf of the state, which concerns inter-state relations within the international system. Due to the dominant position of sovereign state, foreign policy is traditionally associated with state-centric realism (McGowan et al., 2006: 120). Modelski (1962:3) defines foreign policy as 'the system of activities developed by communities to change the behavior of other states by adjusting their own activities to those of the international environment. Webber and Smith (2002: 10) on the other hand define foreign policy being 'composed of goals sought, values set decisions made and actions taken by national government on behalf of states in the context of external relations of national societies. In other words foreign policies attempt to manage, design and control the foreign relations of national societies' (McGowan et al., 2006: 121). Finally one can say that Realist primarily view foreign policy as-the-official-interest-driven response-of-unitary-and-rational-state-actor, to-its-external-environment (McGowan et al., 2006: 120).
7. Defining 'foreign policy' (FP) in itself is somewhat of an issue, as not only is this processs intrinsically linked to the concepts 'international relations' and 'diplomacy', but it's ambiguity is also due to the different time periods in which they were defined. Generally however, FP refers to the gross total of actions by international actors, in reacting and interacting with the environment beyond their national borders (McGowan et al. 1999:120). The Realist (traditional) definition culminates to the idea that FP is an official activity of the sovereign state. This state-centric idea asserts that FP is the interest driven, individual interactions, reactions and relation evaluations of unitary states between one another in the global system (McGowan et al. 1999:121).
8. Transnational corporations (TNC) are non-state actors that, according to the idealistic conception, would undermine state autonomy. However, it can be argued that effective policy may in fact

increase the soft power of a state and therefore increase autonomy (Gritsch, 9:2005). This observation would form part of the realist conception of the state as an entity that's major aim is to increase its power and autonomy (Gritsch, 2:2005).

These eight quotations were extracted from a total of five essays (one on globalisation, one on Africa's international relations, and the other three on South Africa's foreign policy). This indicates that only a minority of the EDP focus group had the confidence to apply the concept 'realism' in their respective essays. The table of categorised quotations furthermore shows that the majority of the quotations reflect only a partial understanding of the technical concept 'realism' in students' application of this concept in their discussions of foreign policy and international relations. One of the quotations showed no understanding of the concept at all.

5.4.3.2 Idealism/Liberalism

These two concepts were both used as codes for the analysis of the second set of essays in Political Science 122, but they are discussed together because, as was explained in the introduction to section 5.4.3, they are usually treated as synonyms in international relations theory.

These terms are defined as follows in the McGowan glossary (and its Afrikaans and isiXhosa translations):

Idealism A body of thought in International Relations which emphasises the possibility of states co-operating with one another to build a stable, moral and transparent world order.	**Idealisme** 'n Denkwyse in Internasionale Betrekkinge wat klem lê op die moontlikheid dat state met mekaar kan saamwerk om 'n stabiele, morele en deursigtige wêreldorde te bou.	**Intsebenziswano efezekileyo** Isiqu sengcinga kuBudlelwane baMazwe oMhlaba esigxininisa okunokwenzeka ukuba amazwe amazwe ebesebenzisana ekwakheni ucwagco lwehlabathi oluzinzileyo, olusesikweni nolucacileyo.
Liberalism The political and economic doctrines stressing individual freedom and responsibility. In International Relations, it is a school of thought that emphasises the plurality of actors in international relations and the possibility of co-operative relations among them.	**Liberalisme** Die politieke en ekonomiese leerstellings wat individuele vryheid en verantwoordelikheid beklemtoon. In Internasionale Betrekkinge is dit 'n denkwyse wat die pluraliteit van spelers in internasionale betrekkinge en die samewerkingsverhouding tussen hulle beklemtoon.	**Ukukhululeka** Iimfundiso zezopolitiko nezoqoqosho egxininisa inkululeko yomntu kunye noxanduva. KuBudlelwane bamaZwe oMhlaba, kuliziko leengcinga ezigxininisa ubuninzi babadlali kuBudlelwane bamaZwe oMhlaba kunye nokwenzeka kobudlelwane bentsebenziswano phakathi kwawo.

Three aspects are central to these definitions, namely (i) 'the possibility of states co-operating with one another,' (ii) 'the plurality of actors in international relations,' and (iii) the aim of building 'a stable, moral and transparent world order.'

The coding of the second set of essays for Political Science 122 (primary document 4) yielded a total of nine quotations for this concept. These quotations are listed in the table below. The quotations are furthermore categorised by means of different types of shading. Those without any shading (3 in total) did not give any indication of the three aspects included in the definition above whereas those with lighter shading (6 in total) reflect one of the three aspects. There were no quotations reflecting two or more aspects in their descriptions.

Table 5.14 Quotations coded with 'idealism/liberalism'

Idealism/Liberalism (9)	
1.	Idealiste verwelkom die proses van globalisasie aangesien dit elke individu die geleentheid bied om te ontwikkel en deel te word van dit (McGowan *et al*., 2006: 33). Aangesien globalisasie voordeel bied vir baie individue op internasionale vlak soos besighede word dit aanvaar deur idealiste. Dit bevorder ook die individualiteit van individue (McGowan *et al*., 2006: 33).
2.	A foreign policy can also be seen as a way for countries to develop and progress forward, that works to their own advantage more so than for the advantage of the country they work with. The state uses help from other countries and build a strong relationship with them in order to increase their own interests and fulfil their own needs. The idealistic approach is taken as countries share resources to strengthen each other, rather than the one country exploiting the other to become stronger while the other suffers.
3.	South Africa's national Interest uses of idealistic approach, focussing on its people and their development and the development of the country. With key focal points of core, middle and long range goals and the achievement thereof, ensures that South Africa is moving in the right direction-towards becoming a first world country. Its foreign policy, which focuses on the economy, which plays a role in the success of national interest. The country, by succeeding the goals of national interest and that of the foreign policy, progresses South Africa forward.
4.	Idealism, however, emphasises that a broad range of actors influence international relations. Idealism is in some ways better suited to describe how powers that used belong to the state are being diffused by transnational corporations and other non-state actors.
5.	There is a clear link between globalisation and liberal democracy. It aids the establishment of a Neo-liberal states and policies that allows globalisation to flourish. Liberal democracy is the key to a state as the fundamental companion to globalisation.
6.	Contrary to the realist, Carlsnaes (1986:70) defines the liberalist view foreign policies as 'consisting in of 'actions' which are expressed in the form of unequivocally state directives, that are performed by government representatives that act on the behalf of their sovereign communities. These actions are openly directed towards objectives, conditions and actors, both governmental and non-governmental, which lie beyond their sphere of territorial legitimacy' (McGowan et al., 2006: 121). Although the liberalist definition subscribes to that of realist, the difference is that liberalist challenge the conception that the state is the only unitary and rational actor. This is done by the extension of foreign policy making to include non-state actors in the mixed-actor environment. Finally according to Hill (2003:3), foreign policy is 'the sum of official external relations conducted by an independent actor (states) in international relations (McGowan et al., 2006: 121).
7.	In contrast, the multi-centric or liberalist "foreign policy is the sum total of all activities by with international actors act, react and interact with the environment beyond their national borders." *(ibid)* It is therefore believed, according to this approach, that any actor who wishes to act beyond its borders should be allowed to do so. Importance is placed on the actor, not the state, as they are only involved to an extent but not fully seen as the actor.
8.	However, the Liberal-pluralist point of view argues that the 'state' is not entirely unitary or rational, nor is it a single principle. It also states that FP construction includes the input of non-sate actors and the inclusion of domestic situations. This multi-centric view defines FP as; the 'actions' (mentioned in the above general interpretation of FP) in the form of directives by individual actors (including the state), which is directed toward the environment beyond national borders (McGowan et al. 1999:122).
9.	The modern and generally accepted understanding of FP is a combination between the Realist and

> Pluralist definitions. This view defines FP as a process which consists of activities that result in decisions and actions by actors, in order to; create, control, adjust and change outside situations/issues (including the individual activities of an actor and other actors) (McGowan et al. 1999:122). In concurrence with the Realist point of view, it assumes that the state is predominantly the official actor in the dealings and making of policies. It agrees with the Liberal assertion that FP is also significantly influenced by non-sate actors such as: intergovernmental organizations, non-governmental organizations and multinational corporations. The present focus of FP prefers a mixed and variable agenda which doesn't separate 'High' and 'Low' politics and strives to distinguish FP behavior from other governmental undertakings.

These nine quotations were extracted from the same five essays (one on globalisation, one on Africa's international relations, and the other three on South Africa's foreign policy) within which the concept of 'realism' was applied. This indicates once more that only a minority of the EDP focus group had the confidence to apply the concepts 'idealism/liberalism' in their respective essays. The table of categorised quotations furthermore shows that two-thirds of the quotations reflect a partial understanding of the technical concepts 'idealism/liberalism' in the students' application of this concept in their discussions of foreign policy and international relations. A minority of the quotations showed no understanding of the concept at all.

5.4.3.3 Summary

The analyses of students' use of 'realism' and 'idealism/liberalism' show the same tendencies, namely (i) that only a minority of students had the confidence to apply these concepts in their discussion of international relations topics; and (ii) that approximately half of the quotations showed a partial understanding of the concepts, while the remaining quotations showed no understanding.

When students attempt to apply theoretical concepts in their discussion of practical international relations issues (as the lecturer also envisaged in the structured interview), one would expect them to achieve higher marks in their essays. However, from students' inadequate attempts to apply theoretical concepts, it seems that they had not yet internalised some of the key theoretical concepts of the subject field when they had to write the last essay of Political Science 122. That factor would impact negatively on their marks. From a teaching perspective, it seems that students might have benefited from spending more time on internalising the theories before they moved on to applying them.

5.4.4 Synthesis

Sections 5.4.2 and 5.4.3 employed different strategies of analysis. In section 5.4.2, the aim of the analysis was to establish whether students had the ability to define certain concepts that were explicitly stated in the essay topics (possessive knowledge). In section 5.4.3, by contrast, a small selection of theoretical concepts was used to establish whether students had the ability to apply those concepts to certain practical international relations topics (performative knowledge).

Whereas the majority of students in the first analysis (section 5.4.2) showed a partial or fairly good understanding of the theoretical concepts, the second analysis (section 5.4.3) indicated that a relatively small number of focus group students had the confidence to apply the relevant theoretical concepts, and that in approximately half of the quotations those concepts were not applied with insight. According to McGowan et al. (2006:15):

> [t]he primary tool used by people studying International Relations is language .... Above all else, the subject of International Relations demands that we be *precise* in how we use words. ... In general ... it means that we have to be aware of the way in which we use words. We should be aware of the various categories of words, the different operations that can be performed with them, and the many connotations concepts may have.

This point of view emphasises the importance of language use in the field of International Relations. The same would apply to the general field of Political Science. However, the results of the two analyses of the written essays (in sections 5.4.2 and 5.4.3) confirm the further distinction that McGowan et al. (2006:13, 17) make between 'define' and 'conceptualise'. They refer to Craig, Griesel, Witz and Withers (1994:62) who caution that "[w]hen defining something, you need to ensure that its meaning is made so clear that the definition can only refer to the thing that you are describing and nothing else." Craig et al. (1994:38) furthermore state that to conceptualise means "[t]o engage in a process of working with ideas, of reflective thinking and rethinking." Craig et al. therefore concur with Perkins's distinction between 'possessive knowledge' and 'proactive knowledge' (as discussed above in section 5.4.1).

From the qualitative analyses of the focus group's written essays, it seems that students showed the ability to 'define', and therefore displayed 'possessive knowledge' (as established in section 5.4.2), but could not necessarily 'conceptualise', and therefore lacked 'proactive knowledge' (as established in section 5.4.3). This observation might account for the fact that the students' pass rates specifically in the written essays remained low, even when they managed to pass the module. The following table reflects this situation for the 22 EDP students who took part in the intervention (pass = 50%+):

Table 5.15 EDP student pass rates in modules and essays

Module	**Total module mark**	**Essay 1**	**Essay 2**
112 (n=22)	Pass: 18	Pass: 9	Pass: 11
		Fail: 9	Fail: 7
	Fail: 4	Pass: 1	Pass: 0
		Fail: 3	Fail: 4
122 (n=22)	Pass: 16	Pass: 9	Pass: 10
		Fail: 7	Fail: 6
	Fail: 6	Pass: 3	Pass: 1
		Fail: 3	Fail: 5

This table shows that even though the majority of EDP students passed the modules, many of them nevertheless failed their essays. Of those who failed the modules, the majority also failed their essays. In Chapter 6, these observations will be related to the quantitative results that were described in Chapter 4.

5.5 Tests and examinations

It was stated in Chapter 3 (section 3.4.4.4) that the focus of the qualitative analysis of tests and examinations would not be on students' individual responses, but rather on how the test and examination questions were formulated. It was indicated there that it seemed useful to determine to what extent the multiple choice questions that occurred in assessments corresponded with or made use of the technical terminology and/or their definitions in the two glossaries. The assumption was that the prevalence of technical terminology could potentially contribute to students' success in this kind of assessment if the specific formulation of multiple choice questions corresponded to some degree with how the technical terms had been defined in the provided glossaries.

The analysis included all questions in the following tests and examinations:

- Political Science 112: Class test;[18] Semester test; First Examination; Second Examination.
- Political Science 122: Semester test.

Questions were categorised into three groups, namely (i) those questions which directly related to the glossary entries and their definitions, and corresponded sufficiently with those glossary entries for students to recognise them; (ii) those questions in which terms and their definitions did not appear in the same format as in the glossaries, but where students would be able to answer the question if they interpreted and applied the term used in the question; and (iii) those questions in which there was no reference at all to any glossary entry or definition. This distinction is based on the different approaches to learning that were described in Chapter 2 (section 2.7.3.2). It was noted there that constructivists such as Biggs distinguish between surface approaches to learning, on the one hand, which involve activities of an inappropriately low cognitive level, and which produce fragmented learning outcomes. On the other hand, a deep approach to learning involves interpretation and application of knowledge in order to realise a task so that an appropriate outcome can be achieved. The assumption is that questions of category (i) above required a lower level of learning (merely requiring students to memorise and recall), while category (ii) questions challenged students to interpret and apply their knowledge of technical terminology in order to answer the questions.

The results of the analysis are as follows:

[18] Apart from the tests and examinations that made use of multiple choice questions, the class test in Political Science 112 was also included in this analysis. This test consisted of two sets of five questions (one for each lecture) which required responses concerning single concepts.

Table 5.16 Categorisation of multiple-choice test/examination questions

Assess.	**Nr of questions**	**(i) Sufficient correspon-dence**	**(i) as % of nr of questions**	**(ii) Interpret and apply**	**(ii) as % of nr of questions**	**(iii) No correspon-dence**
112 class test	5	2	40%	3	60%	0
112 semester test	25	9	36%	6	24%	10
112 1st exam	50	11	22%	15	30%	24
112 2nd exam	50	7	14%	13	26%	30
122 semester test	25	5	20%	5	20%	15
TOTAL	155	34	21.9%	42	27.1%	79

From this table, it seems that a surface level engagement with the technical terminology glossaries would not have led to an improvement in students' marks in the multiple choice questions. Only 21.9% of the questions in the 2013 test and examination papers required a fairly basic level of understanding where terminology used in the questions were directly related to terminology and definitions in the glossaries. Another 27.1% of the questions required a much higher level of engagement where students were challenged to interpret the formulations in the questions and to apply their understanding of terminology in the glossaries in answering these questions. More than half of the questions (in total 51% where no correspondence between the questions and glossary terminology could be observed) required students to apply knowledge which was not conveyed in the technical terminology glossaries as such.

What emerged from personal interaction in the technical terminology tutorials with students before their scheduled formal assessments was how anxious students became and how this fear of formal assessments impacted on their spontaneous engagement with the technical terminology. What was also noteworthy from discussions with students after formal assessments was that they would sometimes put a lot of effort into preparing for an assessment, only to find that they did not understand the specific formulation of the questions. At other times, students who enjoyed the in-depth engagement with one topic in essay writing found the multiple choice questions an anticlimax. One student remarked after one such assessment: "I had so much more to say." For her, the multiple choice questions tested what she did not know – not what she thought she could contribute on the topic.

In the synthesis of the student essay analyses (section 5.4.4), it was shown with reference to Perkins's distinction that students displayed 'possessive knowledge' in their essays, but not necessarily 'performative' or 'proactive knowledge.' When this result is related to the analysis of the multiple choice test and examination papers, it

seems that students would have been able to answer category (i) questions (i.e., 21.9% of the questions) with possessive knowledge, and that the category (ii) questions (i.e., 27.1% of the questions) would require performative or proactive knowledge. The likelihood that students would have been able to answer this category of questions remains low if the low levels of performative or proactive knowledge established in the essay analyses would also apply in the tests and examinations.

5.6 Summary

The results of the qualitative analysis were discussed in this chapter. Four sets of textual data were analysed, namely the module frameworks and lecturer interviews (section 5.2), the student questionnaires that were completed before and after the intervention (section 5.3), a selection of student essays (section 5.4), and the test and examination papers (section 5.5). The next step will be to triangulate the results of these qualitative analyses with the quantitative results achieved in Chapter 4. The next chapter will contain the triangulation, and will bring the current study to a conclusion.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

6.1 Summary of findings

As general background to the current study, Chapter 1 provided a description of the South African schooling system and its impact on higher education in the country. Firstly, studies about the quality of schooling and the role of mother-tongue education were reviewed. These studies showed that there were multiple factors in the South African school system to which the inadequate progress of first-year students from educationally disadvantaged backgrounds could be attributed, in particular factors relating to optimal development of conceptual and linguistic abilities. The impact of some of these factors on student success in South African higher education was subsequently discussed, with specific reference to the impact of the school system on the issues of epistemological access and academic literacy. The Extended Degree Programmes (EDPs) which have been established by the South African government, are considered appropriate educational initiatives to address the issues of epistemological access and academic literacy, not only at a national level, but also specifically at Stellenbosch University.

In the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences at Stellenbosch University, EDP students constitute approximately 10% of first-year students. Their academic progress is closely monitored at the end of each term and at the end of each academic year. In one of the EDP support subjects, Introduction to the Humanities, it was noticed that EDP students seemed to benefit from systematic exposure to technical terminology support when they were introduced to a new subject field. That natural teaching setting served as the pilot study for the current study. The purpose of the current study was to establish through a formal empirical research project whether systematic exposure to the core multilingual subject-specific terminology of a mainstream discipline can help to improve EDP students' pass rates in that discipline and contribute to their experience of success in the process.

It is important to keep in mind that the focus of the current study was not on all first-year students (who are also not familiar with general academic and technical language), even though they are likely to benefit from the findings and recommendations of the study. The specific focus in the current study was on EDP students from educationally, linguistically and culturally disadvantaged backgrounds who do not conform to the official admission requirements of the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences. They are nevertheless admitted for university study because they are considered to have the potential to succeed with the necessary academic support. On the one hand, these students are new to specific subject fields, for example Political Science, but on the other hand, they also face very specific academic obstacles that require very specific and targeted educational interventions so that they can reach their academic potential.

In the initial reading for the literature review, the main focus was on the linguistic aspect of the research question. The guiding issue was whether a purely linguistic intervention (in this

case, the systematic exposure to the technical terminology of a subject field) can improve EDP students' pass rates in a mainstream subject. It was important to take note of the relevant Applied Linguistics theories and practices, as well as reliable research methods that would make the study credible and replicable.

After the first round of the literature review, it became clear that the study could not be approached from a narrow Applied Linguistics perspective, but that it had to be situated within the broader field of academic literacy. Employing the principles underlying teaching English as a foreign language or as a second language would not render adequate answers to the research questions.

The second round of the literature review revealed several established theories and practices that could be used to help students gain access to a specific subject field, including English for Academic Purposes, Systemic Functional Linguistics, and Writing across the curriculum. However, the framework that offered the most useful possibilities for the current study was the Academic Literacies model (as discussed in Chapter 2), as well as its expression in the South African Higher Education Development model. While it acknowledges the contributions and usefulness of the study skills and academic socialisation approaches, the Academic Literacies model focuses on the contested nature of writing practices and points out that the processes involved in acquiring academic literacy are not simple, fixed, clear-cut and isolated from a particular context. Rather, it is argued that explicit attention must be given to the distinct ways in which meaning is constructed in the various disciplines on account of the social practices of that discipline. Academic writing in the curriculum should therefore be facilitated in order to make provision for students' meaning-making and for contestation around meaning, instead of concentrating only on their poor writing skills. The diverse and unique resources that students bring to the higher education context are not seen as obstacles, but rather as assets that can benefit academic discussion. As a result, the academic enterprise in disciplinary environments stands to profit from the diversity of people and ideas.

The current study is in large part guided by the ideas associated with the philosophical framework of critical realism. This framework acknowledges that the social world can only be understood if the structures that generate the prevailing events and discourses are identified. It is 'critical' in that it sets out to identify those structures at work that generate events and discourses (the generative mechanisms) whose effects are observable in society, even though the mechanisms as such might not be directly observable. These generative mechanisms should form part of theoretical explanations for phenomena and the contexts that interact with these generative mechanisms to produce a specific state of affairs in the social world. This philosophical framework therefore also offers the prospect of effecting changes that can transform the status quo.

The critical realism framework validates and supports key aspects of both quantitative and qualitative research methods. It was thus a determining factor in the selection of a mixed methods design, or convergent parallel research design (as set out in Chapter 3). This research design was deemed appropriate for addressing the research problem and research

questions which arose from EDP students' low pass rates in their mainstream subjects compared to their mainstream peers. In order to examine this problem, it was necessary to identify, through the literature review, those factors that generated current events even though some of them may not be directly observable. The literature overview, as part of the qualitative study, was expected to provide theoretical explanations for the phenomena of low pass rates, as well as existing conventions and practices that might have contributed to these factors. Furthermore, a convergent parallel research design was deemed appropriate to examine whether the educational intervention of technical terminology tutorials based on trilingual glossaries in Political Science had any measurable effect on the mean percentages and pass rates of EDP students. This would eventually constitute the quantitative study. It was also expected that the research design would provide qualitative insight into the changes in mean percentages and pass rates observed in the quantitative study.

In the quantitative study, two datasets were analysed statistically and these results were reported in Chapter 4. The first dataset was constituted by means of a longitudinal study (over the period 2010 to 2013) of the marks achieved by EDP students in two mainstream Political Science modules (112 and 122). The majority of EDP students in the 2013 cohort formed the focus group (or experimental group) with whom the educational intervention of technical terminological support was undertaken. The mean percentage of the focus group was statistically compared to the mean percentages of four control groups (one each in the period 2010 to 2013). Although the four control groups and focus group had comparable academic 'starting points' in their first year in terms of the National Senior Certificate results (which gave them formal access to Stellenbosch University) and language placement tests (that were done as part of all first-year students' initial orientation at this university), the quantitative analysis of dataset 1 (mean percentages in Political Science 112 and 122) showed a statistical differentiation in terms of the mean percentages of these two modules after the 2013 intervention. Within this differentiation it seemed significant that the 2013 focus group improved its relative position compared to the control groups to end up with the second highest mean percentage in Political Science 112 (after the 2012 cohort), and the highest mean percentage in Political Science 122.

Whereas dataset 1 presented the mean percentages of the different EDP cohorts from 2010 to 2013 on their own, dataset 2 focused on the pass rates of the EDP cohorts in comparison to the mainstream students' pass rates from 2010 to 2013. The results of this statistical analysis, which were also reported in Chapter 4, showed that there was a marked difference in pass rates between EDP and mainstream students in each cohort. In fact, the differences observed in the 2010 and 2011 cohorts prompted the researcher to design an intervention with the aim of narrowing the gap in pass rates in order to bring EDP students' pass rates on a par with those of mainstream students. The statistical analysis showed that this was indeed the case with the focus group with which the educational intervention was done in 2013. This focus group's pass rates in both Political Science 112 and 122 not only surpassed those of the control group of the same year, but were also marginally higher than the pass rates of the mainstream students in that year.

It therefore seemed from the results of the quantitative analysis described in Chapter 4 that the technical terminology intervention based on the trilingual Political Science glossaries had a positive result on EDP students' pass rates.

However, in a convergent parallel research design, the quantitative results are not interpreted in isolation, but are related to the qualitative results. The results from the different qualitative analyses were accordingly reported in Chapter 5.

Firstly, the two Political Science module frameworks were analysed, as well as the data obtained from the lecturers in the semi-structured interviews. From these data, several insights emerged, of which the following are particularly pertinent for the current research on the value of the technical terminological intervention. From the module frameworks, it was clear that in both Political Science modules subject-specific concepts stood central in terms of the module aims and expected outcomes. The lecturer interviews also confirmed the importance of understanding and applying subject-specific concepts, not only in the subject field, but also beyond classroom settings. Although the teaching and learning of subject-specific concepts stood central in these modules, it also became clear from the lecturer interviews that there are numerous challenges that undermine the module aims and lecturer expectations. First of all, the large number of students enrolled in these modules, as well as the heavy content load of each module, posed a challenge to creating a learning environment in the lectures where students could engage with the central concepts through class discussions and personal interaction with the lecturer. Furthermore, the double-medium teaching model, or so-called T-option (described in footnote 2, chapter 5), used in the modules limited the time and opportunities for discussion in general, but even more so for students who might not be considered adequately prepared for university study and/or who might experience language difficulties. The one mechanism that could in principle be used to familiarise students with the central concepts in the subject field was the mainstream tutorials, since they were presented in smaller classes. However, it emerged that these tutorials were mainly used to teach students the writing conventions and referencing style of the subject. While this could be beneficial for the development of students' essay writing skills, it did not provide them with the opportunity to engage with the technical terminology of the subject field. A further factor related to the large classes concerned the assessment methods used in these modules. The majority of assessments took the form of multiple choice tests and examinations which do not necessarily test students' ability to apply concepts in wider contexts. Another challenge of the multiple choice assessments was that students never got the opportunity to gain experience with the kind of questions that would occur in these types of assessments, which constituted the largest part of their final marks for the modules. It thus seemed from this first qualitative analysis that the teaching and learning dynamics of big classes, combined with the primary focus of the mainstream tutorials and the assessment methods, created a learning environment where there was limited opportunity for engaging with key concepts in the subject field, specifically for students who might be considered inadequately prepared for university study and/or who might experience language difficulties.

Secondly, the questionnaires that were completed by students before and after the academic intervention were analysed. From students' responses to the questions in the questionnaire

(Q1) before the intervention (at the beginning of the semester), it emerged that they had an overly optimistic view of their preparedness for higher education. As students started grappling with the mainstream workload and essay deadlines, they noted during the weekly technical terminology tutorials that they were not as well prepared as they had initially anticipated. While the majority of the students furthermore indicated that they had a good general knowledge in the first questionnaire, it emerged in the technical terminology tutorials that they had a rather limited worldview and general knowledge in terms of what the mainstream subject-content required. Most students were also not able to interpret concepts in their historical contexts. The practical experience with students in the technical terminology tutorials therefore stood in contrast to the self-perceptions of students in the first questionnaire.

In the second set of questionnaires that were completed after the technical terminology intervention, students' responses showed that the teaching strategy of engaging actively with technical terminology in the weekly terminology tutorials was deemed helpful and successful to facilitate learning and understanding, and to simplify and explain the subject content. This was confirmed by the researcher's observation that students' confidence to engage with difficult concepts in the weekly technical terminology tutorials gradually increased over the two terms. They also showed a greater awareness during the regular oral discussions that they had to read wider than the prescribed textbook to improve their general knowledge and to make sensible contributions during the oral discussions. It was thus clear that the trilingual glossaries helped students to become familiar with key Political Science concepts and to understand difficult terms, and the majority of those who passed felt that the glossaries helped them to pass the modules. Students furthermore indicated that they used the glossaries most frequently for the purpose of writing essays and studying for tests and examinations.

Thirdly, two insights arose from the analyses of students' written essays. The first analysis concentrated on students' ability to describe and define certain core concepts or Political Science theories that were explicitly mentioned in the essay topics. What emerged from this analysis was that the majority of quotations from the student essays reflected a partial or fairly good understanding of the concepts or theories discussed. However, the verbatim quotations also showed that many students' generic academic language skills inhibited their ability to express their opinions meaningfully. To enhance their meaning-making abilities, they would need explicit and targeted language support, over and above the development of their essay writing skills in Political Science. However, even from the poorly formulated quotations, it was possible to get some impression of students' understanding of the respective concepts. The overall impression from this analysis is that the majority of students had at least a partial, or even fairly good understanding of the selected terminology. The second analysis showed divergent results, however. It focused on the application of certain International Relations concepts and theories in students' discussion of practical International Relations topics. Although students were not directly asked to discuss these central concepts or theories in the essay topics, the requirement of applying of these concepts or theories was implied in the essay questions. This analysis showed that only a minority of students had the confidence to apply these concepts in their discussion of international relations topics.

Approximately half of the quotations showed a partial understanding of the concepts, while the remaining quotations showed no understanding. From students' inadequate attempts to apply theoretical concepts, it seemed that they had not yet internalised some of the key theoretical concepts of the subject field when they had to write the essay. In short, the qualitative analyses of the focus group's written essays indicate that students have the ability to 'define,' but not necessarily to 'conceptualise' well (Craig et al., 1994). Another factor that could account for students' apparent inadequate attempts to apply theoretical concepts is that the essay questions were not formulated explicitly enough for 'academically underprepared' students to grasp that they had to apply the theories.

Fourthly, the test and examination papers for the two Political Science modules were analysed. The focus of the qualitative analysis of tests and examinations was not on students' responses, but rather on how the test and examination questions were formulated. The aim was to determine to what extent the multiple choice questions of these assessments corresponded with or made use of the technical terminology and/or their definitions in the two glossaries. Three types of questions were distinguished, namely (i) those questions which directly related to the glossary entries and their definitions, which corresponded sufficiently to those glossary entries for students to recognise them; (ii) those questions in which glossary entries and their definitions did not appear in the same format as in the glossaries, but if students would interpret and apply the term used in the question, they would be able to answer the question; and (iii) those questions in which there was no reference to any glossary entries or definitions whatsoever. It was assumed that category (i) questions required a lower level of learning (merely requiring routine or straightforward application of knowledge, or memorising and recalling facts, i.e. 'possessive knowledge'), while category (ii) and (iii) questions challenged students to interpret and apply, or transfer their knowledge of the technical terminology in order to answer the questions, or to display 'proactive knowledge'. From the analysis, it emerged that only 22% of the questions in the 2013 test and examination papers required a fairly basic level of understanding where terminology used in the questions were directly related to terminology and definitions in the glossaries (i.e. possessive knowledge). Another 27% of the questions required a much higher level of engagement where students were challenged to interpret the formulations in the questions and to apply their understanding of terminology in the glossaries to answer these questions (i.e. 'performative' or 'proactive knowledge'). In just over half of the questions (51%), there was no correspondence between the questions and the glossary terminology, and students were required to apply knowledge which was not directly conveyed in the technical terminology glossaries.

6.2 Triangulation of findings

In Chapter 3 (section 3.4.5), Creswell's (2012) suggestion of how triangulation can be done in a convergent parallel design was discussed. He indicates that there are several ways in which the quantitative and qualitative data can be compared. The most popular approach is to describe the quantitative and qualitative results side by side in the discussion section of a study. For example, the researcher would first present the quantitative statistical results and

then provide qualitative quotes to either confirm or refute the statistical results (Creswell, 2012:542).

Some qualitative research theorists are hesitant to use the term 'triangulation', arguing that it might be overburdened as a quantitative metaphor. To illustrate, Henning in Henning et al. (2004) notes:

> I recognise the word and its place in the methodological discourse, but I have refrained from using it for some time because it has limitations as a metaphor and it does not really fit the methodology, which has more to do with 'interpreting and sourcing in various ways' to build a complete picture or text than with calculating a position from three different vantage points (Henning et al., 2004:103).

The limitation of the metaphor of triangulation is acknowledged in the present study. It is not used in a technical, quantitative sense here, but rather as a means to bring the results from various methods of observation and analysis into interaction with one another. The use of triangulation in the current study is in line with what Mason (2002) calls the best case scenario of using triangulation:

> At its best, I think the concept of triangulation – conceived as multiple methods – encourages the researcher to approach their research questions from different angles, and to explore their intellectual puzzles in a rounded and multi-faceted way. This does enhance validity, in the sense that it suggests that social phenomena are a little more than one-dimensional, and that your study has accordingly managed to grasp more than one of those dimensions. However, the use of the term 'methodological triangulation' for this best case scenario is probably misleading, since it is commonly understood to be a technique for checking out one method against another. The general message, then, is that you should not expect the use of multiple methods or triangulation to provide an easy or well trodden route to the demonstration of validity of method (Mason, 2002:190–191).

The aim of the triangulation process in the present study was therefore to let the results of the qualitative study dialogue with and inform the results of the quantitative study. This enabled the researcher to interpret the quantitative results, that is, the changes in mean percentages and pass rates, within the broader framework of a qualitative understanding of the factors that could have contributed to the statistical results. It was indicated in Chapter 1 that the researcher remained aware throughout the study that the quantitative results cannot be attributed solely to the 2013 technical terminology intervention. Students' pass rates depend on a complexity of factors, and the results of the quantitative analyses therefore had to be cross-checked against the qualitative analyses. Furthermore, the researcher worked with a wider definition of student success that is not only reflected in quantitative results, but also included the qualitative factors of epistemological access and acculturation. Within this context of a richer understanding of student success, the combination of quantitative and qualitative results can thus provide a multidimensional description of the possible effect of the empirical intervention.

The results of the quantitative and qualitative analyses have been reported side by side in Chapters 4 and 5, and have been summarised above in section 6.1. The interaction between these quantitative and qualitative results will now be facilitated by means of a narrative

description, at the hand of probing questions on the relationship of the achieved mean percentages and changes in pass rates (the quantitative results) on the one hand, and the various qualitative analyses on the other hand.

6.2.1 What light does the constitution of the module marks shed on the final marks?

In Political Science 112, students had to do two essay type assessments (each contributing 20% towards the predicate mark), one unannounced class test (contributing 10% towards the predicate mark), and one semester test (contributing 50% towards the predicate mark). An examination had to be written (first and/or second opportunities), and the final mark was calculated in a 40:60 ratio (predicate grade:examination grade). In Political Science 122, the marks were constituted similarly, with the exception of the unannounced class test: students had to do two essay type assessments (each contributing 25% towards the predicate mark), and one semester test (contributing 50% towards the predicate mark). An examination had to be written (first and/or second opportunities), and the final mark was calculated in a 40:60 ratio (predicate grade: examination grade).

The interviews with the lecturers revealed that the majority of the tests and examinations consisted of either multiple choice questions or short questions which do not necessarily test students' understanding and application of concepts. Since the tests and examinations using multiple choice questions formed such a central component in the composition of students' predicate and final marks for the modules, an attempt was made to establish in the qualitative study to what extent the multiple choice questions made use of the technical terminology and/or their definitions in the two glossaries. From that analysis it seemed that a surface level engagement with the technical terminology glossaries would not have led to an improvement in students' marks in the multiple choice questions. About a quarter of the questions in the 2013 test and examination papers required a fairly basic level of understanding where terminology used in the questions were directly related to terminology and definitions in the glossaries. Another quarter of the questions required a much higher level of engagement where students were challenged to interpret the formulations in the questions and to apply their understanding of terminology in the glossaries in answering these questions. More than half of the questions required students to apply knowledge which was not conveyed in the technical terminology glossaries as such.

From the above qualitative background about the formal assessment methods, it seems that the final marks achieved by students in the modules and analysed in the quantitative study are overwhelmingly determined by assessment methods that do not necessarily test a deeper level of understanding of threshold concepts in the fields of Political Science and International Relations. Although the two essays that were written in each module offered a better opportunity to assess whether students understand technical terminology and can apply it to contexts beyond the classroom, the impact of the essay marks on the final marks was relatively small compared to the impact of the tests and examinations which used mainly multiple-choice questions.

The qualitative analysis of student essays revealed furthermore that even though the majority of EDP students passed the modules, many of them nevertheless failed their essays. The analysis of the essays also showed that the students had a high level of confidence to use technical terminology in those essays that explicitly asked them to discuss certain ideologies or theories. These essays also showed that students had a fairly good understanding of the relevant technical terminology. Those essays in International Relations where concepts had to be applied to practical topics in the field revealed, however, that only a minority of students had the confidence of applying technical concepts, and that they did so with a low level of understanding. In the qualitative analysis, this was interpreted with reference to Craig et al. (1994) who make a distinction between 'defining' and 'conceptualising', as well as Perkins who distinguishes 'possessive knowledge' from 'performative' or 'proactive knowledge' (2008; 2013). Students showed the ability to 'define' in their essay-writing which reflects 'possessive knowledge', but not necessarily the ability to 'conceptualise' which would be a demonstration of 'proactive knowledge'. It is not known how students would have responded to essay questions which would have stated explicitly that International Relations theories had to be applied in answering the questions.

The above discussion shows that the higher pass rates of the 2013 EDP focus group cannot be explained by merely referring to the one or the other type of assessment. The multiple-choice assessments are inherently problematic as a means to elicit students' deeper understanding of technical terminology, but students nevertheless passed the modules mainly on account of this type of assessments. While essay-writing is a more adequate assessment instrument to test and encourage deeper understanding and application of technical terminology, students had low pass rates in these assessments.

The discussions in the following subsections will consider the results from further perspectives to gain insight into the mean percentages and pass rates of the 2013 EDP focus group.

6.2.2 What opportunities towards meaning-making were offered in the mainstream modules and the technical terminology tutorials?

In terms of the Academic Literacies model, meaning-making is understood as people being able to use their range of literacies in different contexts to enable communication, solve practical problems or act as a memory aid, and in some cases, do all at the same time (Barton et al., 2005:8). In the setting of university modules in an academic subject field, that would require different genres of teaching and learning to activate the full range of students' literacies in their meaning-making in that subject field.

As was mentioned in the previous subsection, there were limited opportunities for students to use their range of literacies and prior experience in the mainstream modules. In terms of the Academic Literacies model, the Political Science mainstream modules used a normative ideology which focuses on inducting new students into the existing conventions of the subject field, without necessarily taking into account the diversity of the student population and their range of literacies. Since there are a variety of possible assessment methods that can be used

successfully in the two modules, it should be possible to design assessments where students from diverse cultural, religious and educational backgrounds could write, talk and do research on their own communities' challenges and apply practical experiences at the hand of Political Science theories. In the process, they would be able to use their prior experience in the new subject-field, but more importantly, they would be able to contribute new knowledge to the subject field. The subject-field could also benefit from experiences with certain historical events by allowing students to do research in their own communities from their very first year. From a transformative point of view, therefore, this teaching and learning strategy in the mainstream modules would encourage 'academically underprepared' students to form a sense of identity and to find their own voices in the discipline. It could also contribute to problematising the concept of 'underpreparedness' since it seems that in many respects institutions are just as 'underprepared' as their students.

The technical terminology tutorials were consciously structured within the Academic Literacies framework which constitutes a specific epistemology, namely that of literacy as social practice and of transformation. The aim with these tutorials was to offer 'academically underprepared' EDP students alternative possibilities for meaning-making. The tutorials were based on the trilingual glossaries that were developed for the current project. The focus in every tutorial was on the prior reading of the textbook chapters which were prescribed for the mainstream lectures during that week. Furthermore, a limited number of concepts that occurred in those prescribed chapters were discussed. The discussions were not merely a verbal repetition of definitions; rather, the dialogic mode of teaching challenged students to engage with societal issues which were related to the selected terminology for the week. Students therefore not only had the opportunity to familiarise themselves with the concepts, but also to internalise those concepts in their engagement with one another on societal issues. The trilingual aspect of the glossaries was deliberately used as a resource for meaning-making in the teaching and learning process. The multilingual and multicultural composition of the class could therefore be used to the advantage of all students in the sense that they could contribute to a fuller understanding of the concepts from their various linguistic and cultural environments. In this way different literacies represented in the focus group were activated for the benefit of meaning-making of the whole class. When students made grammatical errors in the oral discussions, they were not corrected by the researcher so that they would not lose their self-confidence to express themselves in the small-group context.

The effect of this broader process of meaning-making on account of a diversity of literacies and the trilingual glossaries was not limited to the technical tutorials, however. The student questionnaires confirmed that the trilingual glossaries and the engagement in the technical terminology tutorials helped students to make more sense of their prescribed textbook readings, as well as of the mainstream lectures and class discussions. It thus seems that the technical terminology intervention undertaken in the current study also served as a generator of meaning-making in the mainstream context.

Although the improvement in pass rates of the 2013 focus group cannot be directly attributed to the fact that the technical terminology tutorials made provision for their meaning-making, inter alia, through the trilingual glossaries, it might have been a contributing factor to their

better pass rates and eventual experience of success. It might also indicate that Academic Literacies as a field of enquiry could be an appropriate theoretical framework for pedagogical interventions aimed at improving the success rates of 'academically underprepared' students.

6.2.3 What contributed to the experience of success/failure from the students' perspective?

From the student questionnaires before the modules (Q1), it seemed that students had an unrealistic view of their preparedness for higher education. It was therefore important to establish in the questionnaires what students planned to do in order to make sure that they would achieve success in the mainstream subject of Political Science. It was expected that those students who had concrete plans for their own learning would pass the modules in the end. What emerged from the questionnaires after the modules (Q2A), however, was that from the perspective of students who failed the modules, the main reasons why they reportedly failed the modules related to issues of improper time planning and not meeting technical essay writing requirements. While the former has more to do with students' broader academic acculturation than actual problems with the subject-field, the latter reason relates to one of the conventions of the subject-field, the academic essay, that clearly posed an obstacle to those students who failed the modules. However, from the analysis of the esssay marks in Chapter 5 (section 5.4.4), it is clear that the academic essay also posed a challenge to those students who managed to pass the modules. Despite the fact that some students failed the modules, they still indicated in their questionnaires after the modules that they enjoyed the in-depth engagement with one topic in the mainstream essay writing assessments. Other who failed found the active engagement with subject-specific terminology in the weekly tutorials had given them the confidence to participate meaningfully in discussions about issues in the field of Political Science, both inside and outside the classroom.

The majority of the students felt that the trilingual glossaries were helpful to understand the technical concepts and to help them with their assessments. Those with Afrikaans and isiXhosa as home language found the glossaries with definitions in their own languages helpful to understand difficult terminology in their textbooks and during lectures. It also gave them more confidence to participate in discussions in the subject-field. It is interesting to note that of the six students who failed one or both modules, only one had isiXhosa as home language, and no student had Afrikaans as home language.

A further factor affecting students' experience of success/failure in the modules was the format of the majority of other assessments. Student feedback in the questionnaires and informal discussions during the weekly tutorials indicated that students often felt frustrated that the multiple-choice assessments (tests and examinations) did not allow them to show what they had really learnt in the modules. They therefore experienced these assessments as an anticlimax, since they would sometimes put a lot of effort into preparing for a formal assessment, only to find that they did not understand the formulation of the multiple-choice questions. Because they were not familiar with the format of multiple choice questions, these assessments often engendered a lot of anxiety in the technical terminology class discussions beforehand. Students therefore felt that the multiple-choice assessments influenced their

marks negatively. Ironically though, these assessments helped many of those students who failed their essays to pass the modules in the end.

Another issue relating to the format of the assessments is that students also experienced anxiety and uncertainty before the unannounced class test in Political Science 112 which was written only a few weeks after they started the module. Students still seemed to adjust to university life and still acted like 'strangers' in the subject-field at the time. This might have inhibited them from performing optimally. However, this might also have served as a wake-up call for some students, since most of them eventually managed to pass their modules.

The above factors may shed some light on the mean percentages and pass rates of the focus group, in comparison to the control groups in the period under review. The statistics that were obtained in the longitudinal study of EDP groups' mean percentages in the two Political Science modules from 2010 to 2013 (dataset 1) showed that there was a meaningful increase in the focus group's relative position compared to the control groups. However, the qualitative data obtained from the 2013 focus group help explain why their mean percentages were still at such a low level. Although the expectation was that EDP students' mainstream subject marks would remain relatively low, because of their lower NSC/matric admission percentages, the qualitative data discussed above highlight other factors that could explain this phenomenon. The qualitative data also cautions the researcher not to over-interpret the increase in the relative position of the focus group compared to the control groups. Even if this increase might be attributed to the technical terminology intervention of the current project, this intervention still did not contribute to a significant increase in the mean percentages as such.

The statistical analysis of dataset 2 (EDP pass rates in comparison to mainstream pass rates) might be a clearer confirmation of the effect of the technical terminology intervention. This analysis shows that whereas the 2010 and 2011 EDP cohorts still had much lower pass rates than their mainstream peers, this gap had been closed in the case of the 2013 cohort that was exposed to the intervention. The 2013 data show that the EDP focus group had approximately the same pass rates as the mainstream students. This fairly dramatic change may be related to the technical terminology intervention which not only seemed to enable EDP students to understand the threshold concepts in the subject-field, but also helped them to understand their textbook readings and lectures. It also increased their confidence to take part in discussions and resulted in their experience of epistemological access and success. In short, even though the intervention did not necessarily help students to improve their marks dramatically, it managed to help them over the pass mark threshold of 50%.

6.2.4 To what extent did the mainstream teaching approach contribute towards success/failure?

From what the two lecturers reported in their interviews and from what students experienced in their lectures, it was clear that the lecturers were prepared to allow discussion in their lectures even though both made use of a transmission mode of teaching that characterises a normative ideology. Students found the lecturers to be knowledgeable in their subject fields

and well-prepared for their lectures. Both lecturers' class notes were available in both Afrikaans and English. However, only one lecturer's notes were available on the electronic learning platform. Students who were still struggling to adjust to the subject field, and who were not learning in their mother-tongue, sometimes found it difficult to make meaningful notes during lectures because of the speed of the lecture on the one hand, and the double-medium mode of teaching on the other hand. The rationale behind the double-medium teaching model in the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences is that the Faculty did not want to perpetuate the apartheid mind-set by dividing diverse students into separate Afrikaans and English classes since language groups would inevitably be divided largely along racial lines. Since 16 out of the 22 focus group students indicated in the student questionnaire before the module that they understand both English and Afrikaans, it seems unlikely that the double-medium character of the lectures as such played a role in their success or failure. In the large classes, however, struggling students did not have the confidence to ask questions if they did not understand. In the mainstream subject tutorials, there was also little opportunity to discuss content which might have been difficult to grasp in the textbook and lectures, because the main focus of the mainstream tutorials was on teaching the essay writing and referencing conventions in the subject field. While lecturers indicated in the interviews that students who struggled could request individual consultations with tutors, in practice struggling students did not seem to have the confidence to approach tutors individually.

While the teaching strategy in these modules may be suitable for and conducive to the success of first-year students who are well-prepared for university study and do not struggle with the multilingual environment, those students who are 'academically underprepared' for higher education and have low levels of language proficiency in a multilingual environment might find such a teaching strategy a stumbling block for success and epistemological access.

The above observation that the teaching strategy in the mainstream modules did not necessarily support 'academically underprepared' students to achieve success in their modules brings the researcher to the conclusion that the increase in pass rates observed in the 2013 EDP focus group might be attributed to the small-group technical terminology intervention that was undertaken in the current study. This point will be discussed in the next subsection.

6.2.5 To what extent did the teaching approach in the technical terminology tutorials contribute towards success/failure?

The technical terminology tutorials that were organised for the EDP students in the focus group took place in a small-group environment of maximum 22 students. The dialogic mode of teaching furthermore created an opportunity to practise the technical terminology on the basis of the trilingual glossaries, and to help students to use the terminology in their textbook readings and course materials. It also helped students to engage in discussions where technical concepts had to be applied. From the student questionnaires, it was clear that the majority of the focus group students saw the dialogic teaching mode as a determining factor in their eventual success in the modules. They furthermore indicated that the technical

terminology tutorials contributed to their confidence to participate in class discussions during the terminology tutorials and thus their experience of success in the subject field.

In the light of the fact that the mainstream teaching mode as discussed in the previous subsection was ostensibly not optimal for 'academically underprepared' students who were struggling to adjust to a new academic and multilingual environment, it would seem that the technical terminology tutorials of the intervention project had a positive influence on the mean percentages and pass rates of the 2013 focus group as observed in the statistical data.

6.3 Multilingual technical glossaries: possibilities and limitations

From the experiment with trilingual glossaries in the current study, it seems that multilingual subject-specific glossaries have the following advantages in South African higher education contexts:

(i) They offer a broader range of alternatives for meaning-making.
(ii) They give recognition and legitimacy to the diversity of the student population.
(iii) They contribute to 'academically underprepared' students' finding of new identities in disciplinary contexts and their experience of success, resulting in greater epistemological access.
(iv) They enhance 'academically underprepared' students' confidence to participate in class discussions and to engage with peers about key issues in the subject field.
(v) They give recognition to the central role of technical concepts in disciplines such as Political Science.
(vi) They promote understanding through the accessibility of definitions, even to English mother-tongue speakers who are new to a subject field.
(vii) They provide support for lecturers who have to teach multilingual student populations in their preparation and presentation of lectures.
(viii) They contribute to the development of technical terminology in various languages that are not traditionally used in the South African higher education context, such as African languages.

Multilingual subject-specific glossaries also have some limitations:

(i) They do not necessarily facilitate proactive knowledge and the ability to interpret and apply concepts beyond the classroom setting if they do not form part of an integrated teaching and learning strategy.
(ii) They cannot improve 'academically underprepared' students' generic linguistic skills, or essay-writing and referencing skills, which are also essential to achieve success in higher education.
(iii) They cannot be implemented without institutional support from the broader university, and from the specific discipline.
(iv) If the translation of technical terminology is not a collaborative process between professional translators who are mother-tongue speakers and disciplinary experts, the translated terms will not be useful and credible in a disciplinary context.

(v) This study has to be replicated in other disciplines and/or subject fields in the humanities, as well as in the natural sciences, to verify empirically whether multilingual subject-specific glossaries can indeed enhance students' marks and experience of success.

These potential benefits and limitations of multilingual glossaries emphasise that they should be used in an integrated teaching and learning approach. This aspect will be discussed in the next subsection.

6.4 Recommendations

6.4.1 Institutional support

Institutions should not confuse formal and epistemological access in higher education. Whereas South African universities often put strategies in place to open up formal access to a broader and more diverse student population in general, and historically disadvantaged students in particular, they do not always invest resources in creating epistemological access for those students. This means that universities often conform to the so-called 'demographic imperatives' when it comes to the recruitment and admission of first-year students, while little provision is made for the sustained academic support and long-term success of these students in their various academic departments. In the case of state-subsidised EDPs, some higher education institutions outsource their transformation responsibilities to these programmes, without contemplating at an institutional level how these students should be supported in their mainstream subjects.

In line with the above point, institutions should be prepared to invest resources in the development of academic support materials, such as multilingual subject-specific glossaries. This aspect was discussed in section 6.3.

Furthermore, higher education institutions should invest in research on drop-out and failure rates of 'underprepared' students. The focus at some institutions is often on success rates only defined in terms of student pass rates, but the special category of 'academically underprepared' students and their social and academic acculturation requires a broader definition of student success. Resources should be invested at institutional level to investigate the complexity of factors in 'academically underprepared' students' apparent lack of success.

6.4.2 An integrated teaching and learning approach

When a higher education institution makes a commitment to the development of professional multilingual glossaries, the risk is that the terminology can be developed in separate and isolated academic support contexts, without disciplines taking ownership for the implementation of those glossaries into their curriculum planning and teaching and learning strategies. The reason why it is important that subject-specialists should be consulted in the development of new terminology and the translation of existing terminology is that lecturers should take ownership of the glossaries as a means of creating epistemological access in their

various subject fields. They should therefore be able to identify with the terminology and translations within the context of their respective disciplines.

Furthermore, curriculum planners in the disciplines (who often happen to be lecturers) should bear in mind that if they want to integrate multilingual technical terminology into their curriculum planning right from the outset, it would require a reconceptualisation of the subject content. Specifically, provision should be made in the curriculum for technical terminology tutorials, over and above the normal mainstream tutorials, specifically if the latter focus mainly on essay writing and referencing skills in the subject field. These tutorials should be coordinated with the mainstream lecture schedule to ensure that technical terminology is properly integrated into the disciplinary content in the curriculum.

Part of the process of familiarising 'academically underprepared' students with subject-specific terminology could be to include online formative assessments in the mainstream module planning that give students the opportunity to practise and internalise technical concepts and their definitions. This would enable another level of integration between technical terminology support and disciplinary teaching and learning strategies. Such online formative assessments would also be particularly useful where the organisation of extra contact session tutorials is not practically possible due to high student numbers.

With regard to summative assessments, lecturers in the disciplines should consider using assessment methods that will enable students to use the conceptual knowledge that they gained through the technical terminology tutorials, as well as in further teaching and learning strategies. The planning of these assessments should also be done collaboratively, involving technical terminology lecturers or academic literacy lecturers, together with the disciplinary experts. Innovative assessment methods can make optimal use of multilingual glossaries in that it can open up the possibility of valuing multilingual students' multiple literacies and cultural backgrounds in the assessment process.

6.4.3 The subsidisation of South African textbooks

Despite the criticisms against prescribed textbooks discussed in Chapter 2, the current study showed that prescribed textbooks can be a valuable resource to introduce 'academically underprepared' students to a subject field. If a textbook already contains a technical glossary with definitions (as in the two textbooks that were prescribed for the two Political Science modules in the current study), these technical glossaries can be translated to provide epistemological access to students from multilingual backgrounds, and can form a vital element in an integrated teaching and learning strategy as outlined above.

However, as was pointed out in Chapter 2, the development of textbooks is not incentivised in the South African higher education context unlike research publications. The result is that there are not many textbooks that are written specifically for South African students, and lecturers often have to rely on international textbooks in their curriculum planning. While these textbooks might provide a solid foundation to introduce disciplinary novices to a subject field, they often contain very few examples from and applications to the South

African context. This factor poses a further challenge to 'underprepared' students' academic acculturation into a subject field.

The development of textbooks specifically aimed at South African students should therefore be encouraged through subsidisation by higher education governmental and tertiary institutions. Furthermore, consideration should be given to include technical glossaries in different South African languages in prescribed textbooks right from the outset.

6.5 Conclusion

The current study examined whether the use of multilingual subject-specific glossaries can contribute to 'academically underprepared' students' success in a mainstream programme. There were several factors that could not be included in the limited scope of the present study. It was acknowledged that 'academically underprepared' students' success depends on a complexity of factors and relationships, and that one intervention cannot provide answers to all questions. More research could therefore be done on the following questions:

- How can the teaching methodology of a discipline make provision for problematising contested terminology that might be, or might not be, included in existing technical glossaries, in order to contribute to transformation in the subject field?
- How can the teaching methodology of a discipline make provision for culturally and religiously specific and/or sensitive terminology that might be, or might not be, included in existing technical glossaries, in order to make the development of terminology in the subject field a dynamic process which profiteers from the diversity of student literacies?
- What assessment methods can be designed to promote the elements of proactive learning by means of multilingual technical terminology support?
- What role do mainstream subject tutors play in a teaching and learning environment where disciplinary content, academic literacy and technical terminological support are closely integrated with the aim of optimalising 'academically underprepared' students' chances of succes in higher education?

To conclude, the findings of the current study argue in favour of the hypothesis that the integration of multilingual technical (subject-specific) terminological support into the mainstream teaching strategy can play a significant role in improving EDP students' pass rates in their mainstream subjects, as well as their experience of success.

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APPENDIX A: Ethical clearance documentation

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RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE: HUMAN RESEARCH (HUMANIORA)

ETHICS COMMITTEE APPLICATION FORM

Application to the University of Stellenbosch RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE: HUMAN RESEARCH (HUMANIORA) for clearance of new/revised research projects

This application must be typed or written in capitals

Name: Ms: Anita Jonker

Position/Professional Status: First-year academy coordinator; lecturer

Affiliation: Research Programme/Institution / Department: Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences (First-year academy & Extended degree programme)

Please indicate (√) if you are a registered student at SU?

YES	√
NO	

If yes, for which degree/programme are you registered?
Master's Degree in General Linguistics

Please specify the relevant Department at SU: General Linguistics

Who is your supervisor? Prof Tobie van Dyk & Dr Johan Oosthuizen

Your telephone and extension no. **Code:** 021 **no.** 8082081

Fax:

Title of research project: (*Do not use abbreviations)*
The role of multilingual subject-specific and generic academic glossaries in enhancing Extended Degree Programme (EDP) students' success in a mainstream programme.

Where will the research be carried out?
In the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences at Stellenbosch University.

All the following sections must be completed (Please tick all relevant boxes where applicable)

1. FUNDING OF THE RESEARCH: How will the research be funded?

The applicant was granted FIRTL (Fund for Innovation in Research on Teaching and Learning) funding to compile the two trilingual glossaries which will serve as research tools for the project.

2. PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH:

A. To establish the impact of systematic exposure to
(i) multilingual subject-specific terminology and
(ii) generic academic vocabulary teaching
on EDP students' success in a mainstream programme;
B. To identify strategies that can be used to enhance the impact of multilingual subject-specific terminology and generic academic vocabulary teaching on students' success.

3. AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH: *(Please list objectives)*

The first objective of this research project is to introduce students to the core technical terminology of the first two Political Science modules in the first semester. In 2012 two multilingual glossaries were developed, based on the glossaries of two prescribed textbooks which are used by the Department to introduce students to the subject-field of Political Science:

Heywood, 2007: Politics
McGowan, P. et al. 2006. Power, Wealth and Global Equity.

The second objective is to introduce EDP students to the Academic Word List that was compiled by Avril Coxhead in 2000. The Academic Word List groups 570 word families into 10 sub-lists based on how frequently they occur in academic texts in higher education institutions. The premise is that first-year students who are familiar with these terms and their usage in academic texts, will have a greater possibility of success at higher education institutions.
The third objective is to identify strategies that can be used to enhance the impact of multilingual subject-specific terminology and generic academic vocabulary teaching on students' success.

4. SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH *(give a brief outline of the research plan – not more than 200 words. Include who will do what, when, where and for how long to gather data.)*

Once the data collection commences at the start of the academic year, structured interviews will be conducted with the first-year Political Science lecturers. After the final registration date of first-year students for the 2013 academic year, the students who will participate in the study will be selected from the university's official database. The focus group will consist of all **EDP students** who take Political Science 112 as main subject. The control group will consist of the same number of **mainstream students** who take Political

Science 112 as main subject, specifically those students who have the lowest matric marks in the mainstream module and can thus also be regarded as "high-risk" students.

In the first term of 2013, EDP students who take Political Science 112 as main subject will attend a weekly tutorial where the trilingual glossary of the Heywood (2007) textbook will be explicitly taught and tested. Mainstream students who fall in the high-risk category, will also receive the glossary, but will not attend a weekly tutorial and will not be tested on the vocabulary. In the second term of 2013 EDP students with Political Science 122 as main subject, will receive the trilingual glossary of the McGowan et al. (2006) handbook, but the vocabulary will not be explicitly taught or tested. The high risk mainstream students will have access to this glossary, but the vocabulary will also not be explicitly taught or tested. Structured interviews will be conducted with students in both groups in the course of the two modules.

After the each of the two terms, the two groups' results will be compared, and the structured interviews will be analysed.

In the second term the multilingual glossary of the prescribed handbook for Political Science 122 (McGowan, PJ, Cornelissen, S & Nel, P. 2006. Power, Wealth and Global Equity) will be made available to the same two groups, but there will be no weekly tutorials for the EDP students.

5. NATURE AND REQUIREMENTS OF THE RESEARCH

5.1 How should the research be characterized *(Please tick ALL appropriate boxes)*

5.1.1 Personal and social information collected directly from participants/subjects	√
5.1.2 Participants/subjects to undergo physical examination	
5.1.3 Participants/subjects to undergo psychometric testing	
5.1.4 Identifiable information to be collected about people from available records	√
5.1.5 Anonymous information to be collected from available records	
5.1.6 Literature, documents or archival material to be collected on individuals/groups	

5.2 Participant/Subject Information Sheet attached? (*for written and verbal consent)*

YES	√
NO	

5.3 Informed Consent form attached? *(for written consent)*

YES	√
NO	

5.3.1 If informed consent is not necessary, please state why:

_____

_____

NB: If a questionnaire, interview schedule or observation schedule/framework for ethnographic study will be used in the research, it must be attached. The application cannot be considered if these documents are not included.

5.4 Will you be using any of the above mentioned measurement instruments in the research?

YES	√
NO	

6. PARTICIPANTS/SUBJECTS IN THE STUDY

6.1 If humans are being studied, state where they are selected:

After first-year students' registration is concluded in 2013, the participants will be selected from the university's official enrolment data.

6.2 Please mark (√) the appropriate boxes:

Participants/subjects will:	YES	NO
be asked to volunteer		
be selected	√	

6.2.1 State how the participants/subjects will be selected, and/or who will be asked to volunteer:

The focus group will consist of all Extended Degree Programme students who take Political Science 112 as main subject. Their matric averages will be between 57% and 59,9%. The control group will consist of the same number of mainstream students who take Political Science 112 as main subject, specifically those who have the lowest matric averages in the mainstream module, where students must have matric averages of minimum 60%.

6.2.2. Please mark (√) the appropriate boxes:

Participants/subjects are:	YES	NO
Will SU student, alumni of staff data be used in this research	√	
Will interviews be conducted with SU student, alumni of staff	√	
Will questionnaires be used and distributed on SU campuses		√
Will electronic questionnaires be placed on the SU website?		√

6.3 Are the participants/subjects subordinate to the person doing the recruiting?

YES	
NO	√

6.3.1 If yes, justify the selection of subordinate participants / subjects:

6.4 Will control participants/subjects be used?

YES	√
NO	

6.4.1 If yes, explain how they will be selected:

As mentioned in 6.2.1, the control group will consist of the same number of mainstream students who take Political Science 112 as main subject who have the lowest matric marks in the mainstream module, and who can thus also be regarded as “high-risk” students.

6.5 What records, if any, will be used, and how will they be accessed? Have you obtained formal permission to use these records?

I have approached Mrs Susan Oberholzer of Research Development for permission to use the records. I will attach this form as motivation for permission.

6.6 What is the age range of the participants/subjects in the study?

The majority of the students are 18 years old, with a few 19 and older.

6.6.1 Was consent from guardians/parents obtained for participants/subjects 17 years and younger?

YES	
NO	√

If YES, please attach the appropriate forms.

6.6.2 If NO, please state why:

There are no students in that age category.

6.7 Will participation or non-participation disadvantage the participants/subjects in any way?

YES	
NO	√

6.7.1 If yes, explain in what way:

6.8 Will the research benefit the participants/subjects in any direct way?

YES	√
NO	

6.8.1 If yes, please explain in what way:
Both groups will have access to a multilingual glossary that has not been available in the past. They will also have a language tutorial every week as extra academic support .

7. PROCEDURES

7.1 Mark research procedure(s) that will be used:

Literature	
Documentary	
Personal records	√
Interviews	√
Survey	
Participant observation	
Other (please specify) _____ _____	

7.2 How will the data be stored to keep it safe and prevent unauthorized access? What happens to the data on completion of the research?
The data will be kept safe at the Department of General Linguistics after completion of the research.

7.3 If an interview form/schedule; questionnaire or observation schedule/framework will be used, is it attached?

YES	√
NO	

7.4 Risks of the procedure(s): Participants/subjects will/may suffer:

No risk	√
Discomfort	
Pain	
Possible complications	
Persecution	
Stigmatization	
Negative labeling	
Other (please specify) _____ _____	

7.4.1 If you have checked any of the above except "no risk", please provide details:
_____

8. RESEARCH PERIOD

(a) When will the research commence:
4 February 2013

(b) Over what approximate time period will the research be conducted:
The first two terms of 2013

9. GENERAL

9.1 Has permission of relevant authority/ies been obtained?

YES	√
NO	

9.1.1 If yes, state name/s of authority/ies:
I have obtained permission from the relevant Political Science lecturers whose students will participate in the research, as well as the Head of the Department.

9.2 Confidentiality: How will confidentiality be maintained to ensure that participants/subjects/patients/controls are not identifiable to persons not involved in the research:
A special Blackboard module has been created for students who will take part in the research. Only students who are involved in the research will have access to this module.

9.3 Results: To whom will results be made available, and how will the findings be reported to the research participants?
The research will be made available to those lecturers, as well as the students, who participated in the research. Each one will receive a summary of the results, as well as a copy of the paper that will be presented on the research.

9.4 There will be financial costs to: No financial costs

participant/subject	
institution	
Other (please specify) _____ _____	

9.4.1 Explain any box marked YES:

_____

9.5 Research proposal/protocol attached:

YES	√
NO	

9.6 Any other information which may be of value to the Committee should be provided here:

_____

7 January 2013

Date: **Applicant`s signature**

Prof Tobie van Dyk & Dr Johan Oosthuizen

Who will supervise the project?

Name: Dr Johan Oosthuizen **Programme/Institution/Department:** General Linguistics, Stellenbosch University

Date: 7 January 2013 **Signature:**

Director/Head/Research Coordinator of Department/Institute in which study is conducted:

I declare that this research proposal has been approved by the relevant Department or Faculty and that it complies with acceptable scientific research standards.

Name: Prof Christine Anthonissen
Date: 7 January 2013

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Approval Notice
New Application

28-Feb-2013

Jonker, Anita A

Dear Ms. Anita Jonker,

The **New Application** received on **11-Feb-2013**, was reviewed by members of **Research Ethics Committee: Human Research (Humanities)** via Expedited review procedures on **28-Feb-2013** and was approved.

Please note the following information about your approved research protocol:

Standard provisions

1. The researcher will remain within the procedures and protocols indicated in the proposal, particularly in terms of any undertakings made in terms of the confidentiality of the information gathered.
2. The research will again be submitted for ethical clearance if there is any substantial departure from the existing proposal.
3. The researcher will remain within the parameters of any applicable national legislation, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of research.
4. The researcher will consider and implement the foregoing suggestions to lower the ethical risk associated with the research.

You may commence with your research with strict adherence to the abovementioned provisions and stipulations.

Please remember to use your **protocol number** (**DESC_Jonker2013**) on any documents or correspondence with the REC concerning your research protocol.

Please note that the REC has the prerogative and authority to ask further questions, seek additional information, require further modifications, or monitor the conduct of your research and the consent process.

After Ethical Review:

Please note that a progress report should be submitted to the Committee before the approval period has expired if a continuation is required. The Committee will then consider the continuation of the project for a further year (if necessary). Annually a number of projects may be selected randomly for an external audit.

National Health Research Ethics Committee (NHREC) number REC-050411-032.

This committee abides by the ethical norms and principles for research, established by the Declaration of Helsinki, the South African Medical Research Council Guidelines as well as the Guidelines for Ethical Research: Principles Structures and Processes 2004 (Department of Health).

Provincial and City of Cape Town Approval

Please note that for research at a primary or secondary healthcare facility permission must be obtained from the relevant authorities (Western Cape Department of Health and/or City Health) to conduct the research as stated in the protocol. Contact persons are Ms Claudette Abrahams at Western Cape Department of Health (healthres@pgwc.gov.za Tel: +27 21 483 9907) and Dr Helene Visser at City Health (Helene.Visser@capetown.gov.za Tel: +27 21 400 3981).

Research that will be conducted at any tertiary academic institution requires approval from the relevant parties. For approvals from the Western Cape Education Department, contact Dr AT Wyngaard (awyngaar@pgwc.gov.za, Tel: 0214769272, Fax: 0865902282, http://wced.wcape.gov.za).

Institutional permission from academic institutions for students, staff & alumni. This institutional permission should be obtained before submitting an application for ethics clearance to the REC.

Please note that informed consent from participants can only be obtained after ethics approval has been granted. It is your responsibility as researcher to keep signed informed consent forms for inspection for the duration of the research.

We wish you the best as you conduct your research.

If you have any questions or need further help, please contact the REC office at 0218089183.

Protocol #: DESC_Jonker2013

Title: The role of multilingual subject-specific and generic academic glossaries in enhancing Degree Programme (EDP) students' success in a mainstream programme.

Protocol Approval Period: **28-Feb-2013 -27-Feb-2014**

Included Documents:

- DESC form
- Informed Consent
- REC Application
- Interview schedule

Sincerely,

Susara Oberholzer

REC Coordinator
Research Ethics Committee: Human Research (Humanities)

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CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

[*The role of multilingual subject-specific and generic academic glossaries in enhancing Extended degree programme (EDP) students' success in a mainstream programme.*]

[*If the study involves using different consent forms for different populations, identify the population group as the subtitle of the study.*]

You are asked to participate in a research study conducted by [*Anita Jonker, BA, BA Post-graduate Diploma in Translation*], from the [*Extended degree programme, Department of Linguistics*] at Stellenbosch University. [*The results of the research will form part of a PhD dissertation.*] You were selected as a possible participant in this study because [*you are enrolled for Political Science 112 and 122, where the study will be conducted, and your matric marks indicate that you could benefit from additional academic support*].

1. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of the research is to establish the impact of multilingual subject-specific terminology and generic academic vocabulary teaching on students' success in a mainstream programme and to identify strategies that can be used to enhance the impact of multilingual subject-specific terminology and generic academic vocabulary teaching on students' success.

2. PROCEDURES

All Extended Degree Programme students who have Political Science 112 as main subject, will form the focus group participating in the study. Each of these students will receive an electronic copy of the trilingual glossary and will be expected to attend weekly tutorials to familiarise yourself with the technical terminology.

A selection of mainstream students who have Political Science 112 as main subject, will form the control group. These students will also each receive an electronic copy of the trilingual glossary, but will not attend the weekly language tutorials in the first term. However, these students will be encouraged to take the glossary to class and to make sure that they familiarise themselves with the technical terminology after every lecture.

Extended Degree Programme students will be expected to attend one weekly language tutorial during the first term. During this tutorial the technical vocabulary that form part of the glossary at the back of the prescribed Political Science 112 handbook (Heywood, 2007: Politics) will be explained and discussed in more detail. Every week the vocabulary will be based on the chapters from the book that have been covered during the weekly lectures. Various methods will be used to teach and assess the vocabulary. Some of the language assessments will be formative and interactive and will not count for marks, while others will be used as summative assessment that will count for marks. Students will be expected to do the necessary preparation for this tutorial. They will be assigned to groups during the tutorials where they work together before and after class. During the weekly tutorial students sit with their respective groups.

3. POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

[*There are no risks attached to this study. Students can only benefit from their participation in this project.*]

4. POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO SUBJECTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY

[*Both first and second language English speakers are likely to benefit from this research. First language speakers of English who attend university for the first time, are not familiar with the technical terminology that forms part of every subject discipline. Their weekly exposure to the technical terminology is likely to contribute to a deeper understanding of the subject field.*

Second language speakers of English who speak Afrikaans and isiXhosa, are also likely to benefit from the translation of the English terms into their mother tongues, and the weekly exposure to the technical terminology. This research has the potential to contribute to the scientific development of isiXhosa and Afrikaans technical terminology. If isiXhosa and Afrikaans students' success rates are enhanced by the availability of technical terminology in their mother tongues, it could well lead to the development of more multilingual glossaries at tertiary institutions. Society is also expected to benefit from the research, as second language speakers of English usually do not have access to as many sources as first language English speakers.

5. PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION

[*Students will not receive payment for participation.*]

6. CONFIDENTIALITY

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with a particular student will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with the student's permission or as required by law. Confidentiality will be maintained by using only student numbers in correspondence, and for the allocation of marks. The data will be kept at the offices of the Extended Degree Programme, which is located in the department of General Linguistics. Access to the information will be monitored by the researcher.

[*The Stellenbosch University, as well as the Department of Political Science, might be interested in the results if they wanted to initiate similar projects in future.*]

[If the results of the study are published, students will remain anonymous in the publication.]

7. PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

Attendance of the language tutorials will be compulsory for all EDP students. If a student misses more than two tutorials, the language support lecturer can terminate the student's participation. The student will then be notified that he/she is no longer part of the study.

8. IDENTIFICATION OF INVESTIGATORS

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel free to contact [*Anita Jonker at 021-8082081, or 083-6119659, or via email at axjonker@sun.ac.za.)*

9. RIGHTS OF RESEARCH SUBJECTS

A student does not waive any legal claims, rights or remedies because of his/her participation in this study. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject, contact Ms Maléne Fouché [mfouche@sun.ac.za; 021 808 4622] at the Division for Research Development.

SIGNATURE OF RESEARCH SUBJECT OR LEGAL REPRESENTATIVE

The information above was described to [*me]* by [*Anita Jonker]* in [*Afrikaans/English]* and [*I am]* in command of this language or it was satisfactorily translated to [*me*]. [*I]* was given the opportunity to ask questions and these questions were answered to *[my]* satisfaction.

[I hereby consent to participate in this study/]

I have been given a copy of this form.

_____

Name of Subject/Participant

_____

Name of Legal Representative (if applicable)

_____ February 2013

Signature of Subject/Participant or Legal Representative **Date**

SIGNATURE OF INVESTIGATOR

I declare that I explained the information given in this document to [*name of the subject/participant]* and/or [his/her] representative [*name of the representative]. [H*e/she] was encouraged and given ample time to ask me any questions. This conversation was conducted in [*Afrikaans/*English*].

Signature of Investigator **Date**

APPENDIX B: Lecturer interview schedule

Interview Schedule: Lecturer interview February 2013
PRE-INTERVIEW DATA:

Name of lecture ……. Code A (to ensure lecturer anonymity in research project)

Title of module: …...……. Code B (to ensure lecturer anonymity in research project)

Number of students enrolled in this course: …….
(to be completed after formal registration is concluded)

Number of lectures per week: a. new: …….. b. repeated: …….

Medium of instruction (lectures): ……...

Medium of instruction (tutorials): ……...

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW SCHEDULE:

A. LECTURER SUPPORT:

1. Do you have adequate support as a first-year lecturer in this course with regards to:
    a. preparation of bilingual lectures [Yes……./No……]
    b. technical aspects of teaching, e.g. help with Powerpoints / documentaries / clickers before or during lectures [Yes……./No…..]
    c. marking of assignments and tests [Yes……./No……]
    d. exposure to international teaching innovations [Yes……./No……]
    e. sustainable research [Yes……./No……]
    f. dealing with culturally and religiously sensitive concepts and issues [Yes……./No……]
2. Will it help you in your preparation of bilingual lectures if you have the technical terminology of the handbook available online in Afrikaans, English and isiXhosa? [Yes……./No……]
3. Are there institutional mechanisms to provide you with support if there are first-year students in your module who cannot understand either Afrikaans or English, considering that you are expected as the lecturer to use both languages during lectures?
    [Yes, ……]
    [No, ……]

B. COURSE OUTCOMES:

The formal outcomes of this module are stated in the module framework as follows:

a. Identify definitions of concepts and provide definitions of concepts.

b. Identify the central characteristics of, for example, various regimes, ideologies, government systems, democratic government institutions.
c. Formulate and defend an argument.
d. Apply your knowledge of political science concepts.

Your comments? .....

C. TEACHING POLITICAL SCIENCE CONCEPTS:

With reference to the Course Outcomes:

a. Are there key political science concepts in the subject field of Political Science that you regard as "threshold concepts" that Meyer and Land (2003) claim are essential to master in every academic discipline?

[……
……
……
……..]

b. Is Perkins's (2006: 5) definition of proactive knowledge that "students must learn to apply their knowledge with understanding, engage energetically with it, make connections, see the links, and mobilise their formally acquired knowledge beyond classroom settings" (in contrast to surface-learning approaches) compatible with what you expect of first-years in this module?

[……
……
……
……..]

C. ASSESSMENT:

1. What is the format and total number of assessments in this module?
   a. academic essays […….....]
   b. unprepared class tests […….....…….]
   c. semester tests […….....….]
   d. prepared orals […….....…….]
   e. unprepared orals [….....…….]
   f. self-assessment [….....…….]
   g. group work where group members assess each other […….....….]
   h. group work where group members are individually assessed by the lecturer / tutor […….....….]
   i. informal group work that is not assessed [….....……]

2. What are the primary aims of assessment in this module?
   a. [……..]
   b. [……..]

c. [……..]
d. [……..]
e. [……..]

3. Do you expect students to do prior reading for lectures?
   a. [Yes ……/ No ……/Sometimes…….....]
   b. If "Yes/Sometimes", how do you establish whether they have done the reading?
      Class tests […….....….]
      Cell phones / clickers [….....…….]
      Show of hands […….....……]
      Flash cards […….....….]
      Oral questions and answers during lectures […….....…….]
      Other procedures: [……]

D. STUDENT PREPAREDNESS & SUPPORT:

1. When you teach your former first-year students other modules in their second and third years, is your impression that they have mastered the key concepts of the subject area in their first year?
   [……
   …….....]
2. Do you think it can contribute to non-native speakers' academic integration and success in the subject field of Political Science if they have access to the technical terminology of the subject field in their mother tongue, even if they were taught in English at school?
   [……
   …….....]
3. Do you consider the prescribed handbook appropriate for the students you teach in the South African context to get a comprehensive introduction to the subject of Political Science?
   [……
   …….....]
4. Are students allowed or encouraged to contribute key concepts from their political and cultural backgrounds that are not covered in the handbook, or in the handbook glossary?
   [……
   …….....]
5. In your experience, are first-year students in this module:
   a. adequately prepared [……..] or
   b. underprepared [……..] for their university studies?
6. In which of the following aspects would you consider students underprepared for university study?

a. academic essay writing […….....…..]
b. limited world view and lack of general knowledge [….....……..]
c. use of technical terminology […….....…..]
d. critical thinking skills […….....…..]
e. lack of basic grammar rules […….....…..]
f. technical skills […….....…..]
g. other aspects […….....…..]

7. What provision is made in this module to support students who might be underprepared for their university studies?
[……
…….....]

APPENDIX C: Student questionnaires (Q1, Q2A, Q2B)

Student Interview Schedule Q1
EDP students with Political Science 112 as main subject 2013

Name of student: …….....…….
Title of module: …….....……
Medium of instruction (lectures):…….....……...
Medium of instruction (tutorials):…….....……...
Home language:…….....…….
Language of learning:…….....……
Matric year: …….....……

1. Do you think that your high school education prepared you adequately for your studies at university? [Yes……/No…….] Motivate.
   ……
   ……
   …….....
2. Did you learn to write an academic essay at school? [Yes……/No…….]
   If not, how do you intend to find out how to write an academic essay before your first essay is due?
   ……
   ……
   …….....
3. a. Do you know the Harvard referencing system? [Yes……/No…….]
   b. Have you received a copy of the free reference booklet that was compiled by the Language Centre? [Yes……/No…….]
4. What was your biggest academic adjustment from school to university?
   ……
   ……
   …….....
5. How many hours per day do you spend on your studies at the moment? ….....…
6. a. What motivated you to take Political Science as one of your first-year subjects?
   ……
   ……
   …….....
   b. What are your expectations of this module?
   ……
   ……
   …….....
7. a. Would you say that you have a good general knowledge to help you to make links between theory and practise in this module? [Yes……/No…….]
   b. Are there any news programmes or documentaries on the radio or television that you watch or listen to on a regular basis? [Yes……/No…….]
   c. If not, what do you intend to do to broaden your general knowledge?

……
……
…….....

8. a. Do you know how to do a search for sources in the Library? [Yes…/No….]
   b. Did you attend the visit to the library that was organised by your lecturer to help you find sources for your Political Science essays? [Yes……/No…….]
9. a. Have you bought a copy of the prescribed textbook, *Politics* (2007) by Andrew Heywood? [Yes……/No…….]If not, please motivate:
   ……
   ……
   …….....
   b. Do you think the translation of the glossary at the back of the textbook into your mother tongue can help you to:
   - understand technical concepts of the subject field better [……]
   - achieve better academic results [……]
   - feel more confident to participate in class discussions [……]
   - other [……]

   c. Will you take the trilingual glossary along to lectures to look up words that you do not know? [Yes……/No…….]
   d. Do you think that it can benefit you in **your future career** if you have been exposed to a multilingual tertiary education environment?
   ……
   ……
   …….....
10. a. Do you understand both English and Afrikaans? [Yes……/No…….]
    b. If not,
    (i) do you understand the bilingual lectures? [Yes…./No…../Not applicable….] or
    (ii) do the bilingual lectures hamper your learning [Yes…./No…../Not applicable….]?
    c. Do you think it has **educational advantages** to hear more than one language in one class? [Yes…./No…..] Motivate.
    ……
    ……
    …….....

QUESTIONNAIRE 2A
AFTER POLITICAL SCIENCE 112 & 122 WEEKLY TERMINOLOGY TUTORIALS IN TERMS 1 & 2 2013

Name & surname:...:.....

A. HOME LANGUAGE

1. What is your home language?.....
2. Have you ever used your home language as language of instruction at:
   [Please mark with X]:
   a) preschool [Yes].....[No].....
   b) Grade 1 to 3 [Yes].....[No].....
   c) Grade 4-7 [Yes].....[No].....
   d) Grades 8 to 10 [Yes].....[No].....
   e) Grades 11 to 12 [Yes].....[No].....

B. THE WEEKLY TERMINOLOGY TUTORIALS

Describe in your own words in full sentences what were the most useful aspects of the weekly terminology tutorials that were presented in Terms 1 & 2 of 2013, even if you failed the modules. Please number the different aspects.

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

C. THE TRILINGUAL GLOSSARY

Describe in your own words what were the most useful aspects of **the trilingual glossary with definitions** (even if your home language is English). Please number the different aspects.

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

D. FAIL OR PASS:

1. Did you fail or pass Political Science 112?.....
2. Did you fail or pass Political Science 122?.....

3. If you failed any of these modules , what what would you say was the main reason for that?

   .....
   .....
   .....
   .....
   .....

Thank you very much for completing Questionnaire 2A.

QUESTIONNAIRE 2B
AFTER POLITICAL SCIENCE 112 & 122 WEEKLY TERMINOLOGY TUTORIALS IN TERMS 1 & 2 2013

Name & surname...:.....

A. THE WEEKLY TERMINOLOGY TUTORIALS [Please mark with X]

When you look back at the weekly terminology tutorials in the first semester of 2013, what was educationally the most helpful aspect of these terminology tutorials (irrespective of whether you passed the Political Science modules, or not)?

1. that I could read & understand the meaning of the technical terminology in my home language before the tutorials.
   [Not helpful at all].....[Quite useful]..... [Very useful].....

2. that we received a limited number of technical terms to prepare in depth every week before the tutorials.
   [Not helpful at all].....[Quite useful]..... [Very useful].....

3. that we discussed the terms and actively engaged about their meanings during the tutorials.
   [Not helpful at all].....[Quite useful]..... [Very useful].....

4. the realisation that I was not the only one who struggled to understand difficult concepts and that other students were just as confused and anxious about them.
   [Not helpful at all].....[Quite useful]..... [Very useful].....

5. that I felt that my own opinion about the practical application of a concept to my own cultural or language group made a contribution to the discussion of the concept in the tutorial.
   [Not helpful at all].....[Quite useful]..... [Very useful].....

6. that the technical terminology with definitions helped me to pass the module.
   [Not helpful at all].....[Quite useful]..... [Very useful].....

B. THE TRILINGUAL GLOSSARY

1. Which of the following did you use in your preparation for the weekly terminology tutorials? [Please mark with X]:

   a) original English terms with their definitions .....
   b) Xhosa terms with their definitions .....

c) Afrikaans terms with their definitions .....
d) a and b .....
e) a and c .....

2. FILL IN ONLY a) or b), whichever is applicable:

a) If you only used the English technical terminology with definitions, for what purpose did you it during the two Political Science modules?

i. reading (e.g. the text-book)
[never].....[sometimes].....[always].....

ii. listening / understanding (e.g. lectures)
[never].....[sometimes].....[always].....

iii. writing (e.g. essay writing)
[never].....[sometimes].....[always].....

iv. preparing for tests/examinations
[never].....[sometimes].....[always].....

v. preparing for weekly terminology tutorials
[never].....[sometimes].....[always].....

vi. understanding meaning of concepts
[never].....[sometimes].....[always].....

vii. engagement during terminology tutorials
[never].....[sometimes].....[always].....

b) If you used the Afrikaans or isiXhosa technical terminology with definitions, for what purpose did you it during the two Political Science modules?

i. reading (e.g. the text-book)
[never].....[sometimes].....[always].....

ii. listening / understanding (e.g. lectures)
[never].....[sometimes].....[always].....

iii. writing (e.g. essay writing)
[never].....[sometimes].....[always].....

iv. preparing for tests/examinations
[never].....[sometimes].....[always].....

v. preparing for weekly terminology tutorials
[never].....[sometimes].....[always].....

vi. understanding meaning of concepts
[never].....[sometimes].....[always].....

vii. engagement during terminology tutorials
[never].....[sometimes].....[always].....

Thank you very much for completing Questionnaire 2B.

The following two appendices are contained in a separate document:

APPENDIX D: Trilingual Glossary of Political Terms (Heywood, 2007)

APPENDIX E: Trilingual Glossary of International Relations Terms (McGowan et al., 2006)