UNIVERSITY OF CAPE TOWN
FACULTY OF EDUCATION

LIBRARIES AND ACADEMIC DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES IN SOUTH AFRICAN UNIVERSITIES

A dissertation presented in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Library and Information Science

by

MARY-LYNN CUTHBERTSON
(née Suttie)

DECEMBER
1992

CONTENTS

PREFACE

I first became interested in academic support in the early 1980s when I was a subject librarian at the University of Natal in Pietermaritzburg. Some of my colleagues there shared my concern that the library seemed aloof from the problems of under-prepared students. We began to improve our service by introducing various user education programmes. When I moved to Unisa in 1987, I was struck again by the lack of effective student-oriented library instruction, which sparked this particular research.

It was given a fillip by a British Council Fellowship in 1989 which introduced me to the work being done to make public libraries in the United Kingdom more accessible to members of the ethnic minorities. A grant from the De Beer's and Anglo-American Chairman's Fund also spurred me to present a preliminary paper on my findings at the Information 90 Conference at Bournemouth, England. This experience helped me to refine my ideas and main hypotheses.

I have relied on friends in the Unisa library and History Department to encourage, nudge and cajole me, especially when I began to sink under a welter of statistical data, endless photocopied articles and many overdue books. My sincerest thanks to Hleziphi Napaai, Karen and Hennie Harris, Cecilia du Plessis and Lorraine Grobler for their practical help and support. Jane Carruthers and Dorette Snyman drew my attention to important sources. Johannes du Bruyn and Nicholas Southey allowed my research to be conducted among the first-year history students of 1990. Professor Ben Liebenberg gave his blessing to the whole enterprise by giving me freedom to scrutinise the revised History I academic development programme.

Professor David Adey, Chief Director of the Bureau of

University Teaching at Unisa, registered this project in his department and assigned Oscar Kilpert to help me collect and analyse the empirical data. Mrs Dorette van Ede provided guidance in the design of my questionnaire.

I am grateful to my supervisor, Dr Mary Nassimbeni, for her pertinent comments on various drafts of this dissertation and for her generous encouragement.

Most of all I wish to thank my husband whose even temper nursed me through the rough patches and whose enthusiasm for the project was indispensable.

ABSTRACT

This dissertation examines the role of university libraries in academic support and development programmes in South Africa. It focuses on how libraries and librarians can assist under-prepared students whose educational backgrounds under apartheid have not equipped them for the transition from school to university. The socio-political, educational and library contexts are analysed in comparative perspective by looking at the experience of ethnic minorities in the United Kingdom. Issues of nation-building and multi-culturalism in both Britain and South Africa are critically discussed, and the institutional aspects of professional librarianship are construed as the backdrop of user education in academic libraries.

Academic development strategies in university libraries are reviewed under the rubric of affirmative action, racism awareness training, a multi-media environment, reading programmes and information retrieval and censorship. Recommendations are offered on the basis of an investigation of the literature on user education in libraries and its application to academic development for under-prepared students.

The contextual and theoretical approaches of the dissertation are tested in an empirical case study of a library instruction programme integrated into a first-year history course at the University of South Africa. The findings of this research are derived from data arising from two questionnaires which provide the dialectic between the theoretical and empirical chapters.

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

1. THE NATURE OF THE INVESTIGATION

Academic support or development programmes have assumed increasing importance in the teaching function of most South African universities. This dissertation examines the extent and nature of academic development programmes in the context of tertiary education libraries in general, particularly that of the University of South Africa (Unisa), which largely serves distance-education users by means of its correspondence courses.

Academic support has become a popular field of research in the past ten years. Many articles have been written about disadvantaged or under-prepared students who are the products of an inferior education - the result of institutionalised segregation in South Africa. But literature on academic support has concentrated almost exclusively on the initiatives of teaching departments in the progressive universities. Academic libraries have not featured in these discourses. My purpose is therefore to place them firmly in the teaching arena as facilitators of academic development, and to consider the potential educational role of librarians.

The notion of "academic support" as a separate function in university education aimed at helping under-prepared students bridge the gap between school and university, has been challenged by those in favour of an integrated programme of assistance within existing first-year courses, which is referred to as "academic development". In this approach, academic development is not an additional remedial course for under-prepared students, but a built-in

feature of the teaching enterprise throughout the university (Barnard, 1991). It is therefore designed to be non-discriminatory. The distinctions between academic support and academic development have been starkly drawn here, but there has, in fact, been an increasing blurring of the lines between them in practice. Many universities have adopted the most positive features of both in a creative synthesis.

This dissertation is concerned to show the viability of including university libraries in such a policy of academic development. The burden of my argument is that libraries should not be marginalised from the teaching function, but must be brought into the ambit of course work in a direct way.

My approach is mainly contextual and theoretical, offering an analysis of the education crisis in South Africa and the constraints which it places on coping with university tuition (especially in the case of black students), and an assessment of the literature on assisted learning and library user education in South Africa and the United Kingdom.

A comparative perspective on the innovations of public libraries serving multi-cultural communities in the United Kingdom, based upon my research there in 1989 under the aegis of the British Council, also forms a crucial component. One of my central arguments is that the experience of ethnic minorities in Britain is comparable with that of black South African students in some respects. Consequently, the strategies of British community libraries - especially those in inner-city areas - have significant relevance for South African university libraries.

It is also my contention that Unisa presents unique opportunities for academic development, and owing to the

interstitial role of the library in distance education, it is an appropriate subject for my research. Although Unisa is concerned mainly with distance tuition, more and more "full-time" students use the library on a daily basis. In these circumstances, it could assume what might be regarded as a surrogate teaching function. It is at the centre of the learning experience and represents the interface between the student and the university.

Finally, I offer an assessment of academic development for both categories of student - full-time and part-time - at Unisa, and suggest ways in which the library can play a more prominent part. It is my intention, therefore, to situate the library at the heart of my analysis as an agency of academic development.

2. THE MAIN ARGUMENTS OF THE DISSERTATION

The chapters of my dissertation are arranged in a way which places my detailed study in the broader context of education in South Africa (and to a lesser degree, the United Kingdom), in the hope that libraries are not seen as an extraneous feature. The empirical research, which is specifically focused on Unisa, is the subject of chapter 4 and is meant to illustrate and inform the content of my theoretical chapters.

Librarianship is inherently the product of Western education. It has been shaped by a literary tradition and informed by a rigorously bibliophilic outlook. Part of the dissertation focuses on the unease and reticence of mainly black undergraduates towards mainly white librarians, who represent a prevailing and dominant European literary and intellectual culture. The question of racism in the context of university libraries is therefore addressed. My empirical research (chapter 4) takes the argument further, by suggesting that the alienation of black students is also

due to their particular experience of and response to the institutional culture of Unisa itself.

An investigation of the literature on higher education for immigrants to the United Kingdom suggests that cultural and identity problems arising from the dislocation and alienation of being black intellectuals in a European or Western world are the major reasons for under-achievement (Jeffcoate, 1982; Lynch, 1987; Todd, 1991).

Moreover, the British tertiary education system is weighted against students from the ethnic minorities because of their predominantly working-class background, their schooling - which is conditioned by the stereotyping of blacks on the part of white pupils and teachers - their linguistic difficulties and their marginalisation in the college or university context (Hampton, Franklin & Allen, 1989; Jewson et al., 1991). I have used the term "ethnic minorities" in reference to the African, Asian and Caribbean citizens of the United Kingdom, who experience discrimination on grounds of race, colour or national origins.

Much of my dissertation aims to investigate the extent and nature of academic development in the History Department and in the library at Unisa. The emphasis is naturally on the problems of distance education and the special role of the library in this medium. The intention is to critique the Unisa methodology and policy as a means to finding new approaches that may be useful to other institutions and organisations which are presently entering this field.

A key argument is that the cornerstone of academic development is the relevance of the educational experience, and therefore the library, as a symbol, and its policies and procedures must reflect the interests and material circumstances of its students. In so doing it helps the

university to realise its traditional rationale as the custodian of academic freedom.

User education is perhaps the most practical approach to assisting under-prepared students and is a major part of my dissertation. It is important precisely because most black students who enter universities in South Africa have difficulty in finding appropriate material to satisfy either the demands of their course work or their own intellectual curiosity. Such difficulty is often the product of underprivileged home and school environments and a lack of experience in using a library. The term "under-prepared" is thus used to refer to this stratum of university students in South Africa.

I offer at least three reasons why librarians are bound to assume a leading role in academic development: first, they are facilitators of learning and are concerned with the promotion of reading, study and learning skills; secondly, they have the advantage of being brokers between the lecturer and student; and finally, librarianship is axiomatic to academic development in that it assists users in finding information, teaching research techniques and fostering critical thinking.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Contextual approach

I am particularly concerned to see the university library in the broader context of education in South Africa. For this reason, I consider the ramifications of black education on tertiary institutions. I have used the term "black" to denote African students specifically, and have focused mainly on the effects of their school education under the aegis of the Department of Education and Training (DET). Essentially, one would like to avoid racial

terminology such as "black students", but as Kallaway (1987: 37) has pointed out "race as an analytical category presents itself forcefully to anyone concerned with understanding the dynamics of South African society".

3.2 Theoretical approach

My approach is mainly theoretical because the library has never espoused an active role in academic development programmes at South African universities. Increasingly, however, the reality of high student failure rates and a re-definition of the function of universities in the African context make my study extremely relevant. I shall therefore theorise about the role of libraries in academic development in the 1990s by referring to the more general theoretical perspectives on multicultural higher education offered by non-librarians. An attempt is made to apply the insights of this literature to university libraries. Moreover, the theoretical framework which emerges then informs the empirical research that follows in chapter 4.

3.3 Comparative approach

Where appropriate in this dissertation, I use the British experience of public and community libraries in their efforts to redress the educational disadvantages associated with students from the ethnic minorities in order to buttress my arguments in respect of the South African university libraries.

3.4 Empirical approach

In the final section of the dissertation, I offer an empirical study in order to test my theoretical analysis. Here, the focus is on library strategies for under-prepared students at a distance-education university, namely Unisa. In this regard, I worked closely with the Department of

History at Unisa (in the reshaping of its first-year course), which itself is exploring various ways of assisting its students. My own position as the subject librarian for history has allowed me greater access to student data and staff opinion in that teaching department, which is likely to make my research more valid and authoritative.

Furthermore, Unisa does not have a coherent policy on academic development as yet, and few faculties have actually devised programmes. Consequently, the more than 1 800 first-year history students registered in 1990 represent the target group of my empirical study. The main source of data were the replies to a questionnaire which was sent to all the students in this group. The questionnaire was designed to investigate the role of the library in academic tuition. The analysis of perceptions and academic performance of these HST 100-M (History I) students makes up the core of my statistical information.

However, I also used those "full-time" Unisa history students, within the larger target group, who frequent the library on a regular basis, as an experimental group for testing some of my remedial strategies. This group attended a weekly tutorial given by the Unisa history lecturers. I therefore had access to them and was able to work with the teaching staff to monitor their academic progress.

4. LITERATURE SURVEY

The education crisis and challenge (Hartshorne, 1992; Millar et al, 1991; Unterhalter et al, 1991), academic development and university libraries in South Africa, and strategies for assisting disadvantaged users of public libraries in the United Kingdom, with special reference to the ethnic minorities, are among the main themes which are examined in my dissertation. There is a plethora of

disparate sources on these issues, but they have not been systematised, nor have academic libraries featured prominently. The appropriate literature is discussed in each of the theoretical chapters (2 to 3).

Academic support or development programmes (cf. chapter 3, section 1) in South African universities have their protagonists and detractors, especially in teaching departments. Much has been written in this field since the 1980s and the literature is now extensive. It derives mainly from the assumption that universities operate in the wider context of a country undergoing unprecedented social and political upheaval. The rationale for academic support is that

> universites [have to] go beyond verbal condemnation of racist education and lip service to the cause of freedom and start playing an active role in the process of educational and social transformation (Kotzé, 1990: 13).

Hunter (1989) has evaluated the implementation and expansion of the academic support programme (ASP) at the University of the Witwatersrand between 1981 and 1988. He looks specifically at the influence of ASP on the improvement of mainstream teaching and on other aspects of university policy and practice related to the changing composition of the student body.

But perhaps the most significant and controversial study on academic support is that by Hofmeyr and Spence (1989), in which they provide a critique of ASP in the historically white universities over a ten-year period. Their conclusion is that the financial outlay on ASP would be more beneficial if it were spent on primary education. They argue that educational under-preparedness needs to be addressed at the earliest educational encounter.

At Unisa, Jackson (1990) has devised and assessed an academic support programme in the Theory of Literature course. She taught study skills through the application of a positive and creative approach to reading, which helped first-year students to progress beyond the "learning-to-read stage" to the "read-to-learn and think stage". Such initiatives are the stock in trade of various journals of higher education, such as ASPects, published in the 1980s, and the South African journal of higher education.

In the field of mathematics and engineering, the under-supply of qualified manpower has led to the implementation of a long-term academic support strategy. Gray and Muller's report (1990) reflects the extensive current research being undertaken to improve the scientific skills of university students from disadvantaged backgrounds. They point out that for any ASP to be successful, an evaluation process is essential.

The debate about the desirability and viability of strategies for assisting under-prepared students is only beginning to be conducted in library forums. Bell (1990) has written the most informative study on the role of university libraries in academic development to date. Her focus is on a user education programme for black students at the University of Natal, Pietermaritzburg. She has devised a detailed and specific model which is extensively tested in her empirical analysis, but the larger educational context, especially in respect of academic development is not given any prominence in her work. For this reason, my theoretical chapters (2 & 3) attempt to fill this gap.

Behrens (1991) has also made an important contribution to our understanding of the library's role in university education. She concentrates on library literacy among first-year students and the extent to which library skills

are expected and taught. My research is also informed by Behrens's finding that

> until such time as school-leavers have the full range of information skills, library skills will need to be taught and assessed at South African universities, otherwise large numbers of university graduates are likely to be library illiterate (1991: 124).

My dissertation had its genesis in an article which was published in 1990 on libraries and academic development strategies in South African universities (Suttie, 1990(b)). It situated libraries in the context of apartheid education and proposed some palliative measures to redress its effects on black university students.

The literature in the field of library education for under-prepared users is fairly limited, especially in South Africa, where pioneering studies are only now beginning to appear. The Zaaiman report (1988) provides only a short chapter on the role of university libraries in education. The most evocative research on the position of university libraries in the South African context is that published by Merrett (1988(a); 1988(b)). Walker has also highlighted the need to equip librarians for the special role of the library in the development of a "future more African South Africa" (1988: 134).

The British literature is much richer, but relates to the role of public rather than university libraries in the context of race relations and ethnic minority users (Clough & Quarmby, 1978; Price, 1989; Rasmussen & Herrera-Keightley, 1989). Community librarianship has become a feature of British library services, and there is a new but limited corpus of information on its methodology and praxis (Astbury, 1989). The public library in the South African literature has increasingly attracted the attention of researchers who are keen to explore its role in community dynamics (Lor, 1991(a); Louw, 1992; Stilwell, 1989). I have

drawn on some of their insights in an attempt to apply the notion of a "community library" to the academic library in certain salient respects.

Chapter 2

THE SOCIO-POLITICAL, EDUCATIONAL AND LIBRARY CONTEXT OF ACADEMIC DEVELOPMENT

1. SOCIO-POLITICAL AND EDUCATIONAL CONTEXT IN SOUTH AFRICA

1.1 The educational crisis

Samuel has recently argued that

> armoured vehicles, riot police, fences and patrolling soldiers have become a regular part of the educational scene in many black schools and universities in South Africa. Today [1990] this is the most obvious manifestation of what has been described as the "educational crisis" confronting this country (1990: 17).

It would be inappropriate to do more than give an outline of the educational crisis in South Africa. Nevertheless, an appreciation of the effects of apartheid education is essential in order to set the parameters of any attempts by university libraries to prepare themselves for a post-apartheid era. The political realities of the country impinge upon academic libraries even more urgently than on other media centres, precisely because their users are highly politicised. Black demands for education have become a rallying cry of the mass democratic struggle against domination (Bundy, 1989).

Since the Soweto uprising of 1976, education has played an important but changing role in the confrontation between the national liberation movement and the government. Some phases of this role have been identified in the recent literature. For instance, Wolpe (1988: 202) argues that the restructuring of black education under the Bantu Education

Act (1953) resulted in an enormous rise in the number of pupils attending schools: between 1954 and 1975 the African pupil population grew from 860 000 to 3 697 441. He avers that the dramatic industrial and economic expansion experienced by South Africa in the 1960s required large resources of skilled and semi-skilled labour. Bantu Education ensured the supply of just such a poorly educated and subordinated labour force.

State funding of black education was extremely low even as late as the 1980s, resulting in poorly trained and unqualified teachers. In 1988, 76,7 per cent of teachers in African schools in white designated areas and "non-independent" homelands did not have a three-year, post-matriculation teacher's certificate or diploma (SAIRR, 1989/90: 839).

There was also a lack of laboratories and libraries, inadequate buildings and cramped recreational areas. Teachers experienced unrealistic demands on their time:

> Heavy workloads make preparation almost impossible for them. "If you have to teach four different classes - each of up to 50 students - in four different subjects, and you have a minimum of 42 classes a week, when do you prepare?...The DET doesn't even know the children they're designing the system for...the DET doesn't visit here as often as the police do" (Gqubule, 1989(b)).

Syllabuses were devised to endorse notions of white superiority, and subjects such as mathematics and science were hardly taught (Bot & Schlemmer, 1986: 8). In sum, Bantu Education was "successful" in limiting the advancement of blacks by often denying them adequate access to the basic skills of literacy and numeracy. Chisholm states that "the legacy of illiteracy, innumeracy and lack of high-level skills in the mass of the population is one of the highest costs of apartheid" (1992: 281).

1.2 The historical background to the educational crisis

The historical legacy of Bantu Education has been anything but the creation of a servile population. Rather, it has produced a robust oppositional ideology rooted in political struggle and nurtured by the strategies of Black Consciousness during the 1970s. Education became the site of conflict and Bantu Education was attacked by school pupils and university students through demonstrations and stayaways (Kallaway, 1986: 19-20).

During the next phase in the confrontation between the state and students, organizations such as the Congress of South African Students (COSAS) directed the political agenda. Between 1980 and 1983 the slogan of "Liberation First, Education Later" held sway. Then in 1983 the schools boycott centred on demands for free textbooks, properly qualified teachers, official recognition of Students' Representative Councils (SRCs), the abolition of corporal punishment, and so on. Increasingly the conflict was about state control of schools and "people's power in education". The boycott of 1984 to 1985 gained widespread support and the Department of Education and Training (DET) responded by closing many schools. COSAS was banned in August 1985 and the South African Defence Force occupied numerous black townships, precipitating a large-scale political crisis which culminated in the Uitenhage uprising and the State of Emergency (Alexander, 1990: 25-48).

The breakdown of the schooling system caused many to be deprived of a further education. Arising out of the students' failure to use the boycotts effectively to advance the educational struggle, the National Education Crisis Committee (NECC) was formed in 1986. It adopted the stance of "people's education for people's power", which was implicitly critical of purely negative opposition to Bantu Education. It was agreed that boycotts should be

replaced by new "people's education" teaching programmes associated with alternative education (Muller, 1987: 24-26). Therefore this phase of school boycotts eventually ended in January 1987. The demand for an alternative people's education has important implications for universities in South Africa and led some academics to call for a reappraisal of their role and function in the light of these developments (Chisholm, 1992; Wolpe, 1988).

Hartshorne (1988: 56) has pointed out that whites have generally believed that "Bantu Education" can be improved through the allocation of more funds and provision of better physical conditions at schools. The emphasis has therefore been on finance, provision and quantity. But blacks are concerned rather with quality, relevance of syllabuses, ideological agendas, black control and participation, and people's education.

The early 1980s were characterised by struggles related to the control of schooling, the mid 1980s by conflicts about educational content, the late 1980s and early 1990s by the considerable destruction of schools and contests about access. On account of these dramatic developments, black pupils who had failed the matriculation examination in increasing numbers were not reabsorbed into the education system because the age restrictions were stringently applied. This put more and more pressure on white schools to open their doors to black students after 1989. As a direct consequence, the three controversial models of "white" schools were introduced by the then Minister of Education, Piet Clase, in 1990. This de-segregation policy was, however, mainly confined to English-medium urban schools (Chisholm, 1992).

In sum, the 1980s saw a shift in the form of struggles taking place in schools. Links were often explicitly made between political and educational issues. Therefore,

students were frequently engaged in battles with scant educational content. The overall effect on schools was that "the battlefields of the 1980s became the wastelands of the 1990s" (Chisholm, 1992: 284).

1.3 The legacy of apartheid education

Even in the early 1990s the legacy of apartheid education remains a focus of discontent. School boycotts by teachers and pupils have become the standard form of protest and it is estimated that approximately 200 000 children stayed away from classes each day in 1990 (Kilroe, 1990). More alarming still was the fact that the education crisis threatened to disqualify a quarter of a million prospective matriculants from writing the school-leaving examination at the end of 1990, because of inadequate preparation (Van der Merwe, 1990).

The effects of the education crisis of 1985 to 1992 have been felt most keenly in tertiary educational institutions, where black students are often found to be "functionally illiterate" and do not possess the analytical skills basic to education at a university, technikon or teachers' training college (Karani, 1988). The libraries of such institutions must be drawn into stemming this spiral of deteriorating educational conditions. Grogarn uses the term "functional illiteracy" to mean

> that although one can read and write, one's ability to do so does not meet the high demands made by today's complicated information society ... students are incapable of reading what they want and need to be able to read (1989: 16).

2. THE DILEMMA OF ETHNIC MINORITES IN BRITAIN

2.1 Education and the ethnic minorities

The ethnic minorities in Britain have been engaged in a rather different political and educational struggle,

particularly since the late 1960s. The disabilities they have experienced have not been the result of constitutionally entrenched racism, but of a more structural "genteel racism" (Sivanandan, 1985: 30). Discrimination in Britain is implicit and covert, partly the result of the mono-cultural nature of its institutions. It is also clear that because blacks in South Africa represent the majority of the population their political struggle differs quite considerably from that waged by British ethnic minority groups.

Male (1989) explains that ethnic minorities generally wished to be acculturated, especially the West Indians, but this was an extremely slow process due to the colour bias of white Britons and their distrust of outsiders. The exclusivity of British society exhibited most profoundly in schools, maintained a rigidly British ethos. Ethnic minorities were supposed to adapt to this prevailing cultural chauvinism. However, minority leaders in 1973 rejected adaptation, arguing that

> it is no longer a question of minority groups accommodating, adjusting or assimilating; it is a question of mutual understanding, of learning from one another, of absorbing one another's culture at all levels, and of finding something of the best in them all (Morrish, 1971).

Educational authorities in Britain consistently played down the political importance of minorities in their central and local planning during the 1960s and 1970s, and little was done to shift curricula towards a multi-cultural orientation. Moreover, state funding, mainly via the Home Office, was not directly channelled to redress the disadvantages suffered by ethnic minorities, though this was its intention. Instead, it was filtered through local borough councils (in terms of Section 11 of the 1966 Local Government Act) and was distributed to projects for generally "disadvantaged" sections of the population. These included all those who experienced urban deprivation and

therefore finances were not exclusively allocated to ethnic minorities.

Consequently, social rather than ethnic disadvantage was the touchstone of British educational funding until the end of the 1970s. It was intended that the ethnic minorities should be assimilated into British society through the education system (Tomlinson, 1986: 187-91).

2.2 Policy changes in education

Educational policy changed in Britain in 1980. This was partly due to a change of government in 1979, but also to a larger, worldwide debate about assimilation versus pluralism, and a more parochial pressure from the ethnic minorities themselves. The Scarman Report on the civil disturbances of 1981 had a profound impact upon education; it linked school failures and unemployment among the minorities to a "propensity to riot" (Tomlinson, 1986: 192). This forced educational managers to consciously tackle the Eurocentrism of British school curricula and curb the racism of white pupils. Many Local Education Authorities (LEAs) introduced anti-racism campaigns, enforced equal opportunities programmes, and some even formulated policy statements which dealt specifically with multi-cultural education (Tomlinson, 1986: 192-203).

Perhaps the most influential intervention was the appointment by the government of the Swann Commission in 1985. Its mandate was to inquire into the education of ethnic minorities, and its recommendations were encapsulated in the slogan "Education for all" (Swann, 1985). It also focused on the low educational achievements of West Indians compared to Asian and other minority school children (Sanderson, 1987: 11). More important, however, the report shifted the emphasis in British education from assimilation to multi-culturalism, which envisaged the

recognition of distinctive and diverse cultures within British society. It attempted to accord some kind of equality to minority cultures, which were to be maintained rather than replaced by the dominant culture (Haydon, 1987:13).

The Swann Commission also catalysed the revision of central government funding for minorities, the provision of better teacher training, and the inauguration of a more committed anti-racist policy. It rejected the previous norm that in a decentralised education system, central government should not dictate policies to LEAs and schools, especially if the alternative was the perpetuation of unco-ordinated and different kinds of multi-culturalism (CORE, 1985(b): 1-19).

Some criticisms of the Swann report are worth mentioning: first, its advice against the introduction of separate Muslim schools because they were deemed divisive was regarded as a contradiction of the concept "education for all", since other religious schools enjoyed autonomy; secondly, the rejection of bilingual instruction in schools often precluded the appointment of ethnic minority teachers and thus prevented "positive discrimination"; and thirdly, it did not offer a policy "with the teeth...[to] ensure that indifference, lethargy, or even hostility to the removal of...[racism], are not permitted to continue" (Duvall, 1987: 89).

In 1987 the Education Reform Bill attracted criticism from the Commission for Racial Equality (CORE) on the ground that it would adversely affect race relations. CORE listed a number of discriminatory features implicit in the proposed legislation, which were ignored when the bill was passed into law. The demise of the Inner London Education Authority (ILEA) was perhaps the most significant loss for ethnic minorities, who had benefited from its initiatives and policies on their behalf (CORE, 1987: 44). Its

abolition was particularly construed as a deliberate attack by the Thatcher government on the gains made by ILEA's anti-racist and equal opportunities policies in education (Davies, Holland & Minhas, 1990: 6). By 1990 British education was dramatically changed by the introduction of the new National Curriculum and the demise of the ILEA.

2.3 The problems of ethnic minorities

The problems of ethnic minorities in the British education system are well documented (Lynch, 1987; Troyna & Williams, 1986; Verma & Ashworth, 1986) and it is only necessary to highlight some of the inherent contradictions. First, there is the difficulty of maintaining an equilibrium in an education system which attempts simultaneously to provide equal opportunities and to recognise cultural diversity as major goals.

Secondly, British education is highly decentralised and authority has largely devolved to the local level, resulting in inconsistencies of policy and therefore various anomalies.

Thirdly, there is a residual resistance on the part of whites to accept that the nature of British society has changed dramatically in its cultural makeup.

Fourthly, equal opportunity in education has not resulted in increased access by minorities to higher education. In fact, most inner city schools do not generally offer high status academic curricula and therefore perpetuate lower level achievement. They lack the skills and resources to ensure academic success to their students, many of whom belong to the ethnic minorities (Tomlinson, 1986: 196-99). Fryer also argues that the children of West Indian parents in particular are three to four times as likely as white children to be classed as educationally subnormal; and that

proportionally few black children continue their studies beyond secondary school (1984: 389).

Fifthly, there has been little attempt to attract more black teachers: in 1980 about six percent of pupils in British schools were of Afro-Caribbean or Asian origin, yet there were fewer than 1 000 black teachers out of a workforce of some 500 000 (Carr-Hill & Chadha-Boreham, 1988: 154). In 1986 a survey by CORE found only 300 ethnic minority student teachers out of 12 000 in colleges of education (Black teacher, 1986). Brandt confirms these dismal statistics in his claim that institutional racism has worked to reproduce itself through the virtually exclusive recruitment of white teachers to the profession. Therefore, black pupils have not had black role models and have "failed to see any real positive valuing of themselves or the racially defined groups to which they belong" (Black teacher, 1986: 129).

Finally, it is problematical whether or not equal opportunity can easily be attained in modern Britain in the face of a socially complex, competitive, hierarchical and capitalist society.

3. NATION-BUILDING AND MULTI-CULTURALISM IN SOUTH AFRICA

3.1 The discourses of nation-building and multi-culturalism

Libraries, no less than other educational organisations in South Africa, have to come to terms with an international discourse on "nation-building" and "multi-culturalism", which impinges on the restructuring of education. Multi-culturalism in Britain has become a controversial topic and has been challenged by anti-racists who argue that cultural pluralism has the potential to reinforce, rather than dismantle, racism (Straker-Welds, 1984: 246-47).

For this reason, it is important not to transfer uncritically the multi-cultural discourse, which emanates from majoritarian, democratic political environments to the turbulent and volatile circumstances prevailing in South Africa. However, academic libraries in South Africa may benefit by imitating some of the successful multi-cultural programmes devised mainly by public libraries to assist the ethnic minorities in Britain (CORE, 1980; Library Association, 1985; Talbot, 1991; Vincent, 1986).

Degenaar (1990) has pointed out the complexity of the notion of "nation-building" in South Africa, where it has many either discrete or overlapping meanings. He refers, for instance, to ethnic nationalism, broad South Africanism, bi-communalism, socialism, social democracy, social homogenisation and plural democracy as being different agents and forms of nation-building. Therefore, the term has to be carefully deconstructed before it becomes a useful concept. He suggests that nation-building, in the South African context, has to separate the idea of a cultural nation from the notion of the state, and group identity from ethnicity.

This is extremely difficult in the South African educational system, where race is an index of privilege, and where it has shaped under-preparedness among university students. Somehow nation-building has to mean transforming disadvantage into equality, which entails dealing with racial cleavages through racism awareness training. And education for nation-building presumably also means education for political and cultural transformation.

"Multi-culturalism" is also a key concept in the literature on libraries in the United Kingdom which serve the ethnic minorities (Martin, 1989; Talbot, 1990; Thompson, 1991). It has been axiomatic to much thinking about education in Britain too (Todd, 1991). But the literature reflects a

variety of meanings of multi-culturalism. Approaches to multi-cultural education include, for instance, education for an "emergent society", of the "culturally different", for "cultural understanding", for cultural "accommodation" or "preservation", and education for "multi-cultural adaptation" (Spinola, 1991).

3.2 Approaches to multi-culturalism

These approaches are variously designed to foster assimilation into the dominant culture, to inculcate an appreciation and acceptance of other cultures, or to promote a cultural pluralism in which the equality of all groups is ensured by political empowerment and the preservation of language and cultural identity. In South Africa, however, there is the danger that multi-culturalism may be used only for the cultural and political preservation of whites in the face of democratic influences. This may cast multi-culturalism in chauvinistic terms and therefore lessen its efficacy in achieving educational transformation. It must not be allowed to retain ethnically defined group identity under the cover of a respectable international discourse on cultural emphases in library development (Kallaway, 1991: 13-14).

However, multi-cultural education - once its proneness to distortion in the South African context of minority rule is clearly identified - has potential for "cultural understanding", "cultural competence" and even "cultural emancipation" (McCarthy, 1990: 42). In academic libraries there is a need to build racial harmony through a heightened sensitivity and appreciation of cultural differences, and by bridging the gap between dominated and dominant cultures. But librarians will have to go even further, by adopting the approach which aims at cultural emancipation. This means that the chances of success among

under-prepared users has to be dramatically improved until parity with privileged students is attained.

In the British context, education for cultural emancipation means opening up new opportunities for minorities in a context of non-racialism. In South Africa, it means providing avenues of advancement for the disadvantaged majority. This will, of necessity, require that structural inequities are reversed and that resources are more fairly distributed in the educational field.

4. PROBLEMS OF UNDER-PREPARED USERS OF ACADEMIC LIBRARIES

4.1 Financial constraints

The most recent assessments of black education in South Africa consistently identify the lack of state funding as one of the formative reasons for the poor quality of secondary schooling. Indeed, the statistics show unequivocally that black education has languished financially, not least since the 1970s.

In 1976, for instance, the per capita expenditure on black education was R48,55 compared with R654,00 for white education (a ratio of 1:13,47) (SAIRR, 1978: 399). Twelve years later the proportional per capita outlay by the state had improved, but the tendency in favour of whites remained the same: black pupils received R655,96 and whites R2 882,00 (a ratio of 1:4,39) (SAIRR, 1989/90: 795). However, these statistics do not reflect the dramatic heightening of black educational expectations during this period.

Chisholm (1992: 282-4) has argued convincingly that unequal spending on black and white remains the source of much educational discontent. In spite of large increases in expenditure on black education, the per capita lag is still unacceptable and the ten year plan to finance its

upgrading, announced by F.W. de Klerk who was Minister of National Education in 1986, was abandoned in 1989 for economic reasons. It is clear in Chisholm's view, therefore, that the transformation of education will require a larger transformation of the economy and society.

The lack of funds impinged upon the teaching function by curtailing the scope of education in high schools. One of the casualties under conditions of financial stringency is always the provision of library resources (Verbeek, 1986: 38). Those library administrators who are faced with the effects of declining university subsidies do not need to be persuaded of this fact. At least, they have developed an infrastructure which can temporarily survive such exigencies. Where none exists, as in the case of most black schools, the system becomes one of rote learning, little reading and a lack of inquiry (Bot & Schlemmer, 1986: 8-9). Financial hardships also affect the capacity of many students to purchase increasingly expensive textbooks, which further exacerbates the lack of a critical intellectual culture.

Moreover, state finances are invested in keeping a basic, if inadequate, teaching corps in the classrooms, which leaves librarianship in the more generously endowed corridors of white education. In many black schools there is a shortage of rudimentary textbooks, let alone library reference works.

4.2 Technocratic elitism in academic libraries

Another constraint of inadequate funding is the lack of modern equipment in black schools, which obviously results in an unfamiliarity with electronic developments (Gordon, 1988: 63). Technology is a mystical commodity in South Africa, since about 23 million people (of the 37,5 million total population (SAIRR, 1991/2: 2)) do not even have

electricity (Energy for Africa, 1992: 92). This explains why many school teachers are afraid of electronic aids in the classroom. Moulder asserts that for this reason "the revolution has got to start in the curriculum. We have to train teachers to be totally comfortable with calculators and radios, and to know how to use them to enrich their teaching" (1991(a): 108).

Many black university students, on entering campus libraries, are confronted by the mysteries of computerised information retrieval. Naturally, the encounter is intimidating and many experience feelings of inadequacy and alienation. Librarians have to soften this harsh encounter by acting as conduits of technological skills.

The advent of information technology in South Africa therefore has serious implications for the educationally under-prepared. University libraries, which are at the forefront of this media revolution, run the risk of becoming inaccessible to the technologically uninitiated. Dalton (1989) has pertinently drawn our attention to the creation of "an electronic elite" in the fields of communication and information. Technocratic elitism serves only to distance libraries and librarians from the rank and file of South African students.

4.3 Alien ambience

Elitism in university libraries is not confined to their technological mystique. It extends to the practice of librarianship itself, which has been shaped by a Western literary outlook. Consequently, librarians often assume a forbidding aspect, which discourages many students from asking for information or assistance (Suttie, 1990(b): 101). Added to this is the dimension of South African racism which often makes for unease and reticence on the

part of black university undergraduates towards white librarians.

Stilwell (1991: 5) regards the Western library tradition as inappropriate to the needs of the majority of South Africa's population. Libraries have been perceived as accomplices of suspect authorities, party to discrimination against a large section of the population and supportive of practices such as censorship. This legacy detracts from the appeal of university libraries among black students who interpret the intellectual milieu as a symbol of cultural imperialism.

Moreover, many black students have limited knowledge of libraries and their functions, are unfamiliar with their bureaucratic procedures, and baffled by their often confusing design. Small wonder then that students use the library merely as a social venue, unaware of its central role in the university curriculum. Librarians need to focus more attention on the resourcefulness of the university library in reaching its student users. Lor (1991(a): 4) has observed that "traditionally librarians refer people who need information to reference books; they do not advise, interpret or get involved in the user's problem". By coming alongside the student in a helpful way, the academic library could lessen its remoteness and foster a positive image of erudition.

4.4 Deficient general knowledge and inexpert approaches to learning

Owing to the disabilities they inherit in black school education, many university students are unable to fit the specialised knowledge they learn in degree courses into a larger framework of general knowledge. This means that effective research and information retrieval is inhibited by the lack of a wider understanding of the world.

Information is not necessarily inaccessible because students lack library skills, but rather because their intellectual background has not been enriched by a generalist education at school.

Poor schooling, with its concomitants of minimal exposure to different kinds of knowledge, dispensed by ill-qualified teachers, and uncritical approaches to study, haunts the average black student, who at university is suddenly faced with a plethora of opinions and theories in lectures or in tutorial material.

In the library, the student is further overwhelmed by the range of books listed in course-work bibliographies, that somehow have to be marshalled to produce a coherent piece of writing, or be applied to the solution of a complicated scientific poser.

4.5 Linguistic difficulties

These disabilities are compounded by linguistic complications which arise from the exclusive use of English or Afrikaans as the medium of instruction in South African universities (Saunders, 1991). The use of English is a sensitive, increasingly political issue in the negotiation process about education in a post-apartheid South Africa. Moulder is, however, quite blunt about its status as the language of education: "if one wants to aquire knowledge, or to open the doors of learning...then one's English must be fluent. It is the language in which most of the world's knowledge is stored" (1991(a): 107).

This point needs little further elaboration here, given the copious literature on second language tuition which has been produced in recent years (Murray, 1990; Singh & Haythornthwaite, 1988; Tucker, 1988; Zaslansky, 1987). It should, however, be emphasised that libraries are

intrinsically literary banks which require certain linguistic skills to be profitable to their users. In circumstances where some university students are "functionally illiterate" (Chisholm, 1992: 281), libraries need to provide a remedial service.

4.6 Unisa: a special case

Until the introduction of more stringent admission requirements in 1988, the substantial handicaps which have been enumerated above were concentrated in the average student at Unisa, the largest distance-education university in Africa. The entrance qualifications were extremely low, in keeping with Unisa's policy of admitting mature students who did not possess matriculation exemption (Jooste, 1988; Unisa in a changing..., 1989: 65-66). This had the effect of students being admitted to academic courses in which they had little or no previous grounding. Those enrolled for the History I (HST 100-M) course provide evidence of the problems of such an "open" admissions policy (cf. chapter 4).

The consequences of teaching these history students, 42 per cent of whom had only conditional exemption and 41 per cent of whom had either not written or had failed history at matriculation level, are not difficult to appreciate (Kilpert, 1985)(These statistics have remained remarkably constant between 1985 and 1990 - cf. chapter 4, section 2.3.3). Nor is it hard to gauge the problem this must have presented to the university library.

The academic prognosis for such a class of almost 2 000 students in 1984 was bound to be dismal. Only 25 per cent of those who registered, passed History I (HST 100-M). The adoption of a more concerted didactic approach - which concentrated on the communication of researching and writing skills - by the lecturing staff led to better

results by 1988, when more than 36 per cent passed (Unisa, 1988). By 1990 these had improved even more dramatically in the wake of the academic development programme introduced as the basis of the research discussed in chapter 4. The pass rate in HST 100-M rose to 55 per cent.

However, this case study demonstrates the seriousness of the dilemma that faces Unisa now, and will face other historically "white" universities in the near future: how "open" should tertiary education be, and how are we prepared to modify our institutions to cope with such a challenge?

Professor Cas van Vuuren, the rector of Unisa, argues that Unisa's aim is to supplement the role of residential universities, not to compete with or replace them. Therefore, it has not offered engineering or medical degrees, for example. Its task is geared to providing in-service training for many of the professions, especially education, law, commerce and nursing. He believes that Unisa can raise the educational level of the country, regardless of the utilitarian value of its degrees. In Van Vuuren's view, "Unisa has a moral responsibility to educate as many people as possible to the highest standard possible" (Unisa in a changing..., 1989: 74).

On the issue of Africanisation, Unisa exemplifies the rapid increase in black enrolment, which requires a major re-think about its curricula and syllabuses. There is, however, ambiguity about what is understood by Africanisation. Van Vuuren suggests that it may lead to a lowering of academic standards which would be unacceptable to the university authorities and black students alike.

Moulder (1989), on the other hand, calls for an African standard for African conditions. For him, Africanisation is the natural transformation of universities to meet the

requirements of increasing numbers of black students, whose cultural orientation is not necessarily Western. He argues more specifically that universities, and Unisa is not excluded, should become centres of educational competence rather than excellence.

As far as academic development is concerned, Unisa regards this as intrinsic to all its undergraduate courses. The intention is that students from all school backgrounds should be admitted to university study in the hope that Unisa's standards are obtained by continually improving its didactical methods to remedy any educational inequalities. Such a notion of academic support is sometimes referred to as "mainstreaming" (Hunter, 1989; Warren, 1992).

The minimum entrance requirement for study at Unisa is usually a matriculation exemption, but for students over 23 years a standard 10 senior certificate is acceptable, provided they register for only one course in their first year of study. Furthermore, Unisa's admission policy does not use a points system based on matriculation symbols in particular subjects, which is generally applied at most residential universities. For this reason academic development has wide applicability at Unisa.

4.7 The British experience: education and ethnic minorities

The educational warp within which the ethnic minorities in Britain are caught has prevented most of them from entering institutions of higher learning. Consequently, there is a dearth of information about how they cope with the demands of a university or polytechnic education. Such literature as there is, however, gives the major reasons for under-achievement as cultural and identity problems arising from the dislocation and alienation of being black intellectuals in a white world (Tomlinson, 1983). The disabilities

experienced by the minorities are shared by a larger international student population, mainly from Commonwealth countries, who are studying in Britain on scholarships.

Moreover, the British tertiary education system is weighted against black students because of their predominantly working-class backgrounds, their schooling which was conditioned by stereotyping of blacks on the part of white pupils and teachers, their linguistic difficulties, and their marginalisation in the college or university context (Gow, 1989: 29; Hampton, Franklin & Allen, 1989: 57).

5. CLEAVAGES IN PROFESSIONAL LIBRARIANSHIP IN SOUTH AFRICA

5.1 South African Institute for Librarianship and Information Science (SAILIS)

Any assessment of academic development in university libraries has to take the professional backdrop of librarianship into account, since staff are generally recruited on the basis of their qualifications and affiliation to recognised professional organisations. Such bodies often reflect the nature and orientation of a profession, control its direction and may even proscribe policies and regulate practice among its members.

Most academic librarians in South Africa are members of SAILIS, which until 1990 was the main body representing the profession, since the African Library Association of South Africa (ALASA) remained relatively small an uninfluential. Although SAILIS is not a statutory organisation, it is the single accrediting agency with power to formulate standards for education and training in librarianship. Its history has therefore been closely linked to the professionalisation of librarianship. Like other professional associations in South Africa it has also been

profession and praxis. Merrett (1988(b): 2) alleges that there has been a "mistaken belief that professional respect can be derived from structures, titles and qualifications, plans and codes" which "inclines towards corporate identity rather than individual initiative and insight". He contends that this betrays how extensively "authoritarian thought patterns of white nationalism" undergird the ethos of SAILIS.

SAILIS remains powerful in ensuring conformity within the profession by its virtual insistence on membership by those who wish to practise librarianship (Aman, 1987). This tendency has relaxed to some extent since 1991 as SAILIS's hegemony has been challenged by the emergence of the Library and Information Workers' Organisation (LIWO), which was formed in July 1990.

4.2 Library and Information Workers' Organisation (LIWO)

LIWO owes its origin and growth to the increasing dissatisfaction of many library workers with SAILIS. It set out specifically to address the social and political context of librarianship and to constitute a lobby of "social activists" rather than "mere cultural bureaucrats", and to radicalise the dissemination of information (Suttie, 1990(a): 7). This image has made it an attractive alternative association to SAILIS, which exudes an establishment aura and invokes notions of elitism to safeguard its control of information brokerage. Horton, however, does not regard LIWO as a competitor with SAILIS, but "rather as a progressive, creditable alternative for all library and information workers, most of whom are ineligible for voting membership in SAILIS" (1991: 64).

The modus vivendi of LIWO is to pursue the information needs of the powerless in South Africa, as a counter to the

> collaboration of the establishment with those who wield enormous power both economically and politically and who are responsible for the repressive nature of the society...(Merrett, 1990(a): 30).

It is clear, therefore, that librarianship in South Africa has become politically polarised between SAILIS and LIWO (and ALASA to a lesser extent because of its low profile). This cleavage perhaps symbolises another division between librarians preoccupied with the transfer of "First-world" technology, especially computerisation, and those who are committed to redefining the role of libraries - including university repositories - in a "Third-world" society.

Underwood (1992) in an analysis of professionalism in British librarianship argues that although the Library Association has played a formative role in the development of information services, its bid to bring all library agencies and personnel "Under one umbrella" has proved largely unsuccessful. His British example is salutory, if not completely comparable to the present South African situation, where two mainstream library associations compete for hegemony. One could stretch his argument to insist that SAILIS, as roughly equivalent to the Library Association, will have to concede the "End of a dream" in its search for a single, uncontested information empire, since it is unlikely to be able to absorb LIWO in the way that the Library Association incorporated the more radical Association of Assistant Librarians.

In the following chapter the context gives way to a more practical implementation of academic development in libraries through user education strategies, affirmative action procedures and the creation of a multi-media learning environment.

Chapter 3

ACADEMIC DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES IN UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES

1. ACADEMIC DEVELOPMENT

1.1 Terminology

The question of academic development in South African universities has been widely debated in recent years. Some universities have consistently used the term "academic support" when they refer to attempts to compensate at university for the structural inequalities of the South African educational system. Academic support entails a separate remedial reading, writing and research skills programme which does not form part of the degree. It includes specific activities which are designed to influence the learning environment in the university as a whole, to produce a more equitable and fair learning situation, to provide an education which is in the interests of all students, and to improve the accessibility of the university to under-prepared students from a disadvantaged background.

Academic support programmes tend to be linked to the historically "liberal" universities in South Africa, namely Cape Town, the Witwatersrand, Rhodes and Natal (Drewett & Wood, 1991), where they are conducted separately from academic courses in most cases. These universities are generally wealthier than predominantly black universities and therefore can afford the cost of separate support programmes.

Moulder emphasises the "rhetoric of excellence" at the "liberal" universities, which means that

> they find it virtually impossible to admit that most of their white students shouldn't be at a

> university. They can't graduate in the minimum time that's required to study for a degree (1991(b): 7).

This appears to be a controversial statement in view of the 80 per cent pass rate for all courses attempted by undergraduates of the University of Cape Town (UCT) in 1989. On closer examination, however, the statistics show that of the 919 students who failed, 49,5 per cent were whites (Saunders, 1990: 3). UCT has a strict admission policy which ensures a higher pass rate than most universities in South Africa. Moulder's judgment therefore has more weight when applied to the wider university community at other universities, even if it seems slightly exaggerated.

Higher pass rates naturally encourage a policy of academic support for the small number of under-prepared students instead of mainstream "academic development" built into all undergraduate courses. It is, however, incorrect to make too clear a distinction between universities which practise academic support and those who favour academic development. In fact, both methods are often found within the same university. For example, at UCT the mathematics and chemistry departments offer integrated, mainstream academic development courses rather than separate academic support programmes.

The University of the Western Cape (UWC) and more recently, Unisa, have chosen to use the term "academic development" because they have adopted an "infusion model" in which learning assistance is provided within university courses themselves (and run by subject departments) rather than as a separate programme. Academic development involves the entire teaching and learning process, not simply support programmes or bridging courses (Barnard, 1991).

Universities which prefer "academic development" admit that "the majority of their students can't bridge the gap between school and university. They know they're poor. That's why they run fewer remedial programmes than the liberal universities do." Therefore, they have development programmes which include both teachers and students: "they put the problem that 'the education crisis' has created in the hands of the academics...where it belongs" (Moulder, 1991(b): 7).

For the purposes of generalisation and convenience, the term "academic development" rather than "academic support" is used in this chapter, but interchangeably in the rest of the dissertation. Academic development programmes (ADP) have variously been praised and criticised by both students and lecturers. They all agree, however, that typical ADP students are, by definition, "thrust into a context where they must compete, within an unfamiliar context and in terms of unfamiliar ground rules, in order to succeed" (Moll & Slonimsky, 1989: 163).

In predominantly white residential universities this is construed in political terms. ADP students are vividly reminded of the inferior education they have been forced to endure and are sometimes resentful of a "clinic which fixes up the black student for a white liberal campus". The epithet of "African support programme" has therefore stigmatised academic development initiatives (Gqubule, 1989(a)).

1.2 Africanisation

However, where ADP has been successfully implemented, students admit that it has value in redressing the ill-effects of a Department of Education and Training (DET) schooling. But, the universal appeal is for change in the nature of universities as they explore teaching methods and

stuctures that are more appropriate to the African context (Asante, 1988).

Moulder (1991(b): 9) has sounded a warning that academic support programmes ("support" is used specifically in this context) at the liberal universities will become impossible as the black student body increases because of the enormous cost involved. He argues that such an increase in black enrolment must result in a re-evaluation of the Western underpinnings of university education.

Of course, there is a deep irony in calling for the "Africanisation" of universities in South Africa, which underlies the fundamental injustice embodied in the colonial structures of our universities, namely that they are controlled by those who are not African (Goosen, Hall & White, 1989).

Moulder (1988) nevertheless offers four areas of change in Africanising universities: first, the composition of students, academics and administrators (and one should add librarians); the syllabus or content of the teaching material; the curriculum or the way in which learning is organised; and finally, the criteria which determine what is an excellent research programme. Moulder's last point refers to the African focus of research, not to standards of scholarship. Nassimbeni (1988) has also called for curriculum revision in the teaching of library and information studies in South African universities in line with the Africanisation imperative.

Moulder's point about changing the curriculum frequently raises the objection that standards are being lowered. His reply is that even the engineering course at Oxford encourages rote learning "because it is jammed" (Moulder, 1991(b): 6-7). One could also ask the question, whose standards are being lowered - Western or African ones?

Standards are obviously lowered when students resort to rote learning, and are not penalised. And rote learning is not confined to DET classrooms or apartheid (historically black) universities. Standards are, however, maintained or improved when students have to think critically about content.

Hofmeyr and Spence (1989: 47) have stressed that universities need to shift their emphasis away from research towards teaching. They have to face the reality of an educationally disadvantaged student body on their campuses and ADP should therefore be an essential ingredient in all academic courses.

1.3 The role of libraries

Tertiary education libraries are not exempt from the wider application of ADP. On the contrary, they are bound to assume a leading role. First, they will have to shed their dour image of reserve, severity and stifled whispers, and secondly, they will have to assume an assertive role in the students' search for academic success. Librarians cannot be passive in the light of Craig's indictment of university students and also, by implication, of the academic staff:

> Lecturers complain that poor students do not do independent study, expecting all relevant facts to come from the lectures. It is not an unfamiliar experience to encounter students who have never used the library during under-graduate years (1989: 168).

Because academic development is concerned to promote reading, study and learning skills, librarians are crucial to its successful execution. They should be facilitators of learning, and not merely esoteric "reference works", to be consulted on rare occasions. They should guide students towards self-study and a greater intellectual independence by offering library instruction (cf. section 2 of this

chapter). In this way, rapport between students and librarians can be built up more easily.

Reference or subject librarians have the advantage of being the "third party" in the educational encounter between lecturers and students. They are less threatening than lecturers because they are not the arbiters of academic success (Suttie, 1990(b): 104). They are therefore well placed to help users in their studies. They can be more encouraging and positive in their approach. They are also better able to maintain motivation among students by establishing a more personal and less formal relationship.

The librarians are involved in academic development each time they assist students in finding information, because they are informally teaching research techniques, even if this is merely a perfunctory or routine function. Assistance is, however, often a deliberate teaching act in which the librarian demonstrates to the student how to exploit the resources of the library. Critical thinking is also fostered as librarians help students to evaluate sources once they have been found. Such annotation of information is part of academic training. Academic development is consequently in the librarian's repertoire of functions.

In addition, where ADP is offered by individual teaching departments or is adopted as general university policy, librarians should be included and ought to work closely with other teaching staff. The library could become the scene of much academic development activity and therefore play a greater role in the life of students on campus.

2. USER EDUCATION

2.1 The British experience

User education began in British higher education libraries in the 1960s when tutor-librarians were introduced at the Hatfield Polytechnic to develop the educational role of the library. It proved that co-operation among teachers, librarians and students could improve the learning environment. In the 1970s user education became the main focus of professional interest in academic libraries. There was also a move away from the induction course to a student-centred approach. Progressive librarians wished to teach students more appropriate skills not only for college and university training but also for their later working life (Harrison, 1990).

For a survey of user education in the 1980s, Cowley (1988), Harris (1988) and Fleming (1986) offer useful insights. Fjallbrant and Malley's work (1984) still provides the seminal introduction to user education despite the considerable financial and political changes in academic institutions since the mid 1980s. A conflict of interests between those supporting maximum utilisation of existing information systems and services (a library-centred approach) and those who believe in the introduction of new, more accessible and user friendly library services (a user-centred approach) is a recent development.

For the purposes of this study, it is pertinent to look specifically at the fortunes of foreign and commonwealth students at British universities, in an attempt to derive some comparative perspective for South Africa. Ethnic minority students do not, however, approximate South African under-prepared black students at university since there are so few of them. In fact, Jewson et al. (1991: 183) argue that universites in the United Kingdom do not

make "a conscious effort to reflect a multi-cultural Britain" by catering to the needs of ethnic minority students, but are more concerned to attract a lucrative overseas market of foreign students.

Stevenson in a survey of library user education programmes in the United Kingdom noted that

> a major problem reported by several institutions is the difficulty of providing library instruction for foreign students...problems arise over such points as alphabetisation, and the fact that many of the students are used to a much more restricted range of materials. Others see the librarian as a person whose job it is to provide information and books on demand. Very little is being done to rectify this situation. There seems little that libraries can do apart from providing special, more intensive orientation sessions (1977: 30).

It appears that the library needs of foreign students are catered for only at the pre-term level in British universities. Orientation consists of a single library tour at the beginning of the academic year. Three difficulties are addressed: the problem of language; unfamiliarity with large library collections and a lack of referencing skills; and different methods of learning, not compatible with British approaches (Baker, 1990; Robertson, 1992). Such problems coincide with those experienced by under-prepared black students in South African universities.

English language proficiency is hardest to attain and to a great extent determines the chances of academic success at British universities. Secondly, many foreign students have only been used to a small range of textbooks as the staple of their education. Even undergraduate experience at their home universities does not prepare them to face the enormity of the literature housed in British university libraries. They are used to "little more than reading rooms lined with shelves of textbooks in multiple copies" (Pearce, 1981: 46). In addition, modes of learning are

largely influenced by cultural-thought patterns and previous educational experience. These tend to perpetuate a certain type of learning which often results in confused assumptions on the part of students and lecturers in the British setting.

Although universities in the United Kingdom make provision for learning difficulties and cultural adjustment of foreign students, their libraries have shown little initiative in the field of user education for the academically under-prepared. There are, however, a few exceptions, such as the University of Reading project (Pearce, 1981: 48) and Glasgow University's library week for foreign students (Coutts, Durndell & Primrose, 1985; Robertson, 1992: 41).

2.2 User education in South Africa

In 1987, Allardice (1987: 216) considered user education to be a neglected field in South Africa and claimed that according to the literature virtually "little or nothing was happening". However, since then some ten articles and two theses have added to our knowledge of user education in university libraries (ISALLIS, 1992). Fewer than a third (Bell, 1989; Bell, 1990; Jayaram, 1988) deal with the difficulties which under-prepared black students experience, despite the singular importance of user education in addressing the problem of a poor schooling.

2.2.1 Goals and objectives of library instruction

Library instruction is an extension of the traditional reference service, but it is better suited to reaching large groups of students with a variety of academic backgrounds and different levels of library skills. It is particularly successful if time constraints prevent individual assistance for all users. Tanner (1989) argues

persuasively that "a library instruction session can effectively provide general or highly specialized information".

A useful typology of objectives can be derived from other research on user education (Allardice, 1987: 218-19; Bell, 1989: 7; Tanner, 1989):

* to help users become familiar with the location and nature of services by introducing them to the physical library environment;
* to ensure that library users have a knowledge of the type of information which can be found, namely educating students to a rudimentary competence in library skills;
* to teach new technological skills, for example, the use of Online Public Access Catalogues (OPAC) and Compact Disc - Read Only Memory (CD-ROM);
* to encourage in students an ability to identify their own information needs, for example, the time span or geographical focus of a particular assignment;
* to teach research methodology, namely a systematic approach to library research which should encourage self-sufficiency. For example, how to use the Library of Congress subject headings and the electronic catalogue.

But, perhaps the most significant objective of user education is to promote critical thinking in university students. It should concentrate on conveying analytical skills. Many under-prepared students are unfamiliar with the concept of scholarly research, and the library instruction programme should demonstrate the intellectual usefulness of questioning sources, probing research findings, distinguishing between fact and opinion and conceiving original interpretations or conclusions.

Michaels (1985: 21-22) elaborates the notion of critical thinking by identifying three distinct categories of information, which he calls "fact, opinion and value judgement". He also suggests three phases of critical thinking: the user must question the information need, establish a search strategy and the sources to be consulted, and then evaluate the content of those sources. The librarian is particularly important in the latter phase of evaluation by practically demonstrating the skills of selecting and extracting appropriate information, structuring it and then applying it. In this situation, the librarian is at the interface between the lecture and independent study.

A culture of critical thinking is the life-blood of a university. It is, however, difficult to create such a culture where school education has been lacking. Radebe (1987) has remarked that "black undergraduates at a white university are greatly disadvantaged by their schooling as they have never been taught to think critically or analyse". Library instruction should therefore be an integral part of the education process in South African universities. Current academic practice "provides an unequalled opportunity for libraries to move into a central role in the curriculum - where they have always belonged" (Harris & Baskin, 1989: 29). It is not an optional extra - above lectures and textbooks - if under-prepared black students are to become achievers in the intellectual sphere. The education of students is not complete until they are able to find and analyse material on their own in the library.

2.2.2 Library literacy

Library literacy among under-prepared university students is indispensable for higher education. First, it benefits their university careers. Academic libraries need to re-

think the assumptions about their role in the educative process along the following lines (Bell, 1989: 4):

* students need information to complete their degrees and the academic library is one of the best sources to supply such knowledge;
* information in university libraries is not easily found without assistance;
* librarians must be part of the teaching process and actually have an obligation to users to engage in this function;
* once users have found information they should be able to employ the same skills to meet their other information requirements;
* the enormous gulf between a poor school education and an advanced university course makes library instruction essential;
* students, by virtue of their admission to a university, have the right to derive maximum use of campus facilities, including the library;
* the university library should be committed to the socio-economic and political, as well as the intellectual, development of its users.

Sullivan and Campbell point out the positive effects of such guidelines:

> self-reliance skills obtained through library use will enable individuals to deal with the basic requirements of our information-based democratic society...and they will also be able to function more effectively as independent learners, continuing to grow intellectually outside the structure and requirements of formal education (1991: 184).

Secondly, library user education is crucial because it allows students to participate in the learning process. Cartwright (1987) confirms the utility of user education in South African universities, since they are often deficient in providing adequate academic development for under-

prepared students. This is the result of the formal lecture system, the limited number of tutorials, the vastness of syllabuses and the lack of critical inquiry - all of which profoundly affect the use of library resources.

2.2.3 Effective information retrieval

Why is user education crucial in facilitating more effective information retrieval? First, many black students have little or no experience of a library. Therefore, under-prepared students are not familiar with the ordinary routine means of finding research material. They have only a vague impression of the organisation of the library and find it difficult to locate the appropriate material which may satisfy their queries. Nor are they proficient in selecting the right tools (such as bibliographies, indexes, and journals) for discovering information, and they have no training in the evaluation of information inventories.

Secondly, librarians are the key to user education because they are frequently the first to interact with students in their search for information. In the process, personal contact is established and "allaying anxiety on the part of the student is an effective tool for promoting library instruction" (Mellon, 1988: 139). Student anxiety is induced by the unrealistic expectations of library staff, university lecturers or peers, who assume a certain experience and competence in using the library. This may be reinforced to the point of becoming a phobia for those students who are afraid to ask questions for fear of appearing ignorant.

Moreover, university libraries are highly complex and sophisticated institutions which makes them intimidating even to students with a highly developed library culture derived from a privileged schooling. Its sheer size simply adds to the anxiety and feeling of inadequacy among the

initiated, not to mention those without any experience of libraries.

Under these circumstances, users often avoid library contact by photocopying sources unnecessarily, or they leave the library unassisted when information seems less accessible - for example, on microfiche. Thus, anxiety interferes with learning, but it can be lessened through extended personal contact with librarians. There is also a special need to improve inter-personal skills in order to serve clients better. Redfern (1990: 5) stresses the significance of these human-relations skills as opposed to bibliographic or technical competence.

Academic staff also have an important role to play in reducing anxiety among students by fostering library research as part of the learning situation. Some initial classes should be held in the library itself so that lecturers can incorporate the practical use of the library into their lectures. They would thus be involved in a more obvious way in the library instruction programme. As a result, they would be better equipped to assist in teaching research techniques, and also become more knowledgeable about library resources. The relationship between librarians and lecturers could also be improved if such strategies were employed.

Finally, there is a strong possibility that this involvement would lead to more realistic academic expectations on the part of both students and staff. User education would reduce the division between teaching and library functions. For this to be effected, close co-operation between academic faculties and the library is essential, because the lecturers themselves are often unaware of, or uninterested in, the difficulties of under-prepared students.

2.2.4 Suggested forms and models for user education

Kuhlthau (1987) and Tuckett and Stoffle (1984) have developed a theory of library user education based on three models. First, the "source approach" concentrates on assisting students to use a particular library. They are therefore limited to the location and selection of resources in that library. The main disadvantage of this approach is that it does not impart transferable skills which can be used in other libraries.

Secondly, the "pathfinder approach" enables students to see the library as a series of paths to information and knowledge based on their being able to identify a sequence of sources. But, the main disadvantage here is that this approach is often used for specific subject instruction, which means that it has limited applicability for seeking information in other disciplines.

Thirdly, the "problem-solving approach" involves the student in actively thinking about the required information and then using, interpreting and giving meaning to it from a problem-solving perspective. This again emphasises the importance of developing skills of critical thinking in university students. Too often they expect sources to provide ready answers to questions, instead of conceiving a problem which has to be solved, and then analysing the topic and trying to set its parameters, followed by planning a strategy to utilise the resources of the library creatively.

There are, of course, many forms of user education, from videos to tape-slide presentations, from guided tours to bibliographic instruction seminars (Allardice, 1987: 227-37). However, although the form of presentation is important, it is more crucial to have a programme which will enable students to "carry theoretical skills into the

library", otherwise students may become resentful, "feeling that they were being forced to take a class that was useless" (Kautz et al., 1988: 110). Precisely because the students become bored in some orientation lectures, the librarian views user education as an irksome duty rather than a teaching challenge (Williams, 1988: 16).

User education must be practical and relevant to the students' courses; it must create a reading culture, especially among first-year university students. Library orientation of the tour variety, as practised in many libraries, needs to come under review, since it remains aloof from the actual hands-on knowledge required to exploit their rich resources. The library should be made the focus of first-year study in order to set the research tone for the rest of a student's undergraduate career. If user education were more practical, more regular and more integrated in curriculum design across the disciplines, it is likely to improve a student's capacity to be intellectually self-reliant.

Many academic libraries curtail the research function of their staff and students by regarding mere "ownership" of resources as the overriding criterion of efficiency. The argument is "if we own it, we have done our job" (White, 1990: 264). Such acquisitiveness ignores the needs of users, who "invent their libraries, both in terms of their expectations which are small and narrow, and in the ignorance of what they might have" (White, 1990: 266).

Librarians have to think beyond the user's limited request to unlock an additional wealth of information not even imagined by the student. In the process, however, the student is personally and practically introduced to that technique. We need librarians who "see resources as a means to an end rather than as an end in itself" (White, 1990: 266).

As well as supplying a user's needs beyond what has been asked, librarians also have to take into account the various backgrounds - particularly educational - of students (Fleming, 1990: xi). This is especially the case in South Africa where inequities are abundantly clear. Under-prepared students have a particularly limited experience of libraries and therefore an extremely myopic view of their potential to provide information and promote knowledge. The greater the exposure to the library and its resources, the more at home students will feel.

The instruction programmes should be free of library and information science jargon. The simpler the instructions and explanations, the more effective the result. This is especially important where students have linguistic problems. Libraries should also have adequate signposting and guides to assist users in their search for books, periodicals and other information. Malley (1981: 3) points out that good library "guiding" can remove many of the obstacles to effective library orientation. An additional advantage in implementing a coherent guidance system is that some of the impracticalities and inefficiencies of library services and layout also become apparent. Signs need not be expensive; professional, neat notices can be made in the library itself. However, careful planning is necessary to avoid a waste of time and materials. Swart (1991) also explores the important role of "signage" in making a library building more user friendly and accessible to borrowers, and can contribute positively to its visual appearance.

Moreover, library instruction has to be well advertised and marketed, for example by means of campus radio and newspapers, library guides and notices, and by lecturers in their classes. The enterprise must be attractive to all students and librarians ought to canvass student opinion about the effectiveness and desirability of the programme.

It may also be advantageous for university libraries to encourage some contact with the wider community, particularly prospective users who are still at senior high school level. Such contact, through conducted tours and ad hoc visits, may help to instil a familiarity with the academic environment.

Ideally, library instruction should be conducted for all students and should not in any way identify a certain group as being disadvantaged. This is not the case in Britain where international students are often sorted into separate groups for library instruction - for instance, the programme offered to the overseas students (cf. section 2.1 of this chapter). This should be avoided in the South African situation, where separation would only reinforce a sense of inferiority and exacerbate racial and educational discrimination. Many white students in South African universities would benefit equally from library instruction.

User education cannot be confined to individual campuses, but has to be promoted nationally through some agency set up for this purpose. Interest in this field intensified in Britain from the late 1970s with the appointment of a national User Education Information Officer based at Loughborough University of Technology and sponsored by a British Library research grant (Cowley & Hammond, 1987: 36). This project provided a much-needed focus to library education and offered facilities for exchanging information, experience and documentation. It encouraged a concerted effort to set up user education programmes throughout the United Kingdom. Something along these lines should be considered in South Africa, perhaps in conjuction with academic development departments and their professional organisation, the South African Association of Academic Development (SAAAD). This would enhance the status of user education in our university libraries.

3. AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

3.1 The imperative

If the under-prepared users of academic libraries in South Africa are to be assisted, this can only be achieved in an environment which is conducive to learning, and one in which they feel at liberty to approach librarians. Therefore, there is an urgent need to allocate qualified librarians, whose specific interests lie in the field of academic development, to service the requirements of these students in South African university libraries.

Furthermore, such staff should exhibit certain distinctive qualities, namely an ability to empathise with the particular difficulties of the students, possess good reference skills and ideally to be proficient in an African language. They should not have "the typical missionary spirit of working for the poor and disinherited", which is patronizing (Josey, 1971: 436).

Consequently, it is suggested here that the most suitable librarians for this task are those from the ethnic minorities in the British case, and from the African communities in South Africa. What is proposed is an affirmative action programme in the appointment of university librarians.

3.2 Different models

Affirmative action means different things in different countries. In some instances, legislation is the mechanism to provide disadvantaged groups or individuals with empowerment and employment opportunities in proportion to their percentage of the population. This is the quota system which is practised in the United States of America (USA).

In other models, affirmative action takes the form of special compensatory education and training to permit minorities to compete more effectively. This applies more to countries like Britain, Canada and Australia. Hugo (1990: 116) makes the point that in both cases, affirmative action policies are aimed at assisting those who have been denied equal access to resources, skills and opportunities, and who are also often branded as racially or socially inferior.

South Africa has yet to move towards equal opportunities for all; it is still trapped in its historical apartheid phase. But, the issue of affirmative action is bound to feature prominently in the negotiations about change in every facet of the nation's life, not least in South African academic libraries. The private sector, which has taken the lead in this field, offers some guidelines about its implementation (Hugo, 1990: 117-18):

* there must be a clear and unambiguous policy statement of commitment to affirmative action;
* this undertaking must be communicated to all employees;
* firm action has to be taken against those who obstruct the implementation of the policy (Human & Icely, 1987);
* staff have to be accountable in the field of black advancement;
* discrimination must be dealt with through effective channels of complaint, which may include an affirmative action officer;
* timetables must be adhered to in order to keep the programme on course;
* monitoring and sanctioning progress is imperative;
* individuals are the focus of affirmative action so that group stereotyping is avoided and programmes have a non-racial dimension;

* tokenism can be detrimental to the whole practice of affirmative action;
* there should be some mechanism of bridging from one culture to another;
* special training for disadvantaged groups is emphasised because anti-discriminatory principles are insufficient to redress inequities;
* mentorship is a means to the enhancement of disadvantaged staff;
* rewards confirm affirmative action procedures.

These guidelines, however, overlook the problems of implementation in practice. Discrimination is often inherent in staff selection, especially in written or oral tests which are unrelated to job performance, in interview styles and in arbitrary education and experiential requirements.

Affirmative action has to be implemented in tandem with a shift towards different needs in the society at large. This necessitates consideration of the majority in South Africa:

> We want a country of people, not of quotas. Yet there are many areas where action of an accelerated kind will have to be taken to ensure that the talents, skills and life experience of all South Africans are represented, and not just those of a minority (Sachs, 1991).

As much, therefore, as it may be desirable in South African university libraries to de-emphasise race in the post-apartheid era, "language dexterity, cultural empathy and an understanding of the impact of apartheid" (Hugo, 1990: 113) are likely to make ethnicity the overriding criterion in staff selection in the near future.

Mentoring as a means of restructuring the education system and changing the face of the academic library seems a promising strategy (Fagan, 1988; Healy, 1989). It is an innovative part of in-house training which allows the

mentor (senior librarian) to supplement the theoretical knowledge of the employee in his/her care with practical experience (Rice-Lively, 1991). Wright (1991: 81) argues that not only does mentoring help to recruit, but also to retain, black librarians because it provides an environment that is conducive to learning and productivity. The mentor has a vested interest in the success of this enterprise, since evaluation and cross-cultural communication often lead to a reassessment of the role of librarians in the multi-cultural academic setting.

A perennial problem of affirmative action in libraries is the availability of qualified staff. Recruitment of black librarians is difficult where affirmative action procedures have not been in place at universities for any length of time. Library schools at historically black universities appear to train most black librarians, apart from Unisa. In 1988, 59,6 per cent of the students enrolled for library and information science at South African universities were white, 21,9 per cent African and the rest "Coloured" or Asian (8,2 and 10,2 per cent respectively). Among those who qualified as librarians that year, 73,9 per cent were white and only 12,9 per cent were Africans. Asians and "Coloureds" made up the remaining 13,2 per cent of graduates (Nassimbeni, 1991: 7).

Nassimbeni (1991: 8) argues, therefore, that apart from the purely political issues of justice and equity, pragmatic reasons also suggest that this imbalance between the number of white and black graduate librarians cannot continue if South Africa is to meet its information requirements by the end of the century. To achieve a more equitable ratio, university departments of library and information science will have to teach many more black students, and libraries will have to explore in-house training schemes under the mentoring rubric.

3.3 Contrasting experiences: South Africa and Britain

In South Africa there are very few black academic librarians, which reflects the poor representation of blacks in the ranks of academe generally. This is demonstrated by recent research undertaken by the Union of Democratic University Staff Associations (UDUSA) (Bethlehem, 1992). The prognosis for the future does not indicate much change either: "Clearly, South African universities as a whole are not following a path which will lead to a racially representative academic staff body in the foreseeable future" (Bethlehem, 1992: 1). The inertia of universities in implementing affirmative action is the main reason for this bleak scenario:

> the relationship of the academic library to the academic whole may have an effect on its ability to develop viable affirmative action programs. The affirmative action thrust of an academic library may only be as good as the parent institution's plan (Wright, 1991: 79).

Professional library organisations, no less than university administrations, will have to review their requirements of advanced academic qualifications as the primary basis of appointment if this imbalance is to be redressed. Moreover, entry-level qualifications into professions should be altered on the proviso that promotion is dependent upon further study (Nell & Van Staden, 1988(a): 22).

The appointment of black librarians would also provide students with role models (Wright, 1991: 77) in attaining social and professional status in this period of rapid change in South Africa. In addition, they could sensitise library authorities to the needs and problems of black students (Nell & Van Staden, 1988(b): 27). Thirdly, the best recruitment incentive is the presence of blacks in responsible, visible positions in the university library.

Davies (1989) argues persuasively that affirmative action has worked well in the City and East London College Library in the United Kingdom: black librarians feel part of the professional staff and are not treated as subordinates. Black users approach them for help more easily. She has found, too, that they are more amenable to being disciplined by black librarians. This is borne out in the Unisa context by the empirical research presented in chapter 4, section 3.5.

South Africa does not, however, have legislation to ensure the implementation of affirmative action. This makes it a voluntary policy for libraries and other organisations. In Britain the situation is different because the Race Relations Act of 1976, which set up the Commission for Racial Equality (CORE) to investigate discrimination, provides for "positive action" to be taken when particular racial groups are under-represented in various kinds of work, and also to meet their special needs (Little & Robbins, 1982: 34). "Positive action" is the term used for measures under sections 37 and 38 of the Act, which - in broad outline - enable employers, training organisations, trade unions and emloyers' associations to encourage applications for jobs or affiliation by members of a particular ethnic group, or to provide training for certain posts (CORE, 1985(a)).

The guidelines laid down in a policy statement of the (British) Library Association on the recruitment and training of library and information workers from the ethnic minorities could also be followed in implementing affirmative action - at least in some relevant respects (Library Association, 1986). This document promotes librarianship as a career by advocating an open admission policy to departments of information studies and the teaching of courses that relate directly to multi-culturalism. It also underscores equal employment

opportunities and encourages professional in-service training and the option of further formal education in librarianship for members of staff.

Despite the legislative weight behind affirmative action in Britain, the following statistics show that libraries still "need to improve the recruitment and training of people into the profession from different ethnic origins" (Ruse, 1989): only 0,29 per cent of the Library Association's membership was represented by Africans; 0,46 per cent by Afro-Caribbeans; and 1 per cent by Asians in 1988. In 1987 about 4,5 per cent of the total British population of 54,4 million were classified as ethnic minorities (Griffin, 1990: 24-25). This indicates that the Library Association's ethnic minority membership of 1,75 per cent was proportionally much lower than that of the national population.

4. RACISM AWARENESS TRAINING

4.1 Structural racism in universities

If South African universities are to have any relevance they cannot ignore the issue of racism. Racism awareness training (RAT) is not only essential for students, however, but for staff as well. It must be part of the university's commitment to societal change. As Meerkotter points out, a university which is concerned with education needs "to liberate, to open up the mind, to prepare people to create, to reform culture, to change, to question... [and] to act" (1987: 40). Through RAT, universities can fulfil an educational role as well as ensure their relevance in the changing social context. They have a moral obligation to lead rather than follow, and a special responsibility to help dismantle apartheid and work towards a fair and just society in South Africa.

To achieve this, they need to restructure and re-design courses and curricula, and assist staff and students to adjust to their new environment and each other in an informed and discerning way. Libraries are also part of this transforming process and librarians must be sensitised to different world-views and learn to develop knowledge of the inequalities inherent in our social system (Gray & Bernstein, 1989).

Institutional racism has gradually been broken down in the historically liberal universities in South Africa, but even they have a residue of racism which occasionally becomes the focus of student action on their campuses. Ultimately, racism is fuelled by a reluctance to change existing practices or modes of communication. Libraries are prone to perpetuate various rules and procedures which may unconsciously entrench racism. By conforming to such operating norms the individual librarian may be culpably racist, or may wittingly hide behind the bureaucracy in order to maintain discrimination. Even the historically liberal universities in South Africa have been slow to practise affirmative action in their libraries. RAT helps to highlight structural racism and to educate librarians about how to counteract it (Smith, 1988).

Until such time as university librarians are more adequately qualified to deal with problems of disadvantaged students, it is essential that existing staff be made aware of the needs of the changing student population and its severely limited educational background. Librarians have to be educated to understand the complex nature of the problem. To this end, they need to be committed to programmes which assist under-prepared black students.

In the South African context, it is often the issue of racism that bulks large for black students in university libraries, and it is my belief that remedial strategies

have to begin here. This is not to say that racism overrides under-preparedness in the adjustment of black students to academic life; the two are inextricably linked because the apartheid legacy of an inferior education has always been tied to race.

Behrens (1990) also argues that communication skills must be improved to break down cultural barriers in libraries. Librarians therefore require an understanding of the communication norms of the various cultures in our society and a heightened sensitivity to racial cleavages which disrupt relaxed and beneficial interaction.

RAT and student guidance counselling programmes for librarians could be important ingredients in making the academic library a real educational tool for those who have been disadvantaged by the South African system. Racism awareness campaigns are not widely practised in this country and therefore I have looked once again to models which have been applied in Britain. These have been used in some British libraries, more particularly public libraries, in an attempt to effect attitudinal changes towards users from the ethnic minorities.

It has to be admitted, however, that RAT has come in for some damning criticism in recent years. Sivanandan (1985), Director of the Institute of Race Relations in Britain, for instance, avers that RAT is "part of the degradation of black struggle" because it has systematically dismantled the sense of community among blacks. This, in turn, has led to the creation of a class of collaborators, who have provided legitimation of RAT.

On the other hand, two influential writers about racism awareness have argued that what is needed is a multi-cultural library service in which "the multiplicity of cultures which are part of contemporary Britain are

recognized and represented throughout the entire service" (Gundara & Warwick, 1981: 67). It is clear, therefore, that racism is a sensitive and difficult issue to tackle, and Kendall (1992: 36) insists that "it would be naïve not to expect to meet some hostility and resistance to change".

A multi-cultural model for libraries obviously requires a re-orientation of priorities and objectives, radical changes in staff recruitment and training (which have already been dealt with) and in book selection policies, as well as active anti-racism in management procedures, service delivery, budgeting and community accountability. The learning resources branch of the Inner London Education Authority (ILEA) has formulated a blueprint along these lines (ILEA, 1988).

Kendall (1992: 36) points out, however, that instead of attempting to change people's attitudes through training, it is more effective to use training to support a systematic programme for change. This is the direction in which several libraries in Britain are moving, whereby the emphasis is on the work responsibilities and "expected behaviour" of librarians rather than on racism per se.

4.2 Aims of racism awareness

It may be asked what exactly a racism awareness programme is, and how effective it is in combating personal and structural racism. Should it be supplemented by other training exercises, and who should be responsible for giving the training?

Racism awareness programmes aim to improve understanding and acceptance of the customs and behaviour of people from different races and cultures. For whites who are empowered in the social and political spheres in South Africa, living under apartheid actually normalised racism. They therefore

have to be confronted with their discriminatory practices and made to realise how their own attitudes have endorsed racism. For the powerless, however, racism awareness means equipping blacks with the skills to assert their rights and exercise their interpersonal influence in the performance of valued social roles (Solomon, 1976). It also challenges misconceptions which lead to the reproduction of discrimatory action and reinforce organisational racism.

Consequently, the starting point of RAT is to change the system and "attempt to deconstruct racism by demonstrating how what one does as an individual fits into organisational and societal policies and practices" (Dominelli, 1988: 73). In addition, racism awareness cultivates the capacity to perceive racial issues from different points of view, and to identify one's own feelings about members of other races.

One British exponent (Henry, 1987) has insisted that the fundamental objective of RAT is not to impart skills or knowledge, but to recognise and attack the disease of racism in the individual. What is advocated is a personal, intellectual and psychological rehabilitation which will be translated into action against institutionalised racism (Katz & Ivey, 1982). Underpinning this argument is the belief that the liberation of the individual from deeply embedded pejorative attitudes will ultimately lead to organisational change.

Other theorists have modified this view by starting with structural racism, which they claim is powerful in shaping personal attitudes. They argue that an anti-racist campaign in libraries should be directed both at the individual white librarian's attitudes and behaviour towards black users and at the inherent racism of the library as an organisation (Gurnah, 1984; Sivanandan, 1985: 28).

4.3 The library as an agent of social change

Success is more likely where the academic library adopts an anti-racist stance which is enforced as policy, rather than where it is left to individual librarians to initiate a partial, and usually ineffectual, RAT campaign. The library's policy is even easier to implement in universities which themselves have issued clear statements aimed at eliminating racism on their campuses. Success is also dependent upon the racism awareness programme being run by professional outsiders and not by library management itself. This gives it legitimacy and makes it less threatening to the librarians, who may otherwise feel interrogated or guilt-ridden. Most critical is the need to make the programme a permanent feature of library practice. It should not be seen only as a palliative, or a short-term measure, but as intrinsic to librarianship.

It is clear then that the university library has to cater to the needs of its student body and the community from which it comes. This should not be done in the narrow sense of providing an ethnocentric service within broadly Western parameters, but rather by means of a dramatic re-think of its total functioning in the South African context. The role of the library is therefore crucial as an agency of social change; by meeting the needs of its students, it initiates a "revolution" in the provision of information that emphasises its influence as an opinion former. The academic library thus interacts with the intellectual community, stimulating new knowledge, and because of its user friendliness and its increasing relevance to the needs of under-prepared users, it invites an improvement in educational techniques.

This process will doubtless be speeded up by the changing composition of the entire student body at universities in South Africa. The number of black students rose from 1 871

in 1960 to 36 604 in 1984 (Bundy, 1989: 208). The South African Institute of Race Relations (SAIRR, 1989/90: 872) figures show a dramatic increase in black enrolment between 1984 and 1989, to 61 687. This means that the nature of university education and its underlying Eurocentric assumptions are bound to be questioned, and its orientation will have to shift towards an Afrocentrism if it is to be effective.

Moreover, because libraries are at the heart of a tertiary education, they are bound to be at the cutting edge of this change. Moulder (1988) and Muller (1987) have pertinently pointed out that it is not only the school system that requires overhauling in order to help students bridge the gap between matriculation and university. Universities too cannot escape such transformation.

If under-prepared students are to be effectively tutored in the skills of information retrieval, university libraries will have to re-think their role, train staff to accept that changed role, and move rapidly towards an Afrocentrism. This does not necessarily imply a lowering of standards, which is often alleged and feared, but rather a change to standards which will be more in keeping with the demands of South African society in a post-apartheid era.

5. MULTI-MEDIA ENVIRONMENT

Although books obviously form the mainstay of a university library, it is nevertheless desirable that it acquires and utilises non-literary material to create a more complete learning environment. Many students come from a background in which oral tradition has previously enjoyed pride of place in the shaping of consciousness. Though they have been exposed to powerful literary influences - especially newspapers - in a predominantly urban culture, their inferior schooling has not equipped them to handle literary

material with the adequately developed critical skill required by universities.

While such students are improving their reading and comprehension techniques, they can supplement their studies by using appropriate alternative sources of information provided by the library (Haro, 1972). These include, for example, audio cassettes, videos, records, slide programmes, films, posters and photographs. Giannattasio (1989:10) shows conclusively that "audiovisual services have taken a considerable place in training, information and culture". Therefore, libraries should ideally become multi-media centres. In the South African situation, however, the lack of funding restricts the range of non-book resources that may be ordered for academic libraries.

Technology has also highlighted the lack of student expertise which may inhibit the maximum benefit of sophisticated media (Dalton, 1989). Electronic devices often deter students in their search for information, and access to sources should be as simple as possible. It is advisable to select alternative study material judiciously and with the particular needs of students in mind. Mellon (1988: 139) reminds academic librarians that as automation assumes more and more prominence, "we must not lose sight of the fact that the users we instruct are people".

6. READING PROGRAMMES

University libraries in South Africa have to some extent also to take on the role of public libraries for their students, because these are at a premium, not least for under-prepared students. Academic libraries should take on a community aspect as they attempt to promote an interest in "making reading an attractive and irresistible medium of communication" (Josey, 1971: 440). This could be achieved by an active policy of book selection in these areas,

exemplified by the Mangosuthu Technikon resource centre in Natal, which includes cultural and recreational materials as part of a reading programme (Nassimbeni, 1992). Informative and evocative displays which utilise appropriate book stock and the enhancement of collections relating to contemporary life in South African township communities would also engage a wider reading audience. This would entail a "deliberate effort to acquire publications outside the mainstream of Press publishing which have reflected a different view of the South African condition" (Merrett, 1988(a): 125).

A series of library lectures given by prominent community personalities, university lecturers, literary figures and student leaders could be arranged. They may provide a stimulus to further reading around the topics which have been introduced. Or, reading could be encouraged by focusing on issues which are relevant to the experience of students, their history and their community, as well as to South African society as a whole.

Current awareness exhibitions are also a useful means to enlivening the reading environment of a library. They can bring information to life through the human dimension, and bridge the gulf between theory and practice by linking the abstract to the personal. In addition, they offer an outlet for academic librarians to express themselves directly to a student audience and the university community as a whole (Beehler & Childers, 1986).

7. INFORMATION RETRIEVAL AND CENSORSHIP

Having made such bold suggestions in this chapter, one has nevertheless to recognise the political constraints that have been imposed upon libraries and librarians in South Africa by censorship, and the various states of emergency which were a feature of the 1980s (Merrett, 1986). Although

the political climate seems to have changed since 1990, bureaucratic structures still tend to slow down the immediate effects of liberalisation in educational spheres. Even if the legislative system is democratised, many publications will stay banned because the prohibition has to be formally removed on the re-submission of the banned item to the Publications Appeal Board. This is obviously a laborious process which will ensure that many works remain unobtainable to the researcher.

The other retarding factor is that until recently, the directorate of the Board has kept no records of bannings over the years. It therefore only has recourse to Jacobsen's index to objectionable literature which is incomplete. The book trade has also been caught in the web of censorship because it diligently applied the guidelines of embargo prescribed by the Board to imported publications (Pienaar, 1990). A great deal of material was, however, not imported. Censorship consigned this literature to oblivion, which means that it cannot inform research on the re-interpretation of our society in the wake of political change.

If university libraries hope to assist in making information readily available, they will have to collect, circulate and display material from progressive political and community organisations. By doing so, their ideas may be publicised as a counterpoint to the one-sided view that has been propounded by the state.

Censorship is not only exercised by the state, but also by librarians themselves. Some university libraries discourage the publicising of previously banned books, documents, periodicals and non-book material, and try to enforce a policy of closed access to such resources. Procedures of book selection also give librarians considerable rein over the kind of information which is made available to users in

their libraries. In the case of videos, for instance, the rector of Unisa banned the screening of "political" documentaries in the library from September 1991 (Van Vuuren, 1991). Such intervention has serious implications for the free flow of knowledge.

Oboler (1982: 97) regards the "perpetual, unceasing awareness of and combat against censorship on every level of every type, whenever and wherever it occurs" as one of the most important tasks of the university librarian. Castagna puts it even more strongly: "if the university library is not a place for the dissenting, the heretical, the unorthodox, the critical...it is not the right kind of place" (1969: 360). This underlines the importance of the library in creating a tradition of critical thinking as part of its function in academic development.

By challenging any attempts at censorship, librarians will be truer to their role as impartial purveyors of information and will also come closer to reflecting the nature of society - one from which an increasing number of under-prepared students come. Moreover, they will signify opposition to control over certain knowledge and declare once again the standards which universities have traditionally espoused - freedom of expression and association (Merrett, 1988(a): 126).

This discussion about information retrieval and censorship has a direct bearing on under-prepared university students themselves, precisely because the banned literature has a palpable relevance to their consciousness. It is often a window on their culture in its depiction of political heroes, oppressed communities and an environment of struggle. There is therefore an extraordinary and unprecedented interest in recently unbanned material in libraries and an insatiable demand for such literature by students.

Chapter 4

LIBRARY USER EDUCATION IN A FIRST-YEAR HISTORY ACADEMIC DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY

The preceding three chapters have provided the broad contextual and theoretical background for the empirical research which follows here. While they ranged widely in the fields of university education, academic development and library user education, and also offered a comparative dimension, this chapter is narrowly focused on a specific application of academic development in the first-year history course at the University of South Africa (Unisa) during 1990.

My empirical study is designed to show how the university library should be a central player in an academic course, even in the rather unusual case of a distance-education institution. Its implementation and findings were profoundly shaped by my contextual, theoretical and comparative research. It is also true, however, that many of the empirical findings in this case study have informed my analysis in the earlier chapters; a dialectic between the theoretical and empirical sections underpins the dissertation.

Cross-references have been given in the text and the analysis of the questionnaire situates the narrow and specific data of the Unisa example in the context of university libraries in general and their role in a changing South African educational environment.

1. BACKGROUND

Since 1984 the History Department at Unisa has evolved an academic development programme for its first-year students.

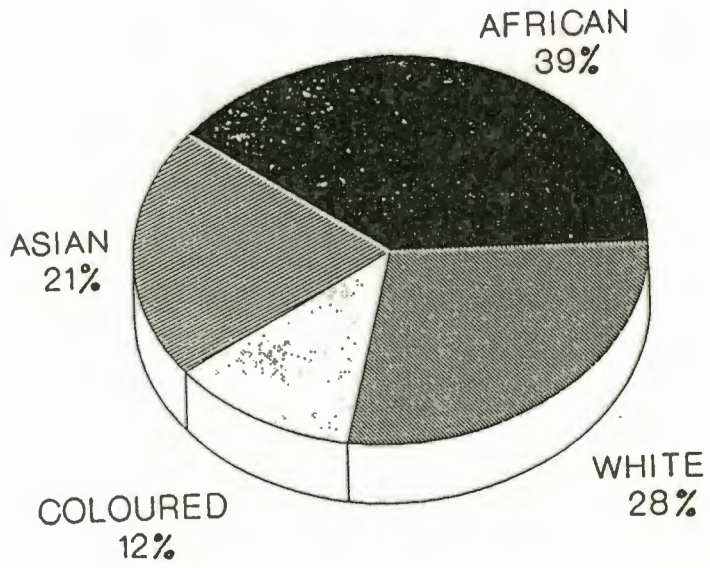
The project was initiated in response to the poor results achieved in the final examination between 1981 and 1984 when the low pass rate averaged between 25 per cent and 36 per cent (Unisa, 1981-84), and the difficulty students had in studying Medieval European history, which comprised half the first-year history curriculum.

On the basis of a research survey undertaken by Unisa's Bureau for Teaching Development (later renamed the Bureau of University Teaching (BUT)) during 1985, it was discovered that many students who had been admitted to the History I (HST 100-M) course had not obtained matriculation exemption (47 per cent). Such students were older than 23 years and therefore qualified to have the matriculation exemption requirement waived. Moreover, there had been a marked change in the composition of the student body, which had become predominantly black: 39 per cent African; 21 per cent Asian; 12 per cent "coloured"; 28 per cent white (Fig. 1) (Kilpert, 1985: 39). This trend was in advance of Unisa as a whole, which achieved an African enrolment of 39 per cent only in 1990 (Student profile, 1990).

Such disclosures persuaded lecturers to revise the syllabus for HST 100-M, which was eventually passed by the Unisa Senate in June 1987 (Eidelberg, 1990; Harris, 1990). The contents of the new course represented a profound Africanisation since it contained virtually no European history (Lambert, 1986). Its focus was specifically on precolonial and early colonial southern Africa (Du Bruyn & Cuthbertson, 1989).

Another feature of the revised course was an academic development package of cassette tape-recordings and a series of tutorial letters. The emphasis in these was on study techniques and essay-writing. The reading content of the HST 100-M course also required the use of library

FIGURE 1
COMPOSITION OF THE HST100M STUDENT BODY
(1990)



material, especially from the Study Collection of the Unisa library (Shillinglaw, 1988).

Since the library was an integral component of the course, it was decided that the subject librarian for history should become part of the development of an academic support component within the HST 100-M course. The educational and literary backgrounds of students were to be assessed by means of a questionnaire which was devised by two History I lecturers and the history subject librarian in May/June 1990 (Du Bruyn, Suttie & Southey, 1990; see appendix 1, HST 100-M: Tutorial letter 106/90).

The questionnaire, which contained 71 questions and space for a single general comment on the HST 100-M course, was sent to the 1836 students who were registered in 1990. An entire section of this questionnaire focused on library information.

A further prong to the academic development project was a regular, weekly teaching seminar held in the Department of History at Unisa for "full-time" HST 100-M students who used the library on campus as a study facility. It was decided to use this group of 28 students as an experimental group to test strategies for teaching the new curriculum. It was intended that the performance of this group be measured against that of the entire HST 100-M student body.

This special academic development programme included a library component in which the subject librarian was involved, both in its conception and its execution (cf. section 3: HST 100-M library experimental group). The Unisa library featured very prominently since these 28 students used it as a place to study.

2. HST 100-M QUESTIONNAIRE

2.1 Objectives and design

The questionnaire had two main objectives: first, to assess student response to the new HST 100-M course, and secondly, to establish what kind of library background they had had at school. This was done in order to shape a suitable user education dimension to the teaching programme - both in its distance-education and its campus components. The rationale of the questionnaire in respect of the latter objective was specifically to gauge the educational and library background of History I students at Unisa. It was intended to probe the connection between a disadvantaged schooling - including poor literary and research training - and the need for academic development of under-prepared students at first-year university level.

The questionnaire was designed in conjunction with colleagues working in this field at Unisa, namely Dorette van Ede (Psychology), Oscar Kilpert (BUT), David Adey (BUT), Dorothea Rowse (Deputy Head: Subject Librarian Division), Johannes du Bruyn and Nicholas Southey (History), and Mary-Lynn Suttie (Subject Librarian: History and Political Science). The final questionnaire was however published under the names of the latter three and conformed to the prevailing social science survey methodology (Babbie, 1990).

2.2 Survey construction and administration

There were a number of overriding considerations in the construction of the questionnaire. Confidentiality had to be assured. Students' names were not required and there was no possible way to link respondents to their examination or assignment results. This was clearly stated in bold, capitalised print at the top of the questionnaire.

Secondly, it was deemed an advantage to send out the questionnaire as an official HST 100-M tutorial letter in order to elicit the best possible response. Self-addressed, pre-paid envelopes were also included to facilitate a speedy and inexpensive reply.

Thirdly, the BUT at Unisa designed the questionnaire in the clearest format. It was easy to fill in, ambiguities were eliminated as far as possible and the questions were kept to a minimum. The questions were also simply phrased to ensure a ready understanding by the respondents. Students were required to spend 25 minutes at the most in answering the questionnaire. For this reason also, it was decided to present it as part of the course work for HST 100-M.

Fourthly, we set out clear guidelines about how to answer the questions. The language was simple and we explained that there were no right or wrong answers. We also pointed out that some questions could have more than one answer.

Fifthly, most answers could be indicated by a tick in the space provided. Where other responses were required, space for single words or sentences was also given. Only question 72 required an overall comment in a few lines, but this was optional, not obligatory.

Sixthly, the survey was administered solely by the BUT. The responses were returned directly to the Bureau which presented the Department of History and the history subject librarian with a computerised analysis of the results. This was advantageous for reasons of efficient monitoring and capture of the data.

Seventhly, the questionnaire was translated into Afrikaans (see appendix 2, HST 100-M: Studiebrief 106/90) and checked to ensure its conformity with the English version. Unisa is a bilingual (English and Afrikaans) distance-education

university; therefore the students have the option to use either of the two official languages.

The questionnaire consisted of four main sections. Section A requested personal data, section B dealt with educational background, section C asked questions about previous library training, and section D was specifically about Unisa and the new HST 100-M course.

My own research is primarily concerned with the responses to questions in section C, but the other sections reflect the interdisciplinary nature of the academic development project in which I was involved. Therefore, section A and B were also applicable. Certain findings in section D, which focused attention on the new HST 100-M course, were only of tangential relevance to my research on library involvement in academic development. Consequently, the responses are not dealt with comprehensively; that has been left to the historians who participated in this project. Their findings may be published elsewhere in the future.

2.3 Results

2.3.1 Overall response to questionnaire

Of the 1836 enrolled HST 100-M students, 831 (45,3 per cent) returned the questionnaire.

2.3.2 Section A: personal data

More than half of the 831 who responded to the questionnaire were men (58 per cent: Question 1). The average age of students was 25-35 years (Question 2) - higher than that of residential universities in South Africa.

The majority of respondents spoke an African language at home (71,8 per cent), 16,1 per cent spoke English and 10,6 per cent Afrikaans (Fig. 2: Question 3).

Most students lived in towns (41,2 per cent) and some near a city (24,4 per cent); 19,3 per cent resided in cities, 25,1 per cent in rural districts and the rest near a town (12,3 per cent) (Fig. 3: Question 4).

Among the most popular pastimes were reading (53,4 per cent), listening to music (33,3 per cent) and watching or playing soccer (28,3 per cent) (Question 5).

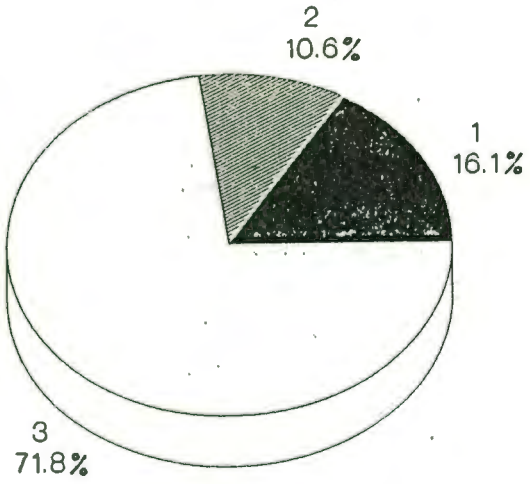
Many of the students enrolled for History I were teachers (56,9 per cent). Those who were unemployed accounted for 18,7 per cent and 5 per cent were in clerical jobs (Fig. 4: Question 6). Of the 156 unemployed respondents, 80 (51,3 per cent) were "full-time" students at Unisa and 40 (25,6 per cent) were unable to find any kind of employment (Question 7).

Questions 8 to 10 asked about the source of power and level of technological equipment to which students had access. Most had electricity in their homes (60,3 per cent), 20 per cent had no power at all and the rest used either gas (8 per cent) or batteries (11,7 per cent). For those without electricity, the schools provided the nearest access to power (16,4 per cent).

Of the 831 respondents, 741 (89,2 per cent) had radios, 700 (84,2 per cent) owned cassette players, 556 (67 per cent) had television sets and 207 (25 per cent) had video recorders. Only 12 respondents (1,4 per cent) possessed none of the above.

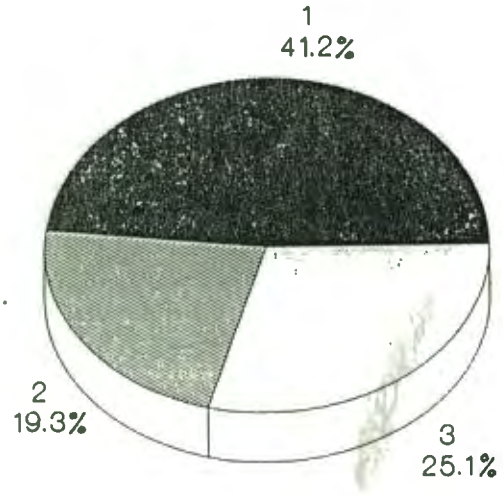
The majority (32,3 per cent) watched television for between two and five hours per week, 18,8 per cent for under two

FIGURE 2
QUESTION 3: HOME LANGUAGE



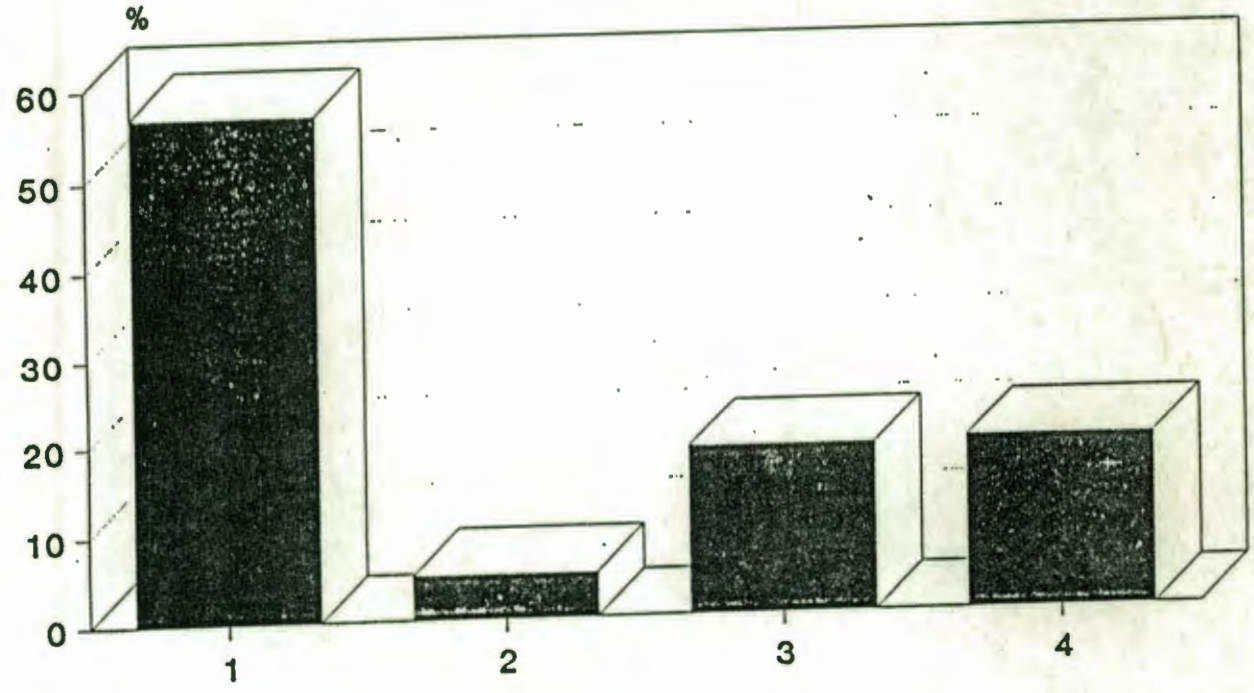
1: English 134
2: Afrikaans 88
3: African 597

FIGURE 3
QUESTION 4: WHERE RESPONDENTS LIVE



1: In towns 342
2: In cities 160
3: Rural 209

FIGURE 4
QUESTION 6: OCCUPATION



1:	Teachers	473
2:	Clerical	42
3:	Unemployed	156
4:	Other	160

hours, 16,1 per cent for six to ten hours and 7,8 per cent for more than ten hours. For 24,8 per cent of the students, Question 11 was not applicable.

Question 12 elicited the following responses: 29,6 per cent listened to the radio for less than two hours per week; 29 per cent for between two and five hours; 18,4 per cent for more than ten hours; 17 per cent between six and ten hours; and 5,7 per cent marked the question as not applicable.

Fewer than half the students (48,4 per cent) used a table in their house for study purposes, 28,6 per cent had a desk set aside for study in their bedroom and 18,4 per cent used a separate room for this purpose (Question 13). Moreover, 13,2 per cent of the students lived with eight or more other people at home (Question 14).

2.3.3 Section B: education

The majority of the HST 100-M students in 1990 were schooled in the Transvaal (38,7 per cent), 15,6 per cent were educated in Natal, 10,5 per cent in the Cape, 3,4 per cent in the Orange Free State, and 23,2 per cent went to school in the "independent" homelands (Transkei, Bophuthatswana, Venda and Ciskei). Only 8,5 per cent comprised those who were schooled in other homelands, countries in the rest of Africa, and abroad (Question 17).

The majority (48,6 per cent) received a Department of Education and Training (DET) schooling, 12,2 per cent had a Joint Matriculation Board matriculation exemption, 7,6 per cent attended Department of Education and Culture (House of Representatives) schools, and 6,7 per cent went to Transvaal

Education Department schools (Fig. 5: Question 18). A mere 8,3 per cent had had a private school education (Question 19).

Just over half (51,5 per cent) of the respondents had obtained matriculation exemption, 46,6 per cent had a standard 10 certificate and 0,9 per cent had completed standard 8 or 9 (Fig. 6: Question 20).

Question 21 was concerned with the size of matriculation classes at schools: 34,2 per cent of the respondents reported classes in excess of 50 pupils and 49,8 per cent more than 40.

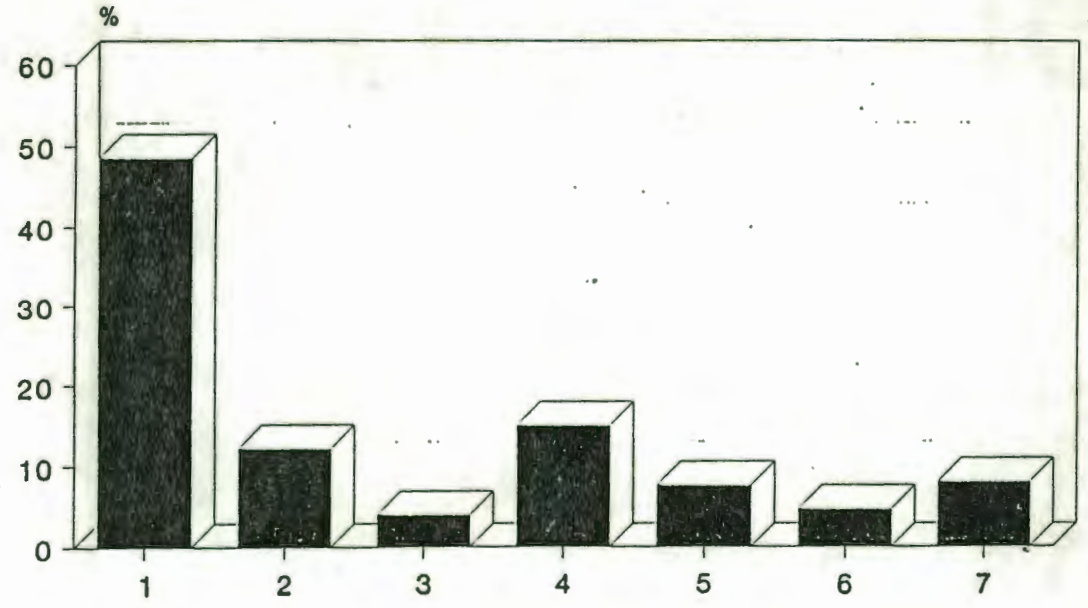
Three-quarters (75,9 per cent) of the respondents studied history in their matriculation curriculum (Question 22). Of these, 31,6 per cent obtained 40 to 49 per cent in their final examination, 29,5 per cent achieved 50 to 59 per cent and 9,8 per cent of the students attained over 70 per cent (Question 23).

2.3.4 Section C: libraries

Approximately one-third (33,7 per cent) of the HST 100-M respondents did not have a library at high school (Fig. 7: Question 24). Of the remaining 548 students, 11,3 per cent reported that their school library consisted of a couple of shelves of books in a classroom. Of the latter group, 23,4 per cent had a locked room set aside as a library which was open at certain times, 26,6 per cent used a library which was the size of an ordinary classroom, and 37,4 per cent apparently had access to a larger library (Fig. 8: Question 25). The "not applicable" response correlates with the "no" response in Question 24 (Fig. 7).

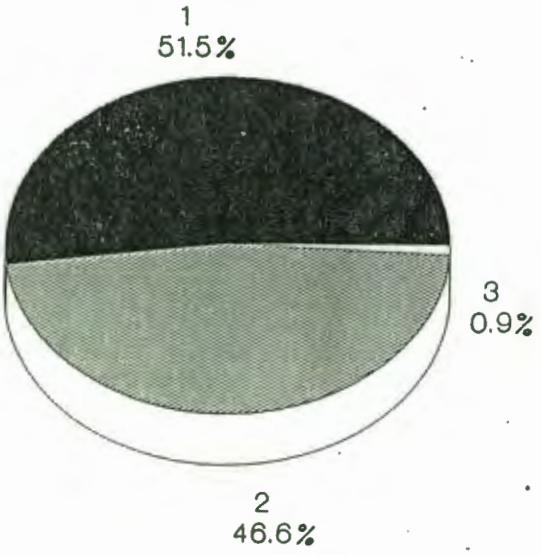
According to their responses to Question 26, students who had school libraries found them adequately stocked with

FIGURE 5
QUESTION 18: TYPE OF SCHOOLING



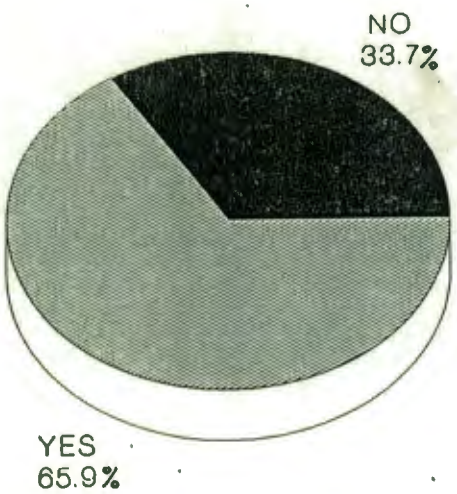
1:	Department of Education & Training	404
2:	Joint Matriculation Board	101
3:	Department of National Education	33
4:	Departments of Education (White)	124
5:	Department of Education & Culture (Coloured)	63
6:	Department of Education & Culture (Asian)	39
7:	Other	67

FIGURE 6
QUESTION 20: SCHOOL-LEAVING CERTIFICATE



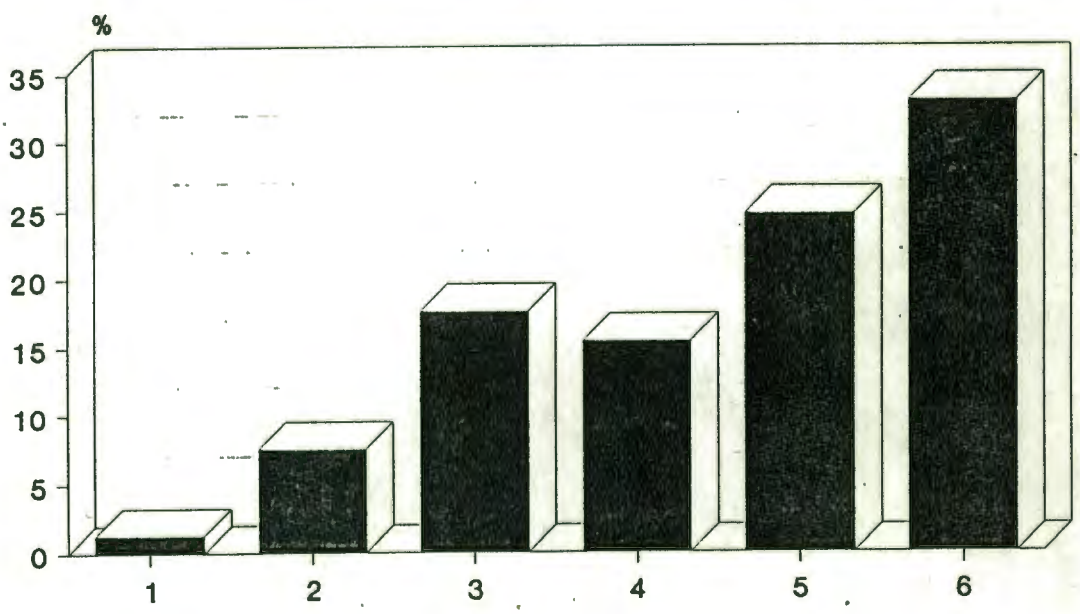
1:	Matriculation exemption	428
2:	Standard 10 senior certicficate	387
3:	Standard 9 or below	7

FIGURE 7
QUESTION 24:
RESPONDENTS WHO HAD A SCHOOL LIBRARY



Yes: 548
No: 280

FIGURE 8
QUESTION 25: THE SIZE OF SCHOOL LIBRARY



1:	A box with books in a classroom	11
2:	A couple of shelves with books in a classroom	62
3:	A whole classroom with book shelves	146
4:	A locked room with books, but open at set hours	128
5:	Larger library than an ordinary classroom	205
6:	Not applicable	275

dictionaries (88,1 per cent), encyclopaedias (79,2 per cent), prescribed literature (specifically novels, poetry and plays) (87,8 per cent), magazines (71,9 per cent), textbooks (71,2 per cent) and newspapers (56,9 per cent).

Most students (61,9 per cent) had never used the school library to do research projects on their own (Fig. 9: Question 27). And 50,7 per cent had never had a particular classroom period set aside for library instruction or use during the school week (Fig.10: Question 28).

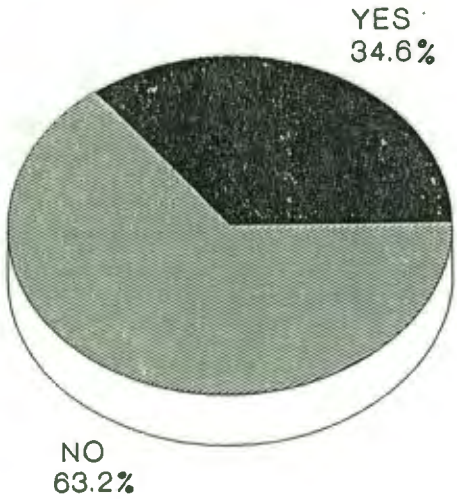
Fewer than half (47,9 per cent) who answered the questionnaire did not have a librarian at their school, 26,8 per cent had a full-time librarian and 21,2 per cent had a part-time librarian (Fig. 11: Question 29).

Questions 30 (Fig. 12) and 31 dealt with library use: 48,5 per cent, or 403 respondents, had never been shown how to use their school library. Of the 386 who said that they had been given library instruction, 7,3 per cent had used a computer catalogue. They had some knowledge of library procedure and bibliographical detail; for example, 46,2 per cent knew how to use the index of a book, and 30,6 per cent stated that they could compile a bibliography.

Of the 831 respondents, 70,8 per cent had used a library other than their school library, especially public libraries (Fig. 13: Question 32).

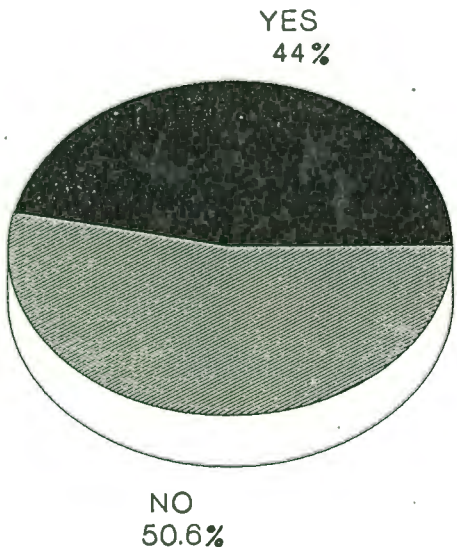
The vast majority (89,8 per cent) read both newspapers and magazines (Question 33). The most popular Afrikaans magazine and newspaper were the Huisgenoot (10,2 per cent) and Rapport (5,5 per cent). The Sowetan (46,9 per cent) was the most popular newspaper in English, followed by the Sunday Times (43 per cent), the Star (36,3 per cent), Drum (26,6 per cent), the Citizen (22,6 per cent), City Press (21,3 per cent), Pace (19,5 per cent), New Nation (19,1 per

FIGURE 9
QUESTION 27:
INDEPENDENT RESEARCH IN SCHOOL LIBRARY



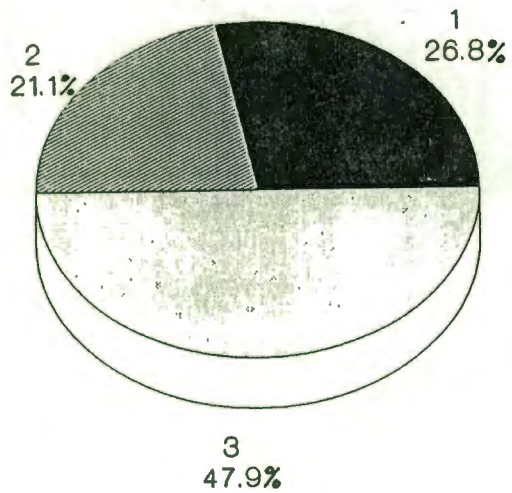
Yes: 514
No: 288

FIGURE 10
QUESTION 28:
PERIOD SET ASIDE FOR LIBRARY USE



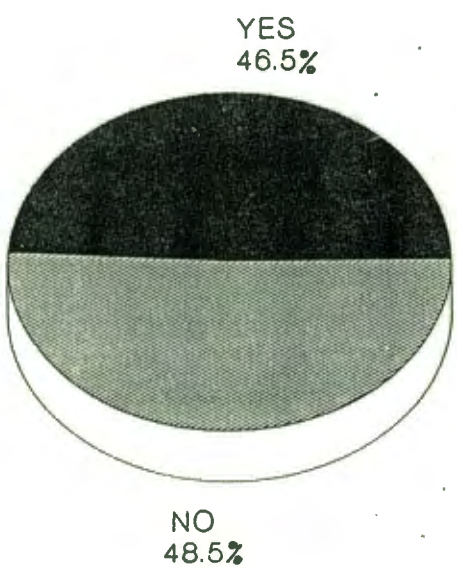
Yes: 366
No: 421

FIGURE 11
QUESTION 29:
AVAILABILITY OF SCHOOL LIBRARIAN



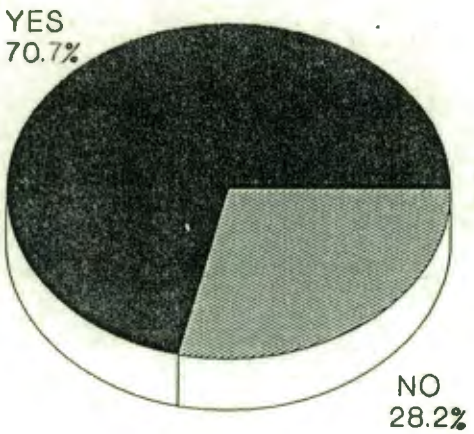
1:	Full-time librarian	223
2:	Part-time librarian	176
3:	No librarian	398

FIGURE 12
QUESTION 30:
TRAINING IN SCHOOL LIBRARY USAGE



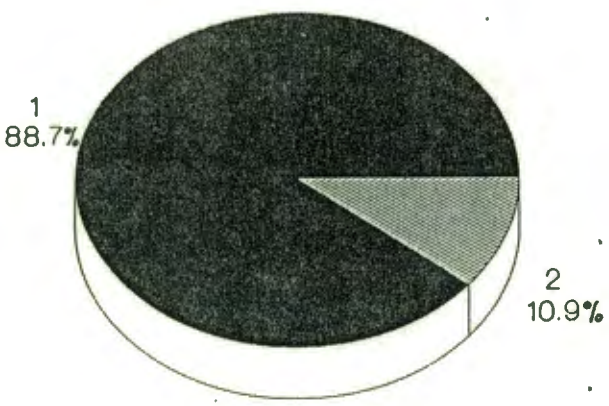
Yes: 386
No: 403

FIGURE 13
QUESTION 32:
HAD RESPONDENTS USED OTHER LIBRARIES



Yes: 588
No: 234

FIGURE 14
QUESTION 36:
WERE STUDENTS FULL-TIME OR PART-TIME



1: Part-time 737
2: Full-time 91

cent), Bona (13,2 per cent), Fair Lady (10,3 per cent) and The Weekly Mail (5,5 per cent) (Question 34).

Most (88,7 per cent) stated that they were studying part-time, while 11 per cent were "full-time" students (Fig. 14: Question 36).

Questions 37 to 44 dealt with the Unisa library and its branches. Most (69,9 per cent) of the HST 100-M respondents had never visited the main Unisa library in Pretoria, 14,6 per cent had visited it fewer than five times a year, 8,5 per cent once a month, and 1,8 per cent used its facilities five days a week (Fig. 15: Question 37).

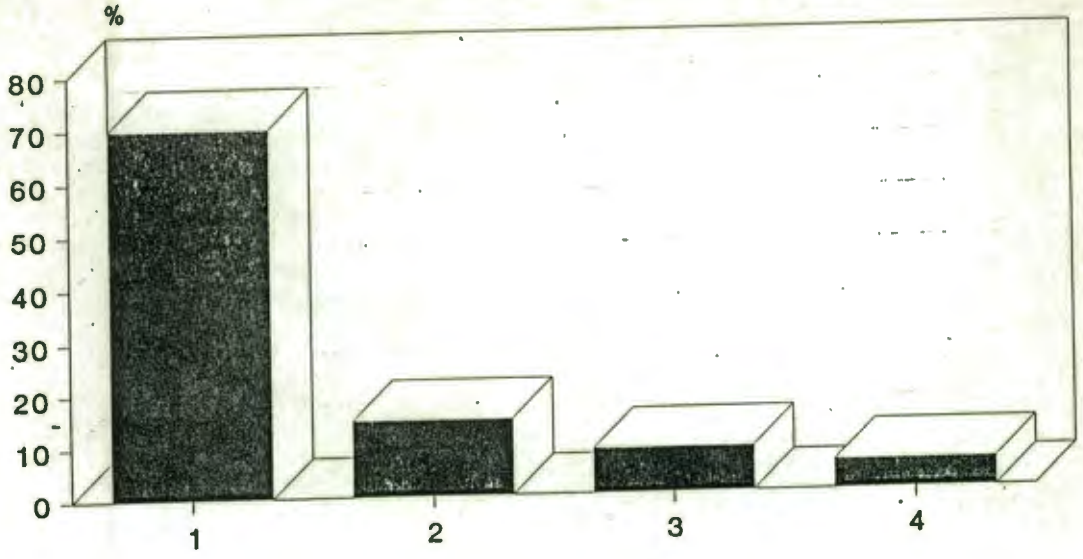
The majority (59,3 per cent) of students had never used a Unisa branch library; 13,2 per cent each had used the Johannesburg or Pietersburg branch libraries (a total of 26,4 per cent) (Fig. 16: Question 38).

Almost half (49,8 per cent) found the Unisa library staff friendly and helpful, the libraries easy to use (35,4 per cent) and the building well signposted (35,7 per cent) (Question 39).

Far fewer (29,9 per cent) were able to use the card catalogue (Fig. 17: Question 40) and 53,2 per cent replied that the question was not applicable because they had never used the libraries. Similarly, 31,9 per cent were not able to use the computer catalogue against 7,3 per cent who could, while 58,2 per cent again regarded the question as not applicable (Fig. 18: Question 41).

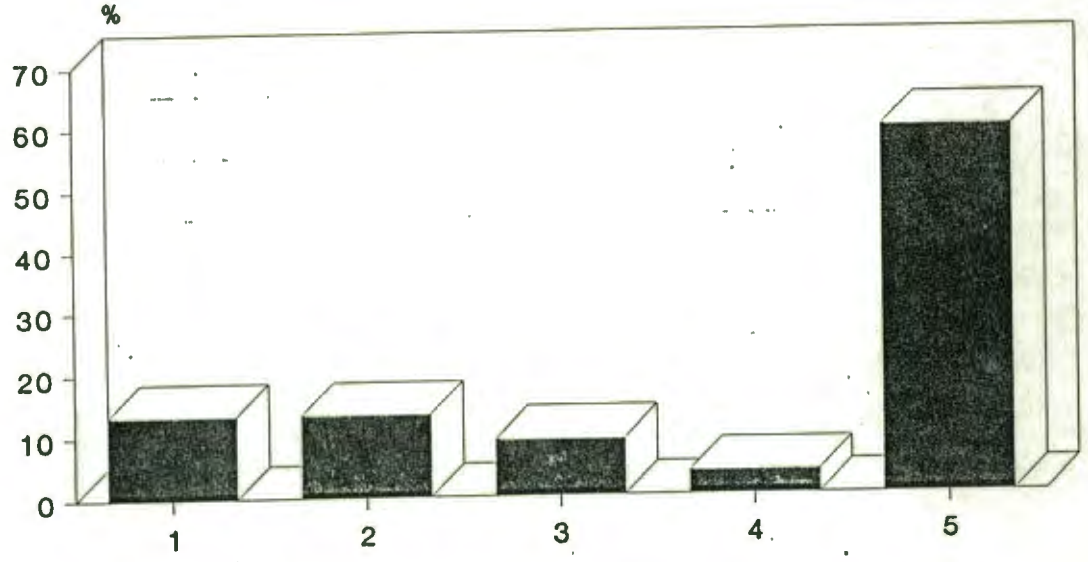
Of the 309 students who had used the card and computer catalogues, 106 (34,3 per cent) did not need assistance (Fig. 19: Question 42). Those who did require help asked either a librarian (76,8 per cent) or a friend (23,2 per cent) (Question 43).

FIGURE 15
QUESTION 37:
FREQUENCY OF VISITS TO UNISA LIBRARY



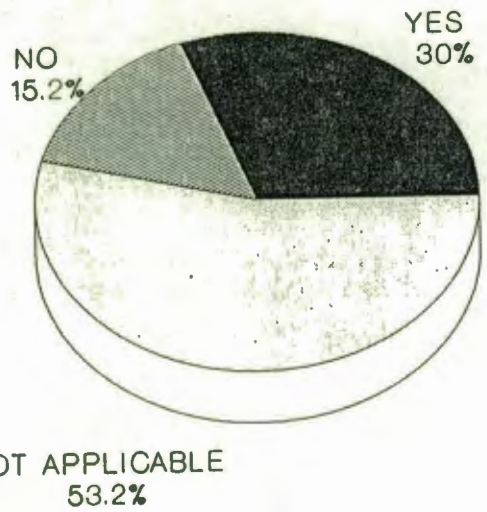
1:	Never	581
2:	Fewer than five visits per year	121
3:	About once a month	71
4:	On a weekly basis	46

FIGURE 16
QUESTION 38:
WHICH UNISA BRANCH LIBRARIES WERE USED



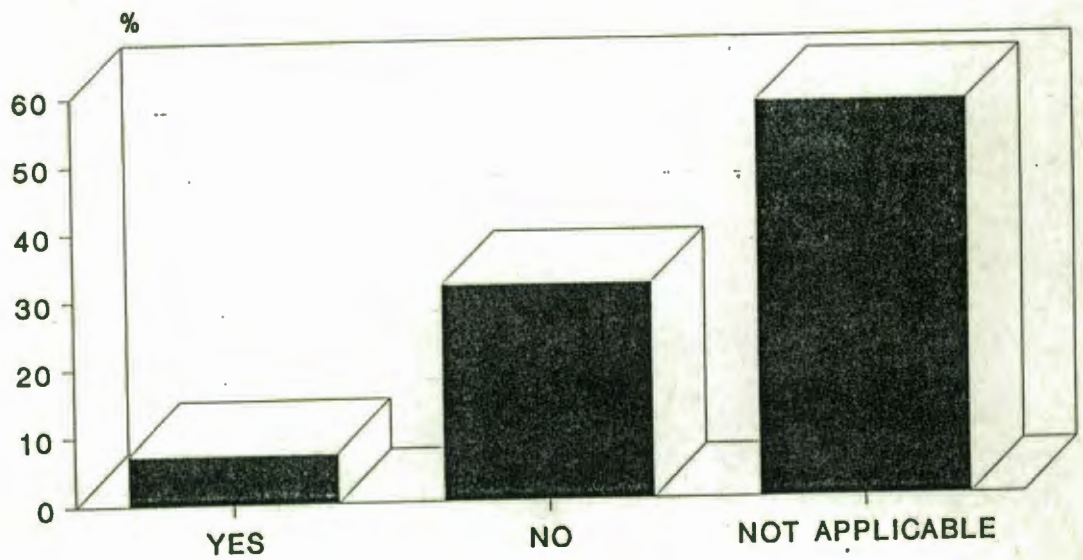
1:	Johannesburg	110
2:	Pietersburg	110
3:	Durban	75
4:	Cape Town	31
5:	None	493

FIGURE 17
QUESTION 40:
ABILITY TO USE THE CARD CATALOGUE



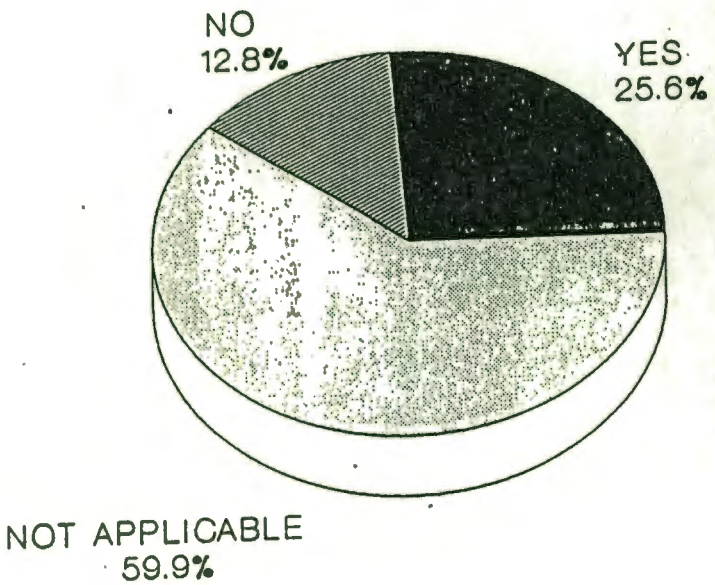
Yes:	249
No:	126
Not applicable	442

FIGURE 18
QUESTION 41:
ABILITY TO USE THE COMPUTER CATALOGUE



Yes:	61
No:	265
Not applicable	484

FIGURE 19
QUESTION 42:
ASSISTANCE REQUIRED TO USE CATALOGUES



Yes:	213
No:	106
Not applicable	498

Of the 468 respondents who had looked for books in the Unisa libraries, 160 (34,2 per cent) had occasionally been successful, 122 (26 per cent) had often found the books and 80 (17 per cent) had always located the material for which they were looking (Question 44).

2.3.5 Section D: Unisa and the HST 100-M course

The vast majority (738) of the 831 respondents (88,8 per cent) had enrolled to study the HST 100-M course in English (Question 45).

As far as subject choice is concerned, Education (I,II or III) was the most popular combination with History I: 32 per cent (Question 46).

Almost all respondents (97 per cent) found the HST 100-M study guide easy to read and understand and 98,3 per cent thought it was well structured (Questions 48 and 47).

Similarly, HST 100-M Tutorial letter 101/90 and Tutorial letter 102/90 (see appendix 3) which contained instructions about the course and guidelines for the writing of assignments respectively, were equally accessible and helpful: 98,5 per cent and 98 per cent respectively (Questions 52 and 53).

Despite the fact that 60,3 per cent of the students admitted that writing essays was either very difficult or fairly difficult, 79,6 per cent preferred essay or paragraph-type answers to multiple-choice questions (Questions 55 to 57).

The 1990 History I (HST 100-M) discussion classes, held in Pretoria, Cape Town, Durban and Pietersburg, were attended by 320 students (38,5 per cent). A further 289 (34,7 per cent) wished to attend but were unable to finance the

travel and accommodation expenses involved, and 176 others (21,1 per cent) were not granted leave from their employers to attend the classes (Question 63).

Nearly three-quarters of the students (74,7 per cent) reported that HST 100-M was a "very good course"; 24,1 per cent were less enthusiastic, but nevertheless regarded it as a "fairly good course" (Question 70).

2.4 Analysis of the results

2.4.1 Overall response to questionnaire

The BUT found the response to the HST 100-M questionnaire considerably better than the average achieved for similar projects conducted by other departments within Unisa (Kilpert, 1990), and regarded them as within generally accepted limits recommended for surveys of this kind (Babbie, 1990: 182; Gothberg, 1990: 556). The reason for this seems to have been that as the questionnaire was presented in the form of a tutorial letter, students construed the exercise as an official assignment which was part of their course work.

The students were also given advanced notice in Tutorial Letter 105/90 that they would be required to answer the questionnaire. They were also reminded to return their responses to the BUT in Tutorial Letter 107/90, three weeks after the deadline for replies (Babbie, 1990: 177-181).

The irony of this, however, was that its anonymity might have persuaded some students that there was nothing to be gained by replying to the questionnaire. Unlike other assignments, no marks (or credit points towards admission to the examination) were allocated for its completion. This may explain the less than 50 per cent response.

Furthermore, this non-response was possibly compounded by the relatively lengthy nature of the questionnaire.

2.4.2 Section A: personal data

Most of the HST 100-M students in 1990 were Africans whose language proficiency in English (and in a limited number of cases, Afrikaans) might be described as only fair, and sometimes even poor. English was however the preferred medium of instruction. It was therefore also a second language for over 70 per cent of the students. This was a crucial consideration in planning an academic development and library instruction programme (Question 3).

Those students who were close to major urban centres presumably had greater access to library facilities other than those of Unisa (such as school or public libraries) (Question 4), though for political reasons, this too might have varied. For instance, most town councils at the time of this survey restricted admission on the grounds of race. In an analysis of public libraries in South Africa in 1988, a mere 7,9 per cent were open to all races in the Orange Free State, 16,8 per cent in the Transvaal, 28,6 per cent in the Cape and 54 per cent in Natal (Stabbins, 1990).

Furthermore, rural students, who had limited, if any, access to public libraries for reasons of distance from towns or a closed policy implemented by conservative town councils, had little or no experience of libraries, which therefore exacerbated their unpreparedness for tertiary education.

Rural education is also particularly poor; it is the "forgotten factor" in much of state policy. Bot (1988), in her critique of the DET's working party report on the 1983 government white paper on education, has indicated the extra handicaps which rural students experience. Facilities

are virtually non-existent in black schools in the countryside. Classrooms are at a premium, textbooks are in short supply, and libraries under such circumstances are regarded as the least priority.

Question 5 was an open-ended one which asked about students' hobbies. The intention was to gain some insight into their ordinary extra-mural and recreational activities. That reading was the most important pastime among the HST 100-M students is most significant for the purposes of this research. Library instruction, which includes critical analysis, must become a priority in improving reading skills, and consequently extra-mural enjoyment as well.

The fact that most respondents were teachers (many in high schools) signifies their need to improve their qualifications (Question 6). This shows that not only are many of these teachers inadequately qualified, but that they also require academic development themselves.

The student profile variables derived from the questionnaire coincide with the university's official figures produced for the entire HST 100-M group by the Bureau for Management Information, based on registration data (Unisa, 1990: 3). Such corroboration of my results further confirms the validity of survey.

Another important sector of the HST 100-M population was unemployed which suggests the economic constraints under which they studied (Question 7). Of these, about half were "full-time" undergraduates who regularly used the Unisa campus facilities for reading, studying and writing assignments. During 1990 the number of students using the library on a daily basis averaged 700 and reached over 2 000 at peak times in the academic year (Neethling, 1991). Such students were an indispensable part of any academic

development strategies which were devised. It was also from their ranks that the experimental group for this library instruction and academic development research was drawn (cf. section 3: HST 100-M library experimental group).

Questions 8 to 15 of the questionnaire provide an impression of the socio-economic profile of most of the students. It is a dramatic finding that 39,7 per cent of the HST 100-M respondents did not have electricity in their homes (Question 8). This figure may be misleading in view of the worsening rent boycott in South African townships since 1990, which is likely to have increased this percentage.

The fact that 60,3 per cent of the students did have access to electricity is actually higher than might have been expected in view of the fact that "while Escom produces 60 per cent of the power in Africa, the bulk of the South African population still relies on wood, paraffin, candles, even cow pats, for heat and light" (Alexandra imperative, 1986: 110). Paice (1989/90: 127) found that only 25 per cent of black urban dwellers and virtually no one in rural areas had electricity at the end of the 1980s.

Questions 10 to 12 give detailed information about the feasibility of audio-visual academic development programmes. The availability of cassette recorders and radios is particularly significant in light of the recent introduction of Radio Unisa and the increased use of cassettes by various teaching departments, not least of all, the Department of History. Cassettes have become a feature of HST 100-M tuition since 1984, and four one-hour tapes were sent to students during 1990. These contained an introduction to the study guide (HST 100-M cassettes 1/90 & 2/90) and summaries of the discussion groups held in April and August 1990 (HST 100-M cassettes 3/90 and 4/90).

Most students reported that they possessed radios or radio/cassette players rather than television sets (Questions 10 to 12). This statistic also partly explains Unisa's decision to introduce radio broadcasts rather than television programmes. Moulder (1991(a): 103) has confirmed the usefulness of using radio in education and argues that "no other medium reaches as many people. About 13 278 000 South Africans listen to radio every day: 2 905 000 are classified as white; 884 000 as coloured; 435 000 as indian [sic]; and 9 054 000 as black. Radio reaches all income groups". World Bank research also indicates that interactive radio is more effective than either television or computer-based education: "[t]hese programmes integrate radio and correspondence materials; they have strong positive effects on learning. Even inexperienced teachers find them easy to use" (Moulder, 1991(a): 103).

The responses to Questions 13 and 14 indicate the cramped and crowded conditions under which history students of the survey studied. The implication of these statistics is that study was difficult; it was not quiet, nor private, and it was often interrupted.

2.4.3 Section B: education

It was clear that most History I students in 1990 had had a disadvantaged education under the apartheid system of "Bantu Education" (Fig. 5: Question 18, section 2.3.3 of this chapter) which denied them equal access to schooling resources and funding (Suttie, 1990(b): 101). The reason for investigating how many History I students had attended private schools (Question 19) was that they were likely to have attained better academic results at matriculation level (Bot, 1987). Very few of Unisa's history students (8,3 per cent) had benefited from such tuition, which further emphasised the need for improved university tuition.

The poor school qualifications of most respondents demonstrated the enormity of the problem facing HST 100-M lecturers who had to teach under-prepared students, virtually half of whom had not even obtained a matriculation exemption (Fig. 6: Question 20, section 2.3.3 of this chapter). It also showed continuity in the lenient admission policy of Unisa, in that in 1985, 47 per cent had not gained exemption (Kilpert, 1985: 41; cf. section 1, paragraph 2 of this chapter).

Another of the problems of a DET education is that pupils are subjected to overcrowded classrooms (Question 21). Since most of the HST 100-M respondents had had minimal opportunities for personal attention, it was axiomatic that universities should provide academic development. The results of the questionnaire confirmed the generally negative trends in teacher-pupil ratios within the DET. The pupil-teacher ratio in 1990 had fallen slightly since 1987/8 to 38:1. This comparison indicates that the respondents suffered a higher ratio than the national average (SAIRR, 1989/90: 825)

The poor results obtained in the senior certificate examination in history further indicates the poor quality of the students who registered for HST 100-M, and compounds the problems university teachers face in assisting them (Question 23). Such poor performance at school is however not necessarily an indication of a student's intellectual aptitude for or ability in history at university. Recent research has shown that there is little or no correlation between matriculation results and first-year university grades at Unisa (Barnard, 1991).

One of the reasons for studying history at school is that it is deemed to be a "content subject" which is apparently not dependent upon rich educational resources required by technical subjects and the natural sciences, for instance

(In 1989, 44 per cent of black standard 10 pupils took history and only 0,4 per cent technical subjects (SAIRR, 1991/92: 183)). Obviously, such a notion ignores the reading and language components necessary for the successful study of history. The lack of library training is therefore even more deleterious. At university, history is regarded as a teaching subject with an important political content, which possibly accounts for its popularity.

Another interpretation is that most DET pupils have little chance of following a scientific career at university (or other tertiary institutions) because of their inadequate background in mathematics, physics or chemistry, and therefore have limited choices about which degree courses to take (Science on a shoestring, 1987).

2.4.4 Section C: libraries

More than a third of the students had not received regular training in the use of library facilities at school, yet at first-year university level they were expected to read history for degree purposes. Their lack of familiarity with library skills must surely have impinged adversely on their ability to cope with the HST 100-M course.

Those who reported that their school library was a locked room were probably indicating the nature of many "libraries" in DET schools which are essentially designed to service the needs of teachers rather than students (Question 25). Such repositories are for reference works which are meant to assist teachers in their classroom preparation. Yet another kind of "library" exists in many DET schools, namely textbook storerooms. Owing to the shortage of textbooks, some principals have stocked their libraries with copies of textbooks which are then made available to students on loan. The only advantage of this

is that textbooks are made accessible to pupils who cannot afford to buy them.

Stadler (1991: 16), writing about school libraries in Natal, confirms that black schools are characterised by a lack of basic reference books, and the prescription of works of fiction and non-fiction are controlled by the DET without consultation with teachers. Pupils have limited access to supplementary reading material and the average number of library books per pupil in DET schools is only one compared to sixteen per pupil in the white Natal Education Department schools.

Responses to Question 26 show clearly the small range of library material which was available in many DET libraries. Pupils were therefore not encouraged to read more widely than their textbooks, which severely limited their general knowledge. This impinged particularly on their grasp of history.

Questions 27 (Fig. 9), 28 (Fig. 10), 30 (Fig. 12) and 31 (cf. section 2.3.3 of this chapter) highlight the lack of library user education at high school. Research is obviously far less important than rote learning, critical thinking is less encouraged than uniform memory training, and reading skills are patently confined to the classroom situation where 40 pupils are expected to understand such techniques through formal teaching. Informal reading for leisure therefore appears to be extremely rare.

Moreover, since HST 100-M assignments require that students use indexes in recommended books to find relevant historical material, and that they compile a bibliography for each essay, their under-preparedness for a university education was dramatically demonstrated by the results of Question 31.

There is very little statistical information on libraries in black schools, but this questionnaire seems to confirm Verbeek's (1986) research in Natal and KwaZulu. She quotes the inspector of school libraries who reported that there were virtually none in KwaZulu, except those provided by READ, the prominent literacy agency in South Africa. This is also the finding of Overduin (1987), who provides evidence for a larger part of South Africa. Krige's (1990) survey of African schools also noted the deleterious effects of "Bantu" education on the provision of libraries.

It was also obvious that librarianship as a career is not promoted in South African schools (Fig. 11: Question 29, section 2.3.3 of this chapter). There is presumably a connection here between low literacy levels, poor schooling, minimal independent research, generally inadequate comprehension of academic material and the paucity of information specialists. Library user education is therefore a luxury which is offered to only a few (almost exclusively white) pupils whose schools employ full-time librarians.

The reason for asking questions about leisure was to gauge levels of general knowledge and literacy. It is significant that reading is mostly confined to news and probably sport reportage, while few students appear to read more in-depth journals, such as Time (Question 33; cf. Question 26).

Figure 14 (Question 36, section 2.3.3 of this chapter) shows that 11 per cent of the HST 100-M students studied "full-time" in 1990 (cf. Question 7). This category of student provided lecturers and the librarian with an accessible experimental group in order to test academic development strategies, which could then be modified for the purposes of distance education.

The implications of the results to Questions 37 to 44 about the Unisa library and its branches are that the university tries to provide an education without a library training. This is a built-in problem of distance education, but it is a serious lacuna that students may graduate without ever having had to consult works in a library, other than those which have been recommended for specific degree courses. They will then have been overdependent on a study collection or short-loan system, rather than a reference and research system. Independent and critical research methods are as much an academic exercise as the contents of many curricula. Practical experience of libraries must surely be a sine qua non of a university education.

The responses to Question 43 about how students related to librarians in the Unisa library was unexpected. Contrary to conventional wisdom, about half the students who used the library seemed not to be intimidated by the librarians as figures of authority. They were willing to approach them for assistance in finding material and learning how to utilise the computer catalogue.

That so few students were able to use the electronic or card catalogues shows their lack of library expertise and indicates the need to introduce user-education strategies to improve library services and encourage independent research.

How efficient was the Unisa library? Only 17 per cent had always been able to locate the material they needed (Question 44). This confirms the perception which some librarians have had that students find the Unisa library difficult to use. The results of Question 39 reinforce the impression that the majority of students believed it to be inadequately signposted.

2.4.5 Section D: Unisa and the HST 100-M course

Most History I students studied through the medium of English in 1990. Since 71,1 per cent were Africans (Unisa, 1990: 2), it was clear that the majority faced the problem of writing assignments in a second language. Any strategies for academic development therefore have to include reading and writing skills in an attempt to improve English usage and style.

That virtually all the History I students found the study guide easy to follow shows the success of the academic development principles employed in making it more accessible (Questions 47 & 48). The language used was simple and the student was taken through the main themes of the course step by step. Despite its great length (400 pages), the study guide seems nevertheless to have been easily understood.

Similarly, comments on the tutorial letters were equally positive (Questions 52 & 53). Tutorial Letter 102/90 was specifically designed to provide academic development (writing and research skills) to the distance-education students. The other tutorial letters often contained advice about how to marshal information, but were devoted more especially to the subject matter of the HST 100-M course and how to write assignments on particular topics.

The preference for essay or paragraph questions is difficult to explain, since most students found essay-writing difficult (Questions 55 to 57). Perhaps multiple-choice questions, which are widely used in other first-year Unisa courses, demand a certain linguistic sophistication since they often use semantic distractors. The essay is presumably considered less precise and therefore more acceptable to students who are not well prepared and who therefore resort to vague description. Such poorly written

essays then frustrate lecturers who demand clear arguments and concise writing.

Respondents regarded the discussion group visits conducted by lecturers in Cape Town, Pietersburg, Durban and Pretoria as extremely helpful. They were in favour of personal contact with lecturers and generally regarded such tuition as valuable (Question 62). Under-prepared students recognise their need of special attention and prefer instruction to be given orally. This emphasises the particular difficulty of distance education as a medium; it invariably demands advanced reading abilities, which is precisely what under-prepared students lack.

Judging by the response of students to Question 70, the revised HST 100-M course with its built-in academic development approach was well received. This suggests that it should be refined even further in future years. The statistics were heartening to the architects of the revised HST 100-M course since they reflect considerable affirmation from the students and show that academic development strategies can be successful, even in distance teaching.

3. HST 100-M LIBRARY EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

3.1 Background

At the same time that the History I course was being revised to cater to the demands of a changing student population, a concomitant trend was noticed in the library. More and more "full-time" African students began to use the Unisa library for study purposes after 1985. This reflected their own lack of study facilities at home, or an inability to find suitable, gainful employment, and the attempt by some of them to engender a residential feel on the campus. Consequently, the Unisa library became the focal point of

the campus for a growing segment of the enrolled student body. Therefore, library orientation became a necessity.

Sylvia Williams (Co-ordinator: User Education) introduced an elementary user education programme for certain teaching departments. Arising from these initiatives, I approached the Department of History, specifically the lecturers in History I, to design a more in-depth and "hands-on" library component which would complement their academic development programme for HST 100-M.

3.2 Logistics, administration and design

Twenty-eight self-selected, "full-time" HST 100-M students, all Africans and the products of a DET school education, attended a weekly seminar organised by Karen Harris, with the assistance of other first-year history tutors, myself and Hleziphi Napaai, Assistant Subject Librarian: History and Political Science.

The library sessions were an integrated part of the academic development seminar programme. The academic year was divided into 26 weeks, of which four were specifically allocated to library instruction (14,8 per cent) (see appendix 4, Library students 1990: preparation timetable).

Each seminar of 60 minutes focused on a theme relevant to the HST 100-M course. Library classes were allocated for 12 and 19 March 1990 at the beginning of the programme, and for 4 June and 2 July in the middle of the academic year, once the class had begun to evaluate its progress through performance in official HST 100-M assignments, which had been marked by the lecturers. Although these library students were not compelled to attend the seminars, they were nevertheless regarded as an experimental group for this project, and their attendance was fairly regular (64,3 per cent achieved good attendance, i.e. they attended 80

per cent of the classes).

The library sessions were emphasised as an integral part of the programme to ensure the validity of the results. A less formal element of the library input was the regular monthly screening of the BBC Newsbrief video, which is a summary of world news. It was shown each month at advertised times in the audio-visual centre in the Unisa library and was also open to other staff and students of the university. The main intention was to broaden the contemporary general knowledge of world events among the HST 100-M students.

The 12 and 19 March 1990 seminars, which were held in the Unisa library, gave a general introduction and included two detailed tours. The students in the experimental group were not expected to do anything themselves in these two sessions, except listen and observe. The orientation was followed by a demonstration of the following, conducted by the subject librarians:

* how to find books in the Unisa library using the card and computer catalogues;
* how to use the study (or short-loan) collection (the Unisa study collection is unique in size and arrangement, and therefore requires detailed demonstration and instruction);
* how to use the open-shelf and reference collections - this combined a title/author search and a subject search;
* where to find journals and newspapers;
* where to find the photocopy machines;
* where to find the general reading rooms and study tables;
* where to find the history subject librarian.

The 4 June and 2 July library sessions were more practical, and once again took place in the Unisa library. They were

also directly related to the topics of study dealt with in the previous history seminars or to the HST 100-M assignments. The location and context of this exercise were chosen deliberately because skills taught at a distance or in isolation have less meaning and often remain remote from the learning experience.

Students are more motivated to learn when instruction is directly linked to the medium and the situation of study. Under these circumstances, there is also a greater retention of newly acquired skills. The library seminars attempted to inculcate information skills and enhance the capacity for critical/analytical thinking in the students. The aim was also to provide them with the opportunity to conduct research under supervision.

The participants worked in pairs, under the guidance of the subject librarians, and were given a list of references to find. They were required to give the bibliographical information on the sources they had found. The subjects for this research exercise were slavery and "the frontier" (the concept as applied to interaction between different groups) at the Cape in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.

The seminars also included the following:

* a practical talk on the sources in the library useful for assignments, other than recommended reading;
* distinguishing between primary and secondary sources;
* how to determine the validity of a source;
* how to interpret a source;
* instruction on how to test the relevance of information in respect of specific assignments;
* handling different points of view in historical discourse;
* various practical exercises testing the skills which had been learnt.

3.3 Questionnaire

In order to assess the usefulness of the library component of the academic development classes for HST 100-M library students, a questionnaire consisting of 19 questions and space for two general comments - one about the Unisa library and the other about the university as a whole - was devised (see appendix 5, HST 100-M experimental library group questionnaire 1990). It was a voluntary response and 14 students (50 per cent) participated.

The questions were both specific (i.e. about the library academic development component) and general (i.e. about the campus, the Unisa library and the attitude of staff towards students). These arose from the prevailing conditions on the Unisa campus during 1990 and reflect the frustrations which were often experienced by students. In that year, student action became more militant, especially in view of issues such as unionism, separate municipal transport to and from the campus - which effectively forced black students and staff to walk from the nearest railway station or use taxis - the lack of canteen and study facilities, and officious security personnel. It was felt that the questions reflected the tensions of the "full-time" Unisa students, while the library became the focus of student activity.

The library itself assumed a much greater importance than might have been the case at any residential university, because students did not have daily lectures, nor did they have a students' union.

3.4 Results

All 14 students found the library sessions of the HST 100-M academic development tutorials helpful and recorded that they had learned from them (Question 1 and 3).

Question 2 probed what they had learnt in more detail. They found the instruction about how to use the computer catalogue (64,3 per cent) and the study collection (78,5 per cent) most beneficial. Some were interested in the journal collection (35,7 per cent), but fewer in the use of microfiche (28,6 per cent).

Only 42,9 per cent of the experimental group had had a library at high school (Question 4). Asked if they had used the Unisa library for reasons other than purely course work, 57,1 per cent replied in the affirmative (Question 5). The majority (85,7 per cent) always found the librarians helpful and friendly (Question 6).

Question 7 asked the students what requirements they had of a university library. Some respondents (42,9 per cent) thought it should be a social place for students. But 85,7 per cent thought that it should be a silent place for study and reading, and 28,6 per cent indicated that it should be both a social centre and a quiet study area.

Most (92,8 per cent) students spent more than four hours per day in the Unisa library (Question 9).

Question 10 also investigated how successful the library was in meeting students' needs. Only 42,9 per cent said "very well" and 57,1 per cent were "fairly" satisfied with the service. Part of the solution to this problem was deemed to be the appointment of a member of the library staff to liaise with an elected student representive in order to lessen the dissatisfaction: 100 per cent (Questions 18 and 19).

Question 11 was designed to measure how comfortable students felt with the library staff, particularly the history librarians. Half (50 per cent) replied that they did not know any librarians "personally", 21,4 per cent

apparently knew only one librarian, 14,2 per cent knew two and 28,6 per cent knew three or more librarians.

Asked what the library could do to improve its service to the students, the respondents tended to offer one of two suggestions in a general comment (Question 12). Some wanted more branches of Unisa library nearer the black townships, others wanted more study facilities in the library, yet others suggested that more library instruction be offered on a formal basis.

Half (50 per cent) the respondents attended the showings of the BBC Newsbrief video on a regular basis (Question 13).

The computer instruction proved very successful: 85,7 per cent found it easy to use once they had been shown (Question 14).

The majority (85,7 per cent) of the HST 100-M experimental group regarded the library as being well-signposted for easy access (Question 15).

On the issue of library security, 78,5 per cent agreed that a security service was essential, but thought that the Unisa officers were inefficient and impolite (Question 16).

Almost two-thirds of the experimental group (64,3 per cent) indicated that a canteen should be provided near the library (Question 17).

All the respondents thought that the HST 100-M academic development seminars (which included library instruction) held on a weekly basis were helpful and 57,1 per cent wanted more frequent classes (Question 20).

3.5 Analysis of the results

Since all the respondents had had a DET schooling and 57,1 per cent had not received any training in a school library (Question 4), the general findings of the larger questionnaire are also true for the smaller experimental group (cf. section 2.3.4 and Fig. 7: Question 24, section 2.3.3 of this chapter).

The fact that most students always found the librarians helpful, may, in fact, have meant that they dealt more or less exclusively with the history subject librarians whom they knew. The question may have been vaguely formulated, because students using the Unisa library had previously complained about the racism and surliness of particular librarians during 1990 (Question 6).

In 1989 Unisa introduced a more comprehensive security check at the entrances to the library. This aroused some animosity on the part of students who complained about the officious treatment they received. The rationale of the policing system was that people other than registered students were using the library and the possibility of theft was therefore heightened. It was also argued that overcrowding would occur if entry were unrestricted.

The results of the survey show that the security officials in the Unisa library were regarded in a poor light by three-quarters of the members of the experimental group. They admitted, however, that security (Question 16) was necessary to protect the holdings of the library, but they objected to the authoritarian attitude of many of the security staff.

Although 85,7 per cent regarded the library as a place of quiet study, 42,9 per cent thought it should also be a meeting place for students, which reflects the lack of

campus facilities for Unisa students (Question 7). What these statistics reveal is the necessity for a library reading room where students may congregate and discuss their courses, on the one hand, and a more strictly controlled study facility for quiet research, on the other.

That the majority thought the library should be a place of quiet study did not accord with the actual conditions. The Unisa students in the library were generally undisciplined and noisy, which was viewed by some staff to indicate a lack of familiarity with library practice at school. However, the experimental group showed remarkable awareness of the library code and its insistence on silence. The difference between knowledge and practice is difficult to measure.

Unisa library has a large staff and is therefore intimidating to a first-time user. It has eight floors and nearly 2 million items (Unisa, 1992). The subject librarians are housed separately on each floor, away from the stacks. The main information desk is curiously hidden on the fourth floor. Students therefore have to make a special effort to approach them for help. This makes them remote functionaries and probably explains why half the experimental-group respondents did not know any librarians "personally". Since the architectural design of the library is not conducive to easy access and assistance is structurally removed, subject librarians often remain on the fringes of undergraduate library education. Their job description also restricts their services to staff and postgraduate students.

Only those librarians and other assistants at the lending or information desks, on the third and fourth floors respectively, have much contact with undergraduate students. Subject librarians, by definition, are more closely associated with the research enterprise of

postgraduate users (Strassner, 1992). This system has perhaps led to the bureaucratisation of the Unisa library, which further adds to its clinical atmosphere. Students do not find it readily usable, nor do they experience it as a friendly place.

The respondents also suggested the need for a student canteen near the library, which would presumably have supplied a convivial social venue, thus relieving the library of that function (Question 17). Such findings were corroborated by the general comments offered by students in the questionnaire in response to Question 8. They specifically complained that the library did not provide a venue where students could discuss their work among themselves. The fact that most students spent more than four hours a day in the Unisa library emphasises the extent to which it had assumed the role of a central campus for "full-time" students.

The monthly showings of the BBC Newsbrief video was well attended by the experimental group (Question 13) which was indicative of a growing interest in world, and more particularly South African, news during 1990 - a dramatic year in eastern Europe and South Africa. The collapse of the communist bloc and the unbanning of the African National Congress and other political groups drew a particularly spontaneous and animated response.

Surprisingly, in view of the complaints from Unisa librarians themselves and the results of the larger questionnaire to all the HST 100-M students (cf. 2.3.4, Question 39), most members of the experimental group thought that the library was well signposted. This is difficult to explain, but perhaps their use of the library extended only to the study collection and the fourth-floor catalogue, which they had been shown by the subject librarians. Presumably, the instruction which they had

received precluded their having to use the non-existent signposts!

All the students felt that they had learnt from the weekly tutorials and 57,1 per cent asked for more frequent classes. This not only shows the success of the academic development programme for the experimental group, but also underlines the fact that it satisfied a need among the students for more personalised tuition. The distance-education mode did not appear to fulfil the demands of students on the campus, who increasingly sought face-to-face instruction from the lecturers and librarians.

Under the general comment (Question 21), a variety of remarks - mostly written in very poor English - reinforce the findings of the rest of the questionnaire.

3.5 Non-quantifiable results

One particular feature of the library academic development project, which was not quantifiable, was the response of students to the two librarians who provided the instruction. An additional advantage was that Hleziphi Napaai communicated extremely well with the students, especially in the practical exercises of the library programme. She often used Sesotho in order to clarify the more difficult concepts or procedures. This touches on the controversial issue of using the language in which students are expected to show competence, rather than the one they know best. The use of Sesotho in making the course more accessible was therefore a mixed blessing.

Moreover, the students, who were all Africans, related to her more easily than to the white librarian. She was also quite firm in her approach, which engendered a disciplined attitude, but was not patronising. They responded by spontaneously asking questions and practising the research

techniques which they had been taught in a more relaxed way. This indicated the usefulness of having African library staff in the programme, and also emphasises the need for affirmative action in staff appointments in the Unisa library as part of a larger academic development strategy.

4. EXAMINATION RESULTS

4.1 HST 100-M overall results

The examination results reflected a dramatic improvement in student performance during 1990. The lecturers in the History I course prepared a series of memorandums explaining the reasons for the increased pass rate from 37 per cent in 1989 to 55 per cent in 1990. They argued that the built-in academic development dimension to the course had helped students to understand the material more easily. The new study guide had been introduced in 1990 based on the new Africanised syllabus.

Tutorial Letter 102/90 (Harris & Southey, 1990) was also an indispensable part of the study package for distance-education students; it contained advice on study methods, hints on writing essays and assignments and the acknowledgement of sources. The other tutorial letters had also been directed towards the under-prepared students among those who had registered for HST 100-M. The assignments, of which there were six during the academic year, were graded in terms of difficulty and guidelines were given about how to answer them.

The students were encouraged to submit as many assignments as possible. Four-fifths (80,3 per cent) of the registered students submitted the first assignment, 82,9 per cent the second, 60,81 per cent the third, 59,4 per cent the fourth, 57,5 per cent the fifth and 38,2 per cent the sixth.

Assignments were thoroughly marked with extensive comments by the lecturers to assist students in improving their writing and research skills. Much attention was given to the structuring of arguments and the clear expression of ideas. The marking of assignments was carefully monitored by the course leader, Johannes du Bruyn.

The entire syllabus was covered systematically by means of assignments, discussion classes (in April and June 1990 for three days on each ocassion, attended by about 25 per cent of the registered students), cassette tape recordings and tutorial letters. The overall 18 per cent improvement in the examination results in 1990 was therefore ascribed to the academic development methodology inherent in the HST 100-M course.

4.2 HST 100-M library experimental group results

The students in the HST 100-M library experimental group which had received continual academic development throughout the year, including library instruction, also achieved favourable results. Most (71,5 per cent) of the 28 students passed. Only 7 failed, of whom three were given the chance to write the supplementary examination in January 1991 because they had obtained 45 per cent. Eighteen students (64,2 per cent) completed all six assignments and 24 (85,7 per cent) submitted five.

Their achievement was therefore significantly better than the overall 55 per cent pass rate of the entire HST 100-M class. Consequently, it is fair to conclude that the extra academic assistance which was offered to the "full-time" students on the Unisa campus proved successful in terms of examination performance.

It is also conceivable that the classes taught study and research skills which cannot be measured quantifiably.

These techniques might also have been transferable to other disciplines, which would then have enhanced the achievement of this programme even more. This was the opinion of the BUT, which published HST 100-M Tutorial Letter 102/90 as a suggested model of how to write a first-year undergraduate research essay, and which attracted the attention of lecturers in other teaching departments (Harris & Southey, 1989). The library component was also perhaps such a transferable element of the HST 100-M course, since research skills had been its specific focus.

The superior results of the experimental group could partly be attributable to other factors as well, such as a higher degree of motivation, dedication and perseverance, the ability to visit the Unisa library regularly, a better command of English, and so forth. In the absence of a control group it is not possible to state categorically that the difference was solely the result of the treatment this group received.

5. DISCUSSION

The HST 100-M course was conceived and designed as an academic development programme in much the same way as the History I course at the University of Cape Town, which was first introduced in 1988 (Bickford-Smith, 1990/1). Both courses recorded dramatic improvements in their examination results, while at the same time eliciting more favourable reaction from the students to the contents of the respective courses. An empirical study of first-year history students was undertaken at the University of Natal, Pietermaritzburg, in 1991, but its aims were to obtain student perceptions of the discipline of history, to gain some impressions of their educational preparedness for history at university, and to gather student assessments of the History I course by mid-year (Ndlovu & Nuttall, 1991). The library dimension has, however, remained the exclusive

characteristic of the Unisa first-year history academic development package.

The weakness of the Unisa library academic development component was its applicability only to the small experimental group. This raises the question about the ethical aspect of the experiment in which a particular, fortunate group of students was given an advantage over their peers, and about the feasibility of providing such academic development on a large-scale at a distance-teaching institution. The larger distance-education group had to rely on section 2 of Tutorial Letter 102/90 for guidance on finding information. This raises one of the inherent problems of distance teaching, namely that academic development strategies, like all other information, have to be conveyed mainly in written form (cassette tapes are also widely used, but videos have a small circulation). It is difficult to teach students how to use library facilities without demonstrating them. The practical aspects of user instruction are imprisoned in theoretical language and remain of academic interest to many distance-education students.

Since many students are poor readers and have difficulty with comprehension, the written word is often the least successful means of educational communication, yet it is the medium most used at Unisa. The advent of Radio Unisa in 1989 (the library programmes were introduced in 1991 after this research survey had been conducted) has lessened this inherent disadvantage, but only marginally because students need the "hands-on" experience of using library facilities in order for them to become an essential part of university study.

The results and findings of this research have confirmed the usefulness of academic development programmes in undergraduate history education. The library experimental

group has continued to function since 1990, providing the opportunity for further experimentation in teaching and research methodology especially geared to distance education. It has offered lecturers a live audience which, due to constraints of income and unemployment, has grown to 35 in 1992. It is significant that these are the only "full-time" students who have received library instruction at Unisa library on a formal basis. It is hoped that this survey will encourage the User Education Division to introduce a library-orientation programme each year to Unisa students who use the library on a regular basis.

The Radio Unisa library programme, though not directly linked to the study of history, has derived impetus from this research, and now offers a series of four half-hour programmes each year on the South African Broadcasting Corporation's Radio 2000 (Radio Unisa, 1992). The HST 100-M lecturers have also begun broadcasting in 1992 as part of the continued upgrading of their academic development project.

Chapter 5

CONCLUSION

Academic development in university libraries is likely to assume greater significance in South Africa in the next decade, since more and more under-prepared students will embark on tertiary education. This prediction is borne out by the increase in the number of black university students from 18 289 in 1980 to 100 632 in 1990 (SAIRR, 1991/922: 183). If this 450 per cent increment is repeated in the next ten years, 452 844 black students could be registered for degrees in the year 2000. Unisa had the highest enrolment of black students of any South African university in 1990: 40 899 (SAIRR, 1991/92: 222). These statistics suggest that academic libraries will have to become more involved in academic development. This research has attempted to point the way.

The contextual impingements of apartheid education have been emphasised in the first chapter of my dissertation. They have had a profound effect on student ability and performance in the past and their legacy is certain to shape university policy in the future. Shillinglaw remarks that

> universities and their libraries will not be able to escape the...stresses of the coming decades...Social and political circumstances may be turbulent. Their students may face endemic unemployment, and be subject to contrary... pressures regarding their studies, within an egalitarian society increasingly suspicious of anything so inherently elitist as a university education. The library staff will have to be fully aware of, and sympathetic to, the circumstances and needs of their clients (1990: 26).

It is clear, therefore, that librarianship in South Africa has to find a new direction - a trajectory away from imported European and American procedures, concepts and objectives. Moreover, the university library itself must become an agency of social change; by meeting the needs of its increasingly black student population it has to take on a "community library" aspect to retain its role as an opinion former. It thus interacts with its socio-political context and the intellectual community to stimulate new knowledge and improve educational standards by its relevance (Alemna, 1991: 6). Much of the research which underpins this study rests on the assumption that "academic libraries have a fundamental role to play in contributing to the successful adjustment of disadvantaged students" (MacAdam & Nichols, 1989: 204). And since under-prepared students in South Africa are black, Africanisation of libraries represents a crucial means to intellectual adjustment.

Horton argues persuasively that

> With the unlamented repeal of the petty apartheid laws, South Africa will become more "African" and more of an active contributor of original thought, skills and developments to the international field of librarianship, rather than the present situation of being largely a passive receiver (1991: 64).

There is more and more appreciation of Horton's point of view among South African academic librarians. Lor (1989: 74-75), for instance, concurs that "librarians are concerned about their relevance to the struggle that is taking place today and to the society that is taking shape". He elaborates that Africanisation is part of this quest for relevance and that a greater awareness of our context and population should, of necessity, stimulate thinking about new models of library provision which are not imitative of those in Western countries.

I have pushed this argument further by suggesting that university libraries have to be Africanised in their conceptualisation, approach and staffing policy, which is a more pro-active approach. Nassimbeni also links the Africanisation of the university student body directly to the need to

> shift the emphasis from a Euro-centric world view to one that recognises and affirms the environment of the university as a South African and African institution alert to regional issues and problems and one able to accommodate the real needs of a heterogeneous student intake and adapt curricula to reflect the needs of Africa, the nation and the community (1991: 8).

If academic development, no less than other educational strategies, is to succeed, these imperatives of relevance, curricular reform and Africanisation are essential.

Arising from the comparative dimensions of my dissertation, it is an obvious but important point that the educational experience of the ethnic minorities in Britain is quite different from that of the black majority in South Africa, both in qualitative and quantitative terms. It has not been my purpose, therefore, to focus purely on similarities, nor has it been my intention to extrapolate educational strategies from the British system for implementation in South Africa - at least not without modification. Rather, it is the counterpoint which the comparison provides that is constructive in trying to solve the problems that beset underprepared students in South African universities. This is not to say that there are no resonances between the respective experiences of ethnic minorities in the United Kingdom and the black majority in this country, but instead, that oversimplified parallels are not instructive. This was pointed out in my discussion of multi-culturalism and anti-racism in chapter 2, section 3.

Furthermore, the pitfalls of importing a discourse of multi-culturalism and transmogrifying it to the South

African situation (Cuthbertson & Grundlingh, 1992) are problematic in any attempt to construct a new praxis for university libraries, based upon notions of Africanisation and academic development. But some multi-cultural strategies, such as affirmative action and anti-racism awareness training, have nevertheless been advocated in my analysis in chapter 3, sections 3 and 4. These, if judiciously and timeously implemented, could redress some of the negative contextual constraints imposed by apartheid education.

The issues of multi-culturalism, academic development and anti-racist education have generally been debated outside library forums. They have been the preoccupations of university teachers rather than librarians in South Africa. One of the aims of this research is to bring them into the orbit of librarianship as part of the restructuring of education presently being negotiated in this country. My focus has been on the pivotal role of the academic library as a major broker of academic development. To buttress this argument, much emphasis has been placed upon user education in chapter 3, section 2.

Such an analysis raises the important role of the library in the teaching function of a university. There is a heightened risk that under-prepared students in South African universities could retreat more and more into a textbook culture based on rote learning and limited reading, because academic libraries remain inaccessible ivory towers intent upon preserving an unattainable reading culture. Lor (1991(b)) warns that information workers will have to deal with a greater range of information users from varied disciplinary backgrounds, educational expertise and different value systems. They will also have to cope with users who are unaware of having an information need which "unfolds in interaction with the information worker, who therefore needs qualities of empathy and understanding"

(Lor, 1991(b): 19). If librarians remain inflexible and unattuned to the political and sociological context, libraries may well become marginalised on the fringes of academic life, instead of taking activist measures to inculcate a reading ethos through systematic teaching activities.

Significantly, this is not a uniquely South African problem. Line, in a British context, observed:

> The "teaching library"... was probably an idea ahead of its time; now I see it not so much as an ideal as a necessity if higher education is to be anything but a mass academic pig trough (1990: 505).

Line's "pig trough" syndrome has already affected university education in South Africa. The intellectual expectations of lecturers have been increasingly denuded by the declining standards of school education and the concomitant under-preparedness of many students embarking on higher education courses. Such disabilities have led to the institution of readers or anthologies (along the lines adopted by American colleges and universities) designed to obviate research in the library and to provide a ready reference for students who lack the skills to find material independently.

Fewer and fewer additional books or articles are recommended, especially for undergraduate study, which minimises the role of the library in the educative process. This threatens to lessen the place of academic libraries in the university panoply and curtail its control over research production. In fact, the rationale of the academic library as a purveyor of information and dispenser of research skills is at risk if librarians do not insist on a role in academic development.

Unisa provides an excellent case study in this latter respect. There has been a marked trend away from

recommended reading for undergraduate courses towards pre-packaged modules based on study guides, cassette tapes and anthologies of selected readings. This means that students do not need to consult the library at all and can obtain a bachelor's degree without any familiarity with a library culture. My empirical research - which focused on history students only - showed unequivocally that a minority of Unisa students use the library (chapter 4). This perpetuates the lack which many under-prepared students have when they first register at Unisa. Willemse (1991) corroborates that the Unisa library is under-utilised either because students are far removed from it or do not have the skills to unlock its resources.

The burden of my empirical research in chapter 4 was to show how important it is for the Unisa library not to relinquish its role as a teaching agent, especially when the method of distance education structurally divorces most students from the library and confines them to the written texts of their lecturers and some other carefully chosen scholars represented in the compiled readers. I have pointed out the intrinsic problems of using a literary means of educating students whose reading and comprehension skills are not well developed. I have therefore made a plea for more radio broadcasts for correspondence students and more practical user instruction for those able to visit the Unisa campus.

Finally, it is noted with some dismay that in spite of the realities of the information society, libraries have largely been ignored as agencies of democratic change in South Africa. Moodley (1992) pertinently avers that "creating a democratic ethos without libraries is not only a cause for serious concern but a sure road to information illiteracy". He recalls that in 1983 the National Commission on Excellence in Education in the United States of America disclosed that educational bureaucrats saw no

role for libraries or librarians in the maintenance of quality education.

Librarians in South Africa must ensure that this is not the case here. Any neglect on the part of the library and information studies research group of the National Education Policy Investigation (NEPI) to represent the interests of the information community could jeopardise the future of academic libraries. Politicians have to be convinced that we cannot "mortgage our future by short-circuiting our educational and library needs" (Moodley, 1992).

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Alemna, A A (1991). Libraries in research and scholarship in Ghana. African research and documentation, no.57, pp.6-14.

Alexander, N (1990). Education and the struggle for national liberation in South Africa: essays and speeches by Neville Alexander (1985-1989). Johannesburg: Skotaville.

The Alexandra imperative (or, life without electricity). (1986). Supplement on Escom. Leadership SA, pp. 109-10.

Allardice, C M (1987). Library provision for undergraduates: with specific reference to three libraries in a selected region of South Africa. Unpublished MA (Librarianship) dissertation. Cape Town: University of Cape Town.

Aman, M M (1987). A black South African views SAILIS. American libraries, July/August, p. 562.

Asante, M K (1988). Towards an Afrocentric university. Africa and the world, vol.1, no.2, pp. 45-51.

Astbury, R ed. (1989). Putting people first: some new perspectives on community librarianship. Newcastle: Association of Assistant Librarians.

Babbie, E (1990). Survey research methods. 2nd ed. Belmont, California: Wadsworth.

Baker, S (1990). Providing library services to overseas students. Library Association record, vol.92, no.7, pp. 509-10.

Barnard, S (1991). Academic success: the influence and failure of academic support/development programmes. An unpublished paper presented to the Department of History, May, Unisa, Pretoria.

Beehler, S A & Childers, M (1986). One step beyond: creating a current awareness exhibition. RQ, vol.26, no.2, pp. 231-37.

Behrens, S J (1990). Cross-cultural communication in the reference encounter: a South African perspective. South African journal of library and information science, vol.58, no.1, pp. 87-97.

Behrens, S J (1991). Library literacy and undergraduate students. South African journal of higher education, vol.5, no.1, pp. 124-28.

Bell, R (1989). Library literacy in the academic library. An unpublished paper presented at the annual SAILIS Conference, September, Kimberley.

Bell, R (1990). User education in the academic library: designing and evaluating a library instruction programme for underprepared students on the University of Natal, Pietermaritzburg campus. Unpublished MIS dissertation. Pietermaritzburg: University of Natal.

Bethlehem, L (1992). Race, gender and academic staff: is affirmative action necessary in South African universities? Udusa news, January, pp. 1-2.

Bickford-Smith, V (1990/1). Rethinking the teaching of first-year history at UCT. Perspectives in education, vol.12, no.1, summer, pp. 109-16.

Black teacher numbers still on the wane. (1986). Times educational supplement, 5 December, p. 3.

Bot, M (1987). The fifth stream: Open education and private schools. Indicator SA, vol.5, no.1, spring, pp. 41-46.

Bot, M (1988). Reducing the urban/rural gap. Indicator SA, vol.5, no. 2, summer, pp. 57-60.

Bot, M & Schlemmer, L (1986). The classroom crisis: black demands and white responses. Durban: University of Natal, Centre for Applied Sciences.

Brandt, G L (1986). The realization of anti-racist teaching. London: Falmer Press.

Bundy, C (1989). "Action, comrades, action!": the politics of youth-student resistance in the Western Cape, 1985. In: James, W G & Simons, M eds. The angry divide: a social and economic history of the Western Cape. Cape Town: David Philip, pp. 206-17.

Carr-Hill, R & Chadha-Boreham, H (1988). Education. In: Bhat, A, Carr-Hill, R & Ohri, S eds. Britain's black population: a new perspective. 2nd ed. Aldershot: Gower, pp. 147-76.

Cartwright, J (1987). Structures of learning in a South African university. Methomix, vol.10, no.1, pp. 1-4.

Castagna, E (1969). Courage and cowardice. In: Moon, E ed. Book selection and censorship in the sixties. New York: Bowker, pp. 356-62.

Chisholm, L (1992). South African education in the era of negotiations. In: Moss, G & Obery, I eds. South African review 6: from "red Friday" to Codesa. Johannesburg: Ravan Press, pp. 279-93.

Clough, E & Quarmby, J (1978). A public library service for ethnic minorities in Great Britain. London: Library Association.

Commission for Racial Equality (1980). Public library services for a multi-cultural society. London: CORE.

Commission for Racial Equality (1985)(a). Positive action & equal opportunity in employment. 2nd ed. London: CORE.

Commission for Racial Equality (1985)(b). Swann: a response from the Commission for Racial Equality. London: CORE.

Commission for Racial Equality (1987). Annual report. London: CORE.

CORE see Commission for Racial Equality.

Correspondence. (1990). SAILIS newsletter, March-July.

Coutts, M, Durndell, H & Primrose, C (1985). The overseas students' library week: a new venture in reader instruction at Glasgow University. Infuse, vol.9, no.3, pp. 5-7.

Cowley, J (1988). A survey of information skills teaching in UK higher education. London: British Library (research paper no.44).

Cowley, J & Hammond, N (1987). Educating information users in universities, polytechnics and colleges. London: British Library (research reviews no.12).

Craig, A P (1989). The conflict between the familiar and the unfamiliar. South African journal of higher education, vol.3, no.1, pp. 166-71.

Cuthbertson, G & Grundlingh, A (1992). Some problematical issues in the restructuring of history education in South African schools. South African historical journal, no.26, pp. 154-71.

Dalton, G (1989). Are we creating an electronic elite? Productivity SA, August/September, pp. 8-12.

Davies, A M, Holland, J & Minhas, R (1990). Equal opportunities in the new ERA. London: Tufnell Press.

Davies, J (1989). City and East London College Library, London. Personal communication, 6 June.

Degenaar, J (1990). Nation-building: an example of outdated thinking? Democracy in action, June/July, pp. 8-10.

Dominelli, L (1988). Anti-racist social work. Basingstoke: Macmillan Education.

Drewett, M & Wood, G (1991). Rethinking academic support programmes: theory and practice. An unpublished paper presented at the ASSA Conference, September, Cape Town.

Du Bruyn, J T & Cuthbertson, G C eds. (1989). Study guide for HST 100-M. Introduction to history: South Africa until 1806 in precolonial and colonial perspective. Pretoria: Unisa.

Du Bruyn, J T, Suttie, M-L & Southey, N D (1990). History I (HST 100-M) Tutorial letter 106/90. Pretoria: Unisa.

Duvall, S (1987). Affirmative action and positive discrimination. In: Haydon, G ed. Education for a pluralist society: philosophical perspectives on the Swann report. London: University of London, Institute of Education, pp. 85-93.

Eidelberg, P G (1990). Memorandum on the recent rise in the HST 100-M pass rate. An unpublished report to the Department of History, 25 November, Unisa, Pretoria.

Energy for Africa (1992). Flying springbok, June, pp. 92-99.

Fagan, M (1988). The term "mentor": a review of the literature and a pragmatic suggestion. International journal of mentoring, vol.2, pp. 5-8.

Fjallbrant, N J & Malley, I (1984). User education in libraries. 2nd ed. London: Bingley.

Fleming, H (1986). User education in academic libraries in the United Kingdom. British journal of academic librarianship, vol.1, no.1, pp. 18-40.

Fleming, H ed. (1990). User education in academic libraries. London: Library Association.

Fryer, P (1984). Staying power: the history of black people in Britain. London: Pluto Press.

Giannattasio, I (1989). Up date on videotechnology in libraries. A paper presented at the Management and Technology Division of the 55th IFLA Conference, Paris.

Goosen, G, Hall, M & White, C (1989). Rethinking UCT: the debate over Africanisation and the position of women. Cape Town: University of Cape Town, Centre for African Studies (occasional paper no.6).

Gordon, A (1988). The inverted funnel: peri-urban schooling. Indicator SA, vol.5, no.2, pp. 61-64.

Gothberg, H M (1990). The library survey: a research methodology rediscovered. College & research libraries, vol.51, no.6, pp. 553-59.

Gow, D (1989). Access fights its way into the limelight. Guardian, 25 April, p. 29.

Gqubule, T (1989)(a). A fierce row over the "clinic to fix up black students". Weekly mail, vol.5, no.9, 10 March, p. 4.

Gqubule, T (1989)(b). Schools of scandal. Guardian, 3 June, p. 23.

Gray, D J & Muller, A (1990). Academic support programmes and bridging courses in tertiary education - mathematics, sciences and engineering. Pretoria: HSRC, Institute for Educational Research.

Gray, M M A & Bernstein, A J (1989). Racism: a challenge to South African universities. Theoria, vol.73, no.2, pp. 39-47.

Griffin, T ed. (1990). Social trends 20. London: HMSO.

Grogarn, M (1989). Functional illiteracy: a study of weak readers in Swedish upper secondary schools. Scandinavian public library quarterly, vol.22, no.2, pp. 16-17.

Gundara, J & Warwick, R (1981). Myth or reality. Assistant librarian, vol.74, pp. 67-73.

Gurnah, A (1984). The politics of racism awareness training. Critical social policy, vol.11, pp. 6-20.

Hampton, W, Franklin, C & Allen, S (1989). Adult education for the Afro-Caribbean community: a university-community partnership. Adults learning, vol.1, no.2, pp. 57-58.

Haro, R P (1972). Academic library services for Mexican Americans. College & research libraries, vol.33, no.6, pp. 454-62.

Harris, C (1988). User education and user studies. In: Bromley, D W & Allott, A M eds. British librarianship and information work 1981-1985, vol.2. London: Library Association, pp. 167-82.

Harris, K (1990). Factors which contributed to the improved HST 100-M pass rate. An unpublished memorandum to the Department of History, November, Unisa, Pretoria.

Harris, K & Baskin, B (1989). Toward a culturally literate society. School library journal, vol.35, no.12, pp. 29-32.

Harris, K & Southey, N (1989). Tutorial Letter 102/89: guidelines for writing assignments. Progressio, vol.11, no.1, pp. 140-69.

Harris, K & Southey, N comps. (1990). History I (HST 100-M).Tutorial Letter 102/90: guidelines for writing assignments. Pretoria: Unisa.

Harrison, C (1990). User education in further and higher education compared and contrasted. In: Fleming, H ed. User education in academic libraries. London: Library Association, pp. 43-54.

Hartshorne, K (1988). Three years of turmoil: African Matric results 1985-1987. Indicator SA, vol.5, no.2 pp. 53-56.

Hartshorne, K (1992). Crisis and challenge: black education 1910-1990. Cape Town: OUP.

Haydon, G ed. (1987). Education for a pluralist society: philosophical perspectives on the Swann report. London: University of London, Institute of Education.

Healy, M (1989). Designing a mentoring program for first-year college faculty. South African journal of higher education, vol.3, no.2, pp. 32-38.

Henry, J (1987). Racism awareness...training for change. Public library journal, vol.2, no.1, pp. 9-15.

Hofmeyr, J & Spence, R (1989). Bridges to the future. Optima, vol.37, no.1, pp. 37-48.

Horton, W J (1991). South African librarianship: entering an era of change. Library Association record, vol.93, no.1/2, pp. 62-64.

Hugo, P (1990). Affirmative action in the public service. In: Schrire, R ed. Critical choices for South Africa: an agenda for the 1990s. Cape Town: OUP, pp. 109-25.

Human, L & Icely, N (1987). Trends in the attitudes of white workers to the upward occupational mobility of blacks: findings from two companies. South African journal of labour relations, vol.2, no.11, June, pp. 4-23.

Hunter, P (1989). The transforming of learning: the evolution of an academic support programme. South African journal of higher education, vol.3, no.2, pp. 68-78.

ILEA see Inner London Education Authority.

Inner London Education Authority (1988). Anti-racist libraries: strategies for change. London: ILEA.

Index to South African literature on library and information science (1992). Pretoria: Unisa Library.

ISALLIS see Index to South African literature on library and information science.

Jackson, Z (1990). Assessment of an academic support programme in Theory of Literature. Progressio, vol.12, no.1, pp. 96-105.

Jayaram, R (1988). An investigation into the needs and attitudes of student library users with special reference to the University of Durban-Westville. Unpublished MBibl dissertation. Durban: University of Durban Westville.

Jeffcoate, R (1982). Ethnic minorities and education. Milton Keynes: Open University.

Jewson, N, Mason, D, Bowen, R, Mulvaney, K & Parmar, S (1991). Universities and ethnic minorities: the public face. New community, vol.17, no.2, pp. 183-99.

Jooste, P G (1988). Toelating tot voorgraadse studie by Unisa. Progressio, vol.10, no.2, pp. 59-75.

Josey, E J (1971). The role of the academic library in serving the disadvantaged student. Library trends, vol.20, pp. 432-444.

Kallaway, P ed. (1986). Apartheid and education: the education of black South Africans. Johannesburg: Ravan.

Kallaway, P (1987). Education and the state: from mass education to Bantu education to people's education. In: Young, D & Burns, R eds. Education at the crossroads. Cape Town: University of Cape Town, pp. 20-56.

Kallaway, P (1991). Education and nation-building in South Africa in the 1990s: reforming history education for the post-apartheid era. An unpublished paper presented at the fourth International Symposium on Educational Research, July, University of Swaziland, Kwaluseni.

Karani, A (1988). A perspective on some problems experienced by black students at tertiary education institutions: with particular reference to universities. An unpublished paper delivered at a public lecture, March, University of Natal, Pietermaritzburg.

Katz, J H & Ivey, I (1982). White awareness: the frontier of racism awareness training. In: Ruddell, D & Simpson, N prods. Recognizing racism: a filmstrip and slide and cassette presentation for racism awareness training. Birmingham: City of Birmingham Education Department.

Kautz, B A, Rodkewich, P M, Philipson, W D & Bardon, J (1988). The evolution of a new library instruction concept: interactive video. Research strategies, vol.6, no.3, pp. 109-17.

Kendall, M (1992). Keeping multiculturalism on the agenda: strategies for action in public libraries. Library review, vol.41, no.1, pp. 25-41.

Kilpert, O (1985). Enkele kenmerke van die nuweling-voorgraadse student met verwysing na die Geskiedenis I-projek. Progressio, vol.7 no.2, pp. 38-45.

Kilpert, O V (1990). Bureau of University Teaching, Unisa, Pretoria. Personal communication, September.

Kilroe, J G (1990). The future lies in our hands... Weekly mail, 22 June, p. 8.

Kotzé, H (1990). New needs, new universities. Democracy in action, August/September, p. 13.

Krige, D (1990). Database on schooling in Natal KwaZulu. Durban: University of Natal, Centre for Social and Development Studies.

Kuhlthau, C C (1987). An emerging theory of library instruction. School library media quarterly, vol.16, no.1, pp. 23-27.

Lambert, J (1986). Adapting Medieval history to a South African context. Progressio, vol.8, no.1, pp. 77-79.

Library Association (1985). Library and information services for our multicultural society. London: Library Association.

Library Association (1986). The recruitment and training of library and information workers of ethnic minority background. London: Library Association.

Line, M (1990). Libraries in the educational process. Library Association record, vol.92, no.7, pp. 504-6.

Little, A & Robbins, D (1982). "Loading the law": a study of transmitted deprivation, ethnic minorities and affirmative action. London: CORE.

Lor, P J (1990). The future of education for library and information science in South Africa. In: Nassimbeni, M & De Jager, K eds. The future of library and information science: social , technological and educational challenges. Proceedings of the 50th anniversary symposium of the School of Librarianship, University of Cape Town, 20-21 November 1989. Cape Town: University of Cape Town, pp. 67-82.

Lor, P J (1991)(a). Community information and the role of public libraries. Book parade, vol.17, no.1, pp.3-4.

Lor, P J (1991)(b). Contemporary dimensions of the information problem. Unpublished inaugural lecture, 18 September, Unisa, Department of Library and Information Science.

Louw, A (1992). Some responses of libraries to changing user and community requirements. South African archives journal (forthcoming).

Lynch, J (1987). Prejudice reduction and the schools. London: Cassell Educational.

MacAdam, B & Nichols, D P (1989). Peer information counselling: an academic library program for minority students. Journal of academic librarianship, vol.15, no.4, pp. 204-9.

Male, G A (1989). Issues in the education of minorities: England and the United States. Wolfeboro, New Hampshire: Longwood Academic.

Malley, I (1981). Aspects of user education in UK academic libraries, 1976-1981. Education libraries bulletin, vol.24, no.3, pp. 1-15.

Martin, W J (1989). Community librarianship: changing the face of public libraries. London: Clive Bingley.

McCarthy, C (1990). Race and curriculum: social inequality and the theories and politics of difference in contemporary research on schooling. London: Falmer Press.

Meerkotter, D A (1987). Socio-political settings and the development of human potential among "students" in South Africa through a community development approach. In: Blacquiere, A ed. Intercultural issues in teaching and learning in higher education: proceedings of the 1986 SAARDHE conference. Pietermaritzburg: University of Natal Press.

Mellon, C A (1988). Attitudes: the forgotten dimension in library instruction. Library journal, vol.1, pp. 137-39.

Merrett, C (1986). Censorship and the academic process: a survey conducted at the University of Natal. Wits journal of librarianship and information science, vol.4, pp. 88-95.

Merrett, C (1988)(a). The dark hours: South African libraries in a State of Emergency. Wits journal of librarianship and information science, vol.5, pp. 124-32.

Merrett, C (1988)(b). South African librarianship in crisis: alternative viewpoints. Wits journal of librarianship and information science, vol.5, pp. 1-7.

Merrett, C (1990)(a). A view from a librarian. In: Proceedings of the launch of the Library and Workers' Organisation (LIWO) in Durban on 14 July 1990. Durban: LIWO.

Merrett, C (1990)(b). South Africa. Library Association record, vol.92, no.4, p. 276.

Michaels, C L (1985). Library literacy means lifelong learning. Metuchen, New Jersey: Scarecrow.

Millar, C, Raynham, S-A & Schaffer, A eds. (1991). Breaking the formal frame: readings in South African education in the eighties. Cape Town: OUP.

Moll, I & Slonimsky, L (1989). Towards an understanding of cognition and learning in the academic support context. South African journal of higher education, vol.3, no.1, pp. 160-66.

Moodley, M (1992). Library needs neglected. Democracy in action, vol.6, no.3, p. 23.

Morrish, I (1971). The background of immigrant children. Edison, NJ: Allen & Unwin.

Moulder, J (1988). "Africanising" our universities: some ideas for a debate. Theoria, vol.72, pp. 1-15.

Moulder, J (1989). Universities: go for competence over excellence. Business day, 23 February, p. 6.

Moulder, J (1991)(a). Facing the education crisis: a practical approach. Johannesburg: Heinemann.

Moulder, J (1991)(b). Remedial education programmes: miracle or failure? South African journal of higher education, vol.5, no.1, pp. 5-10.

Muller, J (1987). People's education and the National Education Crisis Committee. In: Moss, G and Obery, I eds. South African review 4. Johannesburg: Ravan, pp. 18-32.

Murray, S (1990). English: medium of instruction or enemy of instruction? Language projects' review, vol.5, no.3, pp. 23-28.

Nassimbeni, M (1988). The imperative for change: curriculum revision in South Africa. Education for information, vol.6, pp. 153-85.

Nassimbeni, M (1991). Changing the north/south gap: education and training of librarians for another South Africa. Education for librarianship: Australia, vol.8, no.1/3, pp. 5-12.

Nassimbeni, M (1992). School of Librarianship, University of Cape Town. Personal communication, 8 July.

Ndlovu, S & Nuttall, T (1991). Report from the questionnaire on perceptions, conceptions and expectations of History I students in mid 1991. An unpublished report to the Education Development Programme, University of Natal, Pietermaritzburg (research report no.1).

Neethling, H (1991). Library, Unisa, Pretoria. Personal communication, May.

Nell, V & Van Staden, F (1988)(a). An affirmative action prospectus for South African universities: part 1, affirmative action in the United States and at the

University of Zimbabwe. South African journal of science, vol.84, pp. 19-22.

Nell, V & Van Staden, F (1988)(b). An affirmative action prospectus for South African universities: part 2, implementing affirmative action in South Africa. South African journal of science, vol.84, pp. 23-29.

Oboler, E M (1982). International aspects of intellectual freedom. Drexel library quarterly, vol.18, no.1, pp. 95-100.

Overduin, P G J (1987). South African school libraries today: Results of an in-depth survey (1982-1986). In: Hannesdottir, S K ed. The school library - gateway to knowledge: proceedings of the 16th annual conference. Reykjavik: International Association of School Librarianship, pp. 142-56.

Paice, D (1989/90). The light fantastic. Leadership, vol.8, no.10, pp. 127-8.

Pearce, R (1981). The overseas student and library use - a special case for treatment? In: Fox, P ed. Second international conference on library user education: proceedings. Loughborough: INFUSE, pp. 45-52.

Pienaar, H (1990). Censorship slowdown: but no rust on the scissors yet. Democracy in action, March, p. 20.

Price, N (1989). What price Section 11: the demise of the ethnic librarian? Library Association record, vol.91, no.11, pp. 652-53.

Radebe, T (1987). Personal experience of the entire system. SAILIS newsletter, vol.7, no.8, p. 9.

Radio Unisa (1992). Tutorial Letter RAD 1/92: Radio Unisa programmes for 1992. Pretoria: Unisa.

Rasmussen, R & Herrera-Keightley, M-T eds. (1989). Multiculturalism and libraries: issues and trends. London: IFLA.

Redfern, M (1990). Grow your own. Information and library manager, vol.9, no.4, pp. 4-6.

Rice-Lively, M L (1991). A model for an academic library and library school mentor/protégé program. College & research libraries news, vol.52, no.3, pp. 163-64.

Robertson, J E (1992). User education for overseas students in higher education in Scotland. Journal of librarianship and information science, vol.24, no.1, pp. 33-51.

Ruse, D (1989). Equal opportunities 1988. Library Association record, vol.91, no.1, pp. 33-34.

Sachs, A (1991). Equality: tipping the scales. Sunday Times, 27 October.

SAIRR see South African Institute of Race Relations.

Samuel, J (1990). The state of education in South Africa. In: Nasson, B & Samuel, J eds. Education: from poverty to liberty. Cape Town: David Philip, pp. 17-29.

Sanderson, M (1987). Educational opportunity and social change in England. London: Faber & Faber.

Saunders, S (1990). Readmission: a thorny issue. UCT news magazine, vol.17, no.1, pp. 3-5.

Saunders, W (1991). Poor English reading skill is big flaw in black education. Reality, vol.23, no.6, p. 14.

Science on a shoestring. (1987). Education supplement on the Urban Foundation. Leadership SA, pp. 83-85.

Shillinglaw, N (1988). Supplying library materials to undergraduate students of a distance teaching university. Progressio, vol.10, no.1, pp. 17-26.

Shillinglaw, N (1990). Socio-economic determinants of the future of libraries in South Africa. South African journal of library and information science, vol.58, no.1, pp. 108-17.

Singh, R & Haythornthwaite, J (1988). English as a second language: the challenge for libraries. Library Association record, vol.90, no.11, pp. 657-59.

Sivanandan, A (1985). RAT and the degradation of black struggle. Race and class, vol.26, no.4, pp. 1-33.

Smith, E M (1988). Racism: it is always there. Library journal, vol.113, no.18, pp. 35-39.

Solomon, B B (1976). Black empowerment. New York: Columbia University Press.

South African Institute of Race Relations (1978). Survey of race relations. Johannesburg: SAIRR.

South African Institute of Race Relations (1989/90). Race relations survey. Johannesburg: SAIRR.

South African Institute of Race Relations (1991/92). Race relations survey. Johannesburg: SAIRR.

Spinola, C G (1991). An analysis of the phenomenon of multiculturalism in the education process. Unpublished MA (Sociology) dissertation. Pretoria: Unisa.

Stabbins, P A (1990). Public libraries: Comprehensive investigation undertaken. SAILIS newsletter, vol.10, no.3, March, pp. 14-15.

Stadler, C (1991). Competing visions for school libraries in South Africa. Innovation, no.3, pp. 15-24.

Stevenson, M B (1977). User education programmes: a study of their development, organisation, methods and assessment. London: British Library (research and development report 5320).

Stilwell, C (1989). Community libraries: a brief review of their origins and nature with particular reference to South Africa. Journal of librarianship, vol.21, no.4, pp.260-69.

Stilwell, C (1991). S.A. libraries must adapt or die. Artes Natales, vol.10, no.3, pp. 5-6.

Straker-Welds, M ed. (1984). Education for a multi-cultural society: case studies in ILEA. London: Bell & Hyman.

Strassner, M (1992). Services rendered to masters and doctoral students at Unisa. An unpublished paper delivered to the Department of Missiology, 7 May, Unisa, Pretoria.

Student profile. (1990). Unisa alumnus, December, vol.12, p. 22.

Sullivan, L A & Campbell, N F (1991). Strengthening the foundation for information literacy in an academic library. The reference librarian, no.33, pp. 183-89.

Suttie, M-L (1990)(a). Apartheid education and academic libraries in South Africa. An unpublished paper presented at the Information '90 Conference, September, Bournemouth, England.

Suttie, M-L (1990)(b). Libraries and academic support strategies in South African universities. South African journal of library and information science, vol.58, no.1, pp. 98-107.

Swann, Lord (1985). Education for all: report of the committee of enquiry into the education of ethnic minority children. London: HMSO.

Swart, I (1991). Library signage. Cape librarian, March, pp. 12-13.

Talbot, C (1990). What is a multicultural library service? Library Association record, vol.92, no.7, pp. 501-3; 510.

Talbot, C (1991). Libraries in a multicultural society: the role of libraries in promoting good relations between persons of different racial groups. Manchester: Manchester Polytechnic, Department of Library and Information Studies.

Tanner, C (1989). Objectives of a library instruction program in an academic library. Atlantic Provinces Library Association: bulletin, November/December, p. 5.

Thompson, V (1991). Multi-racial provision: an integral part of library and information services. New library world, vol.92, no.1090, pp. 5-7.

Todd, R (1991). Education in a multi-cultural society. London: Cassell.

Tomlinson, S (1983). Black women in higher education - case studies of university women in Britain. In: Barton, L & Walker, S Race, class and education. London: Croom Helm, pp. 66-80.

Tomlinson, S (1986). Political dilemmas in multi-racial education. In: Layton-Henry, Z & Rich, P B eds. Race, government and politics. London: Macmillan, pp. 187-203.

Troyna, B & Williams, J (1986). Racism, education and the state. London: Croom Helm.

Tucker, P (1988). The basic English language skills (BELS) project at UWC. Progressio, vol.10, no.1, pp. 48-55.

Tuckett, H W & Stoffle, C J (1984). Learning theory and the self-reliant library user. RQ, vol.24, no.2, pp. 58-66.

Underwood, P G (1992). End of a dream? - The role of a professional association. SAILIS newsletter, vol.12, no.4, pp. 6-7.

Unisa (1981-84). Statistics, Department of History: HST 100-M examinations. Pretoria: Unisa.

Unisa (1988). Statistics, Department of History: HST 100-M examinations. Pretoria: Unisa.

Unisa (1990). Profile of 1990 students registered for HST 100. Pretoria: Unisa, Bureau for Management Information.

Unisa (1992). Guide to Unisa library: 1992/3. Pretoria: Unisa, Department of Library Services.

Unisa in a changing SA. (1989). Financial mail, 4 August, pp. 59-74.

Unterhalter, E, Wolpe, H & Botha, T eds. (1991). Education in a future South Africa: policy issues for transformation. London: Heinemann.

Van der Merwe, S (1990). Radio interview on the South African Broadcasting Corporation, 17 August.

Van Vuuren, J C G J (1991). Rectorate, Unisa, Pretoria. Personal communication, September.

Verbeek, J (1986). Racially segregated school libraries in KwaZulu/Natal, South Africa. Journal of librarianship, vol.18, no.1, pp. 23-46.

Verma, G K & Ashworth, B (1986). Ethnicity and educational achievement in British schools. Basingstoke: Macmillan.

Vincent, J (1986). An introduction to community librarianship. London: Association of Assistant Librarians.

Walker, C (1988). Out of Africa: pointers to possible developments in South African library education. Wits journal of librarianship and information science, vol.5, pp. 133-70.

Warren, D (1992). Department of History, University of Cape Town. Personal communication, 10 August.

White, H S (1990). Pseudo-libraries and semi-teachers. American libraries, March, pp. 262-66.

Willemse, J (1990). Libraries for all in South Africa. Library Association record, vol.92, no.1, p. 34.

Willemse, J (1991). University library service dedicated to distance teaching: the University of South Africa experience. Library trends, vol.39, no.4, pp. 514-34.

Williams, M (1988). 10 steps to doing assignments: implementing an information skills program. Access, vol.2, no.1, pp. 16-18.

Williams, S (1986). User education in the Unisa library. Progressio, vol. 8, no.2, pp. 6-19.

Wolpe, H (1988). Educational resistance. In: Lonsdale, J ed. South Africa in question. London: James Currey, pp. 200-16.

Wright, J C (1991). Recruitment and retention of minorities in academic libraries: a plan of action for the 1990s. In: Speller, B F ed. Educating black librarians: papers from the 50th anniversary celebration of the School of Library and Information Sciences, North Carolina Central University. Jefferson, NC: McFarland.

Zaaiman, R B (1988). The use of libraries for the development of South Africa: final report on an investigation for the South African Institute for Librarianship and Information Science. Pretoria: Unisa, pp. 190-96.

Zaslansky, I (1987). Effective second language reading in a cross cultural society. In: Distance education in Southern Africa conference, papers 6: systems and strategies in distance education. Pretoria: Unisa, pp. 1-5.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

HST100-M QUESTIONNAIRE

The information gained from this questionnaire will be used to improve the HST100-M course and library services. Your lecturers therefore wish to know your honest opinions about this course.

YOUR ANSWERS TO THIS QUESTIONNAIRE WILL BE PROCESSED STATISTICALLY BY THE BUREAU FOR UNIVERSITY TEACHING AT UNISA, AND WILL BE TREATED AS STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL. YOUR ANSWERS CANNOT BE LINKED IN ANY WAY AT ALL TO YOUR NAME OR EXAMINATION RESULTS.

Please try to answer the questionnaire as best you can, bearing the following points in mind:

* Answer ALL the questions
* Answer the questions as completely as possible
* Remember that there is no right or wrong answer to any of the questions
* Some questions can have more than one answer
* Where appropriate, indicate your answer with a tick (✓) or fill in the space provided
* Please return the completed questionnaire to Unisa in the enclosed stamped self-addressed envelope
* It should take you no longer than 25 minutes to complete this questionnaire
* Return the questionnaire as soon as possible, and no later than 16 July 1990

Thank you for your time and co-operation.

J.T. DU BRUYN

M-L. SUTTIE

N.D. SOUTHEY

OFFICE USE

No. |_|_|_|_| 1-4

Card |1| 5

SECTION A: PERSONAL DATA

1. What gender are you?
   - Male |_| 1
   - Female |_| 2

   6

2. How old are you (to the nearest year)? |_|_| 7-8

3. What is your home language? Please specify:
   9

4. Where do you live?
   - In a city |_| 1
   - In a town near a city |_| 2
   - In a town in the country |_| 3
   - On a smallholding near a town |_| 4
   - On a smallholding in the country |_| 5
   - On a farm |_| 6

   10

5. Do you have any hobbies or interests? Please list them:
   1. 11
   2. 12
   3. 13
   4. 14
   5. 15

6. What is your current occupation?
   16-17

7. If you are not currently employed, please indicate why
   - Cannot find work |_| 1
   - Retired |_| 2
   - Housewife |_| 3
   - Full-time student |_| 4
   - Medically disabled |_| 5
   - Other reasons (please specify): 6
     .....
   - Not applicable |_| 7

   18

8. What source of power do you have at home?

Electricity	___	1
Gas	___	2
Batteries	___	3
None	___	4

19

9. If you do not have electricity or any other source of power in your home, do you have access to power at a nearby ...

Community centre	___	1
School	___	2
Other place	___	3
Not applicable	___	4

20

10. Do you have a (tick more than one answer if applicable) ...

Radio	___	1	21
Tape recorder or cassette player	___	2	22
Television	___	3	23
Video recorder	___	4	24
None	___	5	25

11. Approximately how many hours per week do you spend watching the television?

Not applicable	Under 2	2-5	6-10	More than 10	
					26
1	2	3	4	5	

12. Approximately how many hours per week do you spend listening to the radio?

Not applicable	Under 2	2-5	6-10	More than 10	
					27
1	2	3	4	5	

13. What sort of study facilities do you have?

A separate room	___	1
A desk in a bedroom	___	2
A table in the house	___	3
Other (specify):	___	4

28

.....

14. How many other people live in your house?

0-4	___	1
5-7	___	2
8 or more	___	3

29

15. Indicate how many of these people fall into the following age groups:

Under 10 years old	1	30
11-25 years old	2	31
26-60 years old	3	32
61-70 years old	4	33
Over 70 years old	5	34

SECTION B: EDUCATION

16. Which school did you last attend? (State town also)
.....

17. Where was this school?

Transvaal	1	
Cape	2	
Natal	3	
Orange Free State	4	
Transkei	5	
Ciskei	6	
Bophuthatswana	7	
Venda	8	
Other (please specify):	9	35

.....

18. Indicate the type of schooling you received:

Department of Education and Training (DET)	1	
Joint Matriculation Board (JMB)	2	
National	3	
Natal Education Department (NED)	4	
Cape Education Department (CED)	5	
Transvaal Education Department (TED)	6	
Orange Free State Education Department	7	
Department of Education and Culture (House of Representatives)	8	
Department of Education and Culture (House of Delegates)	9	
Other (please specify):	10	36-37

.....

19. Was your school a private one?

Yes	1	
No	2	38

20. What kind of a school-leaving certificate do you have?

Standard 8 or below	☐	1
Standard 9	☐	2
Standard 10 with a matric exemption	☐	3
Standard 10 without a matric exemption	☐	4

39

21. If you wrote the matric exam, approximately how many pupils were in your particular matric class?

Under 20	☐	1
21-30	☐	2
31-40	☐	3
41-50	☐	4
Over 50	☐	5

40

22. Up to which standard did you study History?

Standard 6	☐	1
Standard 7	☐	2
Standard 8	☐	3
Standard 9	☐	4
Standard 10	☐	5

41

23. What marks (percentage) did you receive for History in your final examination at school?

Less than 40%	☐	1
40-49%	☐	2
50-59%	☐	3
60-69%	☐	4
70-79%	☐	5
Over 80%	☐	6

42

SECTION C: LIBRARIES

24. Did your school have a library?

Yes	☐	1
No	☐	2

43

25. If so, how large was your library?

A box with books in a classroom	☐	1
A couple of shelves with books in a classroom	☐	2
A whole classroom with book shelves	☐	3
A locked room with books but open at set hours	☐	4
Larger than a normal classroom	☐	5
Not applicable	☐	6

44

26. What kind of reading material did you have in your school library? (Tick more than one answer if applicable)

Encyclopaedias	1	45
Dictionaries	2	46
Novels	3	47
Literature	4	48
Magazines	5	49
Newspapers	6	50
Books for projects	7	51
Non-fiction	8	52
Textbooks	9	53
Not applicable	10	54

27. Did you ever have to do research for projects using the library on your own?

Yes	1	
No	2	55

28. Was a particular period set aside for library use during the week?

Yes	1	
No	2	56

29. Did your school have a

Full-time librarian?	1	
Part-time librarian?	2	
No librarian?	3	57

30. Were you ever shown how to use your school library?

Yes	1	
No	2	58

31. Indicate which of the following procedures were explained to you. (Tick as many as are applicable.)

How to use a computer catalogue	1	59
How to use a card catalogue	2	60
How to find a book on the shelf	3	61
How to borrow a book	4	62
How to use the index of a book	5	63
What a contents page is	6	64
What a title page is	7	65
Where to find the publisher's name	8	66
Where to find the date of publication	9	67
How to compile a bibliography	10	68
Not applicable	11	69

No. ____ 1-4

Card 2 5

32. Have you ever used another library, for example, a public library?

Yes	___	1
No	___	2

6

33. Do you read the following?

Only newspapers	___	1
Only magazines	___	2
Both newspapers and magazines	___	3
Neither newspapers nor magazines	___	4

7

34. Give a list of up to five newspapers and/or magazines you read regularly (e.g. The Sunday Times, The Sowetan, Huisgenoot, Fair Lady, Drum):

1. 8
2. 9
3. 10
4. 11
5. 12

35. Which books (other than the prescribed or recommended books for your Unisa courses) have you read during the last year? Please state their authors and titles.

1. .....
2. .....
3. .....
4. .....
5. .....
6. .....
7. .....
8. .....
9. .....
10. 13

36. Are you studying ...

Part-time	___	1
Full-time	___	2

14

37. How often do you visit the Unisa library in Pretoria?

Never	1	
Fewer than five visits per year	2	
About once a month	3	
1 day a week	4	
2 days a week	5	
3 days a week	6	
4 days a week	7	
5 days a week	8	
6 days a week	9	15

38. Which of the Unisa library branches do you use most regularly?

Johannesburg	1	
Pietersburg	2	
Durban	3	
Cape Town	4	
None	5	16

39. If you have visited the main library in Pretoria or any of its branches, did you find ...

	Yes	No		
the staff friendly and helpful?			1	17
the library easy to use?			2	18
the building well sign-posted?			3	19

40. Were you able to use the card catalogue?

Yes	1	
No	2	
Not applicable	3	20

41. Were you able to use the computer catalogue?

Yes	1	
No	2	
Not applicable	3	21

42. While using the catalogues, did you need help?

Yes	1	
No	2	
Not applicable	3	22

43. If you did need help, who did you ask?

A friend	___	1
A librarian	___	2
Not applicable	___	3

23

44. How often were the books that you were looking for on the shelf?

Never	___	1
Seldom	___	2
Sometimes	___	3
Often	___	4
Always	___	5
Not applicable	___	6

24

SECTION D: UNISA AND THE HST100-M COURSE

45. In which language do you study the HST100-M course?

English	___	1
Afrikaans	___	2

25

46. What other courses are you studying this year? Please supply the name of the course and course code

	Name of course	Code	
1	.....	.....	26-29
2	.....	.....	30-33
3	.....	.....	34-37

47. Do you find the study guide (Only study guide for HST100-M) ...

Very well structured?	___	1
Fairly well structured?	___	2
Rather poorly structured?	___	3
Very poorly structured?	___	4

38

48. The information in the study guide is ...

Easy to read and understand	___	1
Fairly easy to read and understand	___	2
Difficult to read and understand	___	3
Very difficult to read and understand	___	4

39

49. How often do you use the textbook (R. Elphick & H. Giliomee, eds, The Shaping of South African Society 1652-1840)?

Regularly	1	
Fairly often	2	
Sometimes	3	
Hardly ever	4	
Never	5	40

50. Do you find the textbook ...

Very useful?	1	
Fairly useful?	2	
Not at all useful?	3	
I do not use the textbook	4	41

51. The information in the textbook is ...

Easy to read and understand	1	
Fairly easy to read and understand	2	
Difficult to read and understand	3	
Cannot comment, as I do not use the textbook	4	42

52. General information and instructions about the HST100-M course are contained in Tutorial Letter 101/90. Do you find this tutorial letter ...

Clearly presented?	1	
Fairly clearly presented?	2	
Not at all clearly presented?	3	43

53. Guidelines for the writing of assignments are given in Tutorial Letter 102/90. Do you find this tutorial letter ...

Helpful?	1	
Fairly helpful?	2	
Not at all helpful?	3	44

54. The assignment questions this year are ...

Easy to understand	1	
Fairly easy to understand	2	
Rather confusing	3	
Very confusing	4	45

55. All the assignment questions require you to write an essay. Do you find this type of answer ...

Very difficult?	1	
Fairly difficult?	2	
Fairly easy?	3	
Easy?	4	46

56. Assignments can be set in different formats. Which of the following formats would you find most acceptable?

Multiple-choice questions	___	1
Writing short paragraphs	___	2
Writing essays	___	3

47

57. Which of the following formats would you find least acceptable?

Multiple-choice questions	___	1
Writing paragraphs	___	2
Writing essays	___	3

48

58. You are given tutorial letters during the year which comment on assignments. Do you find these ...

Extremely helpful?	___	1
Fairly helpful?	___	2
Unhelpful?	___	3
Very unhelpful?	___	4

49

59. Your lecturers mark your assignments and return them to you. Do you find their comments on your assignments ...

Helpful?	___	1
Fairly helpful?	___	2
Not very helpful?	___	3
Very unhelpful?	___	4

50

60. In general, do you find the comments of lecturers ...

Critical but encouraging?	___	1
Critical and destructive?	___	2

51

61. The standard expected of me in assignments is ...

Too high	___	1
Satisfactory and fair	___	2
Not high enough	___	3

52

62. Discussion classes are held in various centres during the year. Do you find these...

Very worthwhile?	___	1
Quite worthwhile?	___	2
Not very worthwhile?	___	3
A waste of time?	___	4
No comment, as I am unable to attend	___	5

53

63. If you do not attend the discussion classes, what are your reasons?

I would like to attend, but it is too expensive and/or too far to travel	1	
I would like to attend, but I am unable to obtain leave	2	
The classes are not worth the effort of attending	3	
Summaries of lectures are sent on cassette, so I miss nothing	4	
No comment, as I attend the classes	5	54

64. Four cassette tapes are sent to you during the year (you have received two so far). Do you find these cassettes ...

Very useful?	1	
Fairly useful?	2	
Not very useful?	3	
Not at all useful?	4	
I do not listen to them	5	55

65. Do you find the cassette tapes ...

Easy to follow and understand?	1	
Fairly easy to follow and understand?	2	
Fairly difficult to follow and understand?	3	
Very difficult to follow and understand?	4	
I cannot comment, as I do not listen to them	5	56

66. When I telephone the lecturers, they are ...

Very helpful	1	
Fairly helpful	2	
Not very helpful	3	
Very unhelpful	4	
I have not telephoned	5	57

67. Do you find the HST100-M course ...

Too demanding?	1	
Fairly demanding?	2	
Not demanding enough?	3	58

68. In comparison with other Unisa first-year courses, is the standard of the HST100-M course

Too high?	1	
The same?	2	
Too low?	3	
Not applicable; this is my only course	4	59

69. Do you find the HST100-M course ...

Very interesting?	1	
Fairly interesting?	2	
Uninteresting?	3	60

70. On the whole, the HST100-M course is a ...

Very good course	1	
Fairly good course	2	
Rather poor course	3	
Very poor course	4	61

71. Before registration, did you ever hear from friends or fellow-students that the HST100-M course (tick more than one answer if applicable) ...

Was too difficult and that you should not take it?	1	
Had a high failure rate?	2	
Was more difficult than other courses?	3	
Was a good course to take?	4	62

72. Please make any comment you wish about any aspect of the HST100-M course:

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

..... 63-64

UNISA

DEPARTMENT OF HISTORY

HISTORY I (HST100-M)

TUTORIAL LETTER 106/90

THIS TUTORIAL LETTER CONTAINS A QUESTIONNAIRE WHICH YOU SHOULD COMPLETE AND RETURN AS SOON AS POSSIBLE, BEFORE 16 JULY 1990.

The questionnaire consists of the following sections:

A. PERSONAL DATA
B. EDUCATION
C. LIBRARIES
D. UNISA AND THE HST100-M COURSE

hst

APPENDIX 2

UNISA

DEPARTEMENT GESKIEDENIS

GESKIEDENIS I (HST100-M)

STUDIEBRIEF 106/90

HIERDIE STUDIEBRIEF BEVAT 'N VRAELYS WAT U MOET VOLTOOI EN SO GOU MOONTLIK, VOOR 16 JULIE 1990, MOET TERUGSTUUR.

Die vraelys bestaan uit die volgende afdelings:

A. PERSOONLIKE GEGEWENS
B. OPVOEDING
C. BIBLIOTEKE
D. UNISA EN DIE HST100-M-KURSUS

hst

HST100-M-VRAELYS

Ons sal die inligting wat ons uit hierdie vraelys bekom, gebruik om die HST100-M-kursus en biblioteekdiens te verbeter. U dosente wil dus graag u eerlike mening oor die kursus verneem.

U ANTWOORDE OP HIERDIE VRAELYS SAL STATISTIES DEUR DIE BURO VIR UNIVERSITEITSONDERRIG VAN UNISA VERWERK WORD, EN SAL BAIE VERTROULIK BEHANDEL WORD. U ANTWOORDE KAN GEENSINS AAN U NAAM OF EKSAMENUITSLAE GEKOPPEL WORD NIE.

Probeer asseblief om die vrae na die beste van u vermoë te beantwoord en hou die volgende in gedagte:

* Beantwoord AL die vrae
* Beantwoord die vrae so volledig moontlik
* Onthou dat daar nie 'n regte of verkeerde antwoord op enige van die vrae is nie
* Op sommige van die vrae is daar meer as een antwoord
* Waar toepaslik, dui u antwoord met 'n regmerk (✓) aan, of vul dit in die ruimte wat voorsien word in
* Stuur asseblief die voltooide vraelys aan Unisa terug in die gefrankeerde, geadresseerde koevert wat hierby ingesluit is
* Dit behoort u nie langer as 25 minute te neem om hierdie vraelys in te vul nie
* Stuur die vraelys so gou moontlik terug - nie later as 16 Julie 1990 nie

Ons dank u by voorbaat vir u tyd en samewerking.

J.T. DU BRUYN

M-L. SUTTIE

N.D. SOUTHEY

Nr 1-4

Kaart 1 5

AFDELING A: PERSOONLIKE GEGEWENS

1. Wat is u geslag? 6
   - Manlik 1
   - Vroulik 2

2. Hoe oud is u (tot die naaste jaar)? 7-8

3. Wat is u huistaal? Spesifiseer asseblief: 9
   .....

4. Waar bly u? 10
   - In 'n stad 1
   - In 'n dorp naby 'n stad 2
   - In 'n dorp op die platteland 3
   - Op 'n kleinhoewe naby 'n dorp 4
   - Op 'n kleinhoewe op die platteland 5
   - Op 'n plaas 6

5. Het u enige stokperdjies of belangstellings?
   Lys hulle asseblief: 11-15
   1. .....
   2. .....
   3. .....
   4. .....
   5. .....

6. Wat is u huidige beroep? 16-17
   .....

7. As u tans werkloos is, verstrek asseblief die rede: 18
   - Kan nie werk vind nie 1
   - Afgetree 2
   - Huisvrou 3
   - Voltydse student 4
   - Medies ongeskik 5
   - Ander redes (spesifiseer asb): 6
     .....
   - Nie van toepassing nie 7

8. Watter soort kragbron het u tuis?

Elektrisiteit	1	
Gas	2	
Batterye/kragopwekker	3	
Geen	4	19

9. Indien u geen elektrisiteit of ander kragbron in u huis het nie, het u toegang tot krag by 'n nabygeleë...

Gemeenskapsentrum	1	
Skool	2	
Enige ander plek	3	
Nie van toepassing nie	4	20

10. Het u 'n (merk meer as een antwoord indien toepaslik)...

Radio	1	21
Bandopnemer of kassetspeler	2	22
Televisie	3	23
Video-opnemer	4	24
Geen	5	25

11. Ongeveer hoeveel uur bestee u per week daaraan om televisie te kyk?

Nie van toe= passing	Minder as 2	2-5	6-10	Meer as 10	
					26
1	2	3	4	5	

12. Ongeveer hoeveel uur bestee u per week daaraan om na die radio te luister?

Nie van toe= passing	Minder as 2	2-5	6-10	Meer as 10	
					27
1	2	3	4	5	

13. Watter soort studiegeriewe het u?

'n Afsonderlike kamer	1	
'n Lessenaar in 'n slaapkamer	2	
'n Tafel in die huis	3	
Ander (spesifiseer)	4	28

.....

14. Hoeveel ander mense woon in u huis?

0-4	1	
5-7	2	
8 of meer	3	29

15. Toon aan hoeveel van hierdie mense in die volgende ouderdomsgroepe val:

Onder 10 jaar oud	1	30
11-25 jaar oud	2	31
26-60 jaar oud	3	32
61-70 jaar oud	4	33
Ouer as 70 jaar	5	34

AFDELING B: OPVOEDING

16. Watter skool het u laaste bygewoon? (Noem ook die dorp).....

17. Waar was die skool?

Transvaal	1	
Kaap	2	
Natal	3	
Oranje-Vrystaat	4	
Transkei	5	
Ciskei	6	
Bophuthatswana	7	
Venda	8	
Ander (spesifiseer asseblief):	9	35

18. Toon die soort skoolopleiding aan wat u ontvang het:

Departement van Onderwys en Opleiding	1	
Gemeenskaplike Matrikulasieraad	2	
Nasionaal	3	
Natalse Onderwysdepartement (NOD)	4	
Kaapse Onderwysdepartement (KOD)	5	
Transvaalse Onderwysdepartement (TOD)	6	
Onderwysdepartement van Oranje-Vrystaat	7	
Departement van Onderwys en Kultuur (Raad van Verteenwoordigers)	8	
Departement van Onderwys en Kultuur (Raad van Afgevaardigdes)	9	
Ander (spesifiseer asseblief):	10	36-37

19. Was u skool 'n privaatskool?

Ja	1	
Nee	2	38

26. Watter soort leesstof was in u skool= biblioteek beskikbaar? Dui meer as een antwoord aan indien toepaslik.

Ensiklopedieë	1	45
Woordeboeke	2	46
Romans	3	47
Literatuur	4	48
Tydskrifte	5	49
Koerante	6	50
Boeke vir projekte	7	51
Nie-fiksie	8	52
Handboeke	9	53
Nie van toepassing nie	10	54

27. Het u ooit op u eie navorsingsprojekte in die biblioteek gedoen?

Ja	1	
Nee	2	55

28. Is daar gedurende die week 'n spesifieke periode vir biblioteekgebruik afgesonder?

Ja	1	
Nee	2	56

29. Het u skool die volgende gehad?

'n Voltydse bibliotekaris/-esse	1	
'n Deeltydse bibliotekaris/-esse	2	
Geen bibliotekaris/-esse	3	57

30. Is daar ooit aan u gewys hoe die skoolbiblioteek gebruik moet word?

Ja	1	
Nee	2	58

31. Toon aan watter van die volgende prosedures aan u verduidelik is. Waar van toepassing, dui meer as een antwoord aan.

Hoe om die rekenaarkatalogus te gebruik	1	59
Hoe om 'n kaartkatalogus te gebruik	2	60
Hoe om 'n boek op die rak te vind	3	61
Hoe om 'n boek uit te neem	4	62
Hoe om die indeks/register van 'n boek te gebruik	5	63
Wat 'n inhoudsopgawe is	6	64
Wat 'n titelbladsy is	7	65
Waar om die uitgewer se naam te vind	8	66
Waar om die publikasiedatum te vind	9	67
Hoe om 'n bibliografie saam te stel	10	68
Nie van toepassing nie	11	69

Nr | | | | | 1-4

Kaart | 2 | 5

32. Het u ooit 'n ander biblioteek, bv. 'n openbare biblioteek, gebruik?

Ja	1	
Nee	2	6

33. Lees u die volgende?

Slegs koerante	1	
Slegs tydskrifte	2	
Sowel koerante as tydskrifte	3	
Nòg koerante nòg tydskrifte	4	7

34. Gee 'n lys van tot vyf koerante en/of tydskrifte wat u gereeld lees (bv. Rapport, The Pretoria News, Huisgenoot, Fair Lady, Drum):

1.	8
2.	9
3.	10
4.	11
5.	12

35. Watter boeke (buiten u voorgeskrewe en aanbevole boeke vir Unisa-kursusse) het u die afgelope jaar gelees? Verstrek asseblief die skrywers en titels:

1.	
2.	
3.	
4.	
5.	
6.	
7.	
8.	
9.	
10.	13

36. Studeer u...

Deeltyds	1	
Voltyds	2	14

37. Hoe gereeld besoek u die Unisa-biblioteek in Pretoria?

Nooit	1	
Minder as vyf besoeke per jaar	2	
Ongeveer een keer per maand	3	
1 dag 'n week	4	
2 dae 'n week	5	
3 dae 'n week	6	
4 dae 'n week	7	
5 dae 'n week	8	
6 dae 'n week	9	15

38. Watter een van die Unisa-takbiblioteke besoek u die meeste?

Johannesburg	1	
Pietersburg	2	
Durban	3	
Kaapstad	4	
Geen	5	16

39. Indien u die hoofbiblioteek in Pretoria of enige van die takbiblioteke besoek het, was dit u ondervinding dat:

	Ja	Nee		
die personeel vriendelik en behulpsaam was			1	17
dit maklik was om die biblioteek te gebruik			2	18
daar duidelike wegwysers in die gebou was			3	19

40. Was u in staat om die kaartkatalogus te gebruik?

Ja	1	
Nee	2	
Nie van toepassing nie	3	20

41. Was u in staat om die rekenaarkatalogus te gebruik?

Ja	1	
Nee	2	
Nie van toepassing nie	3	21

42. Het u hulp nodig gehad terwyl u die katalogus gebruik het?

Ja	1	
Nee	2	
Nie van toepassing nie	3	22

43. Indien wel, wie het u om hulp gevra?

'n Vriend	1	
'n Bibliotekaris/-esse	2	
Nie van toepassing nie	3	23

44. Hoe dikwels was die boeke waarna u gesoek het wel op die rak?

Nooit	1	
Selde	2	
Soms	3	
Dikwels	4	
Altyd	5	
Nie van toepassing nie	6	24

AFDELING D: UNISA EN DIE HST100-M-KURSUS

45. In watter taal bestudeer u die HST100-M-kursus?

Engels	1	
Afrikaans	2	25

46. Vir watter ander kursusse het u vanjaar ingeskryf? Verstrek asseblief die naam van die kursus en die kursuskode

	Naam van kursus	Kode	
1	.....	.....	26-29
2	.....	.....	30-33
3	.....	.....	34-37

47. Vind u die studiegids (Enigste studiegids vir HST100-M)...

Baie goed gestruktureerd?	1	
Redelik goed gestruktureerd?	2	
Taamlik swak gestruktureerd?	3	
Baie swak gestruktureerd?	4	38

48. Vind u die inligting in die studiegids...

Maklik om te lees en te verstaan	1	
Redelik maklik om te lees en te verstaan	2	
Moeilik om te lees en te verstaan	3	
Baie moeilik om te lees en te verstaan	4	39

49. Hoe dikwels gebruik u die handboek (H. Giliomee & R. Elphick, reds, 'n Samelewing in wording: Suid-Afrika 1652-1820)?

Gereeld	1	
Redelik gereeld	2	
Soms	3	
Selde	4	
Nooit	5	40

50. Vind u die handboek...

Baie bruikbaar?	1	
Redelik bruikbaar?	2	
Glad nie bruikbaar nie?	3	
Ek gebruik nie die handboek nie	4	41

51. Vind u die inligting in die handboek...

Maklik om te lees en te verstaan	1	
Redelik maklik om te lees en te verstaan?	2	
Moeilik om te lees en te verstaan	3	
Geen kommentaar nie, omdat ek nie die handboek gebruik nie	4	42

52. Studiebrief 101/90 bevat algemene inligting oor en instruksies in verband met die HST100-M-kursus. Vind u hierdie studiebrief...

Duidelik aangebied?	1	
Redelik duidelik aangebied?	2	
Onduidelik aangebied?	3	43

53. Studiebrief 102/90 bevat riglyne vir die skryf van werkopdragte. Vind u hierdie studiebrief...

Nuttig?	1	
Redelik nuttig?	2	
Nutteloos?	3	44

54. Vind u die werkopdragvrae vanjaar...

Maklik om te verstaan?	1	
Redelik maklik om te verstaan?	2	
Redelik verwarrend?	3	
Baie verwarrend?	4	45

55. Al die werkopdragvrae vereis dat u opstelle moet skryf. Vind u hierdie soort antwoord

Baie moeilik?	1	
Redelik moeilik?	2	
Redelik maklik?	3	
Maklik?	4	46

56. Werkopdragvrae kan verskillend gestel word. Watter van die volgende vorme is vir u die meeste aanvaarbaar?

Meervoudige-keusevrae	1	
Die skryf van kort paragrawe	2	
Die skryf van opstelle	3	47

57. Watter van die volgende vorme is vir u die minste aanvaarbaar?

Meervoudige-keusevrae	1	
Die skryf van kort paragrawe	2	
Die skryf van opstelle	3	48

58. Gedurende die jaar ontvang u studiebriewe waarin kommentaar oor werkopdragte gelewer word. Vind u hulle...

Baie nuttig?	1	
Redelik nuttig?	2	
Onbruikbaar?	3	
Baie onbruikbaar?	4	49

59. U dosente sien u werkopdragte na en stuur hulle aan u terug. Vind u hul kommentaar op u opdragte...

Nuttig?	1	
Redelik nuttig?	2	
Nie baie nuttig nie?	3	
Glad nie nuttig nie?	4	50

60. Vind u in die algemeen die dosente se kommentaar...

Krities maar opbouend?	1	
Krities en afbrekend?	2	51

61. Die standaard wat van my in werkopdragte verwag word, is...

Te hoog	1	
Bevredigend en billik	2	
Nie hoog genoeg nie	3	52

62. Gedurende die jaar word besprekingsklasse in verskeie sentra gehou. Vind u hulle...

Baie waardevol?	1	
Redelik waardevol?	2	
Nie baie waardevol nie?	3	
'n Vermorsing van tyd?	4	
Geen kommentaar nie, omdat ek hulle nie kan bywoon nie	5	53

63. Indien u nie die besprekingsklasse bywoon nie, verstrek asseblief redes:

Ek sou graag die klasse wou bywoon, maar die onkoste is te hoog/die afstand is te groot	1	
Ek sou graag die klasse wou bywoon, maar ek kan nie verlof kry nie	2	
Dit is nie die moeite werd om die klasse by te woon nie	3	
Ek mis niks, aangesien opsommings op klankkassette aan my gestuur word	4	
Geen kommentaar nie, aangesien ek die klasse bywoon	5	54

64. Gedurende die jaar word vier klankkassette aan u gestuur (u het tot dusver twee ontvang). Vind u hierdie kassette...

Baie nuttig?	1	
Redelik nuttig?	2	
Nie baie nuttig nie?	3	
Glad nie nuttig nie?	4	
Ek luister nie na hulle nie	5	55

65. Vind u die klankkassette...

Maklik om te volg en te verstaan?	1	
Redelik maklik om te volg en te verstaan?	2	
Redelik moeilik om te volg en te verstaan?	3	
Baie moeilik om te volg en te verstaan?	4	
Geen kommentaar nie, aangesien ek nie na hulle luister nie	5	56

66. Wanneer ek dosente bel, is hulle...

Baie behulpsaam	1	
Redelik behulpsaam	2	
Nie baie behulpsaam nie	3	
Baie onbehulpsaam	4	
Ek het nie dosente gebel nie	5	57

67. Vind u die HST100-M-kursus...

Te veeleisend?	1	
Redelik veeleisend?	2	
Nie veeleisend genoeg nie?	3	58

68. Is die standaard van die HST100-M-kursus in vergelyking met ander Unisa-eerste=jaarkursusse...
Te hoog? 1
Dieselfde? 2
Te laag? 3
Nie van toepassing nie; dit is my enigste kursus 4 59

69. Vind u die HST100-M-kursus...
Baie interessant? 1
Redelik interessant? 2
Oninteressant? 3 60

70. In die algemeen is die HST100-M-kursus...
'n Baie goeie kursus 1
'n Redelik goeie kursus 2
'n Taamlike swak kursus 3
'n Baie swak kursus 4 61

71. Het u ooit voor registrasie van vriende of mede-studente verneem dat die HST100-M-kursus (meer as een antwoord is moontlik)...
Te moeilik is en dat u dit nie moet neem nie? 1
'n Hoë druipsyfer het? 2
Moeiliker as ander kursusse is? 3
'n Goeie kursus is om voor in te skryf? 4 62

72. Lewer asseblief kommentaar oor enige aspek van die HST100-M-kursus:

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

..... 63-64

APPENDIX 3

DEPARTMENT OF HISTORY

HISTORY I (HST100-M)

Tutorial Letter 102/90

GUIDELINES FOR WRITING ASSIGNMENTS

hst

GUIDELINES FOR WRITING ASSIGNMENTS

1 Understanding the question

2 Researching the topic

3 Writing the assignment

4 Technical aspects for assignments

COMPILED BY
K. HARRIS
N. SOUTHEY

Other words define the topic more closely: south-western Cape
European settlers
after 1652
rapid
traditional

These give you more information about your main theme.

Use the key words to guide your writing. Keep these words in mind as you research and write your essay.

Picking out the key words does not imply that you should look at each word separately and say something about each in your essay. The key words are the main issues around which to focus your essay.

Now look at the instructions in the question. You are asked to discuss the view contained in the question. This means that you will have to present an argument about the role of European colonisation. You will need to determine the degree of influence that Europeans had on the decline of the Khoikhoi. Although the main focus of the question is on the role of the Europeans, it does not exclude other factors.

Break up the question, and ask yourself other questions. Were Europeans solely responsible? Were there other factors that led to the decline of Khoikhoi society? If so, what are these? How important were they? Did they play a greater role than that of the Europeans? This will assist you to approach the question critically.

The above question could have been phrased in a different way. For example:

> Examine the view that colonisation of the south-western Cape by European settlers after 1652 was solely responsible for the rapid disintegration of traditional Khoikhoi society.

Here you would still approach the question in the same critical way. Similarly, if you had been asked to "Analyse the view ...", or "Assess the view ...", a critical approach is also required.

1.3 Determine the period covered by the question

You should make certain that you know exactly where to begin and end your essay. A question sometimes states this clearly by giving dates. For example:

> Discuss the impact of colonisation on traditional Khoikhoi communities in the south-western Cape between 1652 and 1713.

Never exceed the limits imposed by dates in the question.

When a question does not give specific dates, you can always ascertain the period from the wording. For example:

> Discuss whether or not colonisation of the south-western Cape by European settlers after 1652 was solely responsible for the rapid disintegration of traditional Khoikhoi society.

Here there is no precise date to end the essay. You will discover from your reading that traditional Khoikhoi communities in the south-western Cape had largely disappeared by 1720. This is an obvious date to end your essay.

CONTENTS

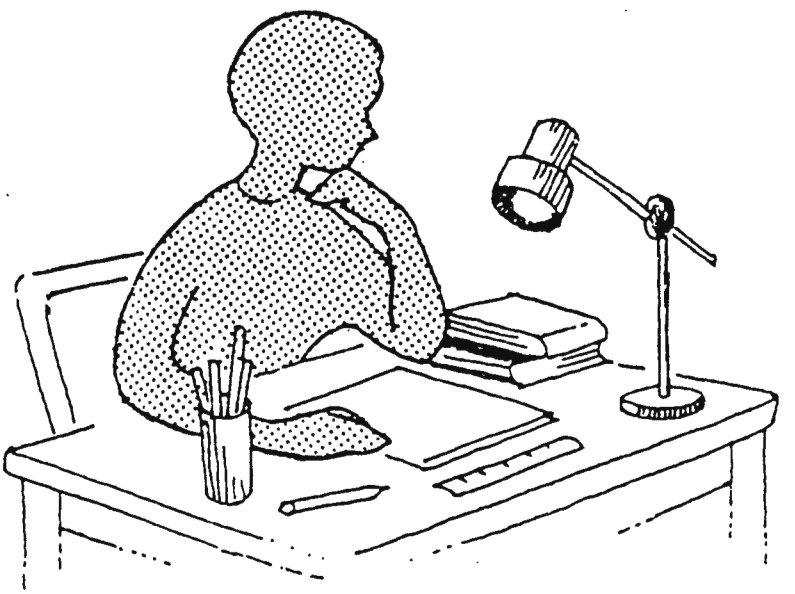
GUIDELINES FOR WRITING ASSIGNMENTS

We strongly encourage you to read these guidelines very carefully before you answer your assignments.

We suggest that you use these guidelines to check your work after you have completed it, to ensure that you have covered all necessary aspects.

Remember also to listen to Cassette 1, which emphasises the main points of this tutorial letter.

1 UNDERSTANDING THE QUESTION



This section is extremely important, and it has been divided into three steps:

1.1 Read the question

1.2 Find the key words in the question

1.3 Determine what period of time the question covers

Follow these steps carefully

1.1 Read the question

It is very important to read the question carefully, and to consider what it requires.

Read the question several times, to make sure that you do not misinterpret it.

Any question, apart from requiring an answer from you, gives you important information.

Remember that your answer has to focus on the question. It is essential that you understand the meaning of the question.

1.2 Find the key words in the question

As you read the question, you will need to determine the subject matter that it requires. To do this, you have to find the key words in the question.

How do we do this?

Here is an example of an assignment question:

> Discuss whether or not colonisation of the south-western Cape by European settlers after 1652 was solely responsible for the rapid disintegration of traditional Khoikhoi society.

The major key words are the following:

- discuss
- colonisation
- solely responsible
- disintegration
- Khoikhoi society

From these words, you are able to pick out the theme of the question. The theme of this question is the disintegration of Khoikhoi society, with special emphasis on the causes of their decline and the role of colonisation.

Other words define the topic more closely: south-western Cape
European settlers
after 1652
rapid
traditional

These give you more information about your main theme.

Use the key words to guide your writing. Keep these words in mind as you research and write your essay.

Picking out the key words does not imply that you should look at each word separately and say something about each in your essay. The key words are the main issues around which to focus your essay.

Now look at the instructions in the question. You are asked to discuss the view contained in the question. This means that you will have to present an argument about the role of European colonisation. You will need to determine the degree of influence that Europeans had on the decline of the Khoikhoi. Although the main focus of the question is on the role of the Europeans, it does not exclude other factors.

Break up the question, and ask yourself other questions. Were Europeans solely responsible? Were there other factors that led to the decline of Khoikhoi society? If so, what are these? How important were they? Did they play a greater role than that of the Europeans? This will assist you to approach the question critically.

The above question could have been phrased in a different way. For example:

> Examine the view that colonisation of the south-western Cape by European settlers after 1652 was solely responsible for the rapid disintegration of traditional Khoikhoi society.

Here you would still approach the question in the same critical way. Similarly, if you had been asked to "Analyse the view ...", or "Assess the view ...", a critical approach is also required.

Another example of a question is:

> Explain the rapid disintegration of Khoikhoi communities after 1652.

In your answer to this question, concentrate on the causes of the decline of the Khoikhoi. The instruction account for also requires you to give reasons for the disintegration of Khoikhoi communities.

The question could also be set in the following way:

> What were the main causes of the rapid disintegration of traditional Khoikhoi society after 1652, and indicate which was the most important cause.

Here, you are required to identify the different factors that contributed to the decline of Khoikhoi society, and also to show which cause was the most important. Again, your approach to the question remains critical.

Although there are many ways in which questions can be phrased, the questions you will find in the HST100-M course will be similar to the ones discussed above.

Take note that all the questions above require a critical and analytical approach. Remember this at all times.

1.3 Determine the period covered by the question

You should make certain that you know exactly where to begin and end your essay. A question sometimes states this clearly by giving dates. For example:

> Discuss the impact of colonisation on traditional Khoikhoi communities in the south-western Cape between 1652 and 1713.

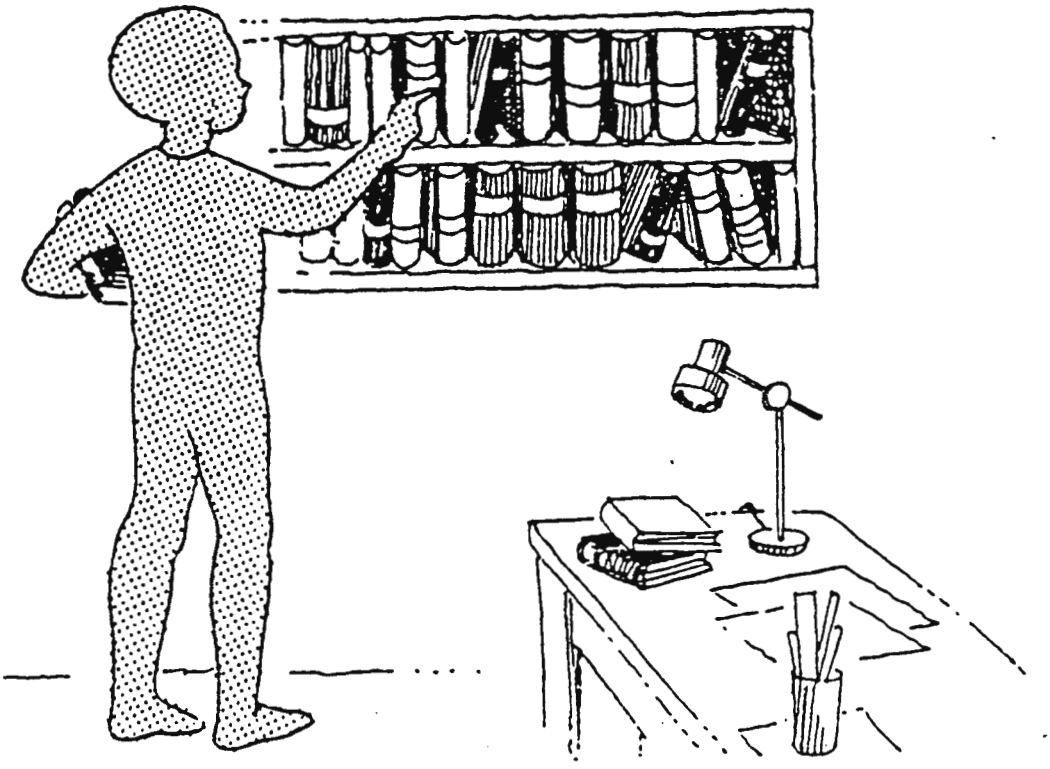
Never exceed the limits imposed by dates in the question.

When a question does not give specific dates, you can always ascertain the period from the wording. For example:

> Discuss whether or not colonisation of the south-western Cape by European settlers after 1652 was solely responsible for the rapid disintegration of traditional Khoikhoi society.

Here there is no precise date to end the essay. You will discover from your reading that traditional Khoikhoi communities in the south-western Cape had largely disappeared by 1720. This is an obvious date to end your essay.

2 RESEARCHING THE TOPIC



You have now read the question, found your key words and determined the period that the question covers. Now begin to collect your information for your essay. There are three stages involved in this process:

2.1 Finding information

2.2 Extracting relevant material

2.3 Critically assessing sources

2.1 Finding information

Begin your reading by consulting the relevant sections of your study guide. This will give you a broad outline of events and indicate what the most important factors are concerning your particular topic.

Then look at the relevant sections in your prescribed book. These will supplement the basic information obtained from the guide.

Once you have a general idea of the topic you can consult the more specialised books which are recommended for each assignment.

You will see that in the instructions below each question in Tutorial Letter 101 the relevant pages and chapters in the recommended reading for each assignment are listed.

You can also make use of the index to guide you to relevant subject matter. The index is an alphabetical list of topics found at the back of a book.

In order to get to grips with the content and meaning of the text bear the following in mind:

> Headings and sub-titles indicate what the text is about. These will assist you to anticipate what is to follow.
>
> Pick out the key sentence of each paragraph in order to identify the main points.
>
> Remember that each paragraph forms a unit. The sentences in the paragraph expand the central theme.

2.2 Extracting relevant material

Once you have established that a source will be useful for a particular assignment you can set about collecting relevant material, that is, select facts which relate specifically to your question. You should make notes of this information as you read.

Always bear in mind that the author of the book does not necessarily concentrate on your particular topic. He may include too much detail on topics which are not directly relevant for your requirements or place emphasis on other aspects.

When reading you must choose and write down only the material which is relevant to the question. This information will help you to substantiate, in other words support, your point of view about the question. Leave out all detail which does not contribute to your answer.

So for example, in the essay on the disintegration of Khoikhoi society you would not need information about the geographical movement of the Khoikhoi from the grasslands of Matabeleland to the Cape before 1652, as described in the book The shaping of South African society, edited by R. Elphick and H. Giliomee.

Here are a few hints on how to make notes on the information relevant to your essay:

> Use separate pieces of paper for notes on the different aspects of the question.
>
> Make a heading on each sheet of paper and then note down the facts and arguments which refer specifically to that aspect.
>
> Ensure that you write down all the details of the source used: the author, title and page numbers.
>
> Use quotation marks to indicate when you copy a passage directly from a source. In your essay you will then acknowledge the author by using a footnote. We will tell you how to do this in Section 4.
>
> Remember that we are interested in your views and interpretations. Note these down as they come to mind during your reading.

Here is an example of a student's notes:

P.3. Khoikhoi : Political structures

R. Elphick & H. Giliomee, The shaping of South African society, 1652-1820.

p. 5 Khoi society not based ... ship of land, but ... "on small kin groups ... s were related to each other thro... line".

p. 6 Political power ... ortant role No cons...

Study Guide 2

p 39. Large ... ch...

p 114 ...

P.2 Khoikhoi : economic stru...

Study Guide 2 for HST 100-M.

p 38 Khoi were pastoralists (cattle herders, and owned sheep) Cattle herding meant a constant source of food Led a nomadic life; had to seasonally in search of water Livestock

p. 39 ...

p. 42 ... Impoverish... Times of pro... In adversity, Khoi existence even before adve... Drought, theft, c... all weakened abili... Khoi to recover

P.1. European colonization.

R. Elphick & H. Giliomee (eds) The shaping of ... African society 1652-1820

p 7. European colonization took place in 3 phases: traders, cultivators, and pastoral farmers (trekboers).

p 9. Trading frontier started in 1590 Khoi bartered sheep, ... tobacco, co...

p. 10 Vol

2.3 Critically assessing sources

When you do your reading do not automatically accept everything an author writes. You must always approach your source critically.

You must be alert to the difference between a fact, which is a generally accepted truth, and an opinion, which is a deduction made by the individual historian.

For example, C.W. de Kiewiet writes in his book A history of South Africa: Social and economic:

> "The Hottentots broke down undramatically and simply."

It is an accepted fact that the Khoikhoi (Hottentot) communities disintegrated, i.e. "broke down". But it is De Kiewiet's opinion that it was an undramatic and simple process.

Authors often view issues from different perspectives and so hold different opinions. Do not let this confuse you. Refer to different sources and compare them. Decide which opinions you think are the best substantiated or the most logically argued and hence the most valid.

Here are two more opinions about the disintegration of the Khoikhoi society. R. Elphick argues that the society disintegrated because

> "... of a complex web of social and economic processes ..."

While A.B. Smith claims that

> "... a combination of psycho-sociological stress from loss of traditional pasture lands, counter-productive barter for livestock and an end to raiding undermined the society leaving it prone to trauma from alcoholism and epidemic disease."

Remember that you will not be penalised if you accept the argument of a particular author as long as you indicate why you support this point of view and that you have considered other interpretations.

3 WRITING THE ASSIGNMENT

You have read the question carefully and decided what is required in your essay. You have also found information which will help you answer the question. Now you have to begin writing your essay. There are two stages:

3.1 Planning your essay

3.2 Writing your essay

3.1 Planning your essay

Your first step is to plan your essay carefully before you start writing.

Remember that, when you answer a history assignment question, you will not be required simply to describe events. You will have to view the subject critically.

Every essay consists of three main sections: an introduction, a body, and a conclusion.

On the basis of the notes that you have made decide how you are going to approach the question. Write down your point of view about the problem or statement. This is going to form the basis of your introduction.

Now decide what the main reasons are for your point of view and write them down in point form. (Only use point form when you plan your essay. Do not use point form when you write your essay.) These reasons will form the body of your essay. Next to each reason put the examples and the information that you have gathered.

Your next step is to order your assignment very carefully. Arrange your material so that there is a clear logical order in your argument.

Finally, you must summarise the main arguments that you present in your essay. This is called the conclusion.

Now let's go back to a specific example of an assignment question:

> Discuss whether or not colonisation of the south-western Cape by European settlers after 1652 was solely responsible for the rapid disintegration of traditional Khoikhoi society.

Now look at the plan a student drew up for this assignment.

Introduction

- colonisation was a major factor in the disintegration of Khoikhoi societies
- but economic and political structure of Khoikhoi communities made them liable to disintegrate.

Body

- divided political system of Khoikhoi
- unstable economic basis of Khoikhoi communities
- white settlement led to loss of Khoikhoi grazing land and cutting off water supplies
- cattle trade undermined Khoikhoi economy
- military pressure from Dutch on Khoikhoi
- Khoikhoi were employed on white farms
- smallpox depleted Khoikhoi numbers and weakened Khoikhoi society

Conclusion

- end eighteenth century: Europeans had gone a long way towards destroying Khoikhoi society
- economic and political system of Khoikhoi too weak to withstand demands of European settlers

Notice how the student has pointed to the main argument in the introduction, given the explanations in the body and summarised he argument in the conclusion.

> Always draw up such a plan. It is vital if you wish to write clearly and logically. You should not, however, submit your plan to be marked.

Once you have drawn up your plan you can then begin to write your essay. Here are some hints on how to write your essay.

3.2 Writing your essay

Introduction

An introduction is a short statement at the beginning of the essay, which sets out how you view the question and how you aim to answer it. In other words, it tells the reader what to expect in the rest of the essay.

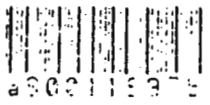
You do not need to explain your views in detail in the introduction. This should be left to the main body of the essay.

Avoid using quotations in your introduction.

A good introduction:

- is short
- outlines the main argument
- focusses directly on the question.

Here is the introduction to the essay that the student planned earlier:



Skryf of tik – Write or type | Dosent se Tutorial

Although the colonisation of the south-western Cape by European settlers was indeed a decisive factor in the disintegration of Khoikhoi society, it was not the only one. The role played by European colonisation can be evaluated only in conjunction with an assessment of the political and economic life of the Khoikhoi. The arrival of the whites, though, did encourage disintegration; but the economic and political vulnerability of the Khoikhoi themselves made such disruption possible.

Note how the student looks at the statement in the question, and briefly and concisely states her point of view. She also clearly outlines the issues she will discuss.

Body

This is the main part of your essay. It is here that you will develop your main argument and give reasons for your answer. For each reason or point you should have one paragraph.

A good paragraph:

- is about one main idea (or topic)
- contains all the explanations, details and examples that support the main idea
- shows how the information is linked to the question
- does not contain irrelevant information and does not repeat information.

Look at these two paragraphs from the essay which the student wrote:

Skryf of tik – Write or type

Dosent se Tutorial

After 1652 the Khoikhoi had to compete with white agriculturalists for large areas of their traditional grazing lands. The decision of the VOC to establish settlements, especially those in Stellenbosch in 1679, and the Land van Waveren in 1700, had particularly adverse effects on the Khoikhoi. The expansion of the European settlement not only deprived the Khoikhoi of vital grazing lands, but also cut them off from their water supplies. This was a serious blow to their cattle farming activities which were, after all, the basis of their prosperity.

Not only did the loss of grazing land undermine the economy of the Khoikhoi, but so too did the exchange in cattle with the Dutch. Although barter between the two groups in the first thirty years of VOC rule was voluntary, it was to the disadvantage of the Khoikhoi. Cattle were traded for copper, tobacco, beads and other knick-knacks – articles which had no productive value and which could not therefore contribute to the recovery of their economy.

In paragraph one, the main idea discussed is how competition for land undermined Khoikhoi society. The second paragraph is about trade between the Khoikhoi and the Dutch.

The other sentences in each paragraph all support or explain the main idea. In other words, they include examples, details, facts and explanations about the main topic of the paragraph.

You must always remember to write sentences in a logical order. Logical sense is largely dependent on proper chronological sequence. It is generally wise to show clearly in what order historical events occurred.

For example, note how, in paragraph one, the student first refers to 1652, then 1679 and 1700. She also supports her statement that white agriculturalists and the Khoikhoi competed for land with an example of the settlers acquiring land.

Also link your paragraphs together so that the development of your argument is clear. For example, this student has used the words "Not only did the ..." to link the arguments in the two paragraphs together.

Try to use your own words as much as possible when writing your essay, as this student has done. Use direct quotations sparingly and only where absolutely necessary.

A WARNING: DO NOT COPY FROM YOUR SOURCES WITHOUT ACKNOWLEDGEMENT. USE QUOTATION MARKS AND FOOTNOTES. If you do not, you commit plagiarism and will be penalised severely.

Conclusion

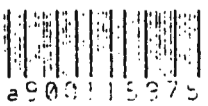
The conclusion is the last paragraph of your essay, in which you give a concluding assessment or final opinion on the question you were given.

You must not include new facts or material in your conclusion and avoid using direct quotations.

A good conclusion:

> summarizes the main argument and content of your essay
>
> focuses on the question
>
> is brief

Here is the conclusion which the student gave to her essay:



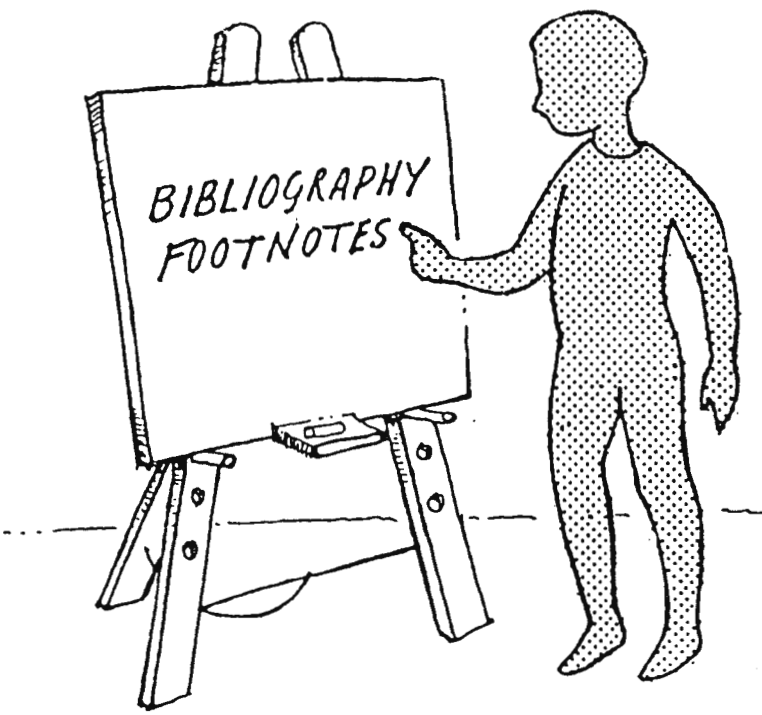
Skryf of tik -- Write or type

Dosent se Tutorial

By 1720 the presence of Europeans in the south-western Cape had assailed the very foundations of the independence of the Khoikhoi. They had lost their cattle; consequently they could no longer maintain themselves economically and many of them lived in the colony. They were deprived of their pastures and had lost their cultural traditions. The demands of the European settlers had indeed harmed the Khoikhoi, but on the other hand their political and economic system had been too weak to withstand these demands.

Notice how the student has briefly summarised her arguments and tied them together in the conclusion.

4 TECHNICAL ASPECTS FOR ASSIGNMENTS



Pay attention to the following technical aspects of your assignment:

4.1 General layout

4.2 Quotations and Footnotes

4.3 Bibliography

4.1 General layout

Take note of the following important aspects regarding the format of your assignment.

Ensure that the following information appears on your assignment cover and is correct:

- Name and address
- course code (HST100-M)
- assignment number
- student number

Incomplete information on the cover of your assignment will result in delays. Moreover, because our records are computerised, you may also lose the required admission credit for an assignment.

On no account should you include two assignments in the same cover.

Write out the question in full at the top of the assignment and keep to the original wording. This will serve as a heading and help you not to stray from the question.

Do not use sub-headings, such as introduction, body and conclusion, point form or numbering in your essay, as this tends to break up your work.

Clearly indicate the start of a new paragraph by leaving a line open.

Do not write in the margin which is allocated for tutor's comments.

The essay should not be more than 1 200 words (4-5 pages) and not less than 900 words (3-4 pages). If your assignment exceeds this length you will be penalised.

4.2 Quotations and Footnotes

As we said earlier you must acknowledge an author's words when you use them directly.

Quotations are direct when you use the writer's specific words in your essay. These words must be placed between quotation marks.

You must acknowledge your source by using footnotes.

It is advisable to keep the use of quotations to a minimum.

Here is how you should write your footnotes:

Place a number at the end of a relevant quotation

This same reference number must then be repeated at the bottom of the page next to the margin

After the number must follow the author's initials, surname, the title of the source and the page number(s) from which you obtained the quotation

Your footnote references should be numbered consecutively throughout your essay

Here is an example of the use of footnotes in an essay:

Skryf of tik – Write or type | Dosent se Tutorial

In addition, the Dutch were reluctant to protect the Khoikhoi against the San hunters. All these factors made it impossible for the Khoikhoi to re-establish the former ecological cycle. In 1713, to make matters worse, there was a devastating outbreak of smallpox which killed hundreds of Europeans and slaves. "Its impact was even more severe on the Khoikhoi who apparently had almost no immunity to it." [3]

3. R. Elphick and H. Giliomee (eds), The shaping of South African society, 1652-1820, p. 22.

Here is how you acknowledge different types of sources that you will come across:

Your study guides must be treated as follows:

Study guide 2 for HST100-M, p. 28.

A book is acknowledged as follows:

N. Worden, Slavery in Dutch South Africa, p. 35.

When a book has two authors, both authors must appear in the footnote:

> R. Elphick and H. Giliomee (eds.), The shaping of South African society, 1652-1820, p. 101.

If a book has more than two authors, the abbreviation et al. is used. (With Afrikaans titles the abbreviation e.a. must be used.)

For example:

> C.J.H. Hayes et al., History of western civilization, pp. 40-41.

Should you refer to an article in a journal, the title of the journal must be underlined and the title of the article placed between quotation marks.

For example:

> F. Bradlow, "Islam at the Cape of Good Hope", South African Historical Journal, vol. 13, Nov. 1981, p. 16.

Articles included in the compilations by the Unisa library under the titles History I, vol. 1 and History I, vol. 2 must be acknowledged in the following way:

> L.J. Greenstein, "Slave and citizen: The South African case", History I, vol. 1: Aspects of South African History, p. 47.

4.3 Bibliography

At the conclusion of your essay, list the sources you have consulted alphabetically, according to the surname. You must include:

surname and initial(s) of the author
title of the source, underlined
place of publication
publisher
date of publication

Here is an example of a bibliography:

Bibliography

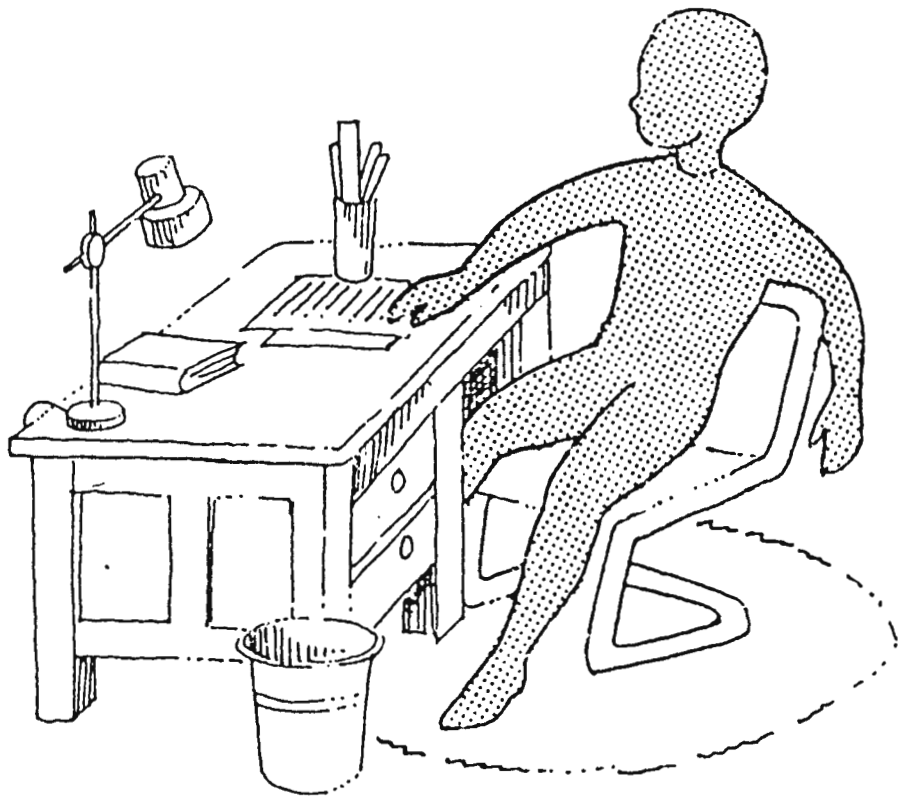
Elphick, R. & Giliomee, H. (eds), The shaping of South African society, 1652-1820 (Cape Town, Longman, 1979).

History I, vol. 1: Aspects of South African history (Pretoria, Unisa, 1979).

Muller, C.F.J. (ed.), Five hundred years: A history of South Africa (Pretoria, Academica, 1980).

Study guide 2 for HST100-M (Pretoria, Unisa, 1984).

Now you should be ready to write your first essay. Read through your essay carefully before you submit it. Remember to check that you have followed these guidelines.



Good luck with your assignments!

APPENDIX 4

LIBRARY STUDENTS 1990 PREPARATION TIMETABLE

5 March: [9-150]	*	Introduction & planning your studies [Study Guide, Tutorial Letter 101/90] - K. Harris
12 March:	*	LIBRARY - M. Suttie
19 March	*	LIBRARY - M. Suttie
26 March: [9-150]	*	The study of history [Study Guide, chapter 1] Basic skills & essay writing [Tutorial Letter 102/90] - N. Southey
2 April: [5-177]	*	The influence of the environment on SA [Study Guide, chapter 2] - K. Harris
9 April:	*	UNISA DISCUSSION CLASSES
16 April:	*	PUBLIC HOLIDAY
23 April: [9-150]	*	The origins of people in Africa [Study Guide, chapter 3] - P. du Plooy
30 April: [9-150]	*	The hunter-gatherers: the San [Study Guide, chapter 4] - P. du Plooy
7 May: [9-150]	*	The pastoral revolution: the Khoikhoi herders [Study Guide, chapter 5] - P. du Plooy
14 May: [9-150]	*	The early Bantu-speakers of Southern Africa [Study Guide, chapter 6] - P. du Plooy
21 May: [9-150]	*	Bantu-speaking pastoralists in Southern Africa [Study Guide, chapter 7] - P. du Plooy
28 May: [9-150]	*	The coming of the Europeans to South Africa [Study Guide, chapter 8] - T. Diedering
4 June:	*	LIBRARY - M. Suttie
11 June: [9-150]	*	The Dutch refreshment station at the Cape [Study Guide, chapter 9] - T. Diedering
18 June: [9-150]	*	The development of the white trekboer community [Study Guide, chapter 10] - T. Diedering
25 June: [9-150]	*	The Khoikhoi and whites [Study Guide, chapter 11] - T. Diedering
2 July:	*	LIBRARY - M. Suttie
9 July:	*	UNISA DISCUSSION CLASSES
16 July: [9-150]	*	Slavery at the Cape [Study Guide, chapter 13] - E. Lubbe

23 July: [9-150]	*	White resistance to the Cape authorities [Study Guide, chapter 13] - E. Lubbe
30 July: [9-150]	*	Transformation in the interior: Bantu-speaking communities during the 17th and 18th centuries [Study Guide, chapter 14] - G. Cuthbertson
6 August: [9-150]	*	Northern frontier [Study Guide, chapter 15] - G. Cuthbertson
13 August: [9-150]	*	Eastern frontier [Study Guide, chapter 16] - G. Cuthbertson
20 August: [9-150]	*	Racial stratification at the Cape [Study Guide, chapter 17] - G. Cuthbertson
27 August: [8-94]	*	The comparative element [All relevant sections in the SG] - G. Cuthbertson
3 Septem:	*	Revision - K. Harris
10 Septem: [9-150]	*	Writing examinations - K. Harris
7 Septem: [9-150]	*	"Test" - K. Harris
24 Septem: [9-150]	*	Results and exam preparation - K. Harris

APPENDIX 5

HST 100-M EXPERIMENTAL LIBRARY GROUP QUESTIONNAIRE 1990

Please answer the questions below. Mark the appropriate response with a tick, or if you are asked to comment, please write legibly.

Sometimes you may find that more than one response is appropriate in answer to any one question. In such cases, mark the relevant responses with a tick.

1. Did you learn anything from the library periods during this year's History I tutorials?

   Yes
   No

2. What in particular did you learn from the library lectures?

   2.1 How to use the library catalogue
   2.2 How to use the study collection
   2.3 How to use information on microfiche
   2.4 How to use the periodicals/journals section
   2.5 Other. Specify

3. Do you think the library classes were worth including in the History I Monday tutorial programme?

Yes
No

4. Did you have a library at the high school you attended?

Yes
No

5. Have you used the Unisa library for information other than that recommended in your tutorial letters, since your library instruction lectures and tours?

Yes
No

If "yes", what information? For example, magazines, compact discs, general reading books, etc.

6. Do you find the librarians friendly and helpful?

6.1 Sometimes
6.2 Always
6.3 Never
6.4 I have never spoken to a Unisa librarian

7. What do you think the Unisa library should be used for?

7.1 Taking out books only
7.2 A social place for students
7.3 A place for silent study and reading
7.4 A place for academic discussion with fellow students
7.5 Other. Specify

8. What are your complaints about the Unisa library?
(This can include complaints about the staff, the building, the facilities, the service, etc.

9. How many hours per day do you spend in the library?

9.1 I don't use it every day
9.2 Less than 1 hour
9.3 3 to 4 hours
9.4 more than 4 hours

10. Does the library cater to the needs of its users?

10.1 Very well
10.2 Quite well
10.3 Not well at all

11. Do you know any of the Unisa librarians personally?

11.1 No
11.2 Just one librarian
11.3 Two librarians
11.4 Three or more librarians

12. What do you think is the most important thing the library can do to improve its service to students? Please specify.

13. Have you attended the BBC Newsbrief video which is shown once a month in the library?

13.1 Only once
13.2 A few times
13.2 Regularly

14. Do you find the computer catalogue

14.1 easy to use?
14.2 difficult to use?
14.3 impossible to use?
14.4 I have never used it without the help of a librarian or friend
14.5 I have never used it at all

15. Do you think the Unisa library is well signposted for easy use?

15.1 Yes
15.2 No

16. Do you think that the security procedure at the entrance to the library

16.1 is necessary?
16.2 is unnecessary?
16.3 is efficient?
16.4 is not efficient?
16.5 is polite?
16.6 is not polite?

17. Do you think there should be a student canteen in or near the library?

Yes
No

18. Do you think the library should appoint a person to deal with students' complaints?

Yes
No

19. Do you think that students should have a representative to discuss problems with the library management?

Yes
No

20. Do you think that academic support/development programmes like the History I Monday tutorials

20.1 are very helpful?
20.2 are quite helpful?
20.3 are a waste of time?
20.4 should be offered more frequently?

21. Have you got a general comment to make?

Mary-Lynn Suttie

(Subject Librarian: History & Political Science)