THE PROVISION OF ACADEMIC LITERACIES FOR THE ENHANCEMENT OF TEACHING AND LEARNING IN A SELECTED PROGRAMME AT A UNIVERSITY IN KWAZULU-NATAL

by

NOMFUNDO MBATHA
Student Number: 19352180

Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements of the degree of

Master of Management Sciences in
Administration and Information Management

In the Faculty of Accounting and Informatics
at the Durban University of Technology
Nomfundo Patience Mbatha
Date Submitted: 28 April 2021

Supervisor: Dr SP Moyane Date: 28 April 2021
(Doctor of Literature and Philosophy in Information Science)

Co-Supervisor: Mr N Nkomo Date: 28 April 2021
(Master of Arts in Library & Information Science)

Student: Ms NP Mbatha Date: 28 April 2021

DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, Nomfundo Patience Mbatha, Student Number 19352180, declare that the work contained in this dissertation/thesis is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

NP Mbatha	28 April 2021
……	…….....
SIGNATURE	**DATE**

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I thank God for giving me the strength and resilience during this study despite my struggles with mental illness.

I would like to thank the Durban University of Technology for funding the study. My gratitude also goes to Dr R. Govender and Ms Shoba Rathilal who helped me in the initiation of this study.

Gratitude goes to my supervisors, Dr S.P. Moyane and Mr N. Nkomo whose support, wisdom and supervision abilities enlightened me. They infused in me their passion for research, and I trust that it will remain with me forever. I humbly thank my department (Information and Corporate Management) and colleagues for their collegiality. I would also like to thank those who participated in the study without whom there would be no data.

My greatest gratitude goes to my pillar of strength, my rock, my sister Nozipho Ngobese for her support, sacrifices, patience, and faith in me. Without you, Sontshikazi, I would never have started nor completed this study. Thank you as well to my brothers Muzi and Mpilo for always being there for me.

Finally, yet importantly, I would like to thank my late mother MaDube, Mbuyazi Nzwakele, and my late father Mr S.F. Mbatha, Sontshikazi, Shandu KaNdaba. Your love and life teachings carry me through life, and I am forever grateful for teaching me the value of education and lifelong learning.

DEDICATION

This research is dedicated to those, like me, living with chronic mental illness. Let this work reaffirm that it is possible to achieve success despite living with this debilitating disease. To the souls that mental illness has taken through suicide, rest in eternal peace.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ALs	Academic literacies
BIM	Business and Information Management
DUT	Durban University of Technology
EAP	English for Academics
ECP	Extended Curriculum Programme
CELT	Centre for Learning and Teaching
FAI	Faculty of Accounting and Informatics
FGS	First-Generation Students
FYSE	First-Year Student Experience
HEI	Higher Education Institution
ICM	Information and Corporate Management
LCT	Legitimation Code Theory
NLS	New Literacy Studies
NSFAS	National Student Financial Aid Scheme
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
UoT	University of technology

ABSTRACT

The general expectation is that students entering university should possess a diverse range of literacies. The reality, however, is that even with various interventions to develop essential literacies, students continue to be inadequately equipped with academic literacies (ALs) that are pivotal towards the attainment of quality teaching and learning and improved student success. This study sets out to examine the provision of ALs for the enhancement of teaching and learning in a selected programme at the Durban University of Technology. The objectives to achieve the above aim were to identify the practices followed in the provision of ALs for the enhancement of teaching and learning in a selected programme at DUT and to establish the factors influencing the provision of ALs for the enhancement of teaching and learning in a selected programme at DUT. The study was informed by Lea and Street's (1998) theory of New Literacy Studies (NLS). The NLS theory considers ALs as more than technical reading and writing skills and rather as social practices that vary with context, culture, community, student identities and discipline. A post-positivist paradigm was adopted allowing for a combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches within a survey research design. The populations targeted were lecturers and undergraduate students. A census of all the lecturers in the selected programme was conducted. For students, the first level of sampling was through probability quota sampling for the representation of the three undergraduate levels: first, second and third year. Although a Bachelor of Technology is an undergraduate qualification, for this study it was excluded. The second level of sampling was to select randomly within quotas. Academic staff were targeted through a census. The quantitative data obtained was analysed using descriptive statistics and the qualitative data through content analysis. The findings reveal that there is consensus on the need for the provision of ALs for the enhancement of teaching and learning in the selected programme. AL teaching practices are dominated by the Study Skills Approach while the preference of all participants' points to the NLS approach. With regard to factors that influence the provision of ALs, time was of primary importance especially time to engage with lecturers as well as individual time for practice. In addition, there was a lack of synergy and cooperation among the relevant stakeholders which hampered the provision of ALs. The study recommends a shift in focus on the provision of ALs from the study skills approach to the more nuanced delivery mode provided through

the NLS approach. This could be achieved by putting more emphasis on helping students learn beyond superficial reading and writing skills to the more overt approaches of sense making within their disciplines. The implications of changing from the study skills approach to the NLS approach are that the provision of ALs which is presently largely offered by support departments has to move to discipline-based lecturers. Improved synergy and cooperation among relevant stakeholders are imperative to enhance the provision of ALs for teaching and learning.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

This chapter introduces and provides the background to the study. It sets off by providing the conceptual and contextual backgrounds after which the research problem was stated. The study aim was formulated, and objectives and research questions followed. The study rationale was then provided. The study was then delimited and the limitations specified. An indicative literature review and research methodology followed. An outline of chapters was presented, and the summary of the chapter concluded the chapter.

1.1.1 Conceptual background to academic literacies

The priority given to access to higher education since the dawn of democracy in South Africa has brought much success in terms of enrolment numbers (Boughey and McKenna 2016; Council on Higher Education 2013; Burke 2013). The enrolment of students at public Higher Educational Institutions (HEIs) (universities) more than doubled from 495 356 in 1994 to 1 036 984 in 2017 and student success has seen steady growth over the years (Moganedi and Sithole 2020).

While increasing access has been successful over the years, this has created a new set of challenges with regard to pedagogic approaches (Lozano *et al.* 2017). Alongside the greater focus placed on throughput, the critical issue of the quality of access to knowledge is something that HEIs have been accused of ignoring (Omar and Arif 2020).

Institutions of higher learning tend to ignore the role played by the practices of academic literacies in constituting knowledge in universities, even though this can improve epistemological access to higher education (du Plooy and Zilindile 2014; Jacobs 2013; Lea and Street 1998). Besides physical access to university, students need to gain epistemological access to the powerful knowledge of the institution to be able to make meaning of it in different contexts and disciplines and to be able to identify with that knowledge in a way that makes it relevant to them and their environment (Henderson and Hirst 2007). The Academic Literacies Model can be used as a pedagogical approach in developing the academic competencies of students (Boughey and McKenna 2016).

The level of ALs necessary for students to gain epistemological access to knowledge continues to be identified as inadequate (Hartman-Caverly 2019; Blommaert and Horner 2017; Mhlongo 2014; Hlongwa *et al.* 2014). The level of ALs is important to enable students to access the discourses and practices of academia (Huang and Archer 2017). The expectation is that students should possess a wide range of literacies including information literacy, computer literacy, conceptual literacy, digital literacy and many more (Huang and Archer 2017; Murray 2016). In literacies discourse, it is recognised that there are several types of literacies which are required in diverse environments and it is important to extend the focus of ALs to include multimodal composition, for example, mode, genre, discourse and medium (Huang and Archer 2017).

The term ALs is often used to refer to the learning of diverse literacies for academic success (McKenna 2010). The diversity and multiplicity of these literacies bring about no unanimity on their definitions and application (Gravett 2019). In the chapter that follows, a section is dedicated to discussing the diversity of these literacies and their relationship to ALs.

There is still confusion as to the meaning of the term academic literacies in higher education (Lillis and Scott 2007) and definitions continue to be contested (Kiili, Mäkinen and Coiro 2013). Despite this, ALs research is to some extent informing institutional pedagogic initiatives and more mainstream education debates on situated practices, overt instruction, critical framing and transformative practice (Garcia and Mayorga 2018; Leander and Boldt 2013).

The scholars accredited for their extensive research on literacy studies are Crème and McKenna 2010; Lea and Street (Wong 2017). ALs are concerned with how students make meaning of and interact with academic texts influenced by their identities in a set up where what counts as valid knowledge and how one interacts with that knowledge is determined by the power and authority of the university (McKenna 2010; Hyland 2009b; Lea and Street 2006a). The way meaning is assigned responds to the cultures and traditions of academic disciplines associated with it. (Wingate 2012).

ALs contribute towards learning within the discipline and through participation in the disciplines, they learn specific ways of making sense of and contesting knowledge specifically for that discipline (Conteh 2020; Wong *et al.* 2019). Thus, there is there are no one way of agreed practices that can be said to be academic literacies since they differ from one discipline to another (Wong *et al.* 2019; Barton and Hamilton 2000; McHoul 1994).

In most research literature, ALs are discussed as a concept and an educational theory "that underlies the academic approach to teaching literacy in higher education" (Wong *et al.* 2019). The above views concur with the opinions of Coffin and Donohue (2012) who consider that:

> …one of the initial purposes of the ALs research agenda was to move institutions away from the commonly used skills-based, deficit model of developing the literacy levels of students and focus on understanding the literacy practices of the university and the issues that arise from the meanings that literacy has for all involved.

The arguments above point to an approach termed New Literacy Studies which views ALs as more than the technical skills of academic reading and writing but as social practices that vary with context, culture, community, student identities and discipline (Street 2015; Horner 2013).

ALs are pivotal to the attainment of quality teaching and learning and when students fail to conform to the literacy practices of their respective disciplines their learning suffers and it results in poor academic performance as they struggle with how meaning is constructed including the nature of power and authority pertaining to the respective disciplines (Murray and Nallaya 2016; Sheridan 2011). With regard to teaching and learning, it is important to have an ALs framework for pedagogical decisions on the design of the curriculum (Canton, Govan and Zahn 2018).

Academic literacies interventions at the teaching and learning level in most HEIs adopt a 'Study Skills Model' which views academic literacy as a cognitive skill that emphasises the foundations of language (Wong 2017). However, some significant

shifts have been made towards using other approaches that are deemed to be more effective in helping students gain epistemological access to knowledge than the one predominantly used (Ellery 2016).

The academic literacies practices used in most South African universities do not provide epistemic justice to students because it still only values the colonisers' ways of thinking, doing, being and interacting with knowledge, ignoring other ways of being and gaining access to knowledge (Wilmot and McKenna 2018). However, literacy studies have undergone a shift in the research perspective of literacy studies from a “skills-based approach to a more liberal and plural approach” (Wong 2017).

1.1.2 Contextual background to the study

In terms of context, the study is set in one of the 26 public universities in South Africa. There are three types of public universities in South Africa, nine of which are universities of technology focusing on vocationally oriented education (students start with theoretical work, followed by practical training); six are comprehensive universities that combine an academic and vocational orientation and 11 theory oriented traditional universities (Nguyen, Gardner and Sheridan 2020).

This study is situated at the Durban University of Technology (DUT) which is one of two universities of technology (UOTs) in the province of KwaZulu-Natal. It is a product of a merger in April 2002 between ML Sultan Technikon and Technikon Natal that formed the Durban Institute of Technology, which subsequently became the Durban University of Technology in March 2006 to streamline and harmonise the academic activities of all tertiary institutions in South Africa to position them against global benchmarks as mandated by the Department of Education (Durban University of Technology 2020). The present-day DUT has seven campuses over two cities – five in Durban and two in Pietermaritzburg (Durban University of Technology 2020).

Within DUT, the specific study site was the Diploma in Business and Information Management (BIM) Programme of the Department of Information and Corporate Management (ICM) in the Faculty of Accounting and Informatics (FAI) but excluded the Pietermaritzburg campus for logistical reasons. As of 2019, the ICM Department

offers the BIM Programme and the Library Information Studies Programme. The BIM staff and student complement number 13 staff and 1 333 undergraduate and postgraduate students (DUT MIS 2019).

1.2 Statement of the problem

South Africa post-democracy has made great strides in improving physical access to higher education, however, concerns remain with regards to improving epistemological access (Pitsoe and Letseka 2018; Everaert, Opdecam and Maussen 2017). Some go as far as to claim that HEIs tend to ignore the need to give all students access to deep knowledge from an assumption that epistemological access is a requisite for only the disadvantaged and/or underprepared students and not all students. In the process, they abdicate their responsibility of providing proper quality teaching and learning to all students (Nayager 2018; Sternglass 2017; Ndaba 2017).

There is evidence that institutions intervene to provide the needed literacies, however, the desired outcomes are still not achieved (Dooey and Grellier 2020). An argument is put forward that the reason for the failure to provide epistemological access to higher education might be that most institutions globally adopt the Study Skills Model as the dominant approach (Clarence and McKenna 2017; Lillis and Scott 2007). Notwithstanding the above, ALs have been recognised to play a pivotal role in providing epistemological access (Winberg *et al.* 2016; Ellery 2016; Simpson and Mckay 2013). Moreover, ALs provide access to deep knowledge that would help students not to feel alienated by university spaces.

Criticism on the dominance of the Study Skills Model in learning include that this approach views literacies are technical and neutral skills that are homogenous and can be taught separately by a support department assuming that students will then be able to apply these literacies to engage with knowledge in their various disciplines on their own (Ishi 2018; Hattie and Donoghue 2016).

Counter-arguments posit that because ALs are situated in disciplines and differ according to the discipline, they should not be offered by separate support departments that may not possess discipline-based knowledge but instead

advocate for discipline subject experts (Walker and Patel 2018; Wingate 2018; Bury and Sheese 2016; Murray and Nallaya 2016). Subject experts such as lecturers are best placed to induct students into the discipline and its ways of being and thinking, reading, and writing and engaging with the knowledge of each discipline (Wingate 2018; Schneider, Zammit and Armstrong-Roper 2017; Bury and Sheese 2016).

Although ALs are important to all students' epistemological access to knowledge, those of a poor academic background tend to need them the most (Modiba 2017). This profile of students tends to be largely black from poor to middle-class families and funded by the National Student Financial Aid Scheme; many of these students are first-generation university entrants.

In light of the arguments above, this study sought to examine the provision of ALs for the enhancement of teaching and learning in a selected programme at DUT.

1.3 Aim of the study

The study aims to examine the provision of ALs for the enhancement of teaching and learning in a selected programme at DUT.

1.4 Objectives of the study

To achieve the aim of the study, the following objectives were formulated:

- To identify the practices followed in the provision of ALs for the enhancement of teaching and learning in a selected programme at DUT. To establish the factors influencing the provision of ALs for the enhancement of teaching and learning in a selected programme at DUT

1.5 Research questions

To achieve the study objectives, the following research questions were formulated:

- What are the practices followed in the provision of ALs in a selected programme at DUT?
- Which factors influence the teaching of ALs in a selected programme at DUT?

1.6 Rationale of the study

This study is necessary because the provision of ALs impacts the quality of teaching and learning and student success in higher education (Clarence and McKenna 2017). Such a study is of relevance to many stakeholders, including students, academics, HEIs, government, society etc. The study findings have the potential to inform policy in terms of the teaching and learning of ALs. It also has practical implications for students and ALs providers.

1.7 Delimiting the study

In terms of conceptual scope, the study focused on the provision of ALs for the enhancement of teaching and learning in higher education. In terms of contextual scope, the study was situated at DUT. Although ALs are a concern institution-wide, the study was limited to a single programme in the Durban campus and excluded the campus in Pietermaritzburg because of logistical constraints in terms of cost and time. The study targeted undergraduate students in a selected department with the exclusion of Bachelor of Technology students, despite their forming part of the undergraduate category, because they were not easily accessible as a significant number study part-time.

1.9 Brief literature review

A detailed review of the literature will be conducted in Chapter Two. In this chapter, literature was reviewed in the conceptual and contextual backgrounds as well as in stating the research problem. Sources for the literature review were mainly scholarly scientific journal articles, books, conference proceedings, theses and dissertations. The literature was obtained from government departments, HEI reports and policy documents. The literature focused on sections such as conceptualising ALs, linking ALs with teaching and learning and pointing to the gap in the provision of ALs in higher education.

In brief the literature reveals that different perspectives to understanding Academic Literacies (Jacobs 2015; McKenna 2004; Lea and Street 1998). Some of the identified epistemologies and theoretical and philosophical underpinnings include the study skills, academic socialisation and academic literacies (Wingate 2018;

Jacobs 2013). In the context of this research, ALs are both a pedagogical approach and an overall conceptual approach. Research findings of (McKenna 2004) reveal that the dominant understanding in South African universities is that ALs are made up of surface language (grammar, spelling etc.) This has led to the dominance of teaching ALs as a service subject offered outside the discipline to first-year students by someone other than the subject lecturer.

1.10 Research methodology

The study adopted a post-positivist research paradigm that allowed the combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches within a survey research design. Although survey research is generally associated with collecting quantitative data, Leedy and Ormrod (2019) posit that it can also be used to collect qualitative data. The survey in this study afforded the collection of quantitative surface data on the provision of ALs and qualitative data on experiences of ALs from both the student and the lecturer populations.

Lecturers were selected through a census given their small total number in the selected programme. The first level of sampling of students was through probability quota sampling for the representation of the three undergraduate levels: first, second and third year. Although a Bachelor of Technology degree is an undergraduate qualification, for this study it was excluded. The second level of sampling selected randomly within the quotas.

This study collected primary data through a self-administered questionnaire (involving direct interaction with respondents). This data collection instrument was utilised in order to keep the administration costs low (cost-effective); afford the respondents freedom and time to complete (convenience); keep the period of data collection short (less time consuming) and any doubts could be clarified on the spot (Sekaran and Bougie 2016; Leedy and Ormrod 2010).

The quantitative data obtained was analysed using descriptive statistics and the qualitative data was analysed using thematic content analysis. A detailed methodology will be presented in Chapter Three.

1.11 Outline of chapters

The study consists of six chapters and the summary of each chapter is as follows:

- Chapter One provides the conceptual and contextual background to the study.
- Chapter Two reviews the literature on the provision of ALs for the enhancement of teaching and learning in higher education. The theory informing the study is also outlined.
- Chapter Three presents the methodologies adopted for the provision of ALs for the enhancement of teaching and learning in a selected programme at DUT. Justifications are provided for the methodologies selected.
- Chapter Four presents, interprets and analyses the study findings.
- Chapter Five discusses the findings of the study.
- Chapter Six summarises and concludes the study and provides recommendations.

1.12 Summary of the chapter

The chapter ending conceptualised the study and provided its context. The research problem was then stated, and the aim, objectives and research questions formulated. The rationale for conducting the study was provided. The study was delimited, and the limitations were explained. An indicative literature review and research methodology followed. An outline of chapters and the summary of the chapter were presented. Chapter Two reviews the relevant literature.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The preceding chapter introduced and provided the conceptual and contextual background of the study. This chapter builds on the concept and context already introduced and discussed in chapter one. The chapter provides an in-depth review of the literature on the concepts, approaches and theories related to the provision of ALs for the enhancement of teaching and learning. The chapter first conceptualises ALs, thereafter, approaches to and perspectives on the provision of ALs in academia and the factors influencing the provision of ALs in higher education are discussed. The chapter further discusses the role played by ALs in the enhancement of teaching and learning in higher education and ends with the summary of the chapter.

2.2 Conceptualising academic literacies

For a better understanding of ALs, the study conceptualises the broader and pluralistic term 'literacy'. The point of departure is that there are different perspectives on understanding literacy and subsequently ALs. The term literacy is a common word and is used in everyday language to mean the comprehension of something.

In literature academic literacy and its plural form are commonly treated as synonyms. Contemporary thinking acknowledges that there are many types of literacies in addition it is important to note that there is a loose/everyday understanding of the concept of literacy as well as a scholarly view of this term. Provided below are samples of scholastic definitions of literacy.

Literacy extends to the basic skills of reading and writing but also to the development of deeper skills cognition as a leisurely aspect and is thus applicable in diverse environments, including at school, work and in the community. Each way of thinking about literacy will affect people differently (Keefe and Copeland 2011). The more skills based definition of literacy is predominantly used in schools, however, this approach excludes literacy skills that broaden a student's world (Copeland and Keefe 2007).

Some researchers have tried to construct broader definitions of literacy particularly for students who need extensive support. However, charting the field of academic literacies is an difficult undertaking (Lillis and Scott 2007). For example, Carter (2008) describes literacy as activities that involve accessing, using and communicating through the use of any format, for example print, hearing and sight. defines academic literacy as “the ability to communicate completely in an academic discourse community”.

Literacy is a social phenomenon and the construction of meaning which takes place while interacting with others within a community (Kliewer 2008; Copeland and Keefe 2007). Literacy encompasses the understanding of conventions and forms of language and how they are used to transfer meaning (Kucer 2014). It further includes the ability to make inferences, think critically and reflect on one's learning (Menke and Paesani 2019)

According to Kern (2000) the creation and interpretation of the meaning is situated in the social, historical and cultural practices of an individual requiring tacit awareness of the relationships between textual conventions and their contexts of use and, ideally, the ability to reflect critically on those relationships. Literacy is dynamic and varies across and within discourse communities and cultures. Literacy should not be conceived as an end result but as a process with which to get to the desired end result. (Menke and Paesani 2019; Barrette and Paesani 2018). Boughey (2010) puts forward that students best acquire literacy when it is rooted in academic disciplinary contexts and not as separate attempts to address English language deficiencies.

When definitions of literacy terminology are assessed it reveals that scholars have divergent views (Copeland and Keefe 2007) but gradually there is convergence (Baruwa 2020) and that is perhaps indicative of the maturity of the field. Literacy as a concept is not static; its forms and functions are influenced by and reflective of the happenings of that particular period (Leu *et al.* 2017). Some of the elements involved in literacy are shown in Figure 2.1.

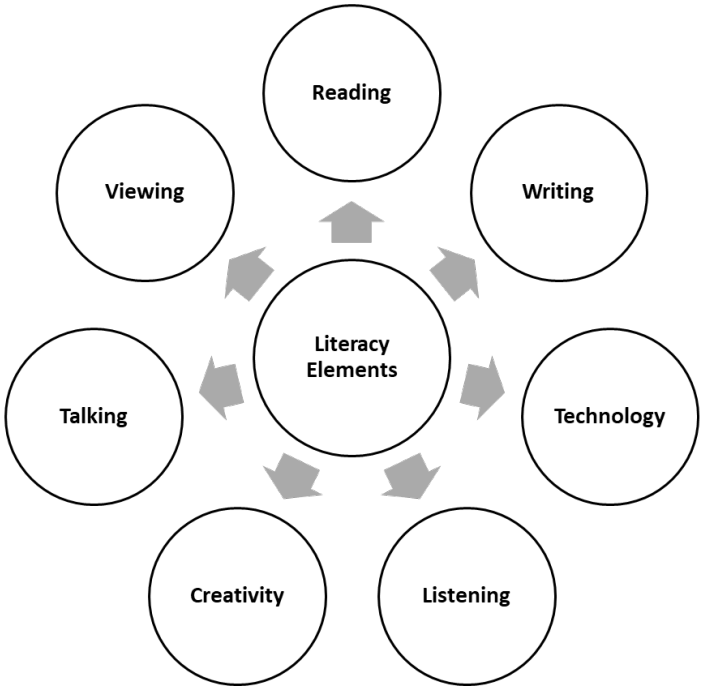

Figure 2.1 Literacy elements

Academic literacies cannot be defined solely as practices, rote skills and/or knowledge; ALs also need to be studied as the terrain of lived experiences that make visible and explicit the other elements of ALs, namely, identity, ideology, mobilities and technologies (Wargo and De Costa 2017).

ALs are “diverse and situated in specific disciplinary contexts and are also ideologically shaped, reflecting institutional structures and relations of power” (Lillis and Tuck 2016). Lillis and Tuck (2016) further state that” this ideological concern gives rise to a transformative agenda on the conventions and practices of literacy teaching and learning”. ALs are defined as a set of abilities needed when commencing new academic disciplines and for successful performance at university (Wingate 2018).

Literacies have many typologies including digital literacy, information literacy, financial literacy, cultural literacy and many more as shown in the infographic in Figure 2.2.

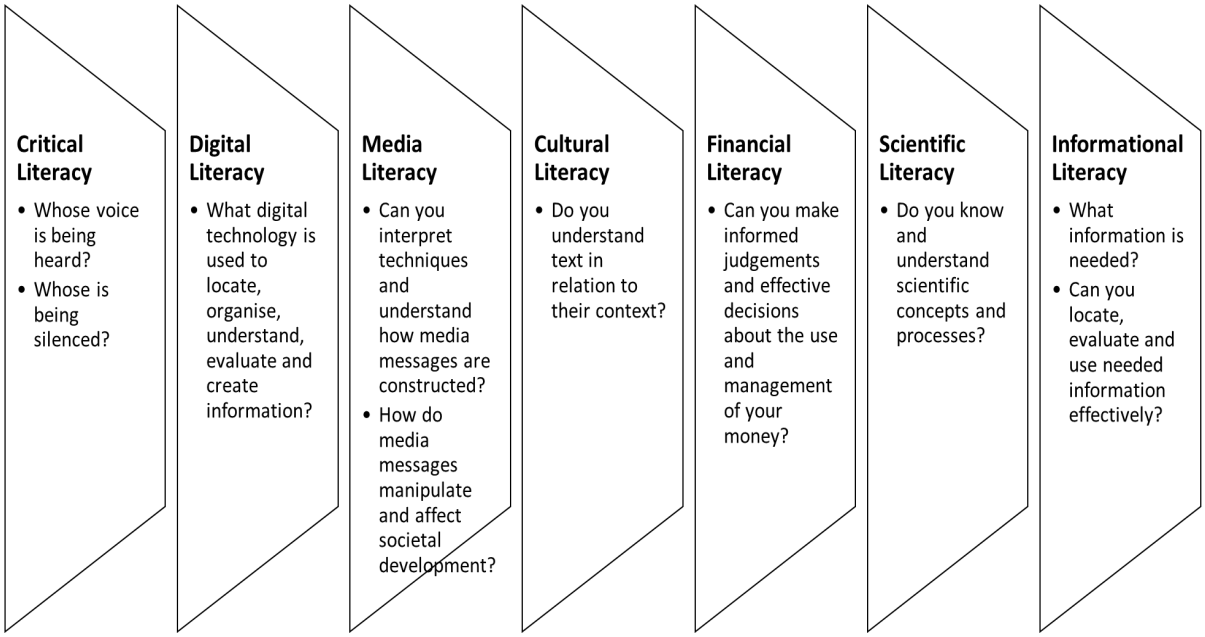

Figure 2.2 Types of literacies (Adapted from: (Lemley and Hart 2019)

Definitions in the ALs field are contested and viewpoints held differ (Jacobs 2013). On one hand, some see ALs as surface skills of language, syntax, spelling, semantics, reading, writing and so forth, that can be easily acquired and transferred; on the other hand, the opposing view is that ALs include student identities, ways of thinking and making meaning (Horner 2013; Stroud and Kerfoot 2013). The study acknowledges these debates and contestations.

In the literature, ALs are accredited to the seminal work of (Lea and Street 2009, 2006b, 1998; Lea and Street 1998). ALs are usually seen as dichotomous with study skills (Flowerdew 2020). Study skills are focused on providing students with the surface issues of language, namely, language rules, syntax, spelling etc. while ALs are concerned with practices of inducting students into the respective disciplines, student identities, power relations between the institution, lecturers and students and the social practices of students and lecturers (Clarence and McKenna 2017; Boughey 2010).

ALs have different epistemologies and theoretical and philosophical underpinnings and are provided differently from study skills (Wingate 2018; Jacobs 2013). ALs have the theoretical underpinnings of the NLS by Lea and Street (Wong *et al.* 2019; Hamilton, Barton and Ivanič 1994). Flowerdew (2020) in contrasting ALs and study

skills views the earlier as having the foundations of a “practice-oriented perspective” and the latter having a “text-based construct”. ALs are influenced by epistemologies of particular disciplines, power relations, student identities and other social constructs (Flowerdew 2020; Lillis and Curry 2013; Jacobs 2005).

According to Lea and Street (2006a), ALs refer to “the diverse and multiple literacies found in academic contexts such as disciplinary and subject matter courses”. In recent years viewing ALs as a discipline-based field has received increased attention. Academic Socialisation which is part of Lea and Street’s NLS tends to overlap with ALs, however, it is somewhat in the middle between Study Skills and ALs (Hyland 2009a). Academic literacies are viewed by Lillis and Scott (2007) as constituting a specific epistemology that regards literacy as social practice, ideology and transformation.

In the context of this research, ALs are both a pedagogical approach and an overall conceptual approach. For instance, Wong (2017) in their study used ALs as atheoretical concept, pedagogical approach, and overall conceptual approach. Wong (2017) further notes that ALs are a theoretical concept that underpins the academic approach in higher education.

There are various approaches, pedagogies, or instructional models of teaching ALs in higher education. The main existing models fail to cater for a varied student population and there is a need for inclusive approaches wherein ALs instruction is integrated and accredited in the curriculum. (Wingate 2018). What sets the ALs approach apart from the dominant approaches is the extent to which practice is privileged above text (Lillis and Scott 2007). The ‘textual bias’ pre-identifies the ‘problem’ as textual and leads to pedagogy and research which is mainly focused on text and in turn, the policy and pedagogical response is largely textual in nature as well (Horner 2013). ALs research has theoretically and methodologically confronted this textual bias by moving away from text to practice drawing on many traditions among them the New Literacy Studies, critical discourse studies and the sociology of knowledge (Paxton 2012). Although research shows that poor ALs continue to be a challenge in higher education, universities still address the problem with superficial interventions that are add-ons, not part of the main curriculum and

are not embedded in the subjects of the discipline. In the past student learning research focused on how students can adapt their learning practices to those of the institution leaving little room to contest existing practices (Lea and Street 1998). Lately, it is argued that there should be no preconceived assumptions on whose literacy practices are appropriate or effective between academics and students in the endeavour to better appreciate the meaning of literacy in the academic context. (Lea and Street 2006b).

Historically ALs were not made part of the core teaching and learning practices from first year right through to postgraduate level even though the development of ALs is critical to the success of the students in higher education (Lillies and Curry 2013; Ivanic and Satchwell 2007)". Research findings of (McKenna 2004) reveal that the dominant understanding in South African universities is that ALs are made up of surface language (grammar, spelling etc.) and that, once students have learnt and mastered it, they will be able to engage with disciplinary academic content without a problem. This has led to the dominance of teaching ALs as a service subject offered outside the discipline to first-year students by someone other than the subject lecturer. In addition, lecturers do not feel the need to reflect on their teaching practices that could help develop the ALs of students since add-on language classes are seen as sufficient in developing these ALs; lecturers continue the content-driven way of teaching in their disciplines (Jacobs 2015). Lea and Street (1998) suggest that if literacies can be perceived as cultural and social practices and not as difficulties in writing it could give us better perspectives of academic literacy in particular and academic learning in general.

The difference of opinions between different parties as to what literacy constitutes, perhaps explains why research continues to show that some of the approaches used to teach ALs are ineffective and do not yield the desired results (Wingate 2018; van Schalkwyk, Bitzer and van der Walt 2010). The likes of Wingate (2012) recommend that inadequate approaches to teaching ALs such as the study skills model should be halted, however, some of its strengths can be harnessed.

2.3 Approaches/perspectives to the provision of academic literacies in academia

The conceptualisation above has shown that there are various forms of literacies and ways of viewing them. Approaches to develop students' ALs are characterised by many in three ways: the study skills approach, academic socialisation approach and ALs approach (Jacobs 2015; McKenna 2004). These approaches are discussed below.

2.3.1 The Study Skills Model

This model is defined as a theory of language. It is not discipline-specific as it focusses on the decontextualised surface structures of language which are spelling, grammar, punctuation and syntax and disregards the context of the content (Lea and Street 2009). This means that this approach focusses on the technical aspects of reading and writing and takes a deficit approach that situates the challenge of ALs solely with the student who is viewed as lacking the ALs required at university level.

The study skills model has what Street terms an 'autonomous' view of literacy and is still widely used in institutions of higher learning; the autonomous model sees literacy as a neutral set of skills that are not situated in social practices and can be learnt separately and applied throughout the curriculum (Lea and Street 2006b). Universities mainly use the study skills model which is a stand-alone model that is also referred to as the deficit model to address poor ALs and it has limitations (Boughey 2010).

2.3.2 The Academic Socialisation Model

The task of the academic socialisation model according to Lea and Street (1998) is to "induct students into a new 'culture', that of the academy and focus on student orientation to learning and interpretation of learning tasks, through conceptualisation, for instance, of a distinction between 'deep', 'surface' and 'strategic' approaches to learning". Academic socialisation views the reading and writing as being ingrained in the disciplines, thus the aim is to enculturate students to the ways of making meaning in that discipline (Lea and Street 2006b).

According to Lea (2016) it is assumed that a discipline has standing and stable practices that once learnt and understood can put to use without a problem. (Lea 2016).

2.3.3 The Academic Literacies Model

The ALs approach is derived from the New Literacy Studies theoretical framework. Chokwe (2013) claims that “the AL Model recognises and acknowledges that the background of students is critical and core to teaching and developing academic writing at university”. It challenges lecturers to rethink teaching and learning practices regarding discipline-specific writing practices (Lillis and Tuck 2016; Lillis 2003). The academic literacies model “takes a holistic approach to writing and examines ways in which current models and practices may need to be adapted in order to accommodate the changing culture of higher education” (Chokwe 2011).

In arguing for the integration of the academic literacies model by lecturers, Hattie and Donoghue (2016) propose the adoption of the contextually based approach which involves the introduction of students to the conventions and genres of particular disciplines as an integral part of teaching within that discipline”.

Global research scholars have decried for long the dominance of the study skills and academic socialisation approaches to literacy in higher education, instead advocating the academic literacies approach but it seems difficult to do so (Clarence and McKenna 2017; Boughey and McKenna 2016; Wingate and Tribble 2012).

2.4 Factors influencing the provision of academic literacies in higher education

There are various factors that make ALs to play a pivotal role in teaching and learning. Some of these factors include epistemological access and under-preparedness, first generation students, high rate of attrition, the articulation gap between secondary and higher education and academic support.

2.4.1 Epistemological access and under-preparedness

Epistemological access coined by Morrow which is framed in student access and success literature is differentiated from formal access to refer to accessing disciplinary knowledge and norms (Menon 2020; Morrow 1993). It also involves bridging the gaps between where the students are against where the lecturers are and making clear the 'rules and conventions' that determine what can be deemed to be knowledge noting that how knowledge is engaged and developed is discipline specific (McLean 2020; Maniram 2018; Garraway 2017; Arbee 2012; Boughey 2010).

There are scholars who hold the view that Morrow's definition of epistemological access is limited with regards to human rights in the South African context wherein issues of equity and a hidden curriculum are paramount (du Plooy and Zilindile 2014). Robertson and Hill (2001) raised that the side-lining of some forms of knowledge compromises access to knowledge. Pitsoe and Letseka (2018) argue one cannot attain epistemological access by mere fact that one has been accepted into the university and they attend lectures, instead it is deeper.

Epistemological access is essential in the South African higher education system as it increases throughput in terms of numbers, diversity and quality given the under-preparedness of university entrants (Du Plessis and Gerber 2012; Jaffer, Ng'ambi and Czerniewicz 2007).

Underprepared students are those whose academic readiness falls below the expected university levels teaching and learning (Modiba 2017). The level to which students and the institution are prepared will determine their level of academic interaction (Fomunyam 2019). It is acknowledged widely that university students are under-prepared to handle what is expected of them at the higher education level (O'Quin 2020; Wilson-Strydom 2012).

Literature reveals that over the years the literacy levels of students in university have been declining (Perin and Holschuh 2019; Wingate 2012). This situation is called by (Wingate 2018) a discourse deficiency and remediation brought

about by massification of higher education and widening of access to a more diverse group of students instead of only catering for the elite.

According to university lecturers, it is the schooling system that is not providing students with adequate ALs and shifting the responsibility to universities (Wingate 2018). This situation is compounded by the inflexible teaching methods of the universities which cater to Western cultures leaving out African students' cultural values and beliefs (Maphalala and Mpofu 2020; Lillard 2019). This problem is also attributed to the gap that exists between school literacies and university literacies (Modiba 2017; Mungal and Cloete 2016).

It is argued by Monnapula-Mapesela (2015) that "in South Africa student under-preparedness has become a dominant learning-related cause of the poor performance patterns in higher education". In that regard, several forms of literature acknowledge the link between epistemological access and ALs (Mukhuba 2016; McKenna 2010; Boughey 2010).

2.4.2 First-generation students

First-generation students (FGSs) are those students who have no close family member who has ever attended university and could induct them into the university customs and traditions and cannot support them to succeed academically (Ortega 2020; Paulynice 2019; Melzer and Grant 2016). A larger number of FGSs do not complete their studies compared to those with a family member or members who have gone to university (Diaz 2019; Strydom, Greyling and Strydom 2008).

2.4.3 High rate of attrition

Attrition, considered as the rate at which students fail to complete their studies continues to be a problem globally because approaches used tend to be reactionary (Moodley and Singh 2015). Numerous stress factors including financial difficulties, inadequate academic support and accommodation issues make it difficult for students to progress through to the next year in South Africa (Moodley and Singh 2015; Ogude, Kilfoil and Du Plessis 2012).

2.4.4 The articulation gap between secondary and higher education

The articulation gap is “a discontinuity in the transition from one educational phase to the next educational phase” and for this articulation gap to be bridged there is a proposal for curriculum reform, therefore, the difference in the passing average contributes largely to how students perform and ensure their success (Madinga, Maziriri and Lose 2016). The proposal for undergraduate curriculum reform in South Africa Shay (2015) states that the articulation gap can only be effectively bridged if there is sufficient curriculum space for integrating foundational provisions into mainstream programmes for all who need them.

Articulation gap is defined by Fisher and Scott (2011) as a mismatch or discontinuity between the learning requirements of high school and higher education programmes and the actual knowledge and competencies of first-time students. In this study, the term will be defined as the mismatch or discontinuity between the exit level of secondary education and the entry level of higher education.

This mismatch and the difference in the curriculum standards are significant and lead to students, who are entering the higher education atmosphere for the first-time, suffering because the workload becomes too much, and they are not prepared enough to deal with the amount of academic work that higher education requires. This gap is manifest in undergraduate programmes that are based on inappropriate assumptions about students’ prior knowledge, inflexible in terms of learning pathways and that do not take sufficient account of students’ differing educational preparedness to bridge transitions between the various phases of undergraduate study (Madinga, Maziriri and Lose 2016).

2.4.5 Academic support

To ensure academic success in higher education, students require academic support; however, lecturers also require academic support. The academic support provided to students takes the form of supplementary programmes offered to students at risk and students who have been identified as lacking ALs (Boughey and McKenna 2016). However, Wingate (2018) argues that all students must be taught ALs and not only those who have been deemed to have certain academic deficiencies.

The introduction of bridging programmes in every programme can accommodate students at risk and for FGSs who find academic integration challenging. The commitment of both students and the institution is important for strategies of support to be effective (Moodley and Singh 2015; Kuh 2009). Staff and student relationships, teaching and learning styles and experiences as well as assessment, feedback and personal tutoring are important to ensure student success (Merkel and Brania 2015; Pillay 2010).

However, it is not only students who are underprepared, but lecturers are also underprepared and at times reluctant to address the lack of ALs. Research has shown that some of the practices of developing the ALs of students are inadequate (Ngcobo *et al.* 2016; Shange 2015). It is maintained by Niven (2005) that lecturers need to see the possibility of their own under-preparedness and ensure that they are well-trained and equipped to provide the ALs required by students at university.

Some lecturers tend to perceive the lack of ALs as a school problem or the duty of someone else and not part of their teaching duties (Seligmann and Gravett 2010). However, Maseko (2015) contends that students need and benefit from the support of academics in developing and enhancing their ALs to successfully gain epistemological access to university knowledge and succeed academically.

The challenge of teaching ALs in South African universities is still mainly focused on students Jacobs (2015) and not on the role that has to be played by subject lecturers, curriculum development and the institution in developing the ALs of students to refocus ALs interventions on staff (lecturers) development.

2.6 Theoretical framework

A theoretical framework is described by Sekaran and Bougie (2016) as “a model that enables a researcher to make logical sense of the relationships between the factors that are important to the research problem”. According to Boughey (2003) a theoretical framework incorporates a model and a theory. According to Scribner and Cole (2013) there are multiple literacies, and these literacies must be studied as social practices that are embedded in different academic disciplines.

The work of ethnographic researchers Heath and Heath (1983) is also seminal to NLS as it values student identities and the practices that students bring from their homes and communities. The AL practices of universities need to recognise and value the practices students bring in order not to alienate students just because their practices are not similar to the ones of the university. If these practices are ignored, the unfortunate outcome will be that students underachieve and have a sense of failure.

NLS is further rooted in the ethnographic studies of Street (2015) who researched literacy practices in different communities across different countries. NLS places an emphasis on the autonomous and ideological models of literacy as formulated by and on literacy as situated practices that are seen as multiple and operating within certain ideological frameworks (Street 2015; Kendall 2014).

The work of Street (2003) proposes an ideological model of literacy, claiming that literacy practices are deeply embedded in the ideologies prevailing in society and those informing the paradigms of individuals. This ideological model is more culturally sensitive and sees ALs varying from one context to another. NLS, which is aligned to the ideological model, acknowledges that the teaching of ALs has to be rooted in the students' conceptions of what makes up knowledge, student identities and their home and community social practices (Prinsloo and Baynham 2008; Street 2003).

The autonomous model of literacy is strongly opposed by Street (2003), and is also called the study skills model which sees literacy as a generic list of technical skills easily transferable from one context to another. He argues that the autonomous model imposes Western understandings on other cultures. Building on the work of earlier ethnographers, Street expands on the notion of multiple literacies. He examines how literacies vary across contexts and how home literacies are dominated by the more powerful literacies of academic institutions. This results in what Schultz and Hull (2002) term the 'continuity-discontinuity theory' which alienates those students whose social practices from their homes and the communities they live in are not similar to the practices of the university.

Furthermore, Barton (2017) also stresses that there is no one form of literacy but, in different contexts, different literacies are used depending on the discipline that students are learning at that time. According to Stephens (1998) ALs are not just about knowing how to read and write but go further to knowing how to apply and use knowledge in specific contexts and specific academic disciplines.

Most of the research in NLS has been done in the United States of America, Great Britain, Canada and Australia and suggests that, because the situation in South Africa is different, research in this country needs to be directed at the complexity of social, economic, racial and cultural environments that have social practices that are different to those of Western students and communities (Kendall 2014). In his work on New Literacy Studies, Cummins (1996) also emphasises that it is important to recognise the diversity of students when teaching ALs.

This study adopted NLS as its theoretical framework because the study's focus is on viewing ALs as practices situated within each discipline and favouring the ideological model.

2.7 Critique of the reviewed literature

Student movements and research findings keep advocating for students in South Africa to be given epistemological access to higher education Luckett (2019). Providing students with ALs has been used as one of the ways in which students are provided with a better chance of gaining epistemic access to university knowledge (Khoza-Shangase and Mophosho 2018). However, there exists a gap in that the approaches used to provide epistemological access to university knowledge are not sufficiently effective and appear not to take into account the factors that influence the teaching and learning of ALs (Boughey 2003).

Further to this, Leibowitz and Bozalek (2015) question why the body of literature of the 1980s and 1990s and the social and educational theories informing it have largely been ignored by higher education in South Africa as something on which to build.

The practices involved in teaching and learning as researched in NLS by Lea and Street (1998) have not influenced the policies and research of higher education. This is evident in the continued predominant use of the study skills and academic socialisation approaches in HEIs and fails to take into consideration how subjective textual practices and meaning-making practices are required in higher education (Coleman 2016). This is explained clearly by Ivanič (2009) and Lillis (2001) they say that texts are not merely used to transfer information but they are constitutive of the knowledge of the discipline and the knowledge and identities of individual students.

2.8 Summary of the chapter

This chapter extensively reviewed literature to provide understanding as to how the provision of ALs can enhance teaching and learning in higher education. The chapter that follows presents the research methodology the study adopted.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter reviewed literature. This chapter presents the research methodologies employed to examine the provision of ALs for the enhancement of teaching and learning in a selected programme at DUT. The chapter is arranged as follows: the research methodology is conceptualised and the research paradigm, research approach and research design are explained; the populations targeted for the study and sampling procedures are discussed; the tools used to collect data are presented and pretested for reliability and validity; the procedure followed for collecting data, the limitations faced in conducting the study; the ethical issues considered when conducting the study are provided; how data will be analysed is explained. The chapter concludes with a summary of the chapter.

3.2 Conceptualising research methodology and its processes

Research methodology is conceptualised as a series of steps or an approach to the entire step-by-step process of investigating a problem or phenomenon, through collecting and analysing available data (Sönmez 2018; Collis and Hussey 2013). Those series of steps also called the research process are held together by the research methodology (Kumar 2018). This is a view also held by Davies and Hughes (2014) who state that research methodology is a set of rules for evaluating how the research process fits together.

There is also confusion in terminology about research methodology and research methods. Given that the term research methodology is often interpreted differently by scholars, it is important to explain how research is understood in this study and the processes that are followed. This study views research methodology as a holistic tiered approach that is followed to achieve the aim of the study. Table 3.1below presents the researcher's conceptual map of the research methodology procedures followed

Table 3.1 Conceptual map of the research methodology

Research Objectives	Data Type	Target Population	Sampling Procedures		Data Collection Tool	Research Design Method	Research Approach	Research Paradigm
Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4		Step 5	Step 6	Step 7	Step 8
1. To explore the current practices in the provision of academic literacies for the enhancement of teaching and learning. 2. To identify factors influencing the provision of academic literacies for the enhancement of teaching and learning 3. To determine the best practices for the provision of academic literacies for the enhancement of teaching and learning	Primary Data	Lecturers	Census		Questionnaire	A descriptive survey was adopted	The Study is largely quantitative with limited qualitative elements	Post-Positivism
	Primary and secondary data through the review of literature	Students	Non-Probability: Quota sampling followed by accidental sampling within the quota					
	Primary and secondary data through the review of literature	Academic Support Staff	Non-Probability: Purposive Sampling					

3.3 Research design

In the research process, the research approach is followed by the research design/method. The research design underpins the whole research process with the research question being the major driver (Ngulube and Ukwoma 2019). It relates directly to answering the research question (Bless, Higson-Smith and Sithole 2013). There are several definitions of research designs and they vary from one discipline to another (Kumar 2018).

In this study, research designs are conceived as a specific plan to investigate the research problem by performing specific tasks (Creswell and Creswell 2017). The adopted view is in line with (Bless, Higson-Smith and Sithole 2013) and (Creswell 2013) who consider a research design as a framework for obtaining information necessary for solving a research problem.

Research design is also described as a strategy of inquiry that guides the selection of methods (Ullah and Ameen 2018; Punch and Oancea 2014) state that a research design is concerned with the tools that are used to collect and analyse data depending on who and what will be studied. The research design is also conceived

as “the blueprint for the collection, measurement and analysis of data” (Kothari 1990). It is further explained by Creswell (2013) that a research design provides direction for a specific study. Research designs are tailored to address different kinds of questions hence, before deciding on a methodology, it is imperative to understand the type of design the project will utilise (Flick 2018; Mouton 2001).

Clearly from the above definitions, the research problem and questions are the starting point for choosing a suitable research design. There are different types of research designs commonly used in social science research. They include the case study, survey, exploratory, experimental and explanatory design (Creswell 2009).

One of the fundamental and important considerations in research designs is that of time dimensions. Time dimensions in research can be cross-sectional, where researchers observe at one point in time and are simpler and less costly, or longitudinal, where researchers examine features of people or other units at more than one point in time and can be very costly and complex like cohort studies and tracer studies (Creswell 2013; Bless, Higson-Smith and Sithole 2013).

In this study, a survey research design was adopted. Surveys allow the researcher to collect data economically and efficiently (Leedy and Ormrod 2014; Sekaran 2003). Although survey research is generally associated with collecting quantitative data, Leedy and Ormrod (2019) posit that it can also be used to collect qualitative data. The survey in this study afforded the collection of quantitative surface data on the provision of ALs from a relatively large population of students as well as qualitative detail on the experiences of ALs from direct providers (lecturers).

3.4 Research paradigm

A paradigm is the broadest level of understanding the research process. A research paradigm refers to understanding the world and this inevitably depends on certain assumptions (Cohen, Manion and Morrison 2017). The different frameworks of pre-determined assumptions employed in viewing the world are referred to as paradigms (Creswell and Clark 2017). According to Rehman and Alharthi (2016), a paradigm is “a basic belief system and theoretical framework with assumptions

about 1) ontology, 2) epistemology, 3) methodology and 4) methods". Paradigms, therefore, are ontological, epistemological and methodological lenses for inspecting research practices and they influence how research is designed and conducted (Creswell and Báez 2020). Figure 3.1 below illustrates the relationship between ontology, epistemology, and paradigm.

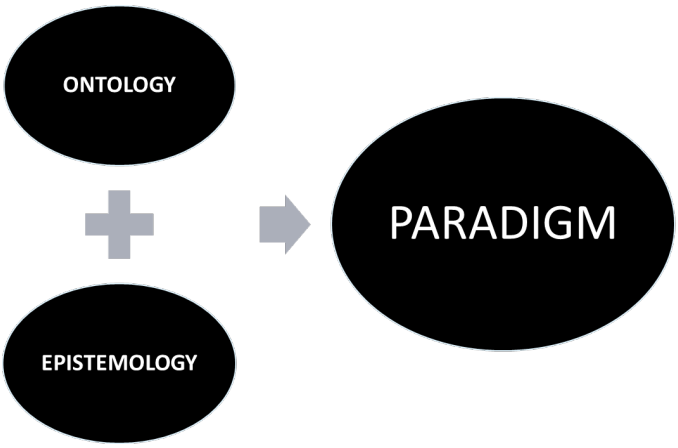

Figure 3.1 The relationship between ontology, epistemology and the research paradigm (Pretorius 2009)

The two components of paradigms are ontology and epistemology (Figure 3.1). Ontology is the philosophical position of examining/describing what can be known (Crotty 1998). Epistemology describes ways of knowing (Sprague 2018). Epistemology and ontology together describe how the researcher views the world and they shape the research questions (Berryman 2019).

In reviewing the literature, different ways of categorising paradigms can be identified, and a specific number of paradigms cannot categorically be stipulated. In the early days, the dichotomy was between the positivist and interpretivist/ constructivist paradigms (Berryman 2019; Creswell 2013). From those dichotomous debates arose a third paradigm, post-positivism, to balance the two (Panhwar, Ansari and Shah 2017; Benz, Ridenour and Newman 2008). The 'middle ground' between positivism and interpretivism/constructivism is contested by another paradigm which is pragmatism. Some argue that the emergence of pragmatism replaced post-positivism (De Vos *et al.* 2011; Leedy and Ormrod 2005). Counter-

arguments say that these two are separate paradigms (Bless, Higson-Smith and Kagee 2006).

This research problem could best be approached through the adoption of both qualitative and quantitative approaches. The large number of students to be surveyed necessitated the use of a quantitative approach with some qualitative questions. The qualitative approach was used to collect data that are more detailed from the targeted populations. Post-positivism is an alternative approach to conducting disciplined research; it emerged from positivism and was coined in the 1960s and these alternative provides a more all-round inclusive way of researching problems (Scotland 2012; McGregor and Murnane 2010). Post-positivism has the same ontology and epistemology as positivism but only adds that “knowledge is not neutral and that all knowledge is socially constructed” (Henderson 2011).

Although post-positivism can negotiate some of the conflict and differences between positivism and interpretivism and offer a variety of methodological choices, Ryan (2018) observes that new debates amongst scholars have arisen attempting to differentiate post-positivism from pragmatism given that the two involve applying quantitative and qualitative approaches in research. An example of the confusion in understanding the differences between post-positivism and pragmatism is seen in McGregor and Murnane (2010) equation of the qualitative approach with post-positivism, while many scholars equate it with mixed methods (Ryan 2018; Henderson 2011; Creswell 2009).

3.5 Methods of reasoning

A research approach tends to be associated with a particular reasoning. In literature, three ways of reasoning in research are identified: deductive, inductive and abductive (Creswell 2013; Bless, Higson-Smith and Kagee 2006). The deductive approach moves from theories to data starting by finding some well-known accepted theories and tries to apply them to a specific phenomenon to either prove or disprove theories that have been applied and both of these outcomes will be valuable (Flick 2018). Deductive reasoning starts with the assertion of a general rule and proceeds from there to a guaranteed specific conclusion (Behfar and Okhuysen 2018). Deductive or logical reasoning thus “begins with a major premise or argument (hypothesis) that attempts

to show or prove that a logical conclusion essentially follows from a set of premises" (Ocholla and Le Roux 2011).

The inductive approach moves from data to formulating theories (Fox 2011). Inductive reasoning begins with observations that are specific and limited in scope and proceeds to a generalised conclusion that is likely, but not certain, in light of accumulated evidence (Behfar and Okhuysen 2018). Inductive reasoning is of particular relevance in qualitative approaches that are used to extend existing theory into a new setting or to develop understanding and theory where none currently exists (Fox 2011).

The abductive approach moves from data to theories; however, it is much more complicated. Enough data must be available to formulate a theory (Flick 2018). Abductive reasoning is motivated by surprise in the face of anomalies or puzzles and generates "a plausible or coherent solution that might resolve the anomaly" (Behfar and Okhuysen 2018). It bridges perception and experiences with a further inquiry by articulating analysable and testable conjectures (Lorino 2018).

This study is both quantitative and qualitative and applies both deductive and inductive reasoning research approaches. They are also suitable for this study because they are less complicated than the abductive approach which requires the research to last for a longer period of time which in this case the researcher does not have and are more suitable for PhD studies (Ryan 2018).

3.6 Research approaches (Should I combine this with research paradigms)

Research approaches are one tier below research paradigms in the research process. In other words, research approaches tend to be associated with particular paradigms (Yin 2017; Mertens 2012). Just as there are debates on the number of research paradigms, there are also debates on the number of research approaches. Contemporary literature identifies the following four research approaches: quantitative, qualitative, mixed methods and both quantitative and qualitative (Ngulube and Ukwoma 2019; Davies and Fisher 2018; Leedy and Ormrod 2005). Ngulube and Ukwoma (2019) put forward that "the choice of research methods leads to the relevant data collection methods or techniques".

The study adopted both qualitative and quantitative approaches. A qualitative approach is suitable when little is known about the topic in general or within a specific context or when a researcher is unsure about which variables are important. This approach is suitable for ethnography or grounded theory that seeks to provide insight into how participants make meaning and positions a researcher to study a phenomenon in context and through understanding the participants (Maxwell 2008). The qualitative approach employs open-ended questions. Data is often in words and phrases, analysed textually and thematically and interpreted. Credibility, dependability and confirmability are used to validate the research (Hathcoat, Meixner and Nicholas 2019).

A quantitative approach is suitable when a researcher is trying to test a theory, hypothesis, or explanation. Variables are identified, data that is numeric is collected and statistically analysed, set standards of validity and reliability are used and objectivity is paramount (Berryman 2019; Creswell and Poth 2016). This study chose the quantitative design because it works well with the deductive research approach that was chosen. The quantitative design is suitable because the move is from theory to data. Data were collected in a way that the statistical programme and evaluations will allow the researcher to analyse the data suitably for the phenomena being studied. A quantitative design allows the researcher to examine relationships between variables and to obtain inferential statistics.

A quantitative design does not work well with an inductive approach because it will provide raw data in numbers and it will be difficult to find patterns in these numbers. It is noted by Flick (2018) that qualitative research is interested in analysing the subjective meaning or the social production of issues and quantitative research is interested in frequencies and distribution of issues. Table 3.2 presents a synopsis of the research approaches and methods of reasoning discussed.

Table 3.2 Research approaches and methods of reasoning

Research Paradigm	Research Approaches	Reasoning
Positivism	Quantitative	Deductive

Bias, objectivity, validity, generalisability, asks how many		
Interpretivism/Constructivism Confirmability, dependability, credibility, transferability, asks why so many	Qualitative	Inductive
Post-positivism	Both qualitative and quantitative	Both deductive and inductive
Pragmatism	Mixed, concurrent and sequential	Abductive

3.7 Populations of the study

A population is comprised of the total of all the elements that the researcher is focusing on (Creswell and Poth 2016; Sekaran and Boughie 2016).

This study targeted two populations. The first population group was both full time and part-time lecturers in the BIM Programme. A headcount at the Durban campus put the numbers at 13 lecturers in 2019; this was confirmed by the Management Information System database at DUT.

The second population was undergraduate students (first, second and third-year students excluding Bachelor of Technology students) in the BIM Programme of the Department of ICM. The total number of students registered as of 04 June 2019 was 800 for the BIM Programme according to the DUT Management Information Systems.

3.8 Sampling Techniques

Sampling is the selection of a few elements from a larger group to study the small group and infer the results to the larger group (Flick 2018; Kumar 2018). The main goal of sampling is to choose a sample that represents the population very well because if the sample does not represent the population then the results will not generalise (Creswell and Clark 2017).

There are two types of sampling: probability and non-probability sampling, also known as random and non-random sampling (Struwig and Stead 2013). In probability sampling, each respondent in the target population has a known probability of being selected from the population (Creswell and Clark 2017) while with non-probability sampling the chance of inclusion is unknown (Sekaran and Bougie 2016). This means that probability sampling is an objective method while non-probability sampling is a subjective method (Struwig and Stead 2013). When the number targeted is small and manageable a census can be used (Creswell 2013).

The lecturer population totalled 13 and all were included in the study. Students were sampled at two levels. At the first level, quota sampling was used to divide students into three levels of study: first, second and third. This was in anticipation of differences in the understanding of ALs in the levels of study. At the second level within the quotas, convenience sampling was used. In terms of representation, the quotas were not proportionate to the target population.

From a total population of 800 undergraduate students a sample size of 290 using the Sekaran Sampling Scale Sekaran and Bougie (2016) was selected, with a 95% level of confidence and a 5% margin of error. The student population and sample size breakdown are provided in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3 Student population and sample size breakdown

Level of Study	Population (689)	Sample (260)
1st Year	280	86
2nd Year	255	86
3rd Year	233	86

3.9 Data collection instruments

Data collection is a precise and systematic way of gathering data (Saunders *et al.* 2018). A variety of tools can be used to collect different types of data and is classified according to how data is collected or in terms of its intrinsic properties (Bless, Higson-Smith and Sithole 2013). When researchers collect their own data for a particular study, that data is called primary data (Bless, Higson-Smith and Sithole 2013). If the researcher uses or gathers data or facts that have been collected elsewhere for another purpose, this is regarded as a secondary source of data (Bless, Higson-Smith and Sithole 2013).

The qualitative data collection tools commonly used for the collection of data include interviews, observations, artefacts, textual analysis, focus groups, applied ethnography, visual methods and documents analysis (Denzin and Lincoln 2013). The quantitative data collection tools include survey questionnaires or schedules, class tests, national standardised assessments and polls (Mkandawire 2019).

According to Denscombe (2010) it is important to ensure that the researcher finds a method that is most suited for the specific nature of the study. This study collected primary data through self-administered questionnaires from lecturers and students.

A self-administered questionnaire (involving direct interaction with respondents) was employed in this study to exploit its advantages including that administration costs are lower (cost-effective), respondents are afforded freedom and time to complete (convenience), the period to collect the data is usually shorter (less time consuming) and any doubts can be clarified on the spot (Sekaran and Bougie 2016; Leedy and Ormrod 2010).

In terms of design, questionnaires can take any of these three forms: open-ended (unstructured), closed-ended (structured) or a combination of the two (semi-structured) (Dudovskiy 2016; Punch and Oancea 2014). A semi-structured questionnaire was used to collect data in this study.

3.10 Data collection procedure

After the research was cleared ethically, the gatekeeper's letter obtained and research instruments pretested, data collection commenced. Data was collected from the lecturers and undergraduate students. According to Saunders *et al.* (2018) data collection is a precise and systematic manner of collecting relevant data using methods such as questionnaires, narratives and interviews. The following procedure for collecting data was employed. Permission to approach students and staff was requested from the Head of Department of the BIM Programme via email. Each lecturer was approached in their offices to self-administer the questionnaires that were collected when they were completed.

Arrangements were made with lecturers for a brief slot to administer the questionnaire with each of the study levels from first year to third year during their timetabled lecture periods. Students were also approached in the departmental computer laboratories. The researcher explained the instructions for completing the questionnaire as well as the ethical procedures such as consent and recusal from participating in the study. The researcher then waited for the students to complete the questionnaires and collected them thereafter.

3.11 Data analysis techniques

Data analysis is one of the last steps in the research process and is done to summarise and display the data (Monette, Sullivan and De Jong 2008). Data analysis can reveal information about the phenomenon being studied only if relevant properties are encoded systematically in the data (Uher 2019).

Having collected both quantitative and qualitative data it followed that analysis was both quantitatively and qualitatively. In line with Lawless and Heymann (2010) descriptive statistics was used for summarising the characteristics of large data in an organised and sequential format to make sense of the raw data. Quantitative analysis (inferential, descriptive etc.) involves the use of statistics, which classify, tabulate and summarise numerical data to derive meaning from the data collected (Monette, Sullivan and DeJong 2013). Descriptive analysis was used in this study.

In line with Dudovskiy (2016) content analysis was used involving categorising verbal or behavioural data to classify, summarise and tabulate the data. Qualitative analysis (thematic or content) provides a summary of the researcher's notes from the data collected from observations or interviews (Creswell 2009). This study used content analysis.

The SPSS version 25 was used to analyse data as explained by (Coakes and Steed 2009). The researcher processed and transformed the quantitative data into codes, and these were put into the SPSS which produced descriptive statistics, graphs, tables, and inferential statistics. Frequency and percentage distribution were used in the analysis of the data.

3.12 Limitations of the study

The limitation of the study was that of focusing on a single programme and excluding the Piertmaritzburg Campus meant that the generalisability of the study findings was reduced. The study was designed to collect both quantitative and qualitative data which would be analysed through descriptive statistics and thematic content analysis. The response to open-ended questions was extremely poor. This is a common occurrence when questionnaires are used to collect data. (cite) For the above reasons, the analysis of qualitative data through thematic content analysis was not possible and therefore was excluded.

3.13 Ethical considerations

This study adhered to relevant ethical considerations as outlined by DUT's research guidelines. Ethics are defined as a set of values and ethical standards that ensure that the researcher behaves with integrity towards the participants of a study (Fouka and Mantzorou 2011; Bell and Bryman 2007) outline that respondents must consent, be able to withdraw at any time, be guaranteed privacy, the purpose of the study must be clearly stated and all communication must be done with integrity and transparency.

The ethical issues the study abided by are explained below. To have access to these respondents, the researcher first sought ethical approval and permission from

DUT to carry out the research on the university premises. The researcher obtained ethical clearance from the Ethics Committee at DUT (see Appendix A). The Director of Research provided the gatekeeper's permission letter.

Questionnaires were distributed with a covering letter and an informed consent letter which had to be signed by each participant as an indication of their willingness to participate in the study before commencement. The covering letter clearly explained the nature and purpose of the study and also explained that their confidentiality would be protected (see Appendix B). They had to read the covering letter before participating in the study.
The consent form assured them of their anonymity and made it clear that their participation was voluntary (see Appendix C). The participants were requested to sign the consent form before filling in the questionnaires and contact details were provided if the participants needed clarity or had any questions or concerns about the study. Data were only collected once informed consent had been obtained. No rewards of any kind were given to the respondents for their participation in the study.

The researcher also informed the respondents that they could withdraw at any time without any consequences and that their information would be used solely for this particular study. General courtesy when interacting with target populations was observed. The researcher followed all moral principles governing human and organisational ethics set by DUT.

The information obtained from respondents was treated in the strictest confidence and their privacy was closely guarded. To ensure anonymity, the respondents had to place the informed consent forms in one box and the completed questionnaires in a different box. Information and data collected were saved and reserved and will be destroyed five years after research completion.

The identity of the respondents was kept confidential. To ensure confidentiality only the researcher and supervisors had access to the completed questionnaires. The study did not collect any sensitive data. Only information collected for the study will be stored, summarised, and kept for five years. It will be deleted from the document

file and removed from the recycle bin to ensure that it is permanently deleted. No deception of any kind was used.

3.14 Addressing reliability and validity concerns

A research study has to address concerns regarding reliability and validity and although they are both important to the evaluation of an instrument, they are entirely different concepts (Bless, Higson-Smith and Sithole 2013). Reliability is concerned with whether the instrument is accurate and consistent while validity is concerned with whether the instrument is measuring what it is supposed to measure (Vaus 2014; Newing 2010; Bless, Higson-Smith and Sithole 2013).

The statistical reliability for this study was assured through Cronbach's Alpha which estimates the internal consistency of responses to different scale items (Bolarinwa 2015; Tavakol and Dennick 2011;).

Validity is composed of two aspects: internal and external validity (Bless, Higson-Smith and Sithole 2013). Internal validity is the degree to which an instrument measures what it is supposed to measure while external validity refers to the ability of results to be generalised beyond the immediate study (Bless, Higson-Smith and Sithole 2013). These two aspects of validity were addressed through pre-testing on the same population on which the final study was conducted in their natural environment.

Pre-testing, according to Howard (2018) is a trial run which has a few participants with the intention of correcting problems in the research tool "ensures that respondents understand the questions the same way and it enables necessary revisions and adjustments to be made before the final questionnaire". Pre-testing is usually conducted to check mistakes, length, vagueness and understanding of questions (Howard 2018). According to Lancaster, Dodd and Williamson (2004), pre-testing can show faults in the design of a data collection instrument or the data collection procedure and these can be rectified before the final distribution of the instrument.

The students' questionnaire was pre-tested on fifteen undergraduate BIM students and the lecturers' questionnaire was pre-tested on three BIM lecturers. While the students in the pre-test were excluded in the main study, the lecturers were included because the population was small.

The researcher was satisfied with the 100% return rate of both pre-tests and the feedback indicated that the questionnaire was clear and understandable which strengthened the validity and reliability of the research tool. Based on the comments and advice of participants during the pre-test, the instrument was adjusted appropriately before being used for the final data collection exercise.

3.15 Summary of the chapter

Chapter Three explained the research design that guided this study. It provided the population and sampling technique that was used during the collection of data. It also justified the use of the chosen research method to gain information regarding the research, the research instrument and how the data was collected and analysed. The research approach was also explained. Finally, reliability and validity were explained, and the chapter concluded with discussing the ethical procedures that were followed in this study. In the chapter that follows the study findings are presented, interpreted, and analysed.

CHAPTER 4: PRESENTATION, INTERPRETATION AND ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

The chapter that ended presented the research methodology adopted for the study. This chapter presents, interprets, and provides a descriptive analysis of the data collected through questionnaires from the study. The chapter starts with the procedure used to analyse data descriptively and thematically. The response rate for the populations targeted in the study was then provided. Thereafter, the findings of the data were presented starting with lecturers and moving on to undergraduate students. The chapter concludes with a summary of the chapter.

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented, interpreted, and analysed the study findings. The purpose of this chapter is to provide an interpretative discussion of the findings using literature.

4.2 Procedure followed for analysing descriptive and thematic data

The study collected quantitative and qualitative data which was analysed descriptively and thematically. It is important to explain the procedure followed in data analysis because it has a bearing on the response rate. Analysis is the search for patterns in data and for ideas that help explain why those patterns are there in the first place (Bernard and Bernard 2013).

Data presented and analysed in this chapter was collected from a questionnaire that was both quantitative and qualitative. Quantitative data collected was coded and classified and the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences and Microsoft Excel were used to display data in graphs and percentage distribution tables because they are easy to read and interpret (Bain 2017). Tabulation was used to keep explanations short and comprehensible and to help summarise and compare data clearly.

Descriptive analysis limits the generalisation of the findings of the specific group that was studied and provides valuable information about the nature of the particular group (Bain 2017). Descriptive analysis is used to describe the basic features of

the data in the study. It provides simple summaries about the sample and the measures. According to Bernard and Bernard (2013) descriptive statistics are used to give the researcher a view of the data by providing information about aspects of the data. Together with simple graphical analysis, descriptive statistics form the basic visual of any quantitative analysis of data.
With descriptive analysis, one simply describes what is or what is shown by the data. The descriptive analysis of data first estimates and summarises the data and is arranged in tables and graphs to meet the objectives. Information is then provided about the variability or uncertainty in the data. Indications of unexpected patterns and observations that need to be considered when doing formal analysis are finally given (Bain 2017).

In this study, descriptive statistical analysis was limited to the following two variables: frequencies and percentages. The statistical data were presented through tables and graphs. The open-ended questions forming the qualitative element of the questionnaire which were going to be discussed through the employment of thematic analysis but were not sufficiently answered by both populations of the study and were thus not analysed. The process of thematically analysing the data involves reading and re-reading the data several times and looking for common concepts – whether similar or contrasting – and coding them throughout the text (Rubin and Rubin 2011).

Thematic analysis allows for flexibility in the analysis of data, provides a structure for the organisation of themes and assists in interpreting the research topic (Braun and Clarke 2006). The process contains six steps beginning with familiarising oneself with the data, assigning preliminary codes to the data to describe the content, searching for patterns or themes in the codes across the different interviews, reviewing, defining and naming themes and finally producing the report (Braun and Clarke 2019; Blandford, Furniss and Makri 2016).

4.3 Response rates for lecturers and undergraduate students

The study data was collected from the following populations: lecturers and undergraduate students. Table 4.1 below presents the populations targeted and the response rates obtained.

The study collected 13 responses from the selected programme lecturers and all 13 were usable. Of the 250 responses collected from the selected undergraduate students, 229 were usable. The response rate was calculated from the participants who responded. The table below shows the population groups, the numbers targeted in each group, the number that responded and the response rate.

Table 4.1 Populations targeted and the response rates thereof

Populations targeted and the response rates thereof (N=487)			
Population	Targeted (Number)	Responded (Number)	Response Rate (Percentage)
Lecturers	13	13	100%
Undergraduate students	474	229	48%
Total	**487**	**242**	**50%**

Table 4.1 reveals that of the 13 questionnaires distributed to lecturers, 13 respondents completed and returned the completed questionnaires representing a 100% response rate. Out of 474 students, 229 (48%) responded. The response rates obtained are considered adequate for internal surveys which generally yield a 30-40% response rate (or more) on average, compared to an average 10-15% response rate for external surveys (Nulty 2008). The presentation, interpretation and analysis of findings provided below are separated into two parts: lecturer findings and undergraduate student findings.

4.4 Presentation, interpretation, and analysis of lecturer findings

4.4.1 Response rate for lecturers

The response rate was calculated from the participants who responded. The study collected 13 of 13 (100%) completed questionnaires from the selected programme lecturers and all 13 questionnaires were usable.

4.4.2 Demographic data of lecturers

Demographic data provides details regarding research participants and is necessary for the determination of whether the individuals in a particular study form a representative sample of the target population for generalisation purposes (Polit and Beck 2010). The demographic data of lecturers is presented in Table 4.2 below.

Table 4.2 Demographic data of lecturers

Demographic data of lecturers (N=13)		
Age	Frequency	Percentage
Less than 26	0	0%
26-35	4	31%
36-45	2	15%
46-55	3	23%
56-60	1	8%
61-65	0	0%
Non-respondents	3	23%
TOTAL	13	100%
Race	Frequency	Percentage
African	6	46%
Coloured	0	0%
Indian	7	54%
White	0	0%
Other	0	0%
TOTAL	13	100%
Employment Status	Frequency	Percentage
Permanent	10	77%
Contract	3	23%
Non-respondents	0	0%
TOTAL	13	100%
Home Language	Frequency	Percentage
IsiZulu	5	38%
IsiXhosa	1	8%
SeSotho	0	0%
English	7	54%
Non-respondents	0	0%
Total	**13**	**100%**

In terms of age, out of 13 (100%) who responded, 4 (31%) were in the 26-35 years' age category followed by 3 (23%) between the ages of 46 and 55 years and 2 (15%)

in the 36-45 age group. The least represented was the 56-60 age group with only 1 (8%) and 3 (23%) did not respond.

Two race groups emanated from the race distribution question: 7 (54%) were Indian and 6 (46%) were African. The employment status of respondents was dominated by permanent staff members at 10 (77%) with only 3 (23%) contract staff members. The respondents home language was predominantly English at 7 (54%) followed by 5 (38%) IsiZulu and only 1 (8%) IsiXhosa.

Although respondents did not reveal their highest qualification, institutional data revealed 2 (15%) holding a Doctoral Degree, 10 (77%) holding a master's degree and 1 (8%) holding a Bachelor of Technology degree. Lecturing experience, industry experience and level lecturing to were also included in the questionnaire, however, the response rate was very low and often no responses were recorded at all.

4.4.3 Lecturers' awareness of academic literacies

The review of literature revealed that there is no consensus regarding what constitutes academic literacies. For this reason, the following section sought to determine the lecturers' understanding of what academic literacies are and constitute as well as the lecturers' awareness of their provision for the enhancement of teaching and learning. In literature, academic literacies provision is generally depicted as aligned to three overlapping perspectives: Study Skills Model, Academic Socialisation Model and Academic Literacies Model. ALs are different from literacy which is viewed as singular whereas ALs are viewed as plural when defined by several researchers such as Lea and Street (1998).

4.4.3.1 Lecturers' views on what academic literacies are and constitute

The research asked lecturers to indicate the viewpoint that best captures what academic literacies are from their understanding because in literature the definitions of academic literacies continue to be contested and there is often no common

understanding as to what they constitute. Lecturers were given two ways of understanding academic literacies to choose from. Table 4.3 below shows that of the 13 respondents 10 (77%) understand ALs to be about ways in which students make meaning of academic texts, contest these meanings, and formulate arguments within the context of each discipline and they differ from one discipline to the other (Academic Literacies Model). The other 3 (23%) understand ALs to be about grammar, spelling, reading, and writing skills that students need to learn in order to understand and produce academic texts. These skills are deemed to be neutral and generic and once learnt, students can be able to apply them throughout the various disciplines without any problem (Study Skills Model).

Table 4.3 Lecturers' views on what academic literacies are and constitute

Lecturers' views on what academic literacies are according to their understanding (N=13)	Frequency	Percentage
Study Skills Model	3	23%
Academic Literacies Model	10	77%
Total	**13**	**100%**

5.2.1 Determining what academic literacies are and constitute

Viewpoints on what ALs are and are made up of differ and are even contentious. Contemporary discourse delimits ALs to the following schools of thought: the older perspective was that they are surface skills of language, syntax, spelling, reading, writing and so forth (Study Skills Model also referred to as the deficit model); followed by Academic Socialisation Model which assumes that in order to become academically successful, students need to be acculturated into the discourses of particular disciplines and the last view is that ALs also include student identities, ways of thinking and making meaning (Academic Literacies Model anchored in the NLS theory) (Wingate 2018; Lillis and Scott 2007). In this regard, the study sought to determine the viewpoint held by both lecturers and students about what academic literacies are and constitute through them choosing a definition/viewpoint/model they align with from the three above.

Findings revealed that lecturers' and undergraduate students' definitions of ALs aligned with the Academic Literacies Model by over two thirds, 10 (77%) and above half, 140 (61%) respectively. The Study Skills Model posted negligible results of less than a quarter of a hundred. These findings confirmed that in terms of preference, the New Literacy Studies viewpoint to understanding ALs is increasing an observation that was made by (Clarence and McKenna 2017).

The researcher's experience, however, is that while understanding of what they are and constitute may point to the Academic Literacies Model, the reality on the ground in terms of practice still reflects the dominance of the Study Skills Model. This was also identified by (Flowerdew 2020).

4.4.3.2 Dominant pedagogy/model/method used for providing ALs

There are various approaches to providing ALs in higher education. Among them the Study Skills Model, Academic Socialisation Model and Academic Literacies Model, as advocated in the New Literacy Studies by Lea and Street (1998). Lecturers were asked this question to determine the practices generally adopted at DUT in providing ALs for the enhancement of teaching and learning based on two options they were provided: The Study Skills Model and the Academic Literacies Model. Having determined the lecturers' understanding of ALs in section 4.4.3.1 above, it was necessary to find out the method followed in providing ALs at DUT. Table 4.4 below shows the choices made by lecturers.

Table 4.4 Dominant pedagogy/model/method used for providing ALs

Dominant pedagogy/model/method used for providing ALs (N=13)	Frequency	Percentage
Study Skills Model	4	31%
Academic Literacies Model	9	69%
Total	**13**	**100%**

The findings revealed that most lecturers 9 (69%) claimed that DUT uses the Academic Literacies Model, while 4 (31%) indicated the Study Skills Model. The findings do appear to contradict the evidence on the ground and in literature which indicates that the Study Skills Model is the predominant one used in institutions of higher learning internationally.

4.4.3.3 Pedagogy/model/method of providing ALs preferred by lecturers

The researcher went further and asked lecturers to indicate the pedagogy/model/method they prefer for the provision of ALs. Table 4.5 below illustrates the choices made by lecturers.

Table 4.5 Preferred pedagogy/model/method for the provision of ALs

Preferred pedagogy/model/method for the provision of ALs (N=13)	Frequency	Percentage
Study Skills Model	2	15%
Academic Literacies Model	11	85%
Total	**13**	**100%**

Of the 13 respondents, 11 (85%) preferred the Academic Literacies Model and only 2 (15%) preferred the Study Skills Model.

4.4.3.4 Lecturers' awareness of DUT's position on the provision of academic literacies

This question was aimed at ascertaining whether lecturers were aware of DUT's position on the provision of ALs by selecting Yes or No. The results as shown in Figure 4.1 below revealed that 6 (60%) of the 10 respondents were not aware of DUT's position, while 4 (40%) indicated that they were aware.

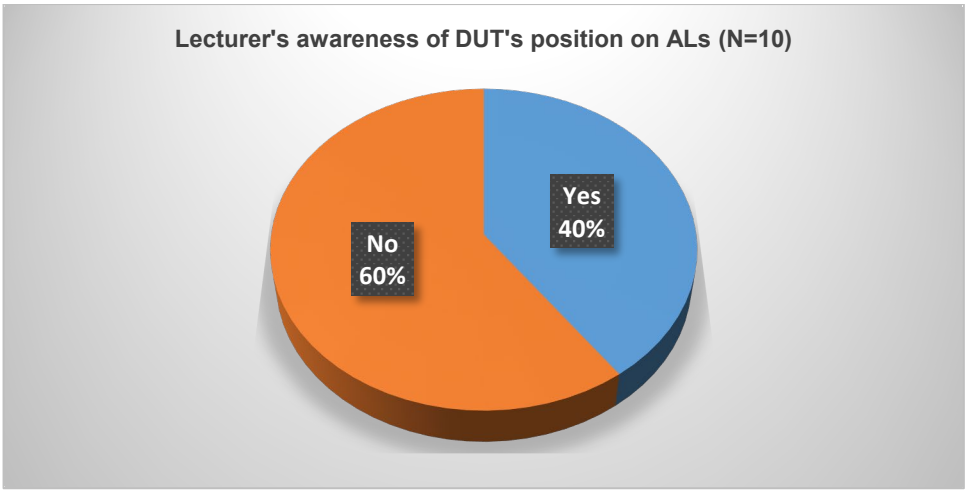

Figure 4.1 Lecturer's awareness of DUT's position on the provision of ALs

4.4.3.5 Sources used for informing lecturers of DUT's position on the provision of ALs

This question was aimed at determining how lecturers came to know of the institution's position on the provision of ALs. The findings are illustrated in Table 4.6 below.

Table 4.6 Sources used for informing lecturers on DUT's position on the provision of ALs

Sources used for informing lecturers on DUT's position on the provision of ALs (N=10)	Frequency	Percentage
Departmental Meeting	7	70%
Contractual Obligation	1	10%
DUT Policies	2	20%
Total	**10**	**100%**

Ten lecturers responded to this question with 7 (70%) indicating that they came to know of the institution's position from departmental meetings, while 2 (20%) from DUT policies and 1 (10%) from contractual obligations.

4.4.3.6 Lecturers' awareness of curriculum development initiatives for the provision of academic literacies

Academic literacies are a curriculum matter, and, for that reason, the aim was to determine if lecturers were aware of their inclusion in institutional curriculum development initiatives by responding with a Yes or No. The findings obtained were that 12 (92%) lecturers indicated that they were aware of curriculum development initiatives/interventions for the provision of ALs and only 1 (8%) of lecturers was not aware of any initiatives.

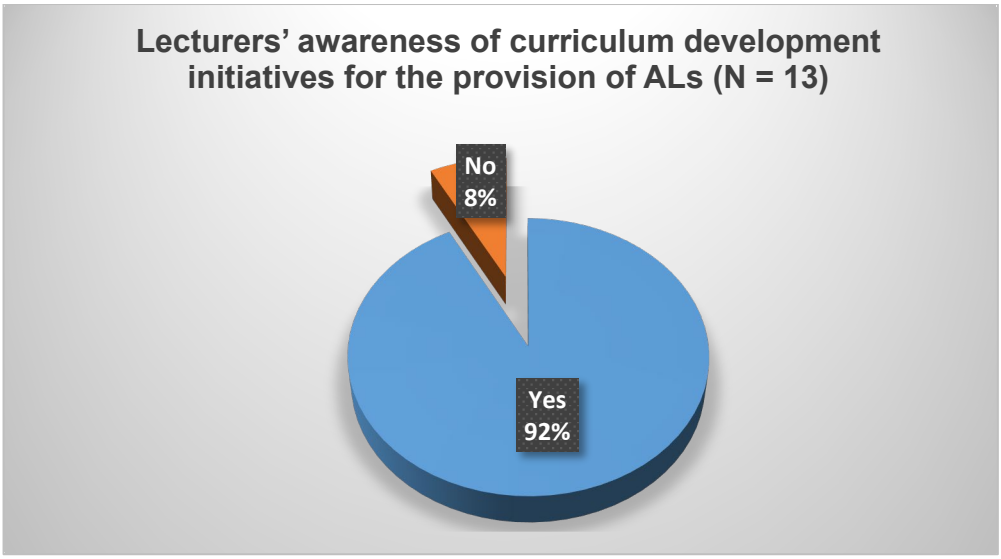

Figure 4.2 Lecturers' awareness of curriculum development initiatives at DUT for the provision of ALs

4.4.3.7 Lecturers' indication of curriculum development initiatives for the provision of ALs

The researcher further asked the lecturers to indicate the curriculum development initiatives they were aware of at DUT. Table 4.7 below shows that 5 (38%) of lecturers chose the Library Information Literacy Programme followed by 3 (23%) selecting the Library User Education and Orientation as the curriculum development initiatives. The Writing Centre 2 (15%) and the Extended Curriculum Programme 2 (15%) had the same postings, with FYSE being the least chosen 1 (8%).

Table 4.7 Lecturers' indication of their awareness of curriculum development initiatives on the provision of ALs

Indication of the awareness of curriculum development initiatives at DUT on the provision of ALs (N=13)	Frequency	Percentage
ECP/Foundation Programmes	2	15%
Writing Centre	2	15%
Library Information Literacy Programme	5	38%
Library User Education and Orientation	3	23%
FYSE Workshops	1	8%
Total	**13**	**100%**

4.4.3.8 Opinions of lecturers regarding the need for emphasising academic literacies at the curriculum development level

Further to asking lecturers if they were aware of curriculum development initiates on ALs at DUT and asking them to indicate the types of initiatives they were aware of, the researcher asked them if they saw a need for such initiates. The findings revealed that 13 (100%) think that there is a need to emphasise ALs during curriculum development.

4.4.3.9 Indication by lecturers on whether academic literacies are emphasised at curriculum development level

The question was asked as a follow up to section 4.4.3.8 above in order to establish whether ALs are emphasised at curriculum development level. The findings in Figure 4.3 below show that from a total of 10 responses, 7 (70%) indicated that ALs were emphasised at curriculum development level while 3 (30%) indicated they were not.

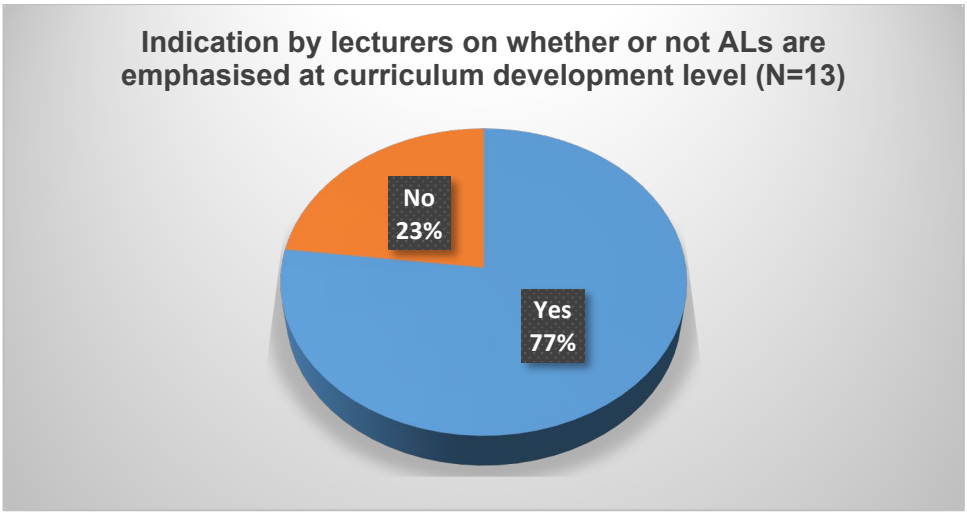

Figure 4.3 Indication by lecturers on whether or not ALs are emphasised at curriculum development level

4.4.3.10 Initiatives/interventions employed for the provision of academic literacies at departmental level according to lecturers

The researcher asked this question to determine the initiatives/interventions employed by DUT to develop academic literacies. The lecturers were asked to select one or more initiatives of which they were aware from a list of five initiatives in place at DUT. The findings listed in Table 4.8 below show that 4 (31%) of lecturers were aware of the Extended Curriculum Programme and the Library User Education and Orientation Programme, respectively. This was closely followed by 3 (23%) choosing the Writing Centre and 2 (15%) choosing the FYSE Programme. None of the respondents chose the Library Information Literacy Programme.

Table 4.8 Initiatives/interventions employed by lecturers for the provision of ALs at departmental level

Initiatives/interventions employed for the provision of ALs at departmental level (N=13)	Frequency	Percentage
Extended Curriculum Programme, Foundation Programmes	4	31%
Writing Centre	3	23%
Library Information Literacy Programme	0	0%
Library User Education and Orientation	4	31%
FYSE Programme	2	15%
Total	**13**	**100%**

4.4.4 Current practices in the provision of academic literacies

There are various conceptual approaches to the provision of ALs and one of them is the Academic Literacies Model. Whilst some authors continue to argue that the development of ALs must be assigned to subject lecturers, there is strong evidence that these subject lecturers are neither willing nor confident to develop undergraduate students' academic literacies (Wingate and Tribble 2012).

The researcher thus sought to determine the views of lecturers regarding the practices that lecturers are using and practices they prefer for the provision of ALs.

4.4.4.1 Lecturers' views on whether methods used enhance the quality of teaching and learning

The data collected shows that 9 (82%) of lecturers indicated that the present methods of providing ALs are enhancing the quality of teaching and learning while 2 (18%) indicated that they are not.

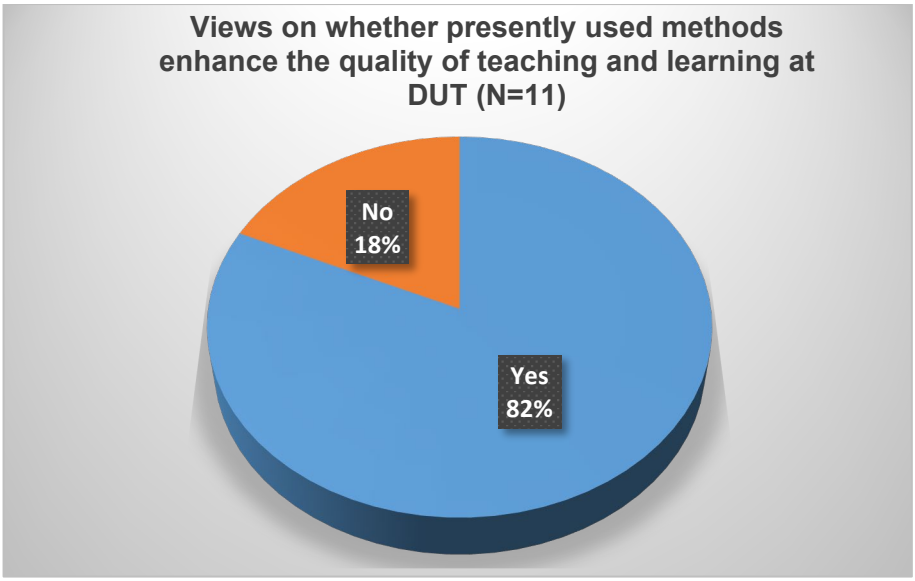

Figure 4.4 Views on whether presently used methods enhance the quality of teaching and learning

4.4.4.2 Lecturers' ability to identify the academic literacies needs of undergraduate students

To provide enhanced teaching and learning, lecturers must start by identifying the needs of the students and design their teaching to respond to these needs. The next question sought to establish whether lecturers think they have the ability to identify the ALs needs of undergraduate students through a Yes or No response. Of the 13 respondents, 11 (85%) indicated that they were able to identify the ALs needs of undergraduate students while 2 (15%) said they did not have the ability to identify the ALs needs of undergraduate students.

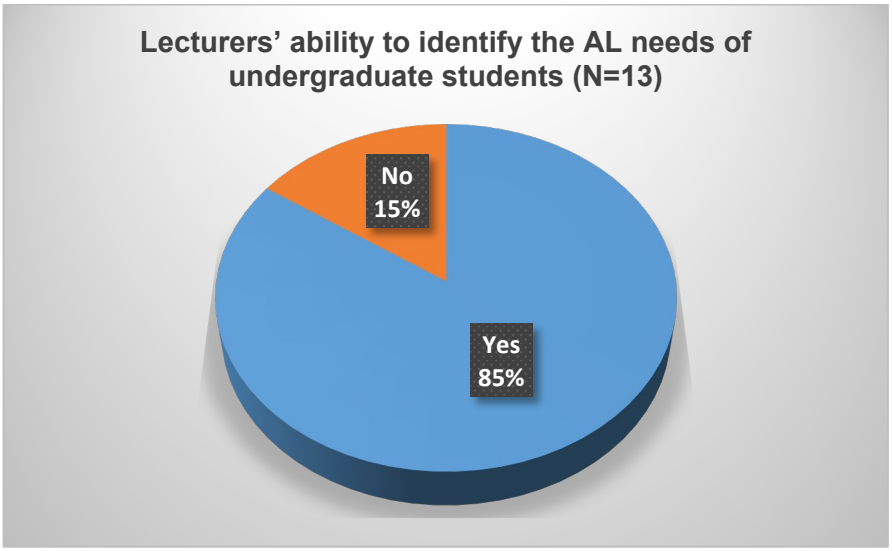

Figure 4.5 Lecturers' ability to identify the AL needs of undergraduate students

4.4.4.3 Mechanisms used by lecturers to identify academic literacies needs of undergraduate students

The researcher further asked lecturers to indicate the mechanisms they use to identify the ALs needs of undergraduate students. The majority of lecturers, 12 of 13 (92%), use the 'At-risk students' mechanism to identify the ALs needs of students, while only 1 of 13 (8%), indicated that they use DUT's Language Standardised Assessment Test for Access and Placement (SATAP).

Table 4.9 Mechanisms used by lecturers to identify AL needs of students

Mechanisms used by lecturers to identify AL needs of students (N=13)	Frequency	Percentage
DUT Language SATAP	1	8%
DUT Mathematics SATAP	0	0%
DUT Numeracy SATAP	0	0%
DUT Science SATAP	0	0%
DUT Science SATAP	0	0%
At-risk students	12	92%
Total	**13**	**100%**

4.4.4.4 Opinions of lecturers on whether the provision of ALs their responsibility is or not.

The predominant use of the autonomous Study Skills Model in providing ALs, which leaves the responsibility of providing ALs to support departments in institutions of higher learning led to the researcher asking lecturers to indicate whether they feel that it is their responsibility as lecturers to provide ALs or not.

Eleven lecturers responded to this question and their results are distributed as follows: 6 (55%) regard the provision ALs as not their responsibility; the other 5 (45%) deem it to be their responsibility. This represents an almost 50/50 split as shown in Figure 4.7 below.

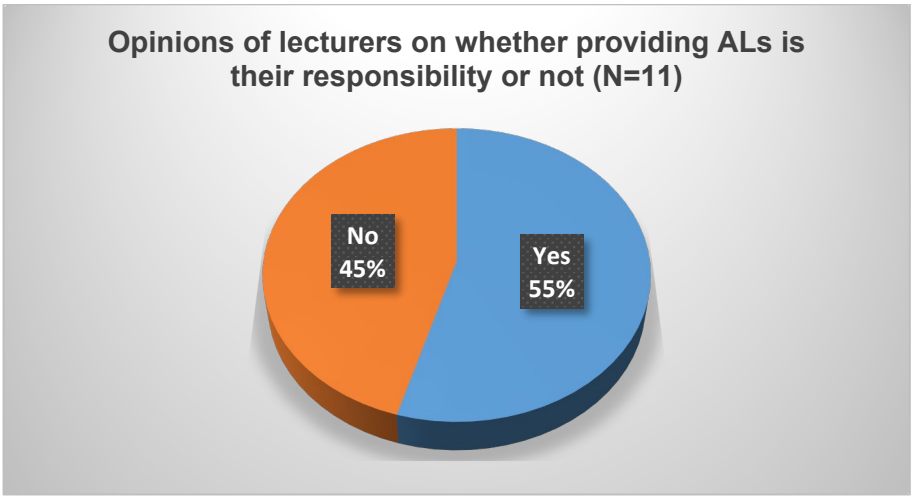

Figure 4.6 Opinions of lecturers on whether providing ALs is their responsibility or not.

4.4.4.5 Lecturers opinions on the person best suited to provide academic literacies to undergraduate students

ALs are provided by several stakeholders some of whom include subject lecturers, support departments as well as a combination of the two. It is for this reason that the study sought to know who is best suited to provide ALs from the standpoint of lecturers. The results are presented in Table 4.10 below.

Table 4.10 Opinions of lecturers on the best-suited person to provide ALs to undergraduate students

Opinions of lecturers on the best-suited person to provide academic literacies to students (N=13)	Frequency	Percentage
Subject Lecturer	4	31%
Support Department	5	38%
Combination of Subject Lecturer and Support Department	4	31%
Total	**13**	**100%**

The views of lecturers regarding who is best suited to provide ALs as illustrated in Table 4.10 above are spread almost evenly with 5 of 13 (38%) lecturers having

identified the support department and 4 of 13 (31%) choosing the subject lecturer as well as a combination of the subject lecturer and support department, respectively. These results confirm the multiplicity of views as revealed in literature.

4.4.4.6 The state of the assessment of academic literacies

The underlying pedagogical assumption is that assessment is the most powerful influence on student learning (Falchikov and Goldfinch 2000; Boud, Cohen and Sampson 1999; Scouller 1998). In light of this, the researcher felt it necessary to find out if ALs are currently assessed. As illustrated in Figure 4.8 below, the findings show that 2 of 13 (15%) lecturers indicated that ALs are not currently assessed while 11 of 13 (85%) indicated that ALs are currently assessed.

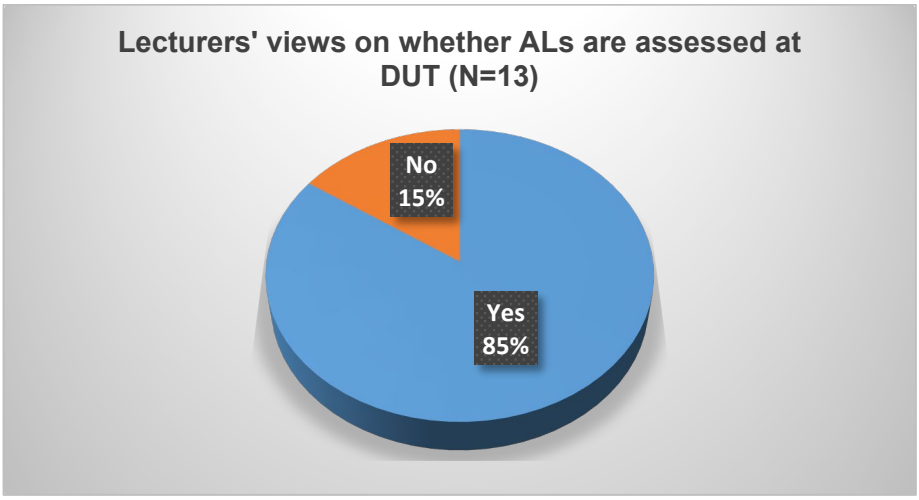

Figure 4.7 Lecturers views on whether ALs are assessed

4.4.4.7 Lecturers' views on the need for the assessment of academic literacies

The researcher went further and asked if lecturers felt that ALs should be assessed or not and, interestingly, all 13 (100%) respondents indicated that ALs should be assessed.

4.4.4.8 Lecturers' opinions on whether the assessment of academic literacies would enhance the quality of teaching and learning

With regard to whether the assessment of ALs would enhance the quality of teaching and learning, 11 in total responded to the question giving a distribution of

9 of 11 (82%) who said it would and 2 of 11 (18%) who indicated it would not as illustrated in Figure 4.9 below.

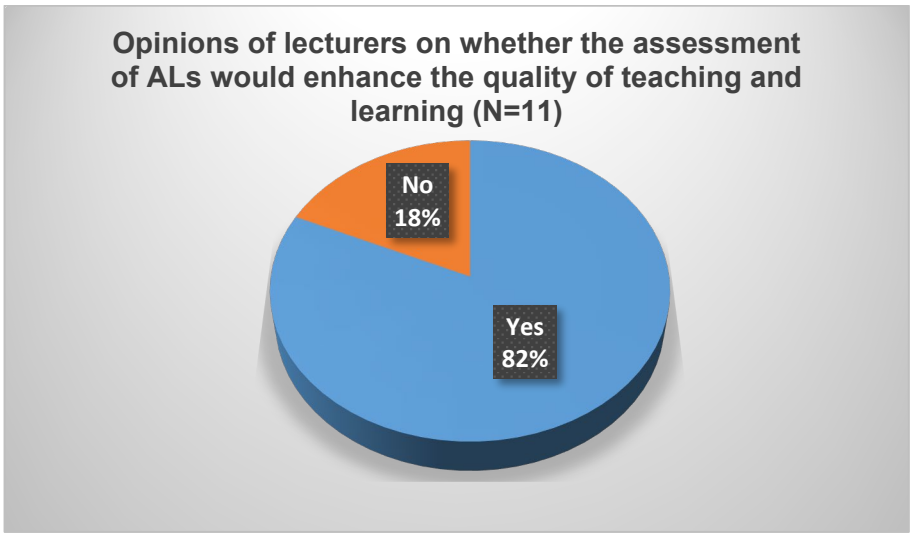

Figure 4.8 Opinions of lecturers on whether the assessment of ALs would enhance the quality of teaching and learning

4.4.4.9 Lecturers opinions regarding the type of undergraduate student who should be provided with academic literacies

The Study Skills Model often referred to as the "Deficit Model" of providing ALs situates the challenges of inadequate ALs with students from poor academic backgrounds which in South Africa results in locating the problem with black undergraduate students and internationally with second language English speakers. The researcher felt it necessary to determine what the current practice concerning the type of students to whom ALs are provided.

Table 4.11 Lecturers' opinions regarding the type of undergraduate student who should be provided ALs at DUT

The type of student who should be provided academic literacies at DUT (N=13)	Frequency	Percentage
Academic literacies for students with a poor academic background	4	31%
Academic literacies for all students	9	69%
Total	**13**	**100%**

The findings illustrated in Table 4.11 above show that 9 of 13 (69%) of lecturers indicated that all undergraduate students regardless of their academic background should be provided ALs, while 4 of 13 (31%) indicated that only students with a poor academic background should be provided ALs.

4.4.4.10 Indication by lecturers of the type of undergraduate student who is provided academic literacies

The researcher went further to find out the type of student who is provided ALs. The findings illustrated in Table 4.12 below shows that 10 of 11 (91%) lecturers indicated that it is only students with a poor academic background who are provided ALs, while 1 of 11 (9%) lecturers indicating that all undergraduate students regardless of their academic background are provided ALs. This is in line with the literature which indicates that in most HEIs ALs are predominantly provided to undergraduate students who have been identified as having a poor academic background and/or are underperforming and not the entire undergraduate student population as some literature advises. This shows that the lecturers' preferences are different from the practices of the university.

Table 4.12 Indication by lecturers of the type of undergraduate student provided ALs

The type of undergraduate student provided ALs (N=11)	Frequency	Percentage
Selected undergraduate students	10	91%
All undergraduate students	1	9%
Total	**11**	**100%**

4.4.5 Factors influencing the provision of academic literacies

Strong investment has been made into undergraduate programs in an attempt to provide academic support within amongst others, financial and regulatory constraints in the higher education environment. The researcher sought the views of lecturers regarding factors that influence the provision of ALs.

4.4.5.1 Lecturers views on factors influencing the provision of academic literacies

With regards to factors that influence the provision of ALs, Figure 4.10 below shows that the majority of lecturers 12 of 13 (92%), identified skills/knowledge/methods of providing ALs as a key factor in the effective provision of ALs. This is closely followed by 9 of 13 (69%) lecturers who indicated the work/teaching load as an important factor that affects the effective provision of ALs. The training of lecturers and curriculum development were indicated as equally important by 8 of 13 (62%) lecturers. The availability of tutors and time constraints were viewed to be of equal importance respectively with 6 of 13 (46%) lecturers choosing them. This was closely followed by 5 of 13 (38%) lecturers choosing time slots and budget availability, respectively.

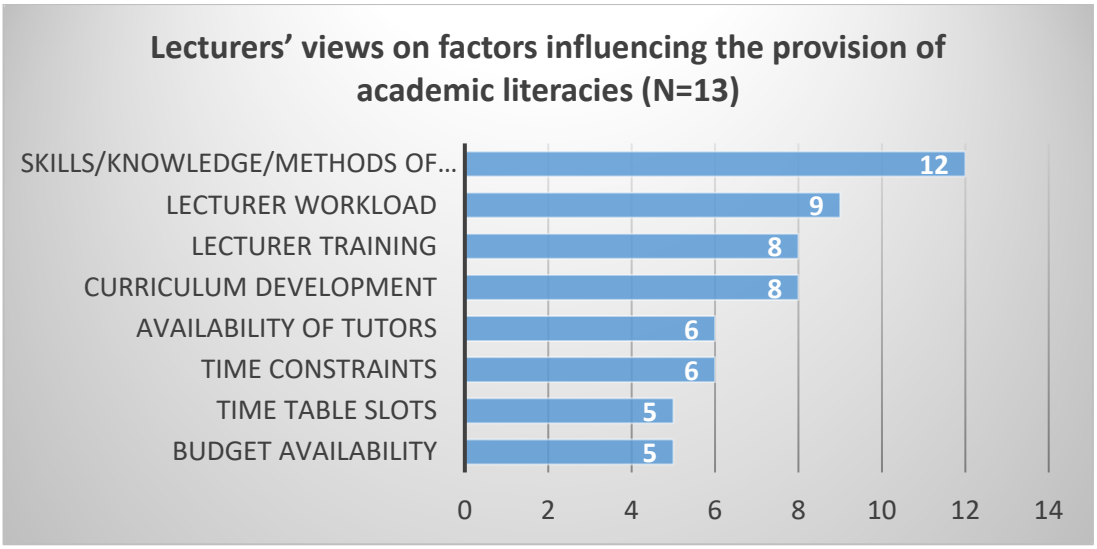

Figure 4.9 Lecturers' views on factors influencing the provision of academic literacies

4.4.5.2 Lecturers' indication of whether there is institutional support for the provision of academic literacies

Considering that ALs include values, attitudes, identities, ways of being etc. of the student, the lecturer and the university, the study sought to determine whether the university provides support to undergraduate students and lecturers for the provision of ALs. Figure 14.11 below shows that 9 of 13 (69%) lecturers indicated that they receive support from DUT to provide ALs and 4 of 13 (31%) indicated that they do not receive support from DUT to provide ALs.

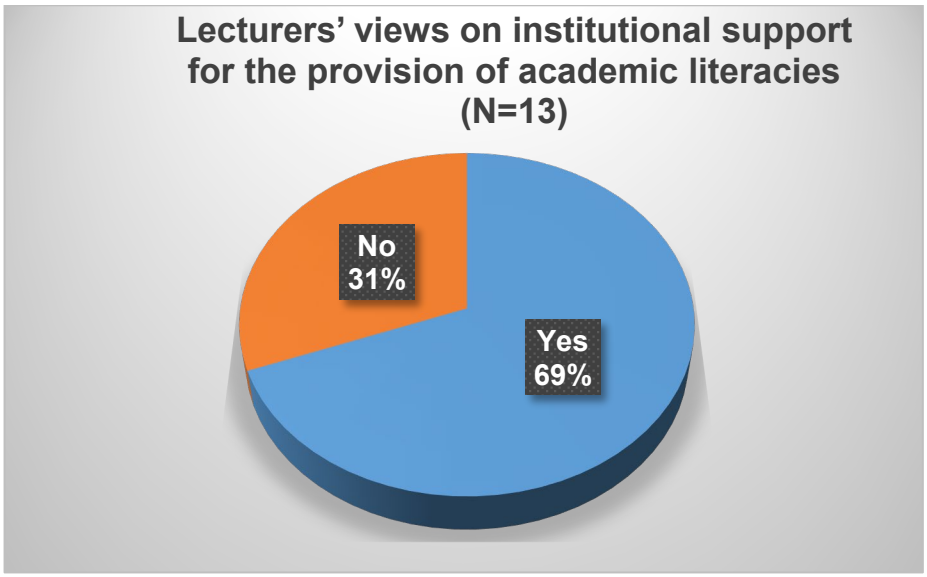

Figure 4.10 Lecturers' views on institutional support for the provision of academic literacies

4.5 Presentation, interpretation, and analysis of undergraduate student findings

Data collected from undergraduate students is presented, interpreted, and analysed below.

4.5.1 Response rate for undergraduate students

The study collected 250 questionnaires from the selected programme's undergraduate students and 229 were usable. A response rate of 92% was calculated for the undergraduate students who responded.

4.5.2 Demographic data of undergraduate students

The study sought to determine the demographic elements of undergraduate students. The following demographic data elements, the distribution of age, race, home language and level of study will be presented in Table 4.13 below.

In terms of age distribution, the majority of undergraduate students 114 (50%) were between the age range 21-24; this was followed by 72 (31%) in the age range 17-24. The other age ranges – 25-29, 30 and above as well as under 17 – reported negligible responses. The 20-30 age range is within the normal age of undergraduate university students as the findings show.

For race, the distribution was dominated by African students – 214 (93%); this is in line with the demographics of the KwaZulu-Natal province. In terms of home language IsiZulu was the dominant language – 188 (82%), followed by IsiXhosa – 19 (8%), SeSotho – six (3%) and English – three (1%). The level of study of students was evenly distributed starting with second-year level at 89 (39%), followed by first-year level at 69 (30%) and third-year level at 61 (27%).

Table 4.13 Demographic data of undergraduate students

Demographic data of undergraduate students (N=229)		
Age	Frequency	Percentage
Under -17	3	1%
17-20	72	31%
21-24	114	50%
25-29	18	8%
30 and above	5	2%
Non-respondents	17	7%
TOTAL	229	100%
Race	Frequency	Percentage
African	214	93%
Coloured	3	1%
Indian	2	0,9%
White	0	0%
Other	0	0%
Non-respondents	10	4%
TOTAL	229	100%
Home Language	Frequency	Percentage
IsiZulu	188	82%
IsiXhosa	19	8%
SeSotho	6	3%
English	3	1%
Non-respondents	13	5%
TOTAL	229	100%
Level of Study	Frequency	Percentage
1st Year	69	30%
2nd Year	89	40%
3rd Year	61	27%
Non-respondents	10	4%
Total	**229**	**100%**

4.5.3 Undergraduate students' awareness of academic literacies

The review of literature revealed that there is no consensus regarding what constitutes ALs. For this reason, the following section sought to determine the undergraduate students' understanding of what ALs are as well as their awareness of ALs provision for the enhancement of teaching and learning.

The question asked undergraduate students to indicate the viewpoint that best captures what ALs are from their understanding.

Table 4.14 Undergraduate students' definition of academic literacies

Undergraduate students' definition of academic literacies (N=229)	Frequency	Percentage
Study Skills Model	47	21%
Academic Literacies Model	150	66%
Non-respondents	32	14%
Total	**229**	**100%**

The researcher asked this question to establish how undergraduate students define ALs. Table 4.14 above shows that the dominant definition of ALs is based on the Academic Literacies Model – 150 of 229 (66%); 47 (21%) chose the Study Skills Model.

4.5.4 Undergraduate students' experiences of the emphasis on the importance of academic literacies during lectures

The researcher asked this question to establish whether the importance of ALs is emphasised during lectures. The findings of the data collected are shown in Table 4.15 below.

Table 4.15 Undergraduate students' experiences of the emphasis of the importance of ALs during lectures

Undergraduate students' experiences of the emphasis of the importance of academic literacies during lectures (N=229)	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	170	74%
No	55	24%
Non-respondents	4	2%
Total	**229**	**100%**

Table 4.15 above shows that 170 (74%) undergraduate students indicated that the importance of ALs is emphasised during their lectures, while 55 (24%) students indicated that it is not emphasised.

4.5.5 Initiatives/interventions of learning academic literacies that undergraduate students have participated in at the Durban University of Technology

Table 4.16 below shows that the majority of undergraduate students – 141 out of 215 (66%) – selected the FYSE Programme as an initiative/intervention in which they have participated; the Library User Education Orientation Programme was identified by 53 of 215 (25%). The Writing Centre Programme, ECP and Library Information Literacy were the least selected.

Table 4.16 Undergraduate students' indication of the initiatives/interventions employed by lecturers for developing ALs

Undergraduate students' indication of initiatives/interventions employed by DUT for developing ALs (N=215)	Frequency	Percentage
ECP/Foundation Programmes	11	5%
Writing Centre	8	4%
Library Information Literacy Programme	2	1%
Library User Education and Orientation	53	25%
FYSE Programme	141	66%
Total	**215**	**100%**

4.5.6 Undergraduate students' indication of the pedagogy/model/method used for providing academic literacies at the Durban University of Technology

There are various approaches to providing ALs in higher education. The dominant ones are the study skills approach, the academic socialisation approach and the ALs approach, which is advocated in the NLS by Lea and Street (1998).

Undergraduate students were asked this question to determine the practices generally adopted at DUT in the provision of ALs based on the two options they were provided: the Study Skills Model and ALs model. Having determined the undergraduate students' awareness of ALs above, it was necessary to find out the method followed in the provision of ALs at DUT. Table 4.17 below shows the choices made by undergraduate students.

Table 4.17 Undergraduate students' indication of the dominant pedagogy/model/ method used for providing ALs

Undergraduate students' indication of the dominant pedagogy/model/method used for providing ALs (N=211)	Frequency	Percentage
Study Skills Model	87	41%
Academic Literacies Model	108	51%
Non-respondents	16	8%
Total	**211**	**100**

The findings revealed that there was an almost even spread of choices made by undergraduate students with 108 of 211 (51%) indicating that DUT uses the Academic Literacies Model and 87 (41%) choosing the Study Skills Model.

4.5.7 Preferred pedagogy/model/method for providing academic literacies

There are various approaches to providing ALs in higher education: The Study Skills Model, Academic Socialisation Model and ALs Model, which is advocated in the New Literacy Studies by Lea and Street (1998). Undergraduate students were asked to choose an approach they prefer for the provision of ALs for the enhancement of teaching and learning based on the two options they were provided. Table 4.18 below shows the choices made by undergraduate students.

Table 4.18 Pedagogy/model/method of providing ALs preferred by undergraduate students

Pedagogy/model/method of providing ALs proffered by undergraduate students (N=229)	Frequency	Percentage
Study Skills Model	67	29%
Academic Literacies Model	130	57%
Non-respondents	32	14%
Total	**229**	**100%**

The findings revealed that 130 of 229 (57%) undergraduate students preferred the Academic Literacies Model and 67 of 229 (29%) undergraduate students preferred the Study Skills Model as an approach for providing ALs.

4.5.8 Undergraduate students' views on the helpfulness of the methods for providing academic literacies

Table 4.19 below shows that 176 of 229 (77%) undergraduate students indicated that the present methods are helping them to learn ALs, while 46 of 229 (20%) undergraduate students stated that the current methods are not helping them.

Table 4.19 Undergraduate students' opinions on whether the methods used to provide ALs are helpful

Undergraduate students' opinions on whether the methods used to provide ALs are helpful (N=229)	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	176	77%
No	46	20%
Non-respondents	7	3%
Total	**229**	**100%**

4.5.9 Undergraduate students' ability to identify their own academic literacies needs

In Table 4.20 below, the data collected shows that 162 of 229 (71%) undergraduate students are able to identify their own ALs needs, while 55 of 229 (24%) undergraduate students are unable to identify their own AI needs.

Table 4.20 Undergraduate students' ability to identify their own ALs needs

Undergraduate students' ability to identify their own ALs needs (N=229)	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	162	71%
No	55	24%
Non-respondents	12	5%
Total	**229**	**100%**

4.5.10 Undergraduate students' opinions on the person best suited to provide academic literacies

The findings in Table 4.21 below reveal that 120 of 229 (52%) respondents believe that ALs must be taught by the subject lecturer. A total of 23 of 229 (10%) of undergraduate students indicated that they should be taught by the support department and 67 of 229 (29%) of undergraduate students indicated that ALs should be taught by the subject lecturer and the support departments.

Table 4.21 Undergraduate students' opinions on the person best suited to provide ALs

Undergraduate students' opinions on the person best suited to provide ALs (N=229)	Frequency	Percentage
Subject Lecturer	120	52%
Support Departments	23	10%
Combination of the above	67	29%
Non-respondents	19	8%
Total	**229**	**100%**

4.5.11 Undergraduates students' opinions of the assessment of academic literacies during tests

In terms of the assessment of ALs during tests, Table 4.22 below shows that 157 of 229 (69%) undergraduate students indicated that ALs are assessed during tests, while 66 of 229 (29%) indicated that ALs are not assessed during tests.

Table 4.22 Undergraduate students' opinions on the assessment of ALs during tests

Undergraduate students' opinions on the assessment of ALs during tests (N=229)	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	157	69%
No	66	29%
Non-respondents	6	3%
Total	**229**	**100%**

4.5.11.1 Undergraduate students' views on the need to assess academic literacies during test/exams.

The findings in Table 4.23 below indicate that 108 of 229 (47%) of undergraduate students hold the view that ALs should be assessed during tests, while 19 of 229 (8%) of undergraduate students are of the view that there is no need for the assessment of ALs during tests. Interestingly, 103 of 229 (45%) respondents did not answer this question.

Table 4.23 Undergraduate students' views on the need to assess academic literacies during test/exams

Should ALs be assessed? (N=229)	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	108	47%
No	19	8%
Non-respondents	103	45%
Total	**229**	**100%**

4.5.11.2 Undergraduate students' views of whether the assessment of academic literacies would improve their learning of academic literacies

In Table 4.24 below, the data collected show that 198 of 229 (87) undergraduate students think that the assessment of ALs would improve their learning, while 15 of 229 (7%) think that it would not; 16 of 229 (7%) respondents did not respond to this question.

Table 4.24 Undergraduate students' views of whether the assessment of ALs would improve learning

Would the assessment of ALs improve learning? (N= 229)	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	198	87%
No	15	7%
Non-respondents	16	7%
Total	**229**	**100%**

4.5.12 Undergraduate students' views on the preferred type of students who should be provided ALs

In Table 4.25 below, the data collected show that 173 of 229 (76%) undergraduate students preferred that ALs be taught to all students, while 40 of 229 (17%) undergraduate students preferred that ALs be taught to students with a poor academic background.

Table 4.25 Undergraduate students' views on the preferred type of student who should be provided ALs

Preferred type of undergraduate students who should be provided ALs (N=229)	Frequency	Percentage
All undergraduate students	173	76%
Only students with a poor academic background	40	17%
Non-respondents	16	7%
Total	**229**	**100%**

4.5.13 Undergraduate students' indications on the type of students that are currently provided academic literacies in their department

Table 4.26 below shows that 137 of 229 (60%) undergraduate students indicated that all students in their department are taught academic literacies and 68 of 229 (30%) indicated that ALs are only taught to students with a poor academic background.

Table 4.26 Undergraduate students' indications on the type of students that are provided ALs

Type of students who are provided ALs (N=229)	Frequency	Percentage
All students	137	60%
Students with a poor background	68	30%
Non-respondents	24	10%
Total	**229**	**100%**

4.5.14 Undergraduate students' opinions on the factors influencing the provision of academic literacies

Various factors influence the provision of academic literacies in higher education. Undergraduate students were asked to indicate factors they consider necessary for the effective provision of academic literacies based on the options they were provided; multiple responses were allowed. Table 4.27 below shows the choices made by undergraduate students.

The findings revealed that most of the undergraduate students – 211 of 229 (92%) chose consultations with lecturers; 208 (91%) undergraduate students chose detailed feedback from lecturers. This was closely followed by 189 (83%) choosing availability of study materials to practice academic literacies being taught and 165 (72%) selecting availability of tutors. Timetable slots and online tutorials were at 53 (23%) and 22 (10%) respectively.

Table 4.27 Factors considered by undergraduate students to be necessary for the effective provision of academic literacies

Factors considered by undergraduate students to be necessary for the effective provision of academic literacies (N=229)	Frequency	Percentage
Availability of tutors	165	72%
Timetable slots	53	23%
Online tutorials	22	10%
Consultation times with lecturers	211	92%
Availability of study materials to practise the academic literacies being taught	189	83%
Detailed feedback from lecturers	208	91%

4.6 Summary of the chapter

This chapter presented, interpreted, and provided an analysis of the data collected. A discussion of the findings is presented in Chapter Five.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented, interpreted and analysed the study findings. The purpose of this chapter is to provide an interpretative discussion of the findings.

5.2 Discussion of key findings

The key finding of the study below are discussed using the literature format.

5.2.1 Determining what academic literacies are and constitute

Viewpoints on what ALs are and are made up of differ and are even contentious. Contemporary discourse delimits ALs to the following schools of thought: the older perspective was that they are surface skills of language, syntax, spelling, reading, writing and so forth (Study Skills Model also referred to as the deficit model); followed by Academic Socialisation Model which assumes that in order to become academically successful, students need to be acculturated into the discourses of particular disciplines and the last view is that ALs also include student identities, ways of thinking and making meaning (Academic Literacies Model anchored in the NLS theory) (Wingate 2018; Lillis and Scott 2007). In this regard, the study sought to determine the viewpoint held by both lecturers and students about what academic literacies are and constitute through them choosing a definition/viewpoint/model they align with from the three above.

Findings revealed that lecturers' and undergraduate students' definitions of ALs aligned with the Academic Literacies Model by over two thirds, 10 (77%) and above half, 140 (61%) respectively. The Study Skills Model posted negligible results of less than a quarter of a hundred. These findings confirmed that in terms of preference, the New Literacy Studies viewpoint to understanding ALs is increasing an observation that was made by (Clarence and McKenna 2017).

The researcher's experience, however, is that while understanding of what ALs are and constitute may point to the Academic Literacies Model, the reality on the ground in terms of practice still reflects the dominance of the Study Skills Model. This was also identified by (Flowerdew 2020).

5.2.2 Approach adopted and preferred for the provision of academic literacies

The Academic Literacies Model can be viewed as a pedagogy to frame curricular and instructional design. In this regard, the chosen model would foreground the variety and specificity of institutional practices and the struggles of students to make sense of academic texts (Maldoni 2017).

The study first sought to determine the pedagogy or model adopted for the provision of academic literacies and thereafter the one preferred by both populations. The findings revealed that both lecturers and undergraduate students claimed that the institution adopted the Academic Literacies Model. The lecturers' postings were fairly large by a margin of 8 (62%) while the students' posting was below half at 91 (43%). While the results above claim that the ALs Model is the one adopted, on the ground it is not clear which model is adopted.

On the matter of model preference for pedagogic reasons, lecturers convincingly stated the Academic Literacies Model with 11 (85%), while students were seemingly undecided with no model getting a commanding margin of preference even though ALs posted the highest at 103 (45%).

It seems lecturing personnel are more inclined to the ALs Model both in terms of pedagogy and preference, while undergraduate students are of lesser inclination towards this model. Literature reveals that the Study Skills Model is still the dominant method used by universities internationally and in South Africa for teaching (Maldoni 2017). As was shown in the section above on what ALs are and constitute, the shift from the Study Skills Model, often referred to as the deficit model to the Academic Literacies Model in terms of the adopted and preferred pedagogy was confirmed in this study.

5.2.3 The effectiveness of approaches adopted for the provision of academic literacies

The study intended to determine the opinions regarding the effectiveness of the current approach or pedagogy being used to provide ALs. Research has shown that students' conceptions of learning are important factors in determining learning outcomes. A learning approach which focuses on surface issues is associated with

poor student results, however, a learning approach which focuses on deep issues coupled with a well-structured subject knowledge base yields better result (Ditcher 2001). More than two thirds 176 (77%) of undergraduate students and 9 (69%) lecturers indicated that the current approaches to the provision of academic literacies are effective.

5.2.4 Opinions on the best placed person for the provision of academic literacies

Opinions vary as to who is best placed to provide academic literacies. This perhaps links to the differences in the understanding of academic literacies as was shown earlier. It was for the above reason that the study sought opinions on whether academics deemed it their responsibility to provide academic literacies, and subsequently those who felt it was not their responsibility, were asked to identify the most suitable person for the provision of academic literacies.

From the lecturers' standpoint, the findings revealed that opinions are almost evenly split when asked if it is their responsibility to provide ALs at 6 (55%) against and 5 (45%) in favour. There was a multiplicity of views regarding who is best suited to provide ALs with 5 (38%) vying for the support department and 4 (31%) the subject lecturer, as well as a combination of the subject lecturer and support department, respectively. Undergraduate students' findings leaned favourably towards the subject lecturers at 120 (52%) followed by the subject lecturer combined with the support department at 67 (29%) and the least chosen was the support department alone with 23 (10%).

It appears lecturers accept the responsibility to provide ALs but also seem to push it towards the support departments. This could be necessitated by a sentiment that once it is their responsibility, their workloads would increase, hence, they push it to someone else. Others are apprehensive because they think that they lack the know-how of providing ALs and the support is lacking. Undergraduate students seem to be placing the responsibility of providing ALs with subject lecturers.

The placement of ALs away from the subject discipline reflected by lecturers, according to Jacobs (2013) denies students the opportunity to benefit from a more

explicit way of thinking about and working with disciplinary knowledge, because it is difficult to think about and work with disciplinary knowledge in refined ways if the people providing academic literacies are located as outsiders in relation to both students and lecturers. Treating ALs as generic skills has led to the provision of such skills through generic academic literacy courses separate from the mainstream disciplinary curricula (Dooey and Grellier 2020; Jacobs 2005). Contemporary literature places the responsibility of providing ALs with the subject lecturer because the provision of ALs should be about making explicit to students the ways of knowing in the discipline as well as teaching the specific disciplinary forms of expression and conventions for writing, (Paxton and Frith 2014). Furthermore, White and Lay (2019) argues that acquiring academic communication skills through the subject matter of a course enhances understanding of that subject matter and its epistemologies.

5.2.5 Perceptions on whether the assessment of ALs would enhance teaching and learning

There are varied perceptions as to whether ALs should be assessed or not. Three specific questions were asked on the matter of assessment, namely, are ALs presently assessed; should they be assessed; would assessment thereof enhance teaching and learning. The findings revealed that the majority of lecturers claim that ALs are assessed 11 (85%). This was confirmed by 157 (69%) undergraduate students.

There was overwhelming confirmation by lecturers that ALs should be assessed with a posting of 13 (100%), whilst just below half 108 (47%) of the surveyed undergraduate students were in favour of their assessment, and a significant number 103 (45%) did not respond. With regard to whether the assessment of ALs would enhance the quality of teaching and learning, both lecturers and undergraduate students agreed inordinately that indeed they do at 11 (82%) and 198 (87%) respectively.

The above findings confirm that academic literacies courses, particularly their assessment practices, function well in developing students' academic reading and writing skills (Zhou, Zhao and Dawson 2020). For instance, Wingate (2018) found that repeated feedback enabled students to progress fast in their academic writing. There is a need for a more nuanced understanding of the interplay between assessment, students' epistemological beliefs and academic literacies (Moore and Dison 2019).

5.2.6 Perceptions on the type of undergraduate student who should be provided academic literacies

The question on the type of students who should be provided academic literacies is commonly asked. This study first posed the question by providing options from which to choose. Both lecturers 9 (69%) and students 173 (76%) were of the opinion that ALs should be provided to all regardless of their academic background. Subsequently the study sought to determine to which student type ALs are currently taught. Contrary to the preferred student type in terms of teaching an overwhelming majority 10 (91%) of lecturers indicated that currently, ALs are taught to students with a poor academic background, whilst students' findings were contradictory as 137 (60%) indicated ALs are provided to all. The findings of this study revealed that while literature advocates for the provision of academic literacies to all students' institutions of higher learning continue to teach students with a poor academic background.

5.2.7 Factors influencing the provision of ALs

The provision of ALs is influenced by various factors. Choosing from a list provided, the findings revealed that the most influential factor for lecturers was, skills/knowledge/methods of providing ALs with 12 (92%). This was followed by work/teaching load at 9 (69%), lecturer training and curriculum development each at 8 (62%). The least influential factors with posting of below 50% were availability of tutors, time constraints, timetable slots and budget availability.

On the part of undergraduate students, the most influential factors were consultation with lecturers at 211 (92%) and feedback from lecturers 208 (91%). This was closely followed by the availability of study materials at 189 (83%) and the availability of tutors at 165 (72%). Timetable slots and online tutorials were the least influential with postings of below 25%. Without discounting the critical role of funding, it seems the matters of "know how" and workloads were influential. This confirms the views expressed by Jacobs (2013) that despite government and universities response of providing funding this has not yielded the desired results.

5.3 Summary of the chapter

The chapter ending discussed the study findings. This was achieved by summarising what the study found and contextualising it with available literature. The following chapter presents the summary, conclusion, and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER 6: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

The findings of the study were discussed in the previous chapter. This chapter summarises, concludes, and provides recommendations of the study. A summary of findings is provided on each study objective.

6.2 Summary of the findings by study objectives

This summary provided below was arranged by study objectives.

6.2.1 Objective One: To identify the practices followed in the provision of ALs for the enhancement of teaching and learning in a selected programme at DUT

The critical findings with reference to objective one above were as follows:

With regards to what ALs are and constitute, respondents leaned towards the Academic Literacies Model, both in understanding and preference. However, anecdotal evidence still points to the predominant practice on the ground to generally be the Study Skills Model which focuses on the surface issues of language and does not investigate how knowledge is constructed and how students make meaning of texts within various disciplines.

Both in terms of the preferred pedagogy and currently applied pedagogy for the provision of ALs, the Academic Literacies Model clearly led for lecturers, but less so for undergraduate students. There appears to be a recognisable shift to a pedagogy underpinned by the New Literacies Framework. The approaches adopted for the provision of ALs were reported to be effective.

In terms of the person best placed for the provision of academic literacies, results indicated that there is no clear-cut department held responsible for providing ALs, with a lot of finger pointing. Similarly, with regards to who provides ALs, perhaps this indecisiveness augurs well for a combined approach in the provision of ALs.
The role of the assessment of ALs in the enhancement of teaching and learning was shown to be critical even though it seemed assessments is conducted to some extent. Perceptions as to whether the assessing of ALs would enhance teaching and learning, respondents clearly claimed that they would, even as there were

contradicting views as to whether they should be assessed or not, between undergraduate students and lecturers reflecting a general apathy by students towards hesitation that assessment would be burdensome.

On the question of who should ALs be provided to, it was evidently clear from respondents of both populations that they should be provided to all students and not only those deemed to have a poor academic background and/or underperforming. When quizzed about the type of student who is provided ALs, contradictions arose, whereby the practices of the institutional are still focused on students with a poor academic background.

6.2.2 Objective Two: To establish the factors influencing the provision of ALs for the enhancement of teaching and learning in a selected programme at DUT.

The findings revealed that the most influential factors for lecturers were skills/knowledge/methods of teaching ALs, workload, lecturer training and assistance with curriculum development. On the part of undergraduate students, the most influential factors were consultation with lecturers, feedback from lecturers, availability of more tutors and study materials.

6.3 Conclusion

The study set out to examine the provision of ALs for the enhancement of teaching and learning in a selected programme at DUT. The study concludes that the understanding of what ALs are and constitute is not aligned with how ALs are provided. In addition, at the pedagogic level, the adopted approach is not the one they seemed to prefer, notwithstanding, the adopted approach was regarded as effective. There was a diversity of opinions as to who should be responsible for providing ALs but clarity on whom (all students) they should be provided to. As to the role of ALs enhancing teaching and learning the findings categorically indicated so. Factors of undergraduate students and lecturers do not overlap. The most influential factors with regards to the provision of ALs, lecturers indicated that skills, knowledge, and methods of providing ALs, whilst students indicated consultation and feedback from lecturers as the most influential factor.

This was also evidenced by lecturers wishing for more support from the institution on how to provide ALs. Academic literacies are provided to students with a poor academic background and/or underperforming, however, both students and lecturers were of the view that ALs should be provided to all students. It was evident that the assessment of ALs is critical in the enhancement of teaching and learning.

The most influential factors for the provision of ALs were skills/knowledge/methods of providing ALs, workload, lecturer training and assistance with curriculum development, consultation with lecturers, feedback from lecturers, availability of more tutors and study materials.

6.4 Recommendations

Informed by the findings, the study recommends that:

- There be a mapping of all AL related activities in the institution for all the structures to collaborate and work together. All identified structures will feed ALs policy formulation.
- There be guidance at the strategic level through a clear institutional policy for the provision of academic literacies.
- There be an attempt to align understanding and practice in the provision of ALs.
- The institution could adopt the recognised shift to the NLS framework and encourage its inclusion in course design.
- The institution needs to provide more clarity guided by the model the institution would adopt, it should be made clear who would be responsible for the provision of ALs.
- The assessment of ALs be incentivised so that they do not appear to be burdensome to both lecturers and students.

Recommendations for further research

The study was limited to one department, thus it is recommended that the sample of the study be expanded institution wide for a more informative and detailed view on the status of academic literacies at DUT.

REFERENCES

Arbee, A. 2012. Knowledge and knowers in the discipline of marketing at the University of KwaZulu-Natal. PhD Marketing., University of KwaZulu-Natal.

Bain, L. 2017. *Statistical analysis of reliability and life-testing models: theory and methods*. New York: Routledge.

Barrette, C. M. and Paesani, K. 2018. Conceptualizing cultural literacy through student learning outcomes assessment. *Foreign Language Annals*, 51(2): 331-343.
Barton, D. 2017. *Literacy: an introduction to the ecology of written language*. 2nd ed. Carlifonia: John Wiley & Sons.

Barton, D. and Hamilton, M. 2000. Literacy practices. *Situated literacies: reading and writing in context*. 1st ed. New York: Routledge. confirm with the guide this ed should be small letters apply the whole document

Barton, D., Hamilton, M., IvaniÚc, R. and Ivanič, R. 2000. *Situated literacies: reading and writing in context*. 1st ed. New York: Psychology Press.

Baruwa, I. 2020. Ethical considerations in adult and community education research in Nigeria: issues and perspectives. *Olaniran and Baruwa International Journal for Educational Integrity*, 16(8): 65-82.

Baynham, M. and Prinsloo, M. 2009. *The future of literacy studies.* 1st ed. New York: Macmillan Publishers.

Behfar, K. and Okhuysen, G. A. 2018. Perspective discovery within validation logic: deliberately surfacing, complementing, and substituting abductive reasoning in hypothetico-deductive inquiry. *Organization Science*, 29(2): 323-340.

Bell, E. and Bryman, A. 2007. The ethics of management research: an exploratory content analysis. *British journal of management*, 18(1): 63-77.

Benz, C. R., Ridenour, C. S. and Newman, I. 2008. *Mixed methods research: exploring the interactive continuum*. 2nd ed. Illinois: SIU Press.

Bernard, H. R. and Bernard, H. R. 2013. *Social research methods: qualitative and quantitative approaches*. 2nd ed. Washington: Sage Publishers.

Berryman, D. R. 2019. Ontology, epistemology, methodology, and methods: information for librarian researchers. *Medical Reference Services Quarterly*, 38(3): 271-279.

Blandford, A., Furniss, D. and Makri, S., 2016. Qualitative HCI research: going behind the scenes. *Synthesis Lectures on Human-centered Informatics*, *9*(1): 1-115.

Bless, C., Higson-Smith, C. and Kagee, A. 2006. *Fundamentals of social research methods: an African perspective*. Cape Town: Juta and Company Ltd.

Bless, C., Higson-Smith, C. and Sithole, S. l. 2013. *Fundamentals of social research methods: an African perspective. 5th ed.* Cape Town: Juta and Company Ltd.

Blommaert, J. and Horner, B. 2017. Mobility and academic literacies: an epistolary conversation. *London Review of Education*, 15(1): 2-20.

Bolarinwa, O. A. 2015. Principles and methods of validity and reliability testing of questionnaires used in social and health science researches. *Nigerian Postgraduate Medical Journal*, 22(4): 195-208.

Boud, D., Cohen, R. and Sampson, J. 1999. Peer learning and assessment. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 24(4): 413-426.

Boughey, C. 2003. From equity to efficiency: access to higher education in South Africa. *Arts and Humanities in Higher Education*, 2(1): 65-71.

Boughey, C. 2010. Analysing teaching and learning at the Universities of Technology: a tribute to Terry Volbrecht. *Keynote address. Research and Innovation in Teaching and Learning: Cape Peninsula University of Technology*. Available: https://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en&as_sdt=0%2C5&q=Boughey%2C+C.+2010.+Analysing+teaching+and+learning+at+the+Universities+of+Technology%3A+A+tribute+to+Terry+Volbrecht.+Keynote+address.+Research+and+Innovation+in+Teaching+and+Learning%3A+Cape+Peninsula+University+of+Technology%2C++&btnG (Accessed 10 April 2020).

Boughey, C. and McKenna, S. 2016. Academic literacy and the decontextualised learner. *Critical Studies in Teaching and Learning*, 4(2): 1-9.

Braun, V. and Clarke, V. 2019. Reflecting on reflexive thematic analysis. Qualitative Research in Sport, Exercise and Health, 11(4): 589-597.

Braun, V. and Clarke, V. 2006. Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3(2): 77-101.

Bryman, A. 2008. The SAGE handbook of social research methods. London: SAGE Publications Ltd.

Burke, P. J. 2013. *The right to higher education: beyond widening participation*. New York: Routledge.

Bury, S. and Sheese, R. 2016. Academic literacies as cornerstones in course design: a partnership to develop programming for faculty and teaching assistants. *Journal of University Teaching and Learning Practice*, 13(3): 3-15.

Canton, U., Govan, M. and Zahn, D. 2018. Rethinking academic literacies. A conceptual development based on teaching practice. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 23(6): 668-684.

Carter, C. 2008. *The knowledge contract: politics and Paradigms in the academic workplace*. Available: https://www.jstor.org/stable/pdf/20866836.pdf?refreqid=excelsior%3A22f0112f79f8ddd30f71d6633440718c (Accessed 11 February 2018).

Chokwe, J. M. 2013. Factors impacting academic writing skills of English second language students. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 4(14): 377-396.

Chokwe, M.J., 2011. *Academic writing in English Second Language contexts: perceptions and experiences* (Doctoral dissertation).

Clarence, S. and McKenna, S. 2017. Developing academic literacies through understanding the nature of disciplinary knowledge. *London Review of Education*, 15(1): 38-49.

Clark, A. M. 1998. The qualitative-quantitative debate: moving from positivism and confrontation to post-positivism and reconciliation. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 27(6): 1242-1249.

Coakes, S. J. and Steed, L. 2009. *SPSS: analysis without anguish using SPSS version 14.0 for Windows*. Maitland: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Coffin, C. and Donohue, J. P. 2012. Academic Literacies and systemic functional linguistics: how do they relate? *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 11(1): 64-75.

Coleman, L. 2016. Offsetting deficit conceptualisations: methodological considerations for higher education research. *Critical Studies in Teaching and Learning*, 4(1): 16-38.

Collis, J. and Hussey, R. 2013. *Business research: a practical guide for undergraduate and postgraduate students*. 4th ed. Chicago: Macmillan.

Conteh, B.G., 2020. *Using digital technologies to enhance first-year students' learning in a communication and academic literacy skills course at the University of Botswana* (Doctoral dissertation, University of British Columbia).

Copeland, S. R. and Keefe, E. B. 2007. *Effective literacy instruction for students with moderate or severe disabilities*. Baltimore: Brookes Publishing.

Council on Higher Education. 2013. A proposal for undergraduate curriculum reform in South Africa: the case for a flexible curriculum structure. Pretoria. Available: https://www.ru.ac.za/media/rhodesuniversity/content/equityampinstitutionalculture/documents/A_proposal_for_undergraduate.pdf (Accessed 18 May 2019).

Creme, P. and Mckenna, C. 2010. Developing writer identity through a multidisciplinary programme. *Arts and Humanities in Higher Education*, 9(2): 149-167.

Creswell, J. W. 2013. Steps in conducting a scholarly mixed methods study. Available: https://digitalcommons.unl.edu/dberspeakers/48/ (Accessed 23 August 2018)

Creswell, J. W. 2009. *Mapping the field of mixed methods research*: Los Angeles: SAGE Publications.

Creswell, J. W. and Báez, J. C. 2020. *30 essential skills for the qualitative researcher*. 2nd ed. Carlifornia: SAGE Publications.

Creswell, J. W. and Clark, V. L. P. 2017. *Designing and conducting mixed methods research*. Carlifonia: SAGE Publications.

Creswell, J. W. and Creswell, J. D. 2017. *Research design: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. Carlifonia: SAGE Publications.

Creswell, J. W. and Poth, C. N. 2016. *Qualitative inquiry and research design: choosing among five approaches*. Carlifonia: SAGE Publications.

Crotty, M. 1998. *The foundations of social research: meaning and perspective in the research process*. London: SAGE Publications.

Cummins, J. 1996. *Negotiating identities: education for empowerment in a diverse society*. California: Assn for Bilingual Publishers.

Davies, C. and Fisher, M. 2018. Understanding research paradigms. *Journal of the Australasian Rehabilitation Nurses Association*, 21(3): 21-32.

Davies, M. B. and Hughes, N. 2014. *Doing a successful research project: using qualitative or quantitative methods*. 2nd ed. London: Red Globe Press.

De Vos, A. S., Delport, C., Fouché, C. B. and Strydom, H. 2011. *Research at grass roots: a primer for the social science and human professions*. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Denscombe, M. 2010. Questionnaires. *The good research guide: for small-scale social research projects*: 5th ed. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Diaz, C. R. 2019. Effects on students' self-efficacy in a Mathematics bridge program. PhD.Ed., Texas State University.

Dooey, P. M. and Grellier, J. 2020. Developing academic literacies. *Journal of Academic Language and Learning*, 14(2): 106-119.

Du Plessis, L. and Gerber, D. 2012. Academic preparedness of students-an exploratory study. *TD: The Journal for Transdisciplinary Research in Southern Africa*, 8(1): 81-94.

du Plooy, L. and Zilindile, M. 2014. Problematising the concept epistemological access with regard to foundation phase education towards quality schooling. *South African Journal of Childhood Education*, 4(1): 187-201.

Dudovskiy, J. 2016. Positivism research philosophy. Available: https://search.proquest.com/openview/50680005369760aa60ce4ea801e272d8/1?pq-origsite=gscholar&cbl=33100 (Accessed 12 June 2018).

Ellery, K. 2016. Epistemological access in a science foundation course: a social realist perspective. PhD. Ed., Rhodes University.

Everaert, P., Opdecam, E. and Maussen, S. 2017. The relationship between motivation, learning approaches, academic performance and time spent. *Accounting Education*, 26(1): 78-107.

Falchikov, N. and Goldfinch, J. 2000. Student peer assessment in higher education: a meta-analysis comparing peer and teacher marks. *Review of Educational Research*, 70(3): 287-322.

Fisher, G. and Scott, I. 2011. Background paper 3: The role of higher education in closing the skills gap in South Africa. *Closing the skills and technology gap in South Africa*. Available: https://www.glenfisher.ca/downloads/files/Higher%20Education%20in%20SA.pdf (Accessed 25 August 2019).

Flick, U. 2018. *The SAGE handbook of qualitative data collection. Washington: Sage Publications.*

Flowerdew, L. 2020. The academic literacies approach to scholarly writing: a view through the lens of the ESP/Genre approach. *Studies in Higher Education*, 45(3): 579-591.

Fomunyam, K. G. 2019. Students and institutional preparedness for educational encounters: views of the margin. *Education Systems Around the World. IntechOpen.* Available: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/332946777_(Accessed 26 February 2019).

Fouka, G. and Mantzorou, M. 2011. What are the major ethical issues in conducting research? Is there a conflict between the research ethics and the nature of nursing? *Health Science Journal*, 5(1): 3-14.

Fox, R. D. 2011. Revisiting discrepancy analysis in continuing medical education: a conceptual model. *Journal of Continuing Education in the Health Professions*, 31(1): 71-76.

Garcia, N. M. and Mayorga, O. J. 2018. The threat of unexamined secondary data: a critical race transformative convergent mixed methods. *Race Ethnicity and Education*, 21(2): 231-252.

Garraway, J. W. 2017. Participatory parity and epistemological access in the extended curriculum programmes. *Education as Change*, 21(2): 109-125.

Gravett, K. 2019. Making learning happen: Students' development of academic and information literacies. In: *Engaging Student Voices in Higher Education*. Springer, 175-190. Available: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-20824-0_11 (Accessed 16 March 2018).

Graziano, A. M. and Raulin, M. L. 2013. *Research methods: a process of inquiry.* 8th ed. New York: Pearson.

Hamilton, M., Barton, D. and Ivanič, R. 1994. *Worlds of literacy: multilingual matters.* Toronto: WBC Print.

Hartman-Caverly, S. 2019. Truth always wins: Dispatches from the information war. In: Proceedings of *" We have a problem with political diversity": discourse on the margins of scholarly communities*. Association of College and Research Libraries, 187-233. Available: http://live.libraries.psu.edu/Mediasite/Play/0136a68439674d01ac3a8ba357525b8a1d?catalog=8376d4b24dd1457ea3bfe4cf9163feda21 (Accessed 12 July 2020).

Hathcoat, J. D., Meixner, C. and Nicholas, M. C. 2019. Ontology and epistemology. New York: Springer Publishing.

Hattie, J. A. and Donoghue, G. M. 2016. Learning strategies: A synthesis and conceptual model. *Science of Learning*, 1(1): 1-13.

Heath, S. B. and Heath, S. B. 1983. *Ways with words: language, life and work in communities and classrooms*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Henderson, K. A. 2011. Post-positivism and the pragmatics of leisure research. *Leisure Sciences*, 33(4): 341-346.

Henderson, R. and Hirst, E. 2007. How sufficient is academic literacy? re-examining a short-course for'disadvantaged'tertiary students. In: proceedings of *proceedings of the AARE conference 2006: engaging pedagogies*. Australian Association for Research in Education. Available: https://eprints.usq.edu.au/1598/2/Henderson_Hirst_AARE_2006_PV.pdf (Accessed 12 September 2019).

Hlongwa, T., Ngcobo, N., Mhlongo, B. and Ntuli, S. 2014. IsiZulu as conduit for accessing education: students becoming partners in knowledge discovery. *Alternation*, 13: 155-172. Available: http://alternation.ukzn.ac.za/Files/docs/21%20SpEd13/Alternation%20Spec%20Ed%2013%20(2014).pdf#page=160 (Accessed 11 September 2019).

Horner, B. 2013. Ideologies of literacy," academic literacies," and composition studies. Available: https://ir.library.louisville.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1084&context=faculty (Accessed 23 October 2018).

Howard, M. C. 2018. Scale pretesting. *Practical Assessment, Research, and Evaluation*, 23(1): 5-15.

Huang, C.W. and Archer, A. 2017. 'Academic literacies' as moving beyond writing: investigating multimodal approaches to academic argument. *London Review of Education*, 15(1): 63-72.

Hyland, K. 2009a. *Academic discourse: English in a global context*. London: Continuum International Publishing.

Hyland, N. E. 2009b. One white teacher's struggle for culturally relevant pedagogy: the problem of the community. *The New Educator*, 5(2): 95-112.

Ishi, D. 2018. Identifying discipline-based study skills: a preliminary needs analysis. *International Journal of Pedagogies & Learning*, 13(1): 47-60.

Ivanič, R. 2009. Bringing literacy studies into research on learning across the curriculum. In: *the future of literacy studies*. Springer, 100-122. Available: https://doi.org/10.1057/9780230245693_6 (Accessed 24 April 2020).

Ivanič, R. and Satchwell, C. 2007. Boundary crossing: networking and transforming literacies in research processes and college courses. *Journal of Applied Linguistics and Professional Practice*, 4(1): 101-124.

Jacobs, C. 2015. Opening up the curriculum: moving from the normative to the transformative in teachers' understandings of disciplinary literacy practices. *Working with academic literacies: case studies towards transformative practice*: 131-141. Available: https://wac.colostate.edu/books/lillis/chapter9.pdf (Accessed 28 May 2019).

Jacobs, C. 2013. Academic literacies and the question of knowledge. *Journal for Language Teaching*, 47(2): 127-139.

Jacobs, C. 2005. On being an insider on the outside: new spaces for integrating academic literacies. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 10(4): 475-487.

Jaffer, S., Ng'ambi, D. and Czerniewicz, L. 2007. The role of ICTs in higher education in South Africa: one strategy for addressing teaching and learning challenges. *International Journal of Education and Development using ICT*, 3(4): 131-142.

Keefe, E. B. and Copeland, S. R. 2011. What is literacy? The power of a definition. *Research and Practice for Persons with Severe Disabilities*, 36(3-4): 92-99.

Kendall, S. 2014. Positioning design studies: an institutional challenge. *Design and Culture*, 6(3): 345-368.

Kern, R. 2000. *Literacy and language teaching*. London: Oxford University Press.

Khoza-Shangase, K. and Mophosho, M. 2018. Language and culture in speech-language and hearing professions in South Africa: the dangers of a single story. *South African Journal of Communication Disorders*, 65(1): 1-7.

Kiili, C., Mäkinen, M. and Coiro, J. 2013. Rethinking academic literacies: designing multifaceted academic literacy experiences for preservice teachers. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, 57(3): 223-232.

Kliewer, C. 2008. Joining the literacy flow: fostering symbol and written language learning in young children with significant developmental disabilities through the four currents of literacy. *Research and Practice for Persons with Severe Disabilities*, 33(3): 103-121.

Kothari, C. 1990. *Research methodology: methods and techniques Wishwa Prakashan*. New Delhi: MacMillan.

Kucer, S. B. 2014. *Dimensions of literacy: a conceptual base for teaching reading and writing in school settings*. Oxfordshire: Routledge.

Kuh, G. D. 2009. What student affairs professionals need to know about student engagement. *Journal of College Student Development*, 50(6): 683-706.

Kumar, R. 2018. *Research methodology: a step-by-step guide for beginners*. Carlifonia: Sage.

Lancaster, G. A., Dodd, S. and Williamson, P. R. 2004. Design and analysis of pilot studies: recommendations for good practice. *Journal of Evaluation in Clinical Practice*, 10(2): 307-312.

Lawless, H. T. and Heymann, H. 2010. Descriptive analysis. In: Heldman D.R. ed. *Sensory Evaluation of Food*. New York: Springer Publishers, 227-257.

Lea, M. R. 2016. Academic literacies: looking back in order to look forward. *Critical Studies in Teaching and Learning*, 4(2): 88-101.

Lea, M. R. and Street, B. V. 2009. Student writing in higher education: an academic literacies approach. In: Fletcher-Campbell, F., Soler, J. and Reid G. eds. *Approaching difficulties in literacy development: assessment, pedagogy and programmes*, London: Sage Publications, 260-294.

Lea, M. R. and Street, B. V. 2006a. The academic literacies model: theory and applications. *Theory Into Practice*, 45(4): 368-377.

Lea, M. R. and Street, B. V. 2006b. The academic literacies model: theory and applications. *Theory Into Practice*, 45(4): 368-377.

Lea, M. R. and Street, B. V. 1998. Student writing in higher education: an academic literacies approach. *Studies in Higher Education*, 23(2): 157-172.

Leander, K. and Boldt, G. 2013. Rereading a pedagogy of multiliteracies bodies, texts, and emergence. *Journal of Literacy Research*, 45(1): 22-46.

Leedy, P. D. and Ormrod, J. E. 2019. Practical research. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.

Leedy, P. D. and Ormrod, J. E. 2014. Practical research: planning and design. New Jersey: Pearson Education.

Leedy, P. D. and Ormrod, J. E. 2005. *Practical research*. New Jersey: Pearson Custom.

Leibowitz, B. and Bozalek, V. 2015. Foundation provision-a social justice perspective: part 1-leading article. *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 29(1): 8-25.

Lemley, S. M. and Hart, S. M. 2019. Using inquiry to develop agricultural education preservice teachers' disciplinary literacy pedagogy. *Journal of Agricultural Education*, 60(4): 149-163.

Leu, D. J., Kinzer, C. K., Coiro, J., Castek, J. and Henry, L. A. 2017. New literacies: a dual-level theory of the changing nature of literacy, instruction, and assessment. *Journal of Education*, 197(2): 1-18.

Lillard, S. S. 2019. What drives underprepared students from the first year on? PhD. Ed, Walden University.

Lillis, T. 2003. Student writing as academic literacies: drawing on Bakhtin to move from critique to design. *Language and Education*, 17(3): 192-207.

Lillis, T. M. 2001. Student writing: access, regulation, desire. East Sussex: Psychology Press.

Lillis, T. and Curry, M. J. 2013. *Academic writing in a global context: the politics and practices of publishing in English*. Oxfordshire: Routledge.

Lillis, T. and Scott, M. 2007. Defining academic literacies research: issues of epistemology, ideology and strategy. *Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 4(1): 5-32.

Lillis, T. and Tuck, J. 2016. Academic literacies: a critical lens on writing and reading in the academy. In: *The Routledge handbook of English for academic purposes*. Routledge, 54-67. Available: https://www.routledgehandbooks.com/doi/10.4324/9781315657455.ch03 (Accessed 22 April 2019).

Lorino, P. 2018. *Pragmatism and organization studies*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Lozano, R., Merrill, M. Y., Sammalisto, K., Ceulemans, K. and Lozano, F. J. 2017. Connecting competences and pedagogical approaches for sustainable development in higher education: a literature review and framework proposal. *Sustainability*, 9(10): 11-14

Luckett, K. 2019. A critical self-reflection on theorising education development as 'Epistemological Access' to 'Powerful Knowledge'. *Alternation*, 26(2): 36-61.

Madinga, N. W., Maziriri, E. T. and Lose, T. 2016. A qualitative inquiry on the challenges facing international students at institutions of higher learning in Southern Gauteng, South Africa. In: Dichaba, M. and Sotayo, O. eds. *South Africa International Conference on Education Towards Excellence in Educational Practices. Manhattan Hotel Pretoria, South Africa, 19-21 September 2016. Pretoria: African Academic Research Forum, 60-71.*

Maldoni, A. M. 2017. A cross-disciplinary approach to embedding: a pedagogy for developing academic literacies. *Journal of Academic Language and Learning*, 11(1): A104-A124.

Maniram, R. 2018. Epistemological access and authentic learning practice: a case study in Hospitality Financial Management. PhD.Ed., University of KwaZulu-Natal.

Maseko, B. N. 2015. Language and identity in the academic performance and portraiture of black BEd Foundation Phase students. PhD.Early Childhood Education. University of Pretoria.

Maxwell, J. A. 2008. Designing a qualitative study. In: Bickman, L. and Rog, D. eds. *The SAGE handbook of Applied Social Research Methods*. 2nd ed. Los Angeles: SAGE Publishing, 2: 214-253.

McGregor, S. L. and Murnane, J. A. 2010. Paradigm, methodology and method: Intellectual integrity in consumer scholarship. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, 34(4): 419-427.

McHoul, A. 1994. Towards a critical ethnomethodology. *Theory, Culture & Society*, 11(4): 105-126.

McKenna, S. 2010. Cracking the code of academic literacy: An ideological task. Beyond the university gates: provision of extended curriculum programmes in South Africa: 8-15. Available: https://www.cput.ac.za/storage/services/fundani/beyond_the_university_gates.pdf#page=9 (Accessed 2 May 2018).

McKenna, S. 2004. The intersection between academic literacies and student identities: research in higher education. *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 18(3): 269-280.

McLean, M. 2020. Higher education research to investigate epistemic in/justice. In: McArthur J. and Ashwin P. eds. *Locating Social Justice in Higher Education Research. New York: Bloomsbury Publishing,* 89-103.

Melzer, D. K. and Grant, R. M. 2016. Investigating differences in personality traits and academic needs among prepared and underprepared first-year college students. *Journal of College Student Development*, 57(1): 99-103.

Menke, M. R. and Paesani, K. 2019. Analysing foreign language instructional materials through the lens of the multiliteracies framework. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 32(1): 34-49.

Menon, K. 2020. Measuring equity of access to higher education in South Africa: considerations and possibilities. In: Rensburg I., Motala S. and Cross M. eds. *Transforming Universities in South Africa*. Leiden: Brill Sense Publishers, 205-228.

Merkel, J. C. and Brania, A. 2015. Assessment of peer-led team learning in calculus I: a five-year study. *Innovative Higher Education*, 40(5): 415-428.

Mertens, D. M. 2012. *What comes first? The paradigm or the approach?*. Los Angeles: Sage Publications.

Mhlongo, G. J. 2014. The impact of an academic literacy intervention on the academic literacy levels of first year students: The NWU (Vaal Triangle Campus) experience. MA.Applied Language Studies,. North West University.

Mkandawire, S. B. 2019. Selected common methods and tools for data collection in research. In: Banja M.K. ed. *Selected Readings in Education.* Lusaka: Marvel Publishers.

Modiba, M. 2017. Academic literacy through a restructured curriculum: possibilities for epistemological access?. M.Ed., University of Johannesburg.

Moganedi, J. and Sithole, S. 2020. An evaluation of the National Skills Development Act No. 97 of 1998 as amended in 2008 (Act 37 of 2008) as a tool against unemployment and poverty alleviation in the Republic of South Africa (RSA). In: The 5th Annual International Conference on Public Administration and Development Alternatives. Virtual Conference, Limpopo, 07-09 October 2020. Available: http://hdl.handle.net/10386/3220 (Accessed 04 February 2020).

Monette, D. R., Sullivan, T. J. and DeJong, C. R. 2013. *Applied social research: a tool for the human services*. California: Brooks/Cole.

Monette, D., Sullivan, T. and De Jong, C. 2008. *Applied social research: a tool for the human services.* New York: Cole Publishing.

Monnapula-Mapesela, M. 2015. Students' perception of own preparedness for higher education: case study. *International Journal of Educational Sciences*, 9(2): 255-264.

Moodley, P. and Singh, R. J. 2015. Addressing student dropout rates at South African universities. Available: http://hdl.handle.net/10321/1648 (Accessed 28 March 2019).

Moore, J. and Dison, L. 2019. Creating conditions for working collaboratively in discipline-based writing centres at a South African university. *Journal of Language Learning,* 35(1): 1-14.

Morrow, W. 1993. Epistemological access in the university. *Journal of Advertising*, 1(1): 3-4.

Mouton, J. 2001. *How to succeed in your master's and doctoral studies: a South African guide and resource book*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Mukhuba, T. 2016. Academic communications skills: where to from here? *Gender and Behaviour*, 14(2): 7452-7457.

Mungal, A. and Cloete, M. 2016. Preparing underprepared students for higher education and beyond: the development and implementation of an integrated project. *Accounting Education*, 25(3): 203-222.

Murray, N. 2016. An academic literacies argument for decentralizing EAP provision. *Elt Journal*, 70(4): 435-443.

Murray, N. and Nallaya, S. 2016. Embedding academic literacies in university programme curricula: a case study. *Studies in Higher Education*, 41(7): 1296-1312.

Nayager, A. 2018. A comparative case study of the academic development and student support initiatives and programmes in two schools at the University of the Witwatersrand. M.Ed., University of the Witwatersrand.

Ndaba, M. 2017. Access with success: the reaching for excellence and achievement program at the University of the Witwatersrand. MA in Sociology., University of the Witwatersrand.

Newing, H. 2010. *Conducting research in conservation: social science methods and practice*. Oxforshire: Routledge.

Ngcobo, S., Ndaba, N., Nyangiwe, B., Mpungose, N. and Jamal, R. 2016. Translanguaging as an approach to address language inequality in South African higher education: summary writing skills development. *Critical Studies in Teaching and Learning*, 4(2): 10-27.

Ngulube, P. and Ukwoma, S. C. 2019. Cartographies of research designs in library information science research in Nigeria and South Africa, 2009–2015. *Library & Information Science Research*, 41(3): 100-121.

Nguyen, A., Gardner, L. and Sheridan, D. 2020. Data analytics in higher education: an Integrated view. *Journal of Information Systems Education*, 31(1): 61-72.

Niven, P. M. 2005. Exploring first year students and their lecturers constructions of what it means to read in a humanities discipline: a conflict of frames? *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 19(4): 777-789.

Nulty, D. D. 2008. The adequacy of response rates to online and paper surveys: what can be done? *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 33(3): 301-314.

O'Quin, M. L. 2020. Understanding the similarities and differences of academic aspirations between regular and specially admitted student-athletes. M.Ed., The Carlifornia State University.

Ocholla, D. N. and Le Roux, J. 2011. Conceptions and misconceptions of theoretical frameworks in Library and Information Science research: a case study of selected theses and dissertations from eastern and southern African universities. *Mousaion*, 29(2): 61-74.

Ogude, N. A., Kilfoil, W. R. and Du Plessis, G. 2012. An institutional model for improving student retention and success at the University of Pretoria. *The International Journal of the First Year in Higher Education,* 3(1): 21-34.

Omar, M. I. and Arif, S. 2020. From epistemological pedagogical access to student success: new framework for studying access to higher education. *Research Journal of Social Sciences & Economics Review*, 1(3): 45-55.

Ortega, A. 2020. First generation college students' connection to campus involvement at the University of San Diego. Available: https://digital.sandiego.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1052&context=soles-mahel-action (Accessed 8 January 2021).

Panhwar, A. H., Ansari, S. and Shah, A. A. 2017. Post-positivism: an effective paradigm for social and educational research. *International Research Journal of Arts & Humanities (IRJAH)*, 45(45): 253-259.

Paulynice, R. 2019. A comparative study on parental involvement. PhD Education., Nova Southearstern University.

Paxton, M., 2012. Student voice as a methodological issue in academic literacies research. *Higher education research & development*, *31*(3), 381-391.

Paxton, M. and Frith, V. 2014. Implications of academic literacies research for knowledge making and curriculum design. *Higher Education*, 67(2): 171-182.

Perin, D. and Holschuh, J. P. 2019. Teaching academically underprepared postsecondary students. *Review of Research in Education*, 43(1): 363-393.

Pillay, A. L. and Ngcobo, H. S. 2010. Sources of stress and support among rural-based first-year university students: an exploratory study. *South African Journal of Psychology*, 40(3): 234-240.

Pillay, P. 2010. *Linking higher education and economic development: implications for Africa from three successful systems*. Oxford: African Books Collective.

Pitsoe, V. and Letseka, M. 2018. Access to and widening participation in South African Higher education. In: Makhaya, M., Blessinger, P. and Hoffman, J. eds. *Contexts for diversity and gender identities in higher education: International perspectives on equity and inclusion*. Bingley: Emerald Publishing Limited.

Polit, D. F. and Beck, C. T. 2010. Generalization in quantitative and qualitative research: myths and strategies. *International Journal of Nursing Studies*, 47(11): 1451-1458.

Pretorius, R. 2009. Positive practice environments in critical care units: a grounded theory. PhD Nursing Science., North-West University.

Prinsloo, M. and Baynham, M. 2008. *Literacies, global and local*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing.

Punch, K. F. and Oancea, A. 2014. *Introduction to research methods in education*. Los Angeles: SAGE Publishing.

Rehman, A. A. and Alharthi, K. 2016. An introduction to research paradigms. *International Journal of Educational Investigations*, 3(8): 51-59.

Robertson, L. H. and Hill, R. 2001. Excluded voices: educational exclusion and inclusion In: Cole, M. and Hill, D. eds. *Schooling equality: fact, concept and policy*. London: Kogan Page Publishers. 73-94.

Rubin, H. J. and Rubin, I. S. 2011. *Qualitative interviewing: the art of hearing data*. Los Angeles: SAGE Publishing.

Ryan, G. 2018. Introduction to positivism, interpretivism and critical theory. *Nurse Researcher*, 25(4): 41-49.

Saunders, B., Sim, J., Kingstone, T., Baker, S., Waterfield, J., Bartlam, B., Burroughs, H. and Jinks, C. 2018. Saturation in qualitative research: exploring its conceptualization and operationalization. *Quality & Quantity*, 52(4): 1893-1907.

Schneider, B., Zammit, B. and Armstrong-Roper, M. 2017. Scaffolding academic literacy in a diverse first-year higher education classroom: evaluating the effectiveness of a blended learning model. *Journal of Academic Language and Learning*, 11(1): A188-A204.

Schultz, K. and Hull, G. 2002. Locating literacy theory in. *School's out: Bridging out-of-school literacies with classroom practice*, 60: 11. Available: https://escholarship.org/uc/item/63n8p5nf (Accessed 25 July 2019).

Scotland, J. 2012. Exploring the philosophical underpinnings of research: relating ontology and epistemology to the methodology and methods of the scientific, interpretive, and critical research paradigms. *English Language Teaching*, 5(9): 9-16.

Scouller, K. 1998. The influence of assessment method on students' learning approaches: multiple choice question examination versus assignment essay. *Higher Education*, 35(4): 453-472.

Scribner, S. and Cole, M., 2013. *The psychology of literacy*. Boston: Harvard University Press.

Sekaran, U. 2003. Towards a guide for novice research on research methodology: review and proposed methods. *Journal of Cases of Information Technology*, 8(4): 24-35.

Sekaran, U. and Bougie, R. 2016. *Research methods for business: a skill building approach*. New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons.

Seligmann, J. and Gravett, S. 2010. Literacy development as 'a marginalised pedagogical service enterprise' or as social practice in the disciplines? *Education as Change*, 14(1): 107-120.

Shange, T. G. 2015. Perceptions of Engineering students, lecturers and academic development practitioners about academic development classes at a university of technology. *Journal of Student Affairs in Africa*, 3(2): 33-44.

Shay, S. 2015. Curriculum reform in higher education: a contested space. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 20(4): 431-441.

Sheridan, V. 2011. A holistic approach to international students, institutional habitus and academic literacies in an Irish third level institution. *Higher Education*, 62(2): 129-140.

Simpson, Z. and Mckay, T. M. 2013. The space between: pedagogic collaboration between a writing centre and an academic department. *Perspectives in Education*, 31(4): 27-42.

Sönmez, S. 2018. 11 Steps Process as a research method. *Universal Journal of Educational Research*, 6(11): 2597-2603.

Sprague, J. 2018 Feminist epistemology, feminist methodology, and the study of gender. In: Risman B., Froyum C., Scarborough W. eds. *Handbooks of Sociology and Social Research.* New York: Springer Publishing. Available: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-76333-0_3 45-55 (Accessed 11 May 2019).

Stephens, M. 1998. *The rise of the image, the fall of the word*. Oxfordshire: Oxford University Press.

Sternglass, M. S. 2017. *Time to know them: a longitudinal study of writing and learning at the college level*. New York: Routledge.

Street, B. V. 2015. Academic writing: theory and practice. Journal of Educational Issues, 1(2): 110-116.

Street, B. 2003. What's new in New Literacy Studies? Critical approaches to literacy in theory and practice. *Current Issues in Comparative Education*, 5(2): 77-91.

Stroud, C. and Kerfoot, C. 2013. Towards rethinking multilingualism and language policy for academic literacies. *Linguistics and Education*, 24(4): 396-405.

Struwig, F. and Stead, G. 2013. *Research: planning, design and reporting*: Boston: Pearson Education Limited.

Strydom, K., Greyling, W. and Strydom, F. 2008. Racism at Free State-anticipating the future. *University World News: The global window on higher education*, (2): 1-5. Available: http://www.universityworldnews.com/article.php?story=20080320161530605 (Accessed 19 June 2019).

Tavakol, M. and Dennick, R. 2011. Making sense of Cronbach's alpha. *International Journal of Medical Education*, 7(2): 53-55.

Uher, J. 2019. Data generation methods across the empirical sciences: differences in the study phenomena's accessibility and the processes of data encoding. *Quality & Quantity*, 53(1): 221-246.

Ullah, A. and Ameen, K. 2018. Account of methodologies and methods applied in LIS research: a systematic review. *Library & Information Science Research*, 40(1): 53-60.

van Schalkwyk, S., Bitzer, E. and van der Walt, C. 2010. Acquiring academic literacy: a case of first-year extended degree programme students. *Southern African Linguistics and Applied Language Studies*, 27(2): 189-201.

Vaus, D. 2014. *Surveys in social research.* New York: Routledge.

Walker, S. and Patel, A. J. 2018. More than skills: what can approaches to digital literacies learn from academic literacies? *Journal of Learning and Teaching in Higher Education*, 1(1): 93-100.

Wargo, J. M. and De Costa, P. I. 2017. Tracing academic literacies across contemporary literacy sponsorscapes: mobilities, ideologies, identities, and technologies. *London Review of Education*, 15(1): 101-114.

White, S. and Lay, E. 2019. Built-in not bolted-on: embedding academic literacy skills in subject disciplines. *Creative Pedagogies Imprint*, 1(2): 33-38.

Wilmot, K. and McKenna, S. 2018. Writing groups as transformative spaces. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 37(4): 868-882.

Wilson-Strydom, M. 2012. Using the NBTs to inform institutional understandings of under-preparedness: implications for admissions criteria. *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 26(1): 136-151.

Winberg, C., Winberg, S., Jacobs, C., Garraway, J. and Engel-Hills, P. 2016. 'I take engineering with me': epistemological transitions across an Engineering curriculum. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 21(4): 398-414.

Wingate, U. 2018. Academic literacy across the curriculum: towards a collaborative instructional approach. *Language Teaching*, 51(3): 349-364.

Wingate, U. 2012. Using academic literacies and genre-based models for academic writing instruction: a 'literacy'journey. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 11(1): 26-37.

Wingate, U. and Tribble, C. 2012. The best of both worlds? Towards an English for academic purposes/academic literacies writing pedagogy. *Studies in Higher Education*, 37(4): 481-495.

Wong, P., Liamputtong, P., Koch, S. and Rawson, H. 2019. Searching for meaning: a grounded theory of family resilience in adult ICU. *Journal of Clinical Nursing*, 28(5-6): 781-791.

Zhou, J., Zhao, K. and Dawson, P. 2020. How first-year students perceive and experience assessment of academic literacies. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 45(2): 266-278.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Ethical clearance

Faculty Research Office
Durban University of Technology
5 May 2017

Ms N Mbatha
Student Number: 19352180
Degree: Masters: Administration and Information Management
Email : MbathaN@dut.ac.za

Dear Ms Mbatha

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT THE DUT:

Your email correspondence in respect of the above refers.

I am pleased to inform you that the Faculty Research Committee (FRC) at its meeting in December 2016, has granted full permission for you to conduct your research "*Embedding Academic Literacies in the Faculty of Accounting and Informatics: Opportunities, Practices and Challenges*"

We would be grateful if a summary of your key research findings can be submitted to the FRC on completion of your studies.

Kindest regards.
Yours sincerely

Dr Delene Heukelman
Faculty Research Coordinator (Acting)

Tel +27 31 373 5562/63
Fax +27 31 373 5598
Email: deleneh@dut.ac.za

APPENDIX 2: GATEKEEPER'S LETTER

Directorate for Research and Postgraduate Support
Durban University of Technology
Tromso Annexe, Steve Biko Campus
P.O. Box 1334, Durban 4000
Tel.: 031-3732576/7
Fax: 031-3732946
E-mail: moyos@dut.ac.za

18th May 2017

Ms Nomfundo Mbatha
c/o Department of Information and Corporate Management
Faculty of Accounting and Informatics
Durban University of Technology

Dear Ms Mbatha

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT THE DUT

Your email correspondence in respect of the above refers. I am pleased to inform you that the Institutional Research Committee (IRC) has granted permission for you to conduct your research "Embedding academic literacies in the Faculty of Accounting and Informatics: Practices, Challenges and Opportunities" at the Durban University of Technology.

The DUT may impose any other condition it deems appropriate in the circumstances having regard to nature and extent of access to and use of information requested.

We would be grateful if a summary of your key research findings can be submitted to the IRC on completion of your studies.

Kindest regards.
Yours sincerely

PROF SIBUSISO MOYO
DVC (ACTING): RESEARCH, INNOVATION AND ENGAGEMENT
DIRECTOR: RESEARCH AND POSTGRADUATE SUPPORT

APPENDIX 3: COVERING LETTER

APPENDIX C: Covering letter for the questionnaire for collecting data from **LECTURERS** on the provision of academic literacies for the enhancement of teaching and learning in the Faculty of Accounting and Informatics

Dept. of Info & Corporate Mngt
Block C – Ritson Campus
5 Ritson Road
DURBAN
4001

Dear Participant,

My name is Nomfundo Mbatha, a Masters student at the Durban University of Technology, Department of Information and Corporate Management. I cordially invite you to participate in my study whose aim is to examine the provision of of academic literacies for the enhancement of teaching and learning in the Faculty of Accounting and Informatics at the Durban University of Technology.

Academic literacies are described by Lea and Street, 2006, in the following ways **1. Reading, writing and grammar skills [Study Skills] (Lillis and Scott, 2003; Cohen and Riel 1989). 2. Familiarisation of students with the language used to learn in their discipline [Socialisation] (Boughey and McKenna, 2015; Boughey, 2013; Clarence, 2012; Mitchell, 2010). 3. A combination of study skills and socialisation and taking into consideration the different ways of making meaning in the various disciplines [Academic Literacies] (Jones *et al.*, 1999; Lea and Street, 1998).** Through your participation, I will obtain data to achieve the above stated aim and fulfil the requirements of a Masters of Management Sciences in Administration and Information Management.

Kindly note that participation in this study is voluntary and you can choose to withdraw from the study at any point with no consequences. In participating in this study there are no known risks or discomfort to you. You are not required to provide your name or any other personal information that may make you identifiable or traceable. This questionnaire will take approximately 10 minutes to complete.

If you have any queries please feel free to contact Ms Nomfundo Mbatha, Tel: 031-373 5770, 0813024435, my Supervisor Dr SP Moyane, Tel: 031-373 5660 my Co-Supervisor Mr N Nkomo Tel: 031-373 6779. Thanking you in anticipation of your cooperation and assistance.

Yours faithfully

_____

Ms N Mbatha
STUDENT

APPENDIX 4: CONSENT FORM

Appendix B

CONSENT

Statement of Agreement to Participate in the Research Study:

- I hereby confirm that I have been informed by the researcher, **Ms N Mbatha**, about the nature, conduct, benefits and risks of this study.
- I have also received, read and understood the above written information (Participant Letter of Information) regarding the study.
- I am aware that the results of the study, including personal details regarding my sex, age, date of birth, initials and diagnosis will be anonymously processed into a study report.
- In view of the requirements of research, I agree that the data collected during this study can be processed in a computerised system by the researcher.
- I may, at any stage, without prejudice, withdraw my consent and participation in the study.
- I have had sufficient opportunity to ask questions and (of my own free will) declare myself prepared to participate in the study.
- I understand that significant new findings developed during the course of this research which may relate to my participation will be made available to me.

_____	_____	_____	_____
Full Name of Participant	**Date**	**Time**	**Signature / Right Thumbprint**

I, **Ms N Mbatha** herewith confirm that the above participant has been fully informed about the nature, conduct and risks of the above study.

Nomfundo Mbatha	_____	_____
Full Name of Researcher	**Date**	**Signature**
_____	_____	_____
Full Name of Witness (If applicable)	**Date**	**Signature**
_____	_____	_____
Full Name of Legal Guardian (If applicable)	**Date**	**Signature**

APPENDIX 5: QUESTIONNAIRE

APPENDIX B: Questionnaire for collecting data from LECTURERS on the provision of academic literacies for the enhancement of teaching and learning in the Faculty of Accounting and Informatics at the Durban University of Technology.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR FILLING IN THE QUESTIONNAIRE

a) **Tick or cross the applicable answer/s.** ☑ ☒
b) **Use spaces provided to write your answer/s to the questions.**

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

1. Age		2. Race		3. Employment Status		4. Position		5. Language
- 25		African		Permanent		Junior Lecturer		.....
26-35		Coloured		Contract		Lecturer		
36-45		Indian				Senior Lecturer		
46-55		White				Associate Professor		
56-60		Other				Professor		
61-65								

6. Highest Qualification			7. Overall lecturing experience (both at DUT and other institutions of higher learning)		8. Industry experience in your discipline. (outside academia)		9. Which level do you lecture to? (Mark all applicable)		10. Department
3 year degree			Less than 2 years		Less than 5 years		First Year		.....
4 year Degree		BTech	3-5		6-10		Second Year		
Honours			6-10		11-15		Third Year		
Masters			11-15		16 -20		BTech		
PhD			16+		21+				

SECTION B: AWARENESS OF ACADEMIC LITERACIES

11. In literature academic literacies are generally depicted as shown in the two dominant views listed below. Please indicate which best captures what academic literacies are from your understanding. (Choose one)

1. Ways in which students make meaning of academic texts, contest these meanings and formulate arguments within the context of each discipline and they differ from one discipline to the other.	
2. The grammar skills, spelling skills, reading and writing skills that students need to learn in order to understand and produce academic texts. These skills are neutral and generic and once learnt the student can be able to apply them throughout the various disciplines.	

12. Which of the three methods/pedagogies/models of teaching academic literacies is presently used for the teaching of academic literacies at DUT? (choose one)		**13. Which of the three methods/pedagogies/models of teaching academic literacies would you prefer DUT to use for teaching? (choose one)**	
Study Skills Model (students are taught reading and writing and grammar by a support department and they apply those skills to the different subjects).		**Study Skills Model** (students are taught reading and writing and grammar by a support department and they apply those skills to the different subjects).	
3. Combination of 1 and 2			

Academic Socialisation Model (students are taught by being allowed to familiarise themselves with the language used to learn in their discipline)		**Academic Socialisation Model** (students are taught by being allowed to familiarise themselves with the language used to learn in their discipline).	
Academic Literacies Model (students are taught by way of combining the study skills model and the academic socialisation model and takes into consideration the different ways of making meaning in the various disciplines).		**Academic Literacies Model** (students are taught by way of combining the study skills model and the academic socialisation model and takes into consideration the different ways of making meaning in the various disciplines).	
Other (please specify) …… ……		Other (please specify) …… ……	
Please provide reasons for the method/pedagogy/model you selected above. …….. ……		Please provide reasons for the model/pedagogy/model you selected above. …… …… ……	

14. Are you aware of the institution's position on the teaching of academic literacies?

Yes	
No	

15. If your answer to question **14** is *YES*, please specify the position you are aware of.

_____

_____

16. If your answer to question **14** is *YES*, how did you come to know of the institution's position on academic literacies?

Departmental meeting	**Contractual obligation**	**DUT policies**	**Academic Orientation**	**Other**
				Specify…… ……

17. Are you aware of the curriculum development initiatives at DUT that address the teaching of academic literacies?

Yes	
No	

18. If the answer to question **17** is *YES*, please indicate the curriculum development initiatives that address the teaching of academic literacies at DUT. (Mark all applicable)

ECP/Foundation Programmes	
Writing Centre	
Library Information Literacy Programme	
Library User Education and Orientation	
First Year Student Experience (FYSE) Workshops	

Other, specify……	

19. In your opinion, should academic literacies be emphasised at curriculum development level?

Yes	
No	
Other, Specify……	

20. Please provide reasons for your answer to question **19.**

_____

_____

21. Are academic literacies emphasised at curriculum development level in your department?

Yes	
No	

22. Which of the generic initiatives/interventions identified below are employed for developing academic literacies by your department? (Mark all applicable)

ECP/Foundation Programmes	
Writing Centre	
Library Information Literacy Programme	
Library User Education and Orientation	
First Year Student Experience (FYSE) Workshops	
Other, specify……	

SECTION C: CURRENT PRACTICES IN THE PROVISION OF ACADEMIC LITERACIES

23. In your view, are the present methods of teaching academic literacies at DUT enhancing the quality of teaching and learning?

Yes	
No	

24. Please provide reasons for your answer to question **23.**

_____

_____

25. Are you able to identify the academic literacies needs of your students?

Yes	
No	

26. If the answer to question **25** is *YES*, which of the mechanisms listed below do you use to identify the academic literacies needs of students? (Mark all applicable)

[SATAP stands for Standardised Assessment Tests for Access and Placement]

DUT Language SATAP	
DUT Mathematics SATAP	
DUT Numeracy SATAP	
DUT Science SATAP	
At risk students	
Other, specify……..	

27. Do you see the teaching of academic literacies as your responsibility as a subject lecturer?

Yes	
No	

28. If your answer to question **27** is *NO,* who of the following in your view is best suited to teach/provide/deliver academic literacies to students?

The Subject Lecturer	Support Departments (i.e. The Writing Centre	Combination of lecturer and Support department	Other

Justify the choice you made above?

_____

_____

29. Are the academic literacies of students presently assessed in your department?

Yes	
No	

30. If your answer to question **29** is *NO*, do you think they should be assessed?

Yes	
No	

31. If your answer to question **30** is *NO*, justify your answer.

_____

_____

32. Would it enhance the quality of teaching and learning if the academic literacies of students were assessed?

Yes	
No	

33. In literature there are two schools commonly applied for the teaching of academic literacies. Choose one that you prefer.

Teaching academic literacies only to students with a weak academic background.	**Teaching academic literacies to all students regardless of their academic background.**

Please justify your answer to question **33.**

34. Please indicate the type of students that are taught academic literacies in your department.

Students with weak academic backgrounds.	**All students regardless of their academic background.**

35. On a scale of 1 to 5. **(1 being the lowest score and 5 being the highest score)** How would you rate the effectiveness of the current methods/pedagogy/models DUT uses to teach academic literacies?

	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Formulating an academic argument.					
Drawing conclusions/inferences from what is stated in texts.					
Understanding information presented visually in graphs, tables and flow charts.					
Understanding basic numerical information used in texts.					
Problem solving.					
Thinking strategically.					
Critical thinking.					
Reading and Writing skills.					

SECTION D: FACTORS HINDERING OR FAVOURING THE PROVISION OF ACADEMIC LITERACIES.

36. What factors do you consider necessary for the effective teaching of academic literacies? (Mark all that apply)

Skill/knowledge/methods to teach academic literacies	
Training	
Availability of tutors	
Time table slots	
Work/teaching loads	
Time constraints	
Curriculum development	
Budget availability	
Other, specify ……	

SECTION E: INSTITUTIONAL SUPPORT FOR THE PROVISION OF ACADEMIC LITERACIES.

37. Do you receive support from DUT to teach academic literacies?

Yes	
No	

38. If your answer to question 38 is *YES*, please specify the kind of support you receive from DUT.

39. If your answer to question 38 is *NO*, please specify the kind of support you would like to receive from DUT.

SECTION F: GENERAL COMMENTS

40. If you have any other comments relevant to the provision of academic literacies in enhancing the quality of teaching and learning at first year level please comment below.

APPENDIX D: Questionnaire for collecting data from STUDENTS on the provision of academic literacies for the enhancement of teaching and learning in the Faculty of Accounting and Informatics at the Durban University of Technology.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR FILLING IN THE QUESTIONNAIRE

a) **Tick or cross the applicable answer/s.** ☑ ☒
b) **Use spaces provided to write your answer/s to the questions.**

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

1. Age		2. Race		3. Home Language	4. Department	5. Level of Study
Under 17		African		.....	.....	1st Year
						2nd Year
17-20		Coloured				3rd Year
21-24		Indian				BTech
25-29		White				Masters
30 and above		Other				PhD

SECTION B: AWARENESS OF ACADEMIC LITERACIES

6. How would you best describe academic literacies from the three provided below. (Choose one)

1. Ways in which students read and write and make meaning of academic information, and formulate arguments about what the information means in their discipline (field of study).	
2. The grammar skills, spelling skills, reading and writing skills that students need to learn in order to understand and produce academic texts. These skills are neutral and generic and once learnt the student can be able to apply them throughout the various disciplines.	
3. Combination of 1 and 2	

10. Which of the three methods of teaching academic literacies is presently used by your lecturers for the teaching of academic literacies at DUT? (choose one)		**11. Which of the three methods of teaching academic literacies would you prefer your lecturers to use choose one)**	
Study Skills Model (students are taught reading and writing and grammar by a support department and they apply those skills to the different subjects).		**Study Skills Model** (students are taught reading and writing and grammar by a support department and they apply those skills to the different subjects).	
Academic Socialisation Model (students are taught by being allowed to familiarise themselves with the language used to learn in their discipline)		**Academic Socialisation Model** (students are taught by being allowed to familiarise themselves with the language used to learn in their discipline).	
Academic Literacies Model (students are taught by way of combining the study skills model and the academic socialisation model and takes into consideration the different ways of making meaning in the various disciplines).		**Academic Literacies Model** (students are taught by way of combining the study skills model and the academic socialisation model and takes into consideration the different ways of making meaning in the various disciplines).	
Other (please specify) …… ……		Other (please specify) …… ……	
		What do you like about the method of teaching academic literacies you chose above? …… ……	

7. Is the importance of understanding academic literacies emphasized during your lectures?

Yes	
No	

8. If your answer to question **7** is *YES*, please explain why it is important for you as a student to understand academic literacies.

_____

9. Indicate which of the following initiatives/interventions of learning academic literacies you have participated in at DUT. (Mark all applicable)

ECP/Foundation Programmes	
Writing Centre	
Library Information Literacy Programme	
Library User Education and Orientation	
First Year Student Experience Workshops (FYSE)	
Other, specify……	

SECTION C: CURRENT PRACTICES IN THE PROVISION OF ACADEMIC LITERACIES

12. In your view, are the present methods of teaching academic literacies at DUT helping you to learn academic literacies better?

Yes	
No	

13. Are you able to identify your own academic literacies needs?

Yes	
No	

14. Who of the following in your view is best suited to teach you academic literacies?

The Subject Lecturer	Support Departments (i.e. The Writing Centre	Combination of lecturer and Support department	Other

Justify the choice you made above?

_____

_____

15. Are you assessed on academic literacies during tests and/or examinations in your department?

Yes	
No	

16. If your answer to question **15** is *NO*, do you think academic literacies should be assessed?

Yes	
No	

17. Would it improve your learning if academic literacies were assessed?

Yes	
No	

18. In literature there are two ways commonly used for the teaching of academic literacies. Choose one that you prefer.

Teaching academic literacies only to students with a weak academic background.	**Teaching academic literacies to all students regardless of their academic background.**

Please justify your answer to question **18.**

_____

_____

19. Please indicate the type of students that are taught academic literacies in your department.

Students with weak academic backgrounds.	**All students regardless of their academic background.**

20. On a scale of 1 to 5. **(1 being the lowest score and 5 being the highest score)** How would you rate your knowledge of the following academic literacies?

	1	2	3	4	5
Formulating an academic argument.					
Drawing conclusions/inferences from what is stated in texts.					
Understanding information presented visually in graphs, tables and flow charts.					
Understanding basic numerical information used in texts.					
Problem solving.					
Thinking strategically.					
Critical thinking.					
Reading and Writing skills.					

SECTION D: FACTORS HINDERING OR FAVOURING THE PROVISION OF ACADEMIC LITERACIES

21. What factors do you consider necessary for you to effectively learn academic literacies? (Mark all that apply)

Availability of tutors	
Time table slots	
Online Tutorials	
Consultation times with lecturers	
Availability of study materials to practice the academic literacies being taught	
Detailed feedback from lecturers	
Other, specify ……	

SECTION E: INSTITUTIONAL SUPPORT FOR THE PROVISION OF ACADEMIC LITERACIES.

22. Do you receive support from your department to learn and improve your academic literacies?

Yes	
No	

23. If your answer to question **22** is *YES*, please specify the kind of support you receive from your department.

_____

24. If your answer to question **22** is *NO*, please specify the kind of support you would like to receive from your department.

_____
_____

SECTION F: GENERAL COMMENTS

25. If you have any other comments relevant to the provision of academic literacies in enhancing the quality of teaching and learning at first year level please comment below.

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____